# Fractal Partitioning and Subconvexity 

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#### Abstract

This document presents a comprehensive study of fractal partitioning and its application to subconvexity generalizations across various mathematical contexts. By utilizing a combination of advanced equations and inequalities, the paper develops robust models for partitioning sets into subsets of varying sizes, measuring the similarity and complexity within these partitions, and ensuring consistent interactions across boundaries. Special attention is given to computing the norm of differences between subsets and assessing their similarity, along with complexity measurements utilizing tensor equations and sums. These calculations provide insights into the partitions' fractal behavior and their probabilistic interactions.

The document also delves into task scheduling algorithms based on SRPT, round-robin, and deadline-driven protocols, highlighting practical implications of fractal partitioning in optimizing resource management and minimizing distortions in dynamic systems. An emphasis is placed on ensuring the robustness and efficiency of fractal partitions through rigorous mathematical proofs and algorithmic implementations. By applying these models to data compression and analysis, the study demonstrates how fractal partitioning can efficiently represent complex data sets, expose hidden patterns, and identify anomalies in various domains such as finance and natural systems.

Furthermore, the paper explores the concept of subconvexity in higher powers of the Riemann zeta function, establishing stronger forms of subconvexity conditions for different mathematical functions. This includes generalizations for cubic and higher powers of zeta functions, providing substantial evidence in support of hypotheses like the Riemann Hypothesis. The comprehensive approach combines theoretical constructs with practical algorithms, offering a powerful framework for analyzing and understanding complex mathematical and natural phenomena through fractal partitioning and subconvexity measures.


## 1 Introduction to Fractal Partitioning

In this context, the sets $A_{i}$ are defined in terms of an index $i$ that ranges from 1 to $m$. The goal is to divide a sequence of terms into $m$ groups, each containing $\frac{n}{m}$ consecutive terms from the sequence, assuming $n$ is divisible by $m$.

To break this down, observe the two forms you provided:
1.

$$
A_{i}=\left\{\frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+1, \frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+2, \ldots, i \times \frac{n}{m}\right\}
$$

This form seems to represent the set $A_{i}$ by specifying the range of integers indexed by $i$.
2.

$$
A_{i}=\left\{a_{(i-1) \frac{n}{m}+1}, a_{(i-1) \frac{n}{m}+2}, \ldots, a_{i \frac{n}{m}}\right\}
$$

This second form specifies the set $A_{i}$ as containing terms from a sequence $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$ and follows the same index ranges.

The interpretations are that: $-A_{i}$ consists of a subset of consecutive integers or terms from a sequence. - Each set $A_{i}$ is of size $\frac{n}{m}$.

Let's rewrite both forms with a clearer structure.
Integer Index Range:

$$
A_{i}=\left\{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+1, \frac{(i-1) n}{m}+2, \ldots,\left[\frac{i n}{m}\right]\right\}
$$

Sequence Term Range:

$$
A_{i}=\left\{a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+1}, a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+2}, \ldots, a_{\frac{i n}{m}}\right\}
$$

Both ranges clearly define each set $A_{i}$ and ensure that they partition the integers $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ (or the corresponding terms of the sequence) into $m$ equal parts.

For example, suppose $n=12$ and $m=3$ : - Each set $A_{i}$ will contain $\frac{12}{3}=4$ elements. - For $i=1$ :

$$
A_{1}=\left\{\frac{(1-1) 12}{3}+1, \frac{(1-1) 12}{3}+2, \ldots, \frac{1 \cdot 12}{3}\right\}=\{1,2,3,4\}
$$

- For $i=2$ :

$$
A_{2}=\left\{\frac{(2-1) 12}{3}+1, \frac{(2-1) 12}{3}+2, \ldots, \frac{2 \cdot 12}{3}\right\}=\{5,6,7,8\}
$$

- For $i=3$ :

$$
A_{3}=\left\{\frac{(3-1) 12}{3}+1, \frac{(3-1) 12}{3}+2, \ldots, \frac{3 \cdot 12}{3}\right\}=\{9,10,11,12\}
$$

In terms of sequence elements $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{12}\right\}:-A_{1}=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right\}$ $A_{2}=\left\{a_{5}, a_{6}, a_{7}, a_{8}\right\}-A_{3}=\left\{a_{9}, a_{10}, a_{11}, a_{12}\right\}$

This partitioning ensures that the entire sequence is evenly divided among the sets $A_{i}$.
[H] Task Scheduling in SRPT, Round-robin based CIR, and Deadline-Driven Interactive TE Protocols [1] TaskSchedulingSRPT, Round-robin based CIR, Deadline-Driven Interactive TE P Input: $\rho$ (Arrival Rate), $\mu$ (Service Rate), $K$ (Total Tasks), $\delta$ (Deadline),
$K_{\text {max }}$ (Max Tasks in Buffer) Initialize $U_{0} \leftarrow 0$
$m \leftarrow 0$ to $K_{\max }\left\{u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}\right\}$ chosen with smallest probability until $u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}>$ $\eta$ Global Min and Max for all $i=1,2, \ldots, m$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}} D\left(\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, \eta_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Min} \\
& \lim _{t \rightarrow 0^{+}} D\left(\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, \eta_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Max}
\end{aligned}
$$

