

# On transcendental quantities

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## • Area of a circle and trigonometric functions

In  $\frac{1}{4}$  circle:

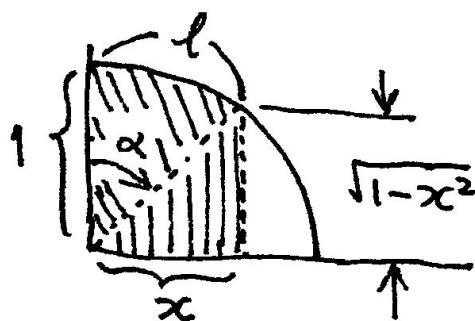


Fig.1

shaded area (for a fixed  $x$ )

$$= x \cdot \sqrt{1-x^2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \ell \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \int_0^x \sqrt{1-t^2} dt \dots \dots (*)$$

By Binomial Theorem,  $\sqrt{1-x^2}$  is an infinite polynomial, and thus (\*) is essentially a polynomial equality:

$$\sqrt{1-x^2} = [1 + (-x^2)]^{\frac{1}{2}} = 1 - x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - x^4 \cdot \frac{1}{8} - x^6 \cdot \frac{1}{16} - \dots$$

$$\int \sqrt{1-t^2} dt = t - t^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} - t^5 \cdot \frac{1}{40} - t^7 \cdot \frac{1}{112} - \dots$$

(\*) becomes  $x \cdot (1 - x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - x^4 \cdot \frac{1}{8} - x^6 \cdot \frac{1}{16} - \dots) \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \ell \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2}$

$$= x - x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} - x^5 \cdot \frac{1}{40} - x^7 \cdot \frac{1}{112} - \dots$$

thus  $\ell = x + x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + x^5 \cdot \frac{3}{40} + x^7 \cdot \frac{5}{112} + \dots \quad (+)$

= the length of arc whose (subtending angle's) sin is x.  
 $\triangleq \underline{\arcsin x}$ .

i.e.  $\arcsin x$  could be obtained by simply performing the basic algebraic operations  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$  on  $x$ .

In the polynomial equation (+), regarding  $x$  as the unknown variable, we could solve  $x$  in terms of  $\ell$  (Appendix I), obtaining,

$$x = \ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \ell^5 \cdot \frac{1}{120} - \dots$$

= the sin of (the angle subtending)  $\ell$

$$\triangleq \sin \ell.$$

Therefore  $\cos \ell = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \ell} = (1 + (-\sin^2 \ell))^{\frac{1}{2}}$

$$= 1 + (-\sin^2 \ell) \cdot \frac{1}{2} - (-\sin^2 \ell)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{8} + \dots$$

$$= 1 - (\ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \ell^5 \cdot \frac{1}{120} - \dots)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - (\ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \ell^5 \cdot \frac{1}{120} - \dots)^4 \cdot \frac{1}{8} + \dots$$

$$= 1 - \ell^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \ell^4 \cdot \frac{1}{24} - \ell^6 \cdot \frac{1}{720} + \dots$$

In this polynomial equation of two variables  $\ell$  and  $\cos \ell \triangleq y$ , regarding  $\ell$  as the un-known variable, we could solve  $\ell$  in terms of  $y$  (see Appendix II), obtaining  $\ell = \frac{\pi}{2} - y - y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{8} - y^5 \cdot \frac{3}{40} - \dots$

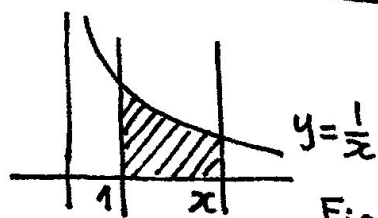
= the length of arc whose (subtending angle's) cos is  $y$ .

$\triangleq \arccos y$

Thus  $\tan \ell = \frac{\sin \ell}{\cos \ell} = \frac{\ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{8} + \ell^5 \cdot \frac{1}{120} - \dots}{1 - \ell^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \ell^4 \cdot \frac{1}{24} - \dots} = \ell + \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \ell^5 \cdot \frac{2}{15} + \dots$

$\cot \ell = \frac{1}{\tan \ell} = \frac{1}{\ell + \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \ell^5 \cdot \frac{2}{15} + \dots} = \frac{1}{\ell} - \ell \cdot \frac{1}{3} - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{45} + \dots$

### • Hyperbolic logarithm and exponential



For the hyperbola in Fig. 2,

the area function is  $\int_1^x \frac{1}{x} dx = \log x$  (base  $e$ ),

thus  $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \log x + c$

On the other hand,

$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-x} \Rightarrow 1 + x(1 + x + x^2 + \dots)$

$\therefore \frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{1}{1-(-x)} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots$

$\int \frac{1}{1+x} dx = x - x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} - x^4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \dots$

$= \log(1+x) + c$

$= \log(1+x)$

(holds for all values of  $x$ , including 0)

This is the first time that we could actually obtain the value of logarithm of a given number by simply performing  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$  on it!

