π AND $rac{22}{7}$ with IT'S COUSINS AND ORIGIN

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Abstract

Here at first I have presented a simple problem related to π and then I have presented one generalised version of this, and at last presented some ideas and some interesting series related to π

1 A simple proof related to pi:

The first published statement of this result was in 1971 by Dalzell. It was also presented as a problem in 1968 *Putnam Competition* and later it also came in *JEE-Adv*. The problem was to compute the integral,

$$\int_0^1 \frac{x^4 (1-x)^4}{1+x^2} \, dx$$

I encourage readers to try it at first. *Sol:*

$$\begin{split} \int_0^1 \frac{x^4 (1-x)^4}{1+x^2} \, dx &= \int_0^1 \left(x^6 - 4x^5 + 5x^4 - 4x^2 + 4 - \frac{4}{1+x^2} \right) \, dx \\ &= \left[\frac{x^7}{7} - \frac{2x^6}{3} + x^5 - \frac{4x^3}{3} + 4x \right]_0^1 - 4 \left[\tan^{-1}(x) \right]_0^1 \\ &= \left[\frac{x^7}{7} - \frac{2x^6}{3} + x^5 - \frac{4x^3}{3} + 4x \right]_0^1 - \pi \\ &= \frac{1}{7} - \frac{2}{3} + 1 - \frac{4}{3} + 4 - \pi \\ &= \frac{22}{7} - \pi \end{split}$$

Now observe one thing,

$$\frac{x^4(1-x)^4}{1+x^2} > 0 \implies \int_0^1 \frac{x^4(1-x)^4}{1+x^2} \, dx > 0 \text{ as } 1 > 0$$

Hence,

$$\frac{22}{7} > \pi$$



Figure 1: Graph of the integrand for various $\boldsymbol{m},\boldsymbol{n}$

2 Want more generalised version?

N. Backhouse in [Bac95] presented a more generalised version of this integral.

$$I_{m,n} = \int_0^1 \frac{x^m (1-x)^n}{1+x^2} dx = a + b\pi + c \log(2)$$

where a, b, c are rationals that depend on $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and a and b have opposite sign. Backhouse also showed that if $2m - n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ then c = 0 and a variety of approximation to π are obtained. An integral equal to $a + b\pi$ leads to a rational approximation of π as $|\frac{a}{b}|$,

$$a+b\pi>0\iff\pi>-\frac{a}{b}$$

and the maximum value of the integrand gives an upper bound on the error. As m, n increase, the integrand becomes increasingly flat(*Figure-1*) (Backhouse calls them "pancake functions") and the approximation to π is improved. In [Luc05], Lucas, showed that there are various ways to form integrals with positive integrands that evaluate to $\frac{355}{113} - \pi$.

Here I am presenting one of those integrals. Here the approach is to multiply the integrand by a low order polynomial, and adjust the coefficients to return the correct result. Choosing the simplest case where the polynomial is ≥ 0 on [0, 1] simplest in the sense of the smallest number of digits in the coefficients. Experimenting with $I_{m,n}$ leads to the results that can be solved in the similar ways, I encourage readers to verify this.

$$\int_0^1 \frac{x^7 (1-x)^7 (192-791x+983x^2)}{3164(1+x^2)} dx = \frac{355}{113} - \pi$$
$$\int_0^1 \frac{x^8 (1-x)^8 (25+816x^2)}{3164(1+x^2)} dx = \frac{355}{113} - \pi$$

3 Another idea to think about

$$I_{m,n} = \int_0^1 \frac{x^m (1-x)^n}{1+x^2} dx = a + b\pi + c \log(2)$$

The idea is to multiply the integrands $I_{m,n}$ by $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}^+$ so that $b\alpha = -1$. Observe that to do this we have to set m, n in such a way that b < 0. hence, RHS becomes $a\alpha - \pi$, we made c = 0. We then require m, n large enough, so that when we add

$$\beta = \left(\frac{355}{113} - a\alpha\right)$$
 it is > 0

then finally RHS becomes $\frac{355}{113} - \pi$. The integral shall look like

$$\int_0^1 \left[\frac{\alpha x^m (1-x)^n}{1+x^2} + \beta \right] dx = \frac{355}{113} - \pi$$

remember, here it's wise to choose m, n in such way so that 4|(2m - n).