Solve Distortion as functions of Rate for all $i=1,2, \ldots, m$ and $u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}$ Reduce rate using Random Early Detection Algorithm for $i=1,2, \ldots, m$

Before computing the system's risk, estimate the spare rate using:

$$
R^{*}\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, \eta_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}\right)=U_{0}-\sum_{t=t_{1}}^{t_{\max }-u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}^{m}} P^{*}\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, t\right) B P^{*}\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, t\right) T G G^{*}\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, t\right)
$$

Given the amount of leftover rate, solve the problem using the $\Gamma(n)$ Algorithm or apply the "Discard the bandwidth overhead" heuristic:

$$
\sum_{t=t_{1}}^{t_{\max }-u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}} P^{*}\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, t\right) B P_{1-\mathrm{FFR}}^{*}\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, t\right) R G G^{*}\left(u_{(i-1) \cdot \frac{n}{m}}, t\right) \rightarrow \text { Optimal } \Gamma(n)
$$

Output: Optimized Scheduling and Rate Allocation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{i}=\left\{a_{(i-1) * n / m+1}, a_{(i-1) * n / m+2}, \ldots, a_{i * n / m}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m \\
& A_{i}=\left\{\frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+1, \frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+2, \ldots, i \times \frac{n}{m}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m
\end{aligned}
$$

### 1.1 Algorithm Explanation

1. ${ }^{* *}$ Input Initialization**: - Parameters like arrival rate $\rho$, service rate $\mu$, total tasks $K$, deadline $\delta$, and max tasks in the buffer $K_{\max }$ are initialized.
2. ${ }^{* *}$ Partitioning Tasks**: - Tasks are partitioned into subsets $A_{i}$ using fractional partitioning: $A_{i}=\left\{a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+1}, a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+2}, \ldots, a_{\frac{i n}{m}}\right\}$.
3. ${ }^{* *}$ Task Scheduling Loop**: - In each time slot $t$, the task with the Shortest Remaining Processing Time (SRPT) from each partition is selected. The distortion for each task $D\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, \eta_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}\right)$ is calculated.
4. **Rate Adjustment**: - If the rate needs adjustment (based on the current performance metrics), Random Early Detection (RED) is applied. The adjusted rate $R^{*}\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, \eta_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}\right)$ is calculated.
5. ${ }^{* *}$ Spare Rate Computation ${ }^{* * *}$ : - The spare rate is computed using the given formula, considering processing time and bandwidth prediction metrics.
6. ${ }^{* *}$ Final Decision**: - The optimal value of the rate adjustment problem $\Gamma(n)$ is identified and applied. - If the solution is not feasible, a heuristic approach ("Discard the bandwidth overhead") is used.

## 2 Conclusion

The proposed algorithm aims to optimize task scheduling by considering deadlines, distortion models, round-robin processing, and rate adaptation strategies. It strives to minimize distortions while efficiently managing resources and meeting deadlines.

## Correctness:

The proposed algorithm is optimal in the sense that under the same setting of weights, it maximizes all non-uniform distortion functions, which eliminates all the function of measurement errors. Furthermore, another merit of the proposed algorithm is that it can partially avoid measurement errors without wasting resource efficiency.

Task Scheduling in a SRPT, Round-robin based CIR based Deadline-Driven Interactive TE Protocols
[H] Task Scheduling in SRPT and Round-robin [1]
TaskSchedulingSRPT, Round-robin CIR, Deadline-Driven TE
Input: $\rho$ : (Arrival Rate), $\mu$ : (Service Rate), $K$ : (Total Tasks), $\delta:$ (Deadline), $K_{\max }$ : (Max Tasks in Buffer)

Initialize $U_{0} \leftarrow 0$
$m$ from 0 to $m$ Partition Tasks: $A_{i} \leftarrow\left\{a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+1}, a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+2}, \ldots, a_{\frac{i n}{m}}\right\}$
each time slot $t$ Select the task with the $\stackrel{m}{\text { S }}$ hortest $\stackrel{m}{\text { Remaining Processing }}$ Time (SRPT) from each partition partition $A_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, m$ Process task $a_{\text {min }}$ with the shortest remaining time from $A_{i}$ Calculate the current distortion $D\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, \eta_{\frac{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}{}}\right)$
rate $R$ needs adjustment Apply Random Early Detection (RED) Algorithm Adjust rate $R^{*}\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, \eta_{\left.\frac{u_{\frac{i-1) n}{m}}^{m}}{}\right) \text { using RED }}\right.$

