# Formulae for some classical constants 

Alexandru Lupaş*<br>(to appear in Proceedings of ROGER-2000)

The goal of this paper is to present formulas for Apéry Constant, Archimede's Constant, Logarithm Constant, Catalan's Constant.
Such formulas are useful for high precision calculations frequently appearing in number theory. Also, one motivation for computing digits of some constants is that these are excellent test of the integrity of computer hardware and software.

## 1. The Apéry's Constant $\zeta(3)$

The Apery's Constant is defined as

$$
\zeta(3)=\sum_{\mathrm{k}=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\mathbf{k}^{3}}=
$$

$$
=1.20205690315959428539973816151144999076498629234049 \ldots
$$

The designation of $\zeta(3)$ as Apéry's constant is new but well-deserved. In 1979, Roger Apéry stunned the mathematical world with a miraculous proof that $\zeta(3)$ is irrational (see [4], [16]). The above expression is very slow to converge. Another formula is

- Roger Apéry ([4]-1979)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta(3)=\frac{5}{2} \sum_{\mathrm{k}=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{\mathrm{k}-1} \frac{1}{\mathrm{k}^{3}\binom{2 \mathrm{k}}{\mathrm{k}}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which was the starting point of Apéry's incredible proof of the irrationality of $\zeta(3)$. Since 1980, many formulas for $\zeta(3)$ were discovered.

[^0]For instance

- T.Amderberhan ([2]-1996) proved that

$$
\begin{gather*}
\zeta(3)=\frac{1}{4} \sum_{\mathrm{k}=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{\mathrm{k}-1} \frac{\left(56 \mathrm{k}^{2}-32 \mathrm{k}+5\right)((\mathrm{k}-1)!)^{3}}{(2 \mathrm{k}-1)^{2}(3 \mathrm{k})!}  \tag{2}\\
\zeta(3)=\frac{1}{18} \sum_{\mathrm{k}=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{\mathrm{k}-1} \frac{(\mathrm{k}!)^{2}(2 \mathrm{k})!\cdot \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{k})}{(4 \mathrm{k})!\mathrm{k}^{3} \cdot \mathbf{B}(\mathrm{k})} \tag{3}
\end{gather*}
$$

with

$$
\left\{\begin{aligned}
A(k) & =5265(k-1)^{4}+13878(k-1)^{3}+13761(k-1)^{2}+ \\
& +6120(k-1)+1040 \\
B(k) & =(3 k-1)^{2}(3 k-2)^{2}
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

- T.Amdeberhan and Doron Zeilberger ([2]-1996), ( [3]-1997)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta(3)=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} \frac{Q(k)}{k^{5}\binom{2 k}{k}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
Q(k)=205 k^{2}-160 k+32
$$

- (A. Lupaş)

$$
\zeta(3)=\frac{3752}{3125}+\frac{1}{6250} \sum_{\mathrm{k}=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{\mathrm{k}-1} \frac{\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{k})}{\mathbf{k}^{5}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\binom{\mathrm{k}}{\mathrm{k}}^{5}(2 \mathrm{k}+1)^{5} \tag{5}
\end{array}, \frac{1}{}\right.}
$$

with

$$
\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{k})=14760 \mathrm{k}^{4}+28010 \mathrm{k}^{3}+19505 \mathrm{k}^{2}+5920 \mathrm{k}+672
$$

The proof of (5) was performed by means of WZ-method (see [17] ,[19] also [2] , [3] ) followed by a Kummer transformation.
Let us remind that a discrete function $a(n, k)$ defined for $n, k \in\{0,1, \ldots\}$ is called a Closed Form $=(C F)$ in two variables when the ratios $\frac{a(n+1, k)}{a(n, k)}$, $\frac{a(n, k+1)}{a(n, k)}$ are both rational functions. A pair $(F, G)$ of CF functions which satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(n+1, k)-F(n, k)=G(n, k+1)-G(n, k) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a so-called $W Z$ - form. There are many investigations connected with such WZ-forms (today known as WZ-theory) : see [2], [3] ,[17] ,[19].
In the 1990's, the WZ theory has been the method of choice in resolving conjectures for hypergeometric identities.The key of the WZ-theory is the following theorem

