Ministerul Educației și Cercetării al Republicii Moldova Universitatea Tehnică a Moldovei Facultatea Calculatoare, Informatică și Microelectronică

REPORT

Laboratory work no.6 Nth digit of PI

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ALGORITHM ANALYSIS

Objective

- 1. Analysis and study of the algorithms.
- 2. Empirical analysis of the aforementioned algorithms.

Tasks

- 1. Implement the algorithms listed above in a programming language
- 2. Establish the properties of the input data against which the analysis is performed
- 3. Choose metrics for comparing algorithms
- 4. Perform empirical analysis of the proposed algorithms
- 5. Make a graphical presentation of the data obtained
- 6. Make a conclusion on the work done.

Theoretical notes

Empirical analysis is an alternative to mathematical analysis in evaluating algorithm complexity. It can be used to gain insight into the complexity class of an algorithm, compare the efficiency of different algorithms for solving similar problems, evaluate the performance of different implementations of the same algorithm, or examine the efficiency of an algorithm on a specific computer. The typical steps in empirical analysis include defining the purpose of the analysis, choosing a metric for efficiency such as number of operations or execution time, determining the properties of the input data, implementing the algorithm in a programming language, generating test data, running the program on the test data, and analyzing the results. The choice of efficiency metric depends on the purpose of the analysis, with number of operations being appropriate for complexity class evaluation and execution time being more relevant for implementation performance. After the program is run, the results are recorded and synthesized through calculations of statistics or by plotting a graph of problem size against efficiency measure.

Introduction

Algorithms for computing the Nth digit of Pi have been a subject of interest for mathematicians and computer scientists for centuries. Pi is an irrational number, and as such, it has an infinite number of decimal places that continue infinitely without repeating. Therefore, finding the Nth digit of Pi is a challenging problem that requires sophisticated algorithms and advanced computational techniques.

There are several methods for computing the digits of Pi, each with its own advantages and limitations. The Bailey–Borwein–Plouffe (BBP) formula is a popular approach for computing the Nth digit of Pi, as it allows for rapid calculation of individual digits without requiring the previous digits. Spigot algorithms provide a different approach, generating the digits of Pi in a streaming fashion. Monte Carlo methods use probabilistic techniques to approximate Pi by estimating the ratio of points inside and outside of a circle. In this laboratory work I will be covering the following ones: Chudnovsky algorithm, Gauss–Legendre method and Machin formula.

Despite the considerable research and progress made in computing the digits of Pi, finding the Nth digit of Pi remains an active area of research and a challenging problem. Researchers continue to seek new algorithms and methods that offer improved efficiency, accuracy, and applicability to different scenarios. The discovery of more efficient algorithms for computing the digits of Pi has the potential to impact a wide range of fields, including numerical analysis, cryptography, and scientific computing.

Comparison Metric

The comparison metric for this laboratory work will be considered the time of execution of each algorithm (T(n)) with attention to their accuracy as well.

Input Format

As input the algorithms will be taking a list of values that would represent the digits to search for in PI.

IMPLEMENTATION

Chudnovsky algorithm

The Chudnovsky algorithm is a fast method for calculating the digits of π , based on Ramanujan's π formulae. It was published by the Chudnovsky brothers in 1988. It was used in the world record calculations of 2.7 trillion digits of π in December 2009, 10 trillion digits in October 2011, 22.4 trillion digits in November 2016, 31.4 trillion digits in September 2018–January 2019, 50 trillion digits on January 29, 2020, 62.8 trillion digits on August 14, 2021, and 100 trillion digits on March 21, 2022.

Algorithm Description:

The algorithm is based on the negated Heegner number d=-163, the j-function $j\left(\frac{1+i\sqrt{163}}{2}\right)=-640320^3$, and on the following rapidly convergent generalized hypergeometric series:[2]

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = 12 \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^q (6q)! (545140134q + 13591409)}{(3q)! (q!)^3 (640320)^{3q + \frac{3}{2}}}$$

A detailed proof of this formula can be found here:[10]

For a high performance iterative implementation, this can be simplified to

$$\frac{(640320)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{12\pi} = \frac{426880\sqrt{10005}}{\pi} = \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{(6q)!(545140134q + 13591409)}{(3q)!(q!)^3(-262537412640768000)^q}$$

There are 3 big integer terms (the multinomial term M_q , the linear term L_q , and the exponential term X_q) that make up the series and π equals the constant C divided by the sum of the series, as below:

$$\pi = C \Biggl(\sum_{q=0}^{\infty} rac{M_q \cdot L_q}{X_q} \Biggr)^{-1}$$
 , where:

 $C = 426880\sqrt{10005}$,

$$M_q = rac{(6q)!}{(3q)!(q!)^3},$$

 $L_q = 545140134q + 13591409$

$$X_q = (-262537412640768000)^q$$

The terms M_q , L_q , and X_q satisfy the following recurrences and can be computed as such:

$$L_{q+1} = L_q + 545140134 \hspace{1.5cm} ext{where } L_0 = 1359140134$$

$$X_{q+1} = X_q \cdot (-262537412640768000)$$
 where $X_0 = 1$

$$M_{q+1} = M_q \cdot \left(rac{(12q+2)(12q+6)(12q+10)}{(q+1)^3}
ight) ext{ where } M_0 = 1$$

The computation of M_q can be further optimized by introducing an additional term K_q as follows:

$$K_{q+1} = K_q + 12$$
 where $K_0 = -6$

$$M_{q+1} = M_q \cdot \left(rac{K_{q+1}^3 - 16 K_{q+1}}{\left(q+1
ight)^3}
ight) ext{ where } M_0 = 1$$

Note that

$$e^{\pi\sqrt{163}} pprox 640320^3 + 743.9999999999995\dots$$
 and

$$640320^3 = 262537412640768000$$

$$545140134 = 163 \cdot 127 \cdot 19 \cdot 11 \cdot 7 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 2$$

 $13591409 = 13 \cdot 1045493$

Implementation

```
idef chudnovsky_pi(precision):
    getcontext().prec = precision
    m = power(100000)
    c = (640320 ** 3) // 24
    n = 1
    Ak = m
    Asum = m
    Bsum = 0
    while Ak != 0:
        Ak *= -(6 * n - 5) * (2 * n - 1) * (6 * n - 1)
        Ak /= (n * n * n * c)
        Asum += Ak
        Bsum += n * Ak
        Bsum += n * Ak
        n = n + 1
        result = (426880 * sqrtPI(10005 * m, m) * m) // (13591409 * Asum + 545140134 * Bsum)
        len_c = len(str(result))
        if len_c > precision:
            return result
        return result
```

Figure 1. Chudnovsky algorithm

Results

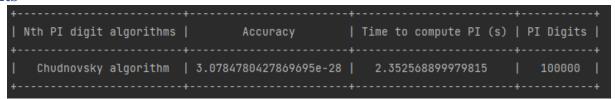


Figure 2. Chudnovsky computation result

Chudnovsky algorithm's time complexity is $O(n * (log n)^3)$

Figure 3. Chudnovsky digit result

Even though it seems as if the Chudnovsky algorithm is not the most accurate it should be noted that it is bound to the program's imposed precision and that is considered by far the best algorithm for computing PI digits.

Gauss-Legedre algorithm:

The Gauss–Legendre algorithm is an algorithm to compute the digits of π . It is notable for being rapidly convergent, with only 25 iterations producing 45 million correct digits of π . However, it has some drawbacks (for example, it is computer memory-intensive) and therefore all record-breaking calculations for many years have used other methods, almost always the Chudnovsky algorithm. For details, see Chronology of computation of π . The method is based on the individual work of Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777–1855) and Adrien-Marie Legendre (1752–1833) combined with modern algorithms for multiplication and square roots. It repeatedly replaces two numbers by their arithmetic and geometric mean, in order to approximate their arithmetic-geometric mean.

Algorithm Description:

1. Initial value setting:

$$a_0 = 1$$
 $b_0 = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ $t_0 = rac{1}{4}$ $p_0 = 1.$

2. Repeat the following instructions until the difference of a_n and b_n is within the desired accuracy:

$$a_{n+1}=rac{a_n+b_n}{2},$$
 $b_{n+1}=\sqrt{a_nb_n},$ $t_{n+1}=t_n-p_n(a_n-a_{n+1})^2,$ $p_{n+1}=2p_n.$ 3. π is then approximated as:

$$\pi pprox rac{(a_{n+1}+b_{n+1})^2}{4t_{n+1}}.$$

The first three iterations give (approximations given up to and including the first incorrect digit):

```
3.140...
3.14159264...
3.1415926535897932382...
```

The algorithm has quadratic convergence, which essentially means that the number of correct digits doubles with each iteration of the algorithm.

Implementation

```
gauss_legendre_pi(iteration, precision):
getcontext().prec = precision
# Initialize variables
a = Decimal(1)
b = Decimal(1) / Decimal(2).sqrt()
t = Decimal(1) / Decimal(4)
p = Decimal(1)
for i in range(iteration):
    a_next = (a + b) / 2
    b = (a * b).sqrt()
    t_next = t - p * (a - a_next) ** 2
    p = 2 * p
    a = a_next
    t = t_next
pi = (a + b) ** 2 / (4 * t)
return pi
```

Figure 4. Gauss-Legendre algorithm

Results

```
+-----+
| Nth PI digit algorithms | Accuracy | Time to compute PI (s) | PI Digits |
+-----+
| Gauss-Legendre algorithm | 0.0 | 22.09819389996119 | 30000 |
+-----+
```

Figure 5. Gauss-Legendre computation result

The time complexity of the above algorithm is $O(n^2)$. The reason is that each iteration requires a square root operation and a multiplication operation. The square root operation has a time complexity of O(m), where m is the number of bits used to represent the input. The multiplication operation has a time complexity of $O(m^2)$, where m is the number of bits used to represent the input. Since both operations are performed in each iteration, the total time complexity of the algorithm is $O(n^2)$.