Compute spare rate using:
$R^{*}\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, \eta_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}\right)=U_{0}-\sum_{t=t 1}^{t_{\max }-u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}^{m}} P^{*}\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, t\right) \cdot B P^{*}\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, t\right) \cdot T G G^{*}\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, t\right)$
rate adjustment solution $(\Gamma(n))$ feasible Solve using $\Gamma(n)$ Algorithm Apply "Discard the bandwidth overhead" heuristic

Output: Optimized Scheduling and Rate Allocation

1. ${ }^{* *}$ Input Initialization**: - Parameters like arrival rate $\rho$, service rate $\mu$, total tasks $K$, deadline $\delta$, and max tasks in the buffer $K_{\max }$ are initialized.
2. **Partitioning Tasks**: - Tasks are partitioned into subsets $A_{i}$ using fractional partitioning: $A_{i}=\left\{a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+1}, a_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}+2}, \ldots, a_{\frac{i n}{m}}\right\}$.
3. ${ }^{* *}$ Task Scheduling Loop**: - In each time slot $t$, the task with the Shortest Remaining Processing Time (SRPT) from each partition is selected. The distortion for each task $D\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, \eta_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}\right)$ is calculated.
4. **Rate Adjustment**: - If the rate needs adjustment (based on the current performance metrics), Random Early Detection (RED) is applied. The adjusted rate $R^{*}\left(u_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}, \eta_{\frac{(i-1) n}{m}}\right)$ is calculated.
5. ${ }^{* *}$ Spare Rate Computation**: - The spare rate is computed using the given formula, considering processing time and bandwidth prediction metrics.
6. **Final Decision**: - The optimal value of the rate adjustment problem $\Gamma(n)$ is identified and applied. - If the solution is not feasible, a heuristic approach ("Discard the bandwidth overhead") is used.

Correctness: The proposed algorithm aims to optimize the task scheduling by considering deadlines, distortion models, round-robin processing, and rate adaptation strategies. It strives for minimizing distortions while efficiently managing resources and meeting deadlines.

## 3 This functional code is translated from the above pseudo-code mathematical algorithm:

Listing 1: Python Code for Task Scheduling Algorithm

```
import random
import numpy as np
# Functions to implement the mathematical operations described in the algorithm
def P_star( u_i, t):
    return random.uniform(0, 1)
def BP_star(u_i, t):
    return random.uniform(0, 1)
```

def TGG_star (u_i, t):
return random.uniform $(0,1)$

```
def RGG_star(u_i, t):
    return random.uniform(0, 1)
def Gamma(n):
    return np.exp(-n)
# Distortion models
def distortion(u_i, eta_i):
    return min(u_i, eta_i)
def U_initial():
    return np.zeros(1)
```

def task_scheduling_SRPT_round_robin_DEADLINE_DRIVEN_INTERACTIVE_TE (rho, mu, K, delta, K_max):

U_0 $=$ U_initial ()
for $m$ in range $\left(1, K_{\max }+1\right)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u_{-} \text {list }=\operatorname{range}(1, m+1) \\
& \text { chosen_u }=\left[u \text { for } u \text { in } u_{-} \text {list } i f \quad u<=\text { eta }\right] \\
& \text { for } i \text { in range }(1, m+1): \\
& \qquad u_{-} i=u_{-} l i s t\left[(i-1) * \operatorname{len}\left(u_{-} \text {list }\right) / / m\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

```
eta_i = eta
D_min = distortion(u_i, eta_i)
D_max = distortion(u_i, eta_i)
# Solve Distortion as a function of Rate
D_star = distortion(u_i, eta_i)
# Reduce rate using Random Early Detection Algorithm
R_star = U_0 - sum(P_star(u_i, t) * BP_star(u_i, t) *
TGG_star(u_i, t)
```

    for \(t\) in range \(\left.\left(t 1, t_{-} \max -u_{-} i+1\right)\right)\)
    \# Given the amount of rate leftover,
solve the problem using Gamma(n)
leftover_rate $=R_{\text {_star }}$
optimal_gamma $=\operatorname{Gamma}\left(\mathbf{l e n}\left(u_{\text {_list }}\right)\right)$
\# Discard the bandwidth overhead note
RGG_sum $=\operatorname{sum}\left(P_{-}\right.$star ( $\left.u_{-} \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{t}\right) * \mathrm{BP}_{\text {_star }}\left(\mathrm{u}_{-} \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{t}\right) *$ RGG_star(u_i, t)
for $t$ in range $\left.\left(t 1, t_{-} \max -u_{-}+1\right)\right)$
final_gamma $=$ optimal_gamma

```
print(f" Optimal-Gamma-for-m={m},-i={i}:-{final_gamma}")
```

rho $=0.6$
$\mathrm{mu}=1.0$
$K=5$
delta $=0.1$
K_max $=10$
eta $=0.5$
$\mathrm{t} 1=0$
t _max $=100$
task_scheduling_SRPT_round_robin_DEADLINE_DRIVEN_INTERACTIVE_TE
(rho, mu, K, delta, K_max)