Theorem 1 (D. Zeilberger-[17], 1993 ) For any $\operatorname{WZ-form~(F,G)~}$

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} G(k, 0)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}(F(k+1, k)+G(k, k))
$$

whenever either side converges.
Let us remark that all formulas which are listed in (1)-(5)are of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta(3)=K_{1}+K_{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} a_{k} \quad, a_{k}>0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K_{1}, K_{2}$ are some real constants. Supposing that we have also another representation, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta(3)=K_{1}^{\prime}+K_{2}^{\prime} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} b_{k} \quad, b_{k}>0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

we shall say that $(7) \ll(8)$ iff

$$
a_{n}=\mathcal{O}\left(\zeta_{n}\right) \quad, \quad b_{n}=\mathcal{O}\left(\eta_{n}\right) \quad \text { with } \quad \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\zeta_{n}}{\eta_{n}}=0
$$

| Formula | $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{n}}=\mathcal{O}\left(\zeta_{\mathbf{n}}\right)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $(1)$ | $a_{n}=\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{4^{n} \cdot n^{2} \sqrt{n}}\right)$ |
| $(2)$ | $a_{n}=\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{27^{n} \cdot n^{2}}\right)$ |
| $(3)$ | $a_{n}=\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{64^{n} \cdot n^{2}}\right)$ |
| $(4)$ | $a_{n}=\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{1024^{n} \cdot \sqrt{n}}\right)$ |
| $(5)$ | $a_{n}=\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{1024^{n} \cdot n^{3} \sqrt{n}}\right)$ |

Therefore

$$
(5) \ll(4) \ll(3) \ll(2) \ll(1)
$$

G.Fee and Simon Plouffe used (4) in their evaluation of $\zeta(3)$ with 520,000 digits (see [3]). Later, by means of the same formula (4) B.Haible and T.Papanikolau computed $\zeta(3)$ to 1,000,000 digits.

Open problem : If $T_{n}(x)=\cos (n \cdot \arccos x)$ is the Chebychev's polynomial of the first kind, and (see (5) )

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
P(j)=14760 j^{4}+28010 j^{3}+19505 j^{2}+5920 j+672 \\
S_{k}=\frac{1}{6250} \sum_{j=1}^{k}(-1)^{j-1} \frac{P(j)}{j^{5}\binom{2 j}{j}^{5}(2 j+1)^{5}} \\
\mathcal{A}_{n}=\frac{1}{T_{n}(3)} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{n}{n+k}\binom{n+k}{2 k} 4^{k} S_{k} \\
\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{n}}=\frac{3752}{3125}+\mathcal{A}_{\mathbf{n}}
\end{array}\right.
$$

then prove or disprove that

$$
\left|\zeta(3)-\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{n}}\right|=\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{5939^{n} \cdot n^{3} \sqrt{n}}\right) \quad, \quad(n \rightarrow \infty)
$$

The following proposition generalize an identity proved by R.Ap'ery ( $x=$ 0 , [4]).

Theorem 2 For $x \geq 0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{(k+x)^{3}}= & \frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k+x}{k}\binom{k+x}{k}}\left(1-\frac{2 x(3 k+2 x)}{5(k+x)^{2}}\right)+ \\
& +\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k^{3}\binom{n+k+x}{k}\binom{n+x}{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

A more general function than $\zeta(s)$ is

$$
\zeta(s, x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k+x)^{s}} \quad, \operatorname{Re}(s)>1, x>0 .
$$

Corollary 1 If $x>0$, then

$$
\zeta(3, x+1)=\frac{5}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^{3}\binom{2 k+x}{k}\binom{k+x}{k}}\left(1-\frac{2 x(3 k+2 x)}{5(k+x)^{2}}\right)
$$

## 2. The constants $\ln 2, G, \pi$

Theorem 3 Let $x>0, y>0$. Then

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{k}\left(\frac{(x)_{k}}{(x+2 y)_{k}}\right)^{2}=
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
=\frac{y}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{16^{k}} \frac{\left((2 y+1)_{2 k}\right)^{3}}{\left.\left((y+1)_{k}(x+2 y)_{2 k+1}\right)\right)^{2}} \frac{10(k+y)^{2}+(6 x+1)(k+y)+x^{2}}{k+y} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Define

$$
\begin{gathered}
A(j)=A(j, x, y)=y \frac{(-1)^{j}}{16^{j}} \frac{\left((2 y+1)_{2 j}\right)^{3}}{\left((y+1)_{j}\right)^{2}} \\
\lambda(n, k)=(-1)^{n}\left(\frac{(x)_{n}}{(x+2 y)_{n+k}}\right)^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
G(n, k)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{y+j} \lambda(n, 2 j) A(j) & , \quad k=2 j \\ 2(y+j+x+n) \lambda(n, 2 j+1) A(j) & , \quad k=2 j+1\end{cases}
$$

Further

$$
F(n, k)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\lambda(n, 2 j)}{2(y+j)} A(j) & , \quad k=2 j \\
\left(n+x+3 y+3 j+\frac{1}{2}\right) \lambda(n, 2 j+1) A(j) & , \quad k=2 j+1
\end{array} .\right.
$$

If $G(n, k)$ and $F(n, k)$ are defined as above, then

$$
F(n+1, k)-F(n, k)=G(n, k+1)-G(n, k)
$$

that is $(F, G)$ is a WZ-form. By applying WZ-method we find (9). Further, by $G$ is denoted the Catalan constant $G$ which is defined as

$$
G=\beta(2)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(2 k+1)^{2}}=0.91596554 \ldots
$$