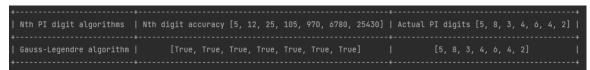


Figure 6. Gauss-Legendre digit result

We can see in the results that altough slow the Gauss-Legendre algorithm is very accurate.

Machin algorithm:

In mathematics, Machin-like formulae are a popular technique for computing π (the ratio of the circumference to the diameter of a circle) to a large number of digits.

Algorithm Description:

```
\frac{\pi}{4} = 4\arctan\frac{1}{5} - \arctan\frac{1}{239}
```

which he used to compute π to 100 decimal places.^{[1][2]}

Machin-like formulas have the form

$$c_0 \frac{\pi}{4} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} c_n \arctan \frac{a_n}{b_n}$$

where c_0 is a positive integer, c_n are signed non-zero integers, and a_n and b_n are positive integers such that $a_n < b_n$

These formulas are used in conjunction with Gregory's series, the Taylor series expansion for arctangent:

$$\arctan x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n+1} x^{2n+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots$$

Implementation

```
machin_pi(precision):
    mpmath.mp.dps = precision
    pi = 4 * (4 * mpmath.atan(1 / 5) - mpmath.atan(1 / 239))
    return pi
```

Figure 7. Machin algorithm

Results

```
+-----+
| Nth PI digit algorithms | Accuracy | Time to compute PI (s) | PI Digits |
+-----+
| Machin formula algorithm | 1.7224065202086849e-16 | 13.131848599994555 | 100000 |
+-----+
```

Figure 8. Machin computation result

The time complexity of the Machin formula is O(1) because it does not depend on the number of iterations. Although it depends on other factors, such as precision which do make it slower that the Chudnovsky algorithm.

Figure 9. Machin digit result

We can see that it is by far the least accurate.

All Algorithms

All results

+	+	-+	++
Nth PI digit algorithms	Accuracy	Time to compute PI (s)	PI Digits
+	+	-+	+
Chudnovsky algorithm	3.0784780427869695e-28	2.352568899979815	100000
Gauss-Legendre algorithm	0.0	22.09819389996119	30000
Machin formula algorithm	1.7224065202086849e-16	13.131848599994555	100000
+	+	+	+

Figure 10. All computation result

Figure 11. All digit result

Graph

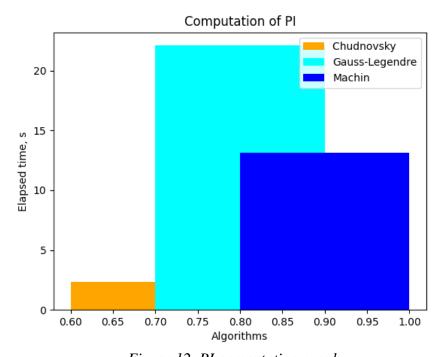


Figure 12. PI computation graph

It should be noted that Gauss-Legendre has only computed PI up to 30000 digits since to 100000 it was extremely slow.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the Chudnovsky algorithm, Machin formula, and Gauss-Legendre algorithm are all efficient ways of calculating the value of pi, but with different trade-offs in terms of computation time and implementation complexity.

The Chudnovsky algorithm is the fastest of the three algorithms, with a complexity of O(n * (log n) ^ 3) and an impressive speed of convergence. It is also a more recent algorithm, developed in the 1980s, and uses a combination of a series expansion and a fast multiplication algorithm. However, the implementation of the Chudnovsky algorithm requires a high level of mathematical expertise and computational power, making it less accessible for practical purposes.

The Machin formula for pi is a relatively simple formula that was first discovered in the 18th century. It has a complexity of O(1) (it is being by other precision computation) and can be easily implemented using basic arithmetic operations. However, it converges more slowly than the Chudnovsky algorithm and the Gauss-Legendre algorithm, making it less suitable for high-precision calculations.

The Gauss-Legendre algorithm is an iterative algorithm that uses a series of recursive approximations to calculate pi. It has a complexity of $O(n^2)$ and requires fewer mathematical operations than the Chudnovsky algorithm. However, it requires a significant number of iterations to converge, which can increase computation time.

Overall, the choice of algorithm for calculating pi depends on the specific application and the desired level of precision. For high-precision calculations, the Chudnovsky algorithm is the most efficient option, while the Machin formula and Gauss-Legendre algorithm are better suited for less demanding applications.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Github: https://github.com/Grena30/APA_Labs/tree/main/Lab6