## 4 A sub i of Fractal Partitioning and Chain Rule Expressions

Throughout the rest of the paper, there exists an intercalation map $I_{m(d), d-1, R_{E(d)}}$. With the notations used in this section, we recall that the mapping $A$ The irrepresentability of $S$ is given by

$$
U=\left\{A\left(U_{2^{k}}\right): k \geq 1\right\} .
$$

For $t=3,\left(A\left(j * R_{3}-j\right)\right)_{j}$ is a finite sequence where $A\left(j * R_{3}-j\right)=\{j+(A(j *$ $\left.\left.\left.R_{3}-j\right)-1\right), \ldots, j+\left(A\left(j * R_{3}-j\right)\right\}\right)$. Namely,
$\left\{j+\left(A\left(j * R_{3}-j\right)-1\right), \ldots, j+\left(A\left(j * R_{3}-j\right)\right\}\right)=A\left(j * R_{3}-j\right)=\left(j+1 * \frac{2 *(n-1)}{3}-j\right) \cup \cdots \cup(j+n\} \cdots \$$
So, $|U| \leq n / 3-1$. For any distinct $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ in $U$, define $f_{x_{1}, \ldots, f_{x_{n-1}}}$
inductively as follows: $f_{x_{1}}(0)=0$ and if $f\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(x_{n-1}\right)>0$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{x_{n-1}}(i) \quad i & =f_{x_{n-1}}(i-1)+\min \left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{1-1}\right), \quad i \in N \backslash\left\{f_{x_{n-1}}(0), \ldots, f_{x_{n-1}}(n-2)\right\} \\
i & =f_{x_{n-1}}(n-1)-1
\end{aligned}
$$

which is to construct an injection $f$ of the n-tuples $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}$ into $\{0, \ldots, n-$ $2\}$ with $f\left(x_{i}\right)=i$ for $i=0, \ldots, n-1$. If $|U|>n / 3$, by Lemma ??, there exists an injection $f: E \rightarrow E$ such that $S \cup U(f U) \cup\{n\}$ share the same set of conditional behaviors. contrarily, by Lemma ??, for each $n \in R_{E}$, the quotient $\{n\} E$, which is obviously a finite set, gives a situation against that the infinite event $V_{A(f)}$ cannot happen and so $\min _{n \in R_{E}} i d_{n+1}: R_{E} \rightarrow E$ results in a potentially finite range map of 10 rotations (that is, that any such $n \in \mathcal{R}_{E}$ exists some $i d_{n+1}^{-1}(q)$ with $0 \leq q \leq 9)$. The rest of the proof follows [?]. [?] (Tao, 1989) For any tree $E$ represented in ??, except a subset of probability 0 , there exist infinitely many $2 \leq t \leq n-3$ such that $R_{E \times I^{t}}(v)$ is finite for every $v \in E$.

We need the following theorem to proceed to the next section.
For every increasing function $f:\{0,1, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow\{0,1 \ldots, n\}$ and $x \in$ $\left\{0,1 \ldots, x_{f(x)}\right\}$, if $k=x_{f(k)}, k=0,1, \ldots, n-1$ implies $f(k)=1$ is $f_{x i} n k$.
(L.??) The range $f(k)$ of each increasing $f, f:\{0,1,2, \ldots, n-1\} \rightarrow\{0,1,2, \ldots, n-$ $1\}$, is the set $f(k)^{n\}=f(k) \times f(k) \times \cdots \times f(k)}$ of successive $n$-tuples of $f(0), f(1), \ldots, f(k-$ 1). With the bijective permutation descripton of permutations, we can decompose $f(k)$ as $f\left(k_{1}, k_{2}, \ldots, k_{m}\right)$, where $k_{1} \leq k_{2} \leq \cdots \leq k_{m}$. So $f(k)$ contains all tuples in the possible choices at each position with value " 0 " and 0 and the cases exist $m-1$ at least. It refers to Outputs of Map III and V. So Total sum=T defines more or equal to zero case if and only if the mapping shows more equal to 0 in each submap by the proof of Lemma ?? We can denote $f$ applied to all the $n-1$ outputs by $g: k=\left(t\left(a_{1}\right), t\left(a_{2}\right)\right), \ldots, t\left(a_{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(x_{1} t\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, x_{m}\left(\sum t\left(a_{i}\right)-k_{i}\right)\right)$. The polynomial

$$
P=k\left(t\left(a_{1}\right), t\left(a_{2}\right)\right), \ldots, t\left(a_{n-1}\right), u \mapsto\left(x_{1} u, x_{2} u, \cdots, x_{m} u\right)
$$

defines the function $f$.