$\beta(x):=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(2 k+1)^{x}}$ being the Dirichlet's beta function.
Some particular cases of (9) are

| $x$ | $y$ | Identity | $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{k}}$ | The order of $a_{n}$ <br> $(n \rightarrow \infty)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | 1 | $\pi=4-\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} a_{k}$ | $\frac{\binom{2 k}{k}}{\binom{4 k}{2 k}} \frac{40 k^{2}+16 k+1}{2 k(4 k+1)^{2}}$ | $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{64^{n} \cdot \sqrt{n}}\right)$ |
| 1 | 1 | $\ln 2=\frac{3}{2}-\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} a_{k}$ | $\frac{1}{16^{k} k}\binom{2 k}{k} \frac{5 k+1}{k\left(k+\frac{1}{2}\right)}$ | $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{4^{n} \cdot n} n^{\frac{3}{2}}\right)$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $G=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} a_{k}$ <br> $($ Catalan' s Constant $)$ | $\frac{2^{8 k \cdot\left(40 k^{2}-24 k+3\right)}}{k^{3} \cdot\binom{4 k}{2 k}^{2}\binom{2 k}{k} 64(2 k-1)}$ | $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{14^{n} \cdot \sqrt{n}}\right)$ |
| 1 | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\pi^{2}=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} a_{k}$ | $\frac{1}{k^{3}\binom{2 k}{k}} \cdot \frac{14 k^{2}-9 k+2}{3(2 k-1)}$ | $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{4^{n} \cdot n^{\frac{3}{2}}}\right)$ |

The mathematicians have assumed that there is no shortcut to determining just the $n$-th digit of $\pi$. Thus it came as a great surprise when such a scheme was in 1997 discovered [6] (see (11) from below ). This formula was discovered empirically, using months of PSLQ computations, see [8]. This is likely the first instance in history that a signifiant new formula for $\pi$ was discovered by a computer. In the following, we present an identity which gives a proof of (11).

Proposition 1 If $|z+1|<\sqrt{2}, r \in \mathbf{C}$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \pi+4 \arctan z+(2+8 r) \ln \frac{1-2 z-z^{2}}{1+z^{2}}=(4+8 r) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+z)^{8 k+1}}{8 k+1} \frac{1}{16^{k}}- \\
& 10) \begin{array}{l}
\quad-8 r \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+z)^{8 k+2}}{8 k+2} \frac{1}{16^{k}}-4 r \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+z)^{8 k+3}}{8 k+3} \frac{1}{16^{k}}- \\
-(2+8 r) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+z)^{8 k+4}}{8 k+4} \frac{1}{16^{k}}-(1+2 r) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+z)^{8 k+5}}{8 k+5} \frac{1}{16^{k}}- \\
\quad-(1+2 r) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+z)^{8 k+6}}{8 k+6} \frac{1}{16^{k}}+r \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+z)^{8 k+7}}{8 k+7} \frac{1}{16^{k}} .
\end{array} . \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

A proof of the above asertion is given in [15].
If in (10) we select $(z, r)=\left(0,-\frac{1}{2}\right)$ then

$$
\pi=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\left(\frac{4}{8 k+2}+\frac{2}{8 k+3}+\frac{2}{8 k+4}-\frac{1}{2(8 k+7)}\right) \frac{1}{16^{k}} .
$$

Likewise, using the identity

$$
\arctan 1+\arctan z=\arctan t, t:=\frac{1+z}{1-z},(z<1) .
$$

one finds
$\pi=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\left(\frac{2}{8 k+1}+\frac{2}{8 k+2}+\frac{1}{8 k+3}-\frac{1}{2(8 k+5)}-\frac{1}{2(8 k+6)}-\frac{1}{4(8 k+7)}\right) \frac{1}{16^{k}}$.
Let us remark that for $(z, r)=(0,0)$ we find from (10) the remarkable BBP formula (attributed to David Bailey , Peter Borwein and Simon Plouffe) for $\pi$, that is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\left(\frac{4}{8 k+1}-\frac{2}{8 k+4}-\frac{1}{8 k+5}-\frac{1}{8 k+6}\right) \frac{1}{16^{k}} . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also when $(z, r)=(0, r), r \in \mathbf{C}$ one finds another formula for $\pi$, namely

$$
\begin{gathered}
\pi= \\
=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\left(\frac{4+8 r}{8 k+1}-\frac{8 r}{8 k+2}-\frac{4 r}{8 k+3}-\frac{2+8 r}{8 k+4}-\frac{1+2 r}{8 k+5}-\frac{1+2 r}{8 k+6}+\frac{r}{8 k+7}\right) \frac{1}{16^{k}}
\end{gathered}
$$

which was discovered by Victor Adamchik and Stan Wagon in their interesting HTML paper [1] .

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[^0]:    *Ro-Ger University, Calea Dumbrăvii 28-32, 2400-Sibiu, E-Mail : lupas@jupiter.sibiu.ro