$\log\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = \log\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \dots$

Regarding  $\log(1+x)$  as a whole variable  $y$ :

$y = x - x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} - x^4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \dots$

solve  $x$  in terms of  $y$ :  $x = 0 + y + y^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + y^4 \cdot \frac{1}{24} + \dots$

Thus  $e^y = 1 + y + y^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + y^4 \cdot \frac{1}{24} + \dots$  (where  $e$  denotes the base of the hyperbolic logarithm)

$e^u = +, -, \times$  on  $u$

$e^1 = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} + \dots$  (evaluation of the base  $e$  of hyperbolic logarithm by  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ )

## • The triumph

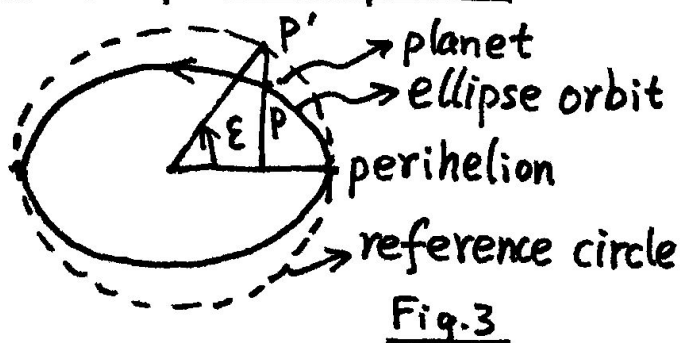
We achieved expressing the frequently-encountered transcendental quantities  $\sin, \cos, \arcsin, \arccos, \log, e^u$  as infinite polynomials. This is the first time that we could access these transcendental quantities in such a unified - and simple way — just performing the basic algebraic operations  $+, -, \times$ . (Before the infinite polynomial expressions, people had to invent dedicated and specific methods to take these quantities.)

Under the ~~enlightenment~~ enlightenment of the infinite polynomial expressions of these transcendental quantities, we could make many new discoveries, for example:  $\frac{\pi}{6} = \arcsin \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^5 \cdot \frac{3}{40} + \dots$

(which is the first time that  $\pi$  could be evaluated by simply performing  $+, -, \times, \div$  on integers!)

and solve some problems which could hardly be solved in the past, for example, the Kepler's equation, by which people could predict the location of a planet at a given time.

## • The Kepler's equation



A ~~traditional~~ traditional way of locating a planet is finding the angular position  $E$  of the reference point  $P'$  (of the planet  $P$ ) on the reference circle (Fig. 3).

Starting from the perihelion, the angle  $E$  varies from 0 as the time  $t$  elapses, they are entangled in the Kepler's equation:

$$\frac{(\epsilon - e \cdot \sin \epsilon) \cdot \frac{1}{2}}{\pi} = \frac{t}{T}, \quad \left( \text{where } e \text{ is the eccentricity of the ellipse orbit, } T \text{ is the period of the planet.} \right)$$

which could be derived from the equal-time-equal-area law (See Appendix III).

So if we want to know the location of Mercury when  $\frac{1}{4}$  orbit period of time passes from the perihelion, then we have to solve the equation:

$$\frac{(\epsilon - (0.205635\cdots)\sin\epsilon) \times \frac{1}{2}}{3.1415926\cdots} = \frac{1}{4} \quad (\dagger)$$

As we have expressed the transcendental quantity  $\sin\epsilon$  as an infinite polynomial of  $\epsilon$ , the equation  $(\dagger)$  thus becomes an equation of polynomials, and could be solved by Newton's series method.

Notice that, before the infinite polynomial expression of  $\sin$  was discovered, we have no good method to solve the equation  $(\dagger)$ , because only the table of specific values of 'sin' is at our disposal, lacking a unified way of computing  $\sin x$  for an arbitrary given value of  $x$ .

Appendix I.  $\ell = x + x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + x^5 \cdot \frac{3}{40} + x^7 \cdot \frac{5}{112} + \cdots$ , solve  $x$  in terms of  $\ell$ .