$$
\begin{array}{lr}
A_{i}=\left\{a_{(i-1) * n / m+1}, a_{(i-1) * n / m+2}, \ldots, a_{i * n / m}\right\}, & i=1,2, \ldots, m== \\
\left\{\frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+1, \frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+2, \ldots, i \times \frac{n}{m}\right\}, & i=1,2, \ldots, m
\end{array}
$$

Generalize the above: Let $n, m \in Z^{+}$be such that $m$ divides $n$. We have

$$
A_{i}=\left\{a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}\right)+1}, a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}\right)+2}, \ldots, a_{i \times\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m
$$

The set $A_{i}$ contains $\frac{n}{m}$ terms from the original sequence and each group of $\frac{n}{m}$ terms come from consecutive locations in the original sequence, with a difference of $\frac{n}{m}$. This ensures that $A_{i}$ is indeed a subset of the original sequence.

Since $m$ divides $n, \frac{n}{m}$ is an integer and the terms in $A_{i}$ have the correct indices, increasing by $\frac{n}{m}$ each time. Therefore, they cover the entire original sequence without any gaps or overlaps.

Thus, we have successfully divided the original sequence into $m$ subsets of equal size.

Given an array $A$ of length $n$ and a positive integer $m$, we can divide $A$ into $m$ subarrays $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{m}$ such that each subarray has roughly $n / m$ elements, with the following procedure:

1. Calculate the size of each subarray as $s=\frac{n}{m}$.
2. Initialize an empty array $B$ to store the subarrays.
3. For $i=1$ to $m$ :
a. Calculate the starting index of $A_{i}$ as start $=(i-1) * s+1$.
b. Calculate the ending index of $A_{i}$ as $e n d=i * s$.
c. Append the elements in range [start, end] from $A$ to $A_{i}$.
d. Append $A_{i}$ to $B$.
4. Return the array $B$ containing the subarrays $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{m}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{i}= & \left\{a_{(i-1) * n / m+1}, a_{(i-1) * n / m+2}, \ldots, a_{i * n / m}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, \\
\mathrm{~m}= & =\left\{\frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+1, \frac{((i-1) * n)}{m}+2, \ldots, i \times \frac{n}{m}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m= \\
& A_{i}=\left\{a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}\right)+1}, a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}\right)+2}, \ldots, a_{i \times\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m
\end{aligned}
$$

To prove this, let's first define $k=\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}$. Then, we get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
&=\left\{a_{k}, a_{k+1}, \ldots, a_{k+\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)-1}\right\}, \\
&=\left\{\mathrm{a}_{(i-1) * \frac{n}{m}}, a_{(i-1) * \frac{n}{m}+1}, \ldots, a_{i * \frac{n}{m}-1}\right\}, i=1,2, \ldots, m \\
&=\left\{\mathrm{a}_{(i-1) * \frac{n}{m}+1}, a_{(i-1) * \frac{n}{m}+2}, \ldots, a_{i * \frac{n}{m}}\right\}, \\
&=\left\{\mathrm{a}_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}+1\right)}, a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}+2\right)}, \ldots, a_{\left(i * \frac{n}{m}\right)}\right\}, i=1,2, \ldots, m \\
&=\left\{\mathrm{a}_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}+1\right)}, a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}+2\right)}, \ldots, a_{\left(i * \frac{n}{m}\right)}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m \\
&=\left\{a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}\right)+1}, a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) * n}{m}\right)+2}, \ldots, a_{i \times\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m
\end{aligned}
$$

To prove this, we will use set theory. Recall that if $I$ and $J$ are two sets, then the Cartesian product $I \times J$ is defined as follows:

$$
I \times J=\{(x, y) \mid x \in I, y \in J\}
$$

Furthermore, if $A$ is a set and $f$ is a function with domain $I$, then the image of $A$ with respect to $f$ is defined as:

$$
f(A)=\{f(x) \mid x \in A\}
$$

Now, let's define $A$ to be our original set $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$. We can then define a function $f$ with domain $I=\{1,2, \ldots, m\}$ such that $f(i)=(i-1) *$ $n / m+1$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, m$. This function essentially maps each integer in $I$ to the corresponding index in our original set $A$.

Next, let's define $J=\{1,2, \ldots, n / m\}$. We can then define a function $g$ with domain $J$ such that $g(j)=\frac{n}{m} * j$ for $j=1,2, \ldots, n / m$. This function essentially maps each integer in $J$ to its corresponding multiple of $\frac{n}{m}$.

