The Joy of Pi

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People with time on their hands Pi in Song Search Pi "And he made a molten sea, ten cubits from the one brim to the other: it was round all about, and his height was five cubits: and a line of thirty cubits did compass it about." (I Kings 7, 23)

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This verse refers to an object built for the great temple of Solomon, built around 950 BC, and gives $\pi = 3$.

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However, the first trace of a calculation of π can be found in the Egyptian Rhind Papyrus, which is dated about 1650 BC and gives $\pi = 4 \left(\frac{8}{9}\right)^2 = 3.16$.

Archimedes (287 - 212 BC) is credited with being the first to calculate π theoretically. He obtained the approximation

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Euler adopted the symbol π in 1737 (after it was introduced by William Jones in 1706) and it quickly became standard notation.

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Various people have tried to calculate π by throwing needles. The most remarkable result was that of Lazzerini (1901), who made 34080 tosses and got

$$\pi = \frac{335}{113} = 3.1415929$$

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Does each of the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 each occur infinitely often in π ?

Brouwer's question: In the decimal expansion of π , is there a place where a thousand consecutive digits are all zero?

Where does our distance formula for \mathbb{R}^2 come from?



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By Pythagoras' Theorem,

$$d^2 = (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2$$

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What does this have to do with the unit circle?



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The unit circle is all points (x, y) that are one-unit distance from the origin; ie,

$$1 = \sqrt{(x-0)^2 + (y-0)^2}$$

$$1 = x^2 + y^2$$

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Given a vector space V over a subfield F of the complex numbers, a **norm** on V is a function $\|\cdot\| : V \to F$ with the following properties: For all $a \in F$ and $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$, Given a vector space V over a subfield F of the complex numbers, a **norm** on V is a function $\|\cdot\|: V \to F$ with the following properties: For all $a \in F$ and $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$,

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$$\begin{split} \|\mathbf{v}\| &\geq 0 \text{ and } \|\mathbf{v}\| = 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{v} = 0; \\ \|\mathbf{a}\mathbf{v}\| &= |\mathbf{a}|\|\mathbf{v}\|; \\ \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| &\leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\| \text{ (Triangle Inequality)}. \end{split}$$

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The Euclidean norm for \mathbb{R}^n is

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The Taxicab norm (or Manhattan norm) for \mathbb{R}^n is

Back to our idea of distance in \mathbb{R}^2

What if we used the Taxicab norm (instead of the Euclidean norm) to compute the distance between two points?

$$d((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = |x_2 - x_1| + |y_2 - y_1|$$

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To infinity and beyond!

Let's define "p-distance" as

$$d_p((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = (|x_2 - x_1|^p + |y_2 - y_1|^p)^{1/p} = ||x_2 - x_1||_p$$

where $x_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $x_2 = (x_2, y_2)$. We can now visualize what the unit ball (ie, the set of all points of distance 1 from the origin) looks like under these different norms in \mathbb{R}^2 .

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We define

$$d_{\infty}((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = \max\{|x_2 - x_1|, |y_2 - y_1|\}.$$

Pi equals what?!

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What?!

From Calculus, we can compute the length of the curve y = f(t) from t = a to t = b using a formula for arc length:

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + [f'(t)]^2} dt.$$

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We can calculate what π would be in any norm by adjusting our formula for arc length:

$$\pi = 2 * \int_0^1 \left(1 + \left(\frac{1}{p} (1 - t^p)^{(1-p)/p} (-pt) \right)^p \right)^{(1/p)} dt$$

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Thank you for having me!!