Try to find such an integral (not very easy!), and then calculate it. As a sample I'm giving one where

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{4}, m = 10, n = 8, \beta = \frac{5}{138450312}$$

4 Madhava-Leibniz series:

The Leibniz's formula for π , states that

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} \cdots$$

It is also called the *Madhava-Leibniz series* as it is a special case of a more general series expansion for the inverse tangent function, first discovered by the Indian mathematician *Madhava of Sangamagrama* in the 14th century, the specific case that I have written was first published by Leibniz around 1676. We shall look at one of the proofs of this series:

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\pi}{4} &= \arctan\left(1\right) \\ &= \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left(1-x^2+x^4-x^6\cdots\right) dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left((1-x^2+\cdots x^{2n})+(-1)^{n+1}x^{2n+2}(1-x^2+x^4\cdots)\right) dx \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

$$&= \int_0^1 \left(\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k x^{2k} + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^{2n+2}}{1+x^2}\right) dx \\ &= \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{2k+1}\right) + (-1)^{k+1} \left(\int_0^1 \frac{x^{2n+2}}{1+x^2} dx\right)$$

Let's look at the integral at the end part. Observe that in (0,1), $0 \le \frac{1}{1+x^2} \le 1$ hence,

$$0 \le \int_0^1 \frac{x^{2n+2}}{1+x^2} dx \le \int_0^1 x^{2n+2} dx = \frac{1}{2n+3}$$

Now, we shall use Sandwich Theorem

$$0 \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{x^{2n+2}}{1+x^2} dx \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n+3} = 0$$

$$\implies \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{x^{2n+2}}{1+x^2} dx = 0$$
(2)

Now, from (1) and using (2)

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\pi}{4} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{2k+1} \right) + (-1)^{k+1} \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\int_{0}^{1} \frac{x^{2n+2}}{1+x^{2}} dx \right)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{2k+1} \right)$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{2k+1}$$
$$= 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} \cdots$$

Observe that

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{\binom{3}{1}} + \frac{1}{\binom{5}{1}} \cdots$$

Visualise the binomial coefficients in Pascal's triangle!

5 Nilakantha Series

$$\pi = 3 + \frac{4}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} - \frac{4}{4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} + \frac{4}{6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8} - \cdots$$

The formulae to calculate π had been found in India already in the fourteenth or fifteenth century. It first appeared in Sanskrit verse in the book *Tantrasangraha* from about 1500BC the Indian mathematician, astronomer and universal genius Nilakantha Somayaji (1444 – 1544). unfortunately I don't know any proof of this, so I shall discuss some interesting things which relates this to inverse binomial coefficients. the modification below is *Daniel Hardisky's* modification of the series:

$$\pi = 3 + \frac{4}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} - \frac{4}{4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} + \frac{4}{6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8} - \cdots$$
$$= 3 + \frac{4}{6} \left(\frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} - \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} + \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8} - \cdots \right)$$
$$= 3 + \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1}{\binom{4}{3}} - \frac{1}{\binom{6}{3}} + \frac{1}{\binom{8}{3}} - \cdots \right)$$

Observe, how the inverse of binomial coefficients are behaving and giving a format of $a\pi + b$.

6 Cherry on the top:

Some other series giving π

• This series is given by our *Srinivasa Ramanujan*. This is one of the several rapidly converging infinite series of π he found in 1910

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{9801} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(4k)!(1103 + 26390k)}{(k!)^4 396^{4k}}$$



Figure 2: Pascal's triangle and Nilakantha series

which computes a further eight decimal places of π with each term in the series. His series are now the basis for the fastest algorithms currently used to calculate π . Even using just the first term gives

$$\pi \approx \frac{9801}{2206\sqrt{2}} \approx 3.14159273$$

There is a generalization of this called *Ramanujan-Sato series*.

- want to count π upto crazy high decimal places? Extremely long decimal expansions of π are typically computed with iterative formulae like the *Gauss-Legendre algorithm* and *Borwein's algorithm*.
- Want to count ta particular number digit of π here .

References

- [Bac95] Nigel Backhouse. "Pancake Functions and Approximations to π ". In: The Mathematical Gazette 79.485 (1995), pp. 371–374. DOI: https://doi.org/10.2307/3618318.
- $[Luc05] Stephen Lucas. "Integral proofs that 355/113 > \pi". In: Gazette of the Australian Mathematical Society 32.263 (2005), pp. 263–266.$