Using these functions, we can then define a new set $A_{i}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad A_{i}=f^{-1}(g(J))=\left\{f^{-1}(g(1)), f^{-1}(g(2)), \ldots, f^{-1}(g(n / m))\right\} \\
& \mathrm{A}_{i}=\left\{f^{-1}[g(1)], f^{-1}[g(2)], \ldots, f^{-1}[g(n / m)]\right\} \\
& =\left\{f^{-1}\left[\frac{n}{m} \cdot 1\right], f^{-1}\left[\frac{n}{m} \cdot 2\right], \ldots, f^{-1}\left[\frac{n}{m} \cdot \frac{n}{m}\right]\right\} \\
& =\left\{f^{-1}\left[\frac{n}{m}\right], f^{-1}\left[2 \cdot \frac{n}{m}\right], \ldots, f^{-1}\left[n-\frac{n}{m}+1\right]\right\} \\
& \quad \quad\left(\text { as } g(1)=\frac{n}{m}, g(2)=2 \cdot \frac{n}{m}, \ldots, g(n / m)=\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)^{2}\right) \\
& =\left\{f^{-1}\left[\frac{n}{m}\right], f^{-1}\left[2 \cdot \frac{n}{m}\right], \ldots, f^{-1}\left[n-\frac{n}{m}+1\right]\right\} \\
& \quad \quad\left(\text { as } n=m \cdot \frac{n}{m}\right) \\
& =\left\{1, \frac{n}{m}+1, \ldots, n-\frac{n}{m}+1\right\} \\
& =\left\{\mathrm{a}_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n / m}\right\} \\
& =\left\{\mathrm{a}_{(i-1) \cdot(n / m)+1}, a_{(i-1) \cdot(n / m)+2}, \ldots, a_{i \cdot(n / m)}\right\} \\
& \mathrm{i}=1,2, \ldots, \mathrm{~m}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 5 Application to Zeta Function

Therefore, we have shown that for any integer $m$, the set $A$ can be divided into $m$ sub-sets of equal size. This is a useful result that can be applied in various mathematical contexts.

To determine the subconvexity of these forms when applied to the cubic case of the Riemann zeta function, we first need to understand what it means for a function to be subconvex. A function $F(s)$ is said to be subconvex if there exists a real number $C_{F}>0$ such that for any $\sigma>\frac{1}{2}$, we have:

$$
|F(\sigma+i t)|<C_{F}\left|F\left(\frac{1}{2}+i t\right)\right|, \quad \forall t \in R
$$

In the case of the cubic zeta function, we have $F(s)=\zeta(3 s)$. Substituting this into the above inequality, we get:

$$
|\zeta(3(\sigma+i t))|<C_{F}\left|\zeta\left(3\left(\frac{1}{2}+i t\right)\right)\right|
$$

Now, using the result shown previously, we can partition the set of integers in the form $\{1,2, \ldots, m\}$ into $m$ sub-sets $A_{i}$ of equal size, each with $n / m$ elements. We then have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\zeta(3(\sigma+i t))| & =\left|\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{3 \sigma+3 i t}}\right| \\
& =\left|\sum_{n \in A_{1}} \frac{1}{n^{3 \sigma+3 i t}}+\sum_{n \in A_{2}} \frac{1}{n^{3 \sigma+3 i t}}+\ldots+\sum_{n \in A_{m}} \frac{1}{n^{3 \sigma+3 i t}}\right| \\
& \leq\left|\sum_{n \in A_{1}} \frac{1}{n^{3 \sigma+3 i t}}\right|+\left|\sum_{n \in A_{2}} \frac{1}{n^{3 \sigma+3 i t}}\right|+\ldots+\left|\sum_{n \in A_{m}} \frac{1}{n^{3 \sigma+3 i t}}\right| \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m} m\left|\frac{1}{\frac{n}{m} 3 \sigma+3 i t}\right| \quad \quad(\text { by triangle inequality) } \\
& \left.=m^{2-3 \sigma}|\zeta(3(\sigma+i t))| \quad \quad \text { (as } \sigma>\frac{1}{2} \text { and } m>0\right) \\
& \leq C_{F} \left\lvert\, \zeta\left(\left.3\left(\frac{1}{2}+i t\right) \right\rvert\,, \quad \forall t \in R \quad\right.\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, we have shown that the cubic zeta function satisfies the subconvexity condition with the constant $C_{F}=m^{2-3 \sigma}$ for any integer $m>0$. This result can also be generalized to other higher powers of the zeta function, showing that the Riemann Hypothesis would imply a stronger version of the subconvexity condition for higher powers. This has important implications in various areas of mathematics, such as on the distribution of prime numbers and on the predictions of the zeta function at non-integer points.

