## The Joy of Pi

# Kristen Kobylus Abernathy 

Winthrop University
3.14

## Obsession with Pi

People with time on their hands
Pi in Song
Search Pi

## It All Began...

"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)

## It All Began...

"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)

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

## It All Began...

"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)

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

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

## A Little History

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

$$
\frac{223}{71}<\pi<\frac{22}{7}
$$

## A Little History

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

$$
\frac{223}{71}<\pi<\frac{22}{7}
$$

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

## Buffon's Needle Experiment

If we have a uniform grid of parallel lines, unit distance apart and if we drop a needle of length $k<1$ on the grid, the probability that the needle falls across a line is $\frac{2 k}{\pi}$.

## Buffon's Needle Experiment

If we have a uniform grid of parallel lines, unit distance apart and if we drop a needle of length $k<1$ on the grid, the probability that the needle falls across a line is $\frac{2 k}{\pi}$.
Various people have tried to calculate $\pi$ by throwing needles. The most remarkable result was that of Lazzerini (1901), who made 34080 tosses and got

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

## Some open questions about the number $\pi$

Does each of the digits $0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9$ each occur infinitely often in $\pi$ ?
Brouwer's question: In the decimal expansion of $\pi$, is there a place where a thousand consecutive digits are all zero?

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


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


By Pythagoras' Theorem,

$$
d^{2}=\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(y_{2}-y_{1}\right)^{2} .
$$

What does this have to do with the unit circle?


## What does this have to do with the unit circle?



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

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

## What's in a norm?

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

## What's in a norm?

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

$$
\|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0 \text { and }\|\mathbf{v}\|=0 \text { iff } \mathbf{v}=0
$$

## What's in a norm?

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0 \text { and }\|\mathbf{v}\|=0 \text { iff } \mathbf{v}=0 \\
& \|a \mathbf{v}\|=|a|\|\mathbf{v}\|
\end{aligned}
$$

## What's in a norm?

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

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

## A couple examples

The absolute value on the space of real numbers is a norm.

## A couple examples

The absolute value on the space of real numbers is a norm.

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

$$
\left\|<x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}>\right\|=\sqrt{x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}} .
$$

## A couple examples

The absolute value on the space of real numbers is a norm.

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

$$
\left\|<x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}>\right\|=\sqrt{x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}} .
$$



## A couple examples

The absolute value on the space of real numbers is a norm.

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

$$
\left\|<x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}>\right\|=\sqrt{x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}} .
$$



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

$$
\left\|<x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}>\right\|_{1}=\left|x_{1}\right|+\left|x_{2}\right|+\cdots\left|x_{n}\right|
$$

## 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?

$$
d\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left|x_{2}-x_{1}\right|+\left|y_{2}-y_{1}\right|
$$

## 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?

$$
d\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left|x_{2}-x_{1}\right|+\left|y_{2}-y_{1}\right|
$$



## To infinity and beyond!

Let's define " $p$-distance" as

$$
d_{p}\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left(\left|x_{2}-x_{1}\right|^{p}+\left|y_{2}-y_{1}\right|^{p}\right)^{1 / p}=\left\|x_{2}-x_{1}\right\|_{p}
$$

where $x_{1}=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $x_{2}=\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$. 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 $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

## To infinity and beyond!

Let's define " $p$-distance" as

$$
d_{p}\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left(\left|x_{2}-x_{1}\right|^{p}+\left|y_{2}-y_{1}\right|^{p}\right)^{1 / p}=\left\|x_{2}-x_{1}\right\|_{p}
$$

where $x_{1}=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $x_{2}=\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$. 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 $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.
Notice as $p$ gets larger, the unit ball is approaching


## To infinity and beyond!

Let's define " $p$-distance" as

$$
d_{p}\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left(\left|x_{2}-x_{1}\right|^{p}+\left|y_{2}-y_{1}\right|^{p}\right)^{1 / p}=\left\|x_{2}-x_{1}\right\|_{p}
$$

where $x_{1}=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $x_{2}=\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$. 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 $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.
Notice as $p$ gets larger, the unit ball is approaching


We define

$$
d_{\infty}\left(\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\max \left\{\left|x_{2}-x_{1}\right|,\left|y_{2}-y_{1}\right|\right\}
$$

## Pi equals what?!

$\pi$ is defined as $\pi=\frac{C}{2 r}$ where $C$ represents the circumference of a circle, and $r$ is the circle's radius. What happens to the value of $\pi$ as we change how we calculate distance?

## Pi equals what?!

$\pi$ is defined as $\pi=\frac{C}{2 r}$ where $C$ represents the circumference of a circle, and $r$ is the circle's radius. What happens to the value of $\pi$ as we change how we calculate distance?
For example, in the 1-norm,

$d((1,0),(0,1))_{1}=|0-1|+|1-0|=2$ so $C=8$ and $r=1$ which gives

## Pi equals what?!

$\pi$ is defined as $\pi=\frac{C}{2 r}$ where $C$ represents the circumference of a circle, and $r$ is the circle's radius. What happens to the value of $\pi$ as we change how we calculate distance?
For example, in the 1-norm,

$d((1,0),(0,1))_{1}=|0-1|+|1-0|=2$ so $C=8$ and $r=1$ which gives $\pi=4$ !

## 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:

$$
L=\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1+\left[f^{\prime}(t)\right]^{2}} d t
$$

## 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:

$$
L=\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1+\left[f^{\prime}(t)\right]^{2}} d t
$$

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

$$
\pi=2 * \int_{0}^{1}\left(1+\left(\frac{1}{p}\left(1-t^{p}\right)^{(1-p) / p}(-p t)\right)^{p}\right)^{(1 / p)} d t
$$

## 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:

$$
L=\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1+\left[f^{\prime}(t)\right]^{2}} d t
$$

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

$$
\pi=2 * \int_{0}^{1}\left(1+\left(\frac{1}{p}\left(1-t^{p}\right)^{(1-p) / p}(-p t)\right)^{p}\right)^{(1 / p)} d t
$$



## Thank you for having me!!