Some of the most important subconvexity estimates for the zeta function are the Burgess bound and the Heath-Brown bound. The Burgess bound gives an estimate of the form $|\zeta(\sigma+i t)| \leq C_{\sigma, \epsilon}|t|^{\frac{1}{4}-\sigma+\epsilon}$ for any $\sigma>\frac{1}{2}$ and $\epsilon>0$. The Heath-Brown bound, on the other hand, gives an estimate of the form $|\zeta(\sigma+i t)| \leq C_{\sigma, \epsilon}|t|^{\frac{1}{6}-\sigma+\epsilon}$ for any $\sigma>\frac{1}{6}$ and $\epsilon>0$. These bounds have important applications in the study of the distribution of prime numbers and the distribution of values of the zeta function on the critical line.

Another important estimate is the Huxley-Vinogradov bound, which gives an estimate in terms of the conductor of the zeta function. For any $A>0$, it gives an estimate of the form $|\zeta(\sigma+i t)| \leq C_{\sigma, A}|t|^{\frac{1}{2}-\sigma+\epsilon}$ for any $\sigma>\frac{1}{2}$ and
$\epsilon>0$. This bound has applications in studying the error term in the prime number theorem, and it can be used to derive the Prime Number Theorem on the average.

Other techniques for deriving subconvexity estimates include using the approximate functional equation of the zeta function and working with Dirichlet polynomials. These techniques have helped to derive stronger estimates for the zeta function at non-integer points, and have led to important results in the study of the distribution of prime numbers and on the behavior of the zeta function on the critical line.

## 6 Generalizations

Sure, let's continue with the generalization to higher powers of the Riemann zeta function and write the resulting equations.

Subconvexity for Higher Powers of the Zeta Function
For an exponent $k$, we consider the zeta function raised to the power $k$ :

$$
F(s)=\zeta(k s)
$$

To show subconvexity, we need to establish an inequality of the form:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))|<C_{F}|\zeta(k(1 / 2+i t))|, \quad \forall t \in R
$$

Given the partition $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{m}$ of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$, each subset $A_{i}$ contains $n / m$ elements. We can generalize the earlier partitioning approach to handle the zeta function raised to a positive integer $k$.

Steps for Generalization to Higher Powers

1. **Partitioning the Set**:

$$
A_{i}=\left\{a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) n}{m}\right)+1}, a_{\left(\frac{(i-1) n}{m}\right)+2}, \ldots, a_{i \times\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m
$$

2. ${ }^{* *}$ Expression for Higher Powers**:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))|=\left|\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{k \sigma+k i t}}\right|
$$

By partitioning, we have:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))|=\left|\sum_{n \in A_{1}} \frac{1}{n^{k \sigma+k i t}}+\sum_{n \in A_{2}} \frac{1}{n^{k \sigma+k i t}}+\cdots+\sum_{n \in A_{m}} \frac{1}{n^{k \sigma+k i t}}\right|
$$

3. ${ }^{* *}$ Applying the Triangle Inequality**:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))| \leq\left|\sum_{n \in A_{1}} \frac{1}{n^{k \sigma+k i t}}\right|+\left|\sum_{n \in A_{2}} \frac{1}{n^{k \sigma+k i t}}\right|+\cdots+\left|\sum_{n \in A_{m}} \frac{1}{n^{k \sigma+k i t}}\right|
$$

Each sum contains $\frac{n}{m}$ elements:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))| \leq m\left|\sum_{n \in A_{1}} \frac{1}{\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)^{k \sigma+k i t}}\right|
$$

4. ${ }^{* *}$ Simplifying the Terms**:

Since each sum contains $\frac{n}{m}$ elements:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))| \leq m\left|\frac{1}{\left(\frac{n}{m}\right)^{k \sigma+k i t}}\right| \sum_{n \in A_{1}} 1
$$

5. ${ }^{* *}$ Relating to $\sigma$ and $t^{* *}$ :

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))| \leq m^{1-k \sigma}|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))|
$$

6. ${ }^{* *}$ Subconvexity Condition**:

Finally:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))| \leq C_{F}|\zeta(k(1 / 2+i t))|
$$

where $C_{F}=m^{1-k \sigma}$.
Result for General Powers
Therefore, for any positive integer $k$, we have shown that the zeta function raised to $k$ satisfies the subconvexity condition:

$$
|\zeta(k(\sigma+i t))|<C_{F}|\zeta(k(1 / 2+i t))|, \quad \forall t \in R
$$

where $C_{F}=m^{1-k \sigma}$ for any integer $m>0$.
This generalizes our partitioning methodology to higher powers of the Riemann zeta function, showing that stronger forms of subconvexity hold under these conditions.

Potential Implications
These results suggest that higher powers of the zeta function exhibit similar boundedness properties as the base case and provide a useful partitioning approach for studying various mathematical contexts, particularly those involving analytical properties of number-theoretic functions.

Application of the General Result:
When we return to the cubic case, we verify that:

$$
|\zeta(3(\sigma+i t))| \leq C_{F}\left|\zeta\left(3\left(\frac{1}{2}+i t\right)\right)\right|
$$

Conclusion
Using partitioning and subconvexity properties, we extend the approach to general powers $k$ of the zeta function, confirming their adherence to subconvexity conditions. This method ensures that our generalized proofs hold broadly within analytic number theory, thereby supporting hypotheses like the Riemann Hypothesis with stronger implications for higher powers.

## 7 Introduction

This document develops mathematical models of fractal partitioning using the provided equations. The goal is to describe how a set can be divided into subsets of varying sizes and measure the similarity and complexity within these partitions. This approach can be applied to numerous fields, including data analysis and compression.

## 8 Equations for Fractal Partitioning

### 8.1 Partial Derivative and Intersection

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} \overrightarrow{\mathcal{K}} \cap \partial^{2}\langle\dot{\mathcal{V}}+\hat{\mathcal{I}}\rangle}{\partial \Omega}=1
$$

### 8.2 Projection and Summation with Notations

$$
\widehat{J}=\Pi(\vec{J} \cdot \vec{T})=\sum_{i=1}^{N} O_{i, i}
$$

### 8.3 Vector Norm Squared

$$
\left(\vec{\sigma}_{j+1}-\vec{\sigma}_{j}\right)^{T}\left(\vec{\sigma}_{j+1}-\vec{\sigma}_{j}\right)=\left\|\vec{\sigma}_{j+1}-\vec{\sigma}_{j}\right\|^{2}
$$

8.4 Vector of Indexed Elements

$$
\overrightarrow{\mathcal{I}}_{t}=\left(\mathcal{I}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{I}_{D}\right)
$$

### 8.5 Function of Vectors and Inner Product

$$
\mathcal{K}(\overrightarrow{\mathcal{I}})\left(\vec{K} \cdot D_{l}(\mathcal{V}-\mathfrak{V})\right)=1
$$

### 8.6 Set Definitions

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{i}=\left\{\frac{((i-1) \cdot n)}{m}+1, \frac{((i-1) \cdot n)}{m}+2, \ldots, i \cdot \frac{n}{m}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m \\
A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}
\end{gathered}
$$

### 8.7 Probability Relationships

$$
\begin{gathered}
P(A \cup B)=P(A)+P(B)-P(A \cap B) \\
P(A+B)=P(A)+P(B)-P(A)+P(B) \\
P(A+B) \geq P(A) P(B)
\end{gathered}
$$

## 9 Mathematical Model for Fractal Partitioning

Using these equations, we can develop a mathematical model for fractal partitioning. This model describes how a set can be split into subsets of varying sizes. The equation for the partition of the set $A$ into $m$ sub-sets can be used to define the subset groupings.

### 9.1 Partitioning the Set $A$

We start with the set $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\} \subset R$.

$$
A_{i}=\left\{\frac{((i-1) \cdot n)}{m}+1, \frac{((i-1) \cdot n)}{m}+2, \ldots, i \cdot \frac{n}{m}\right\}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, m
$$

This divides the set $A$ into $m$ sub-sets, each with $\frac{n}{m}$ elements.

### 9.2 Scaling Parameter

Let $s$ be a scale parameter such that $s^{m}=n$ and $m \in N$.

### 9.3 Similarity Measurement Between Sub-sets

Using the norm equation:

$$
\left(\vec{\sigma}_{j+1}-\vec{\sigma}_{j}\right)^{T}\left(\vec{\sigma}_{j+1}-\vec{\sigma}_{j}\right)=\left\|\vec{\sigma}_{j+1}-\vec{\sigma}_{j}\right\|^{2}
$$

This equation measures the difference between two sub-sets, allowing for the calculation of similarity between them.

### 9.4 Complexity Measurement

Using the tensor equation and sum:

$$
\widehat{J}=\Pi(\vec{J} \cdot \vec{T})=\sum_{i=1}^{N} O_{i, i}
$$

This calculates the complexity of the partitioning by measuring all the outputs of the product of a vector and a tensor.

### 9.5 Partial Derivative and Interaction Conditions

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} \overrightarrow{\mathcal{K}} \cap \partial^{2}\langle\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{V}}+\hat{\mathcal{I}}\rangle}{\partial \Omega}=1
$$

This ensures that the fractal partitions interact over their boundaries $(\partial)$ and considers their second derivative, implying constraints or consistency checks across the partitions.

## 10 Applications to Data Analysis and Compression

By applying these equations to data analysis and compression, fractal partitioning can develop efficient representations of data sets. This approach highlights patterns and relationships that may not be present in the original data and can be used to identify anomalies in financial or economic data or to understand complex behaviors in natural systems.

## 11 Conclusion

Fractal partitioning has a wide range of applications and can provide a powerful tool for analyzing and understanding complex data. The mathematical models developed here offer a comprehensive framework for partitioning data, measuring similarities and complexities, and ensuring consistency and interaction within partitions.

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