Set  $f(x) = -\ell + x + x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + x^5 \cdot \frac{3}{40} + \cdots$  we want to find  $x$  such that

When  $\ell = 0$ , we have  $f(0) = 0$  (when  $\ell = 0$ , the equation  $f(x) = 0$  becomes an ordinary equation with definite constant coefficients, and  $x = 0$  is a solution)  
 when  $\ell$  is a tiny variable,  $f(x) = 0$   
 we have  $f(0) \sim \ell$ , where  $\sim$  signifies "as small as".

By adjusting 0 to  $0 + \delta$ , we hope to make  $f(0 + \delta)$  smaller:

$$\begin{aligned} f(0 + \delta) &= f(0) + \delta \cdot f'(0) + \cdots \quad (f'(x) = 1 + x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + x^4 \cdot \frac{3}{8} + \cdots) \\ &= \underbrace{-\ell + \delta \cdot 1}_{\sim 0} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

if  $\delta$  is such that "      " = 0 (i.e.  $\delta = \ell$ ), then  $\delta \sim \ell$  and  $f(0 + \delta) \sim \ell^2$

$$\begin{aligned} f(0 + \ell + \delta) &= f(0 + \ell) + \delta \cdot f'(0 + \ell) + \cdots \\ &= \underbrace{\ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \delta \cdot 1}_{\sim 0} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

if  $\delta$  is such that "      " = 0 (i.e.  $\delta = -\ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}$ ), then  $\delta \sim \ell^3$ , and thus

$$\begin{aligned} f(0 + \ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \delta) &= f(0 + \ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}) + \delta \cdot f'(0 + \ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}) + \cdots \\ &= \underbrace{0 + \ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}}_{\sim 0} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

Thus the limit object  $0 + \ell - \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \cdots$  is the solution for  $f(x) = 0$ .

Appendix II.  $y = 1 - \ell^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \ell^4 \cdot \frac{1}{24} - \ell^6 \cdot \frac{1}{720} + \dots$ , solve  $\ell$  in terms of  $y$ .

Set  $f(\ell) = -y + 1 - \ell^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \ell^4 \cdot \frac{1}{24} - \ell^6 \cdot \frac{1}{720} + \dots = -y + \cos \ell$ ,

we want to find  $\ell$  such that  $f(\ell) = 0$ .

when  $y=0$ , we have  $f(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 0$  (when  $y=0$ , the equation  $f(\ell)=0$

when  $y$  is a tiny variable, becomes  $0 + \cos \ell = 0$ , and has a solution  $\ell = \frac{\pi}{2}$ )

we have:  $f(\frac{\pi}{2}) \sim y$ .

By adjusting  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  to  $\frac{\pi}{2} + \delta$ , we hope to make  $f(\frac{\pi}{2} + \delta)$  smaller.

$$f(\frac{\pi}{2} + \delta) = f(\frac{\pi}{2}) + \delta \cdot f'(\frac{\pi}{2}) + \dots \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} f'(\ell) = 0 - \ell + \ell^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} - \ell^5 \cdot \frac{1}{120} + \dots \\ = -\sin \ell \end{array} \right)$$

$$= -y + \delta \cdot (-1) + \dots$$

if  $\delta$  is such that "        " = 0 (i.e.  $\delta = -y$ ), then  $\delta \sim y$  and  $f(\frac{\pi}{2} + \delta) \sim y^2$

$$f(\frac{\pi}{2} - y + \delta) = f(\frac{\pi}{2} - y) + \delta \cdot f'(\frac{\pi}{2} - y) + \dots \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} f(\frac{\pi}{2} - y) = -y + \cos(\frac{\pi}{2} - y) \\ = -y + \sin y = \dots \end{array} \right)$$

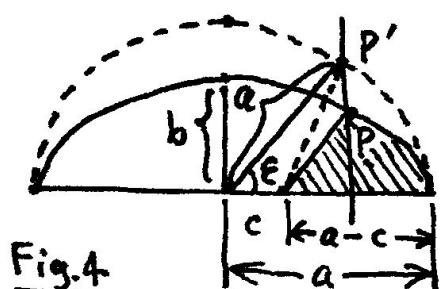
$$= y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \delta \cdot (-1) + \dots$$

if  $\delta$  is such that "        " = 0 (i.e.  $\delta = y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}$ ), then  $\delta \sim y^3$  and  $f(\frac{\pi}{2} - y + \delta) \sim y^5$

$$f(\frac{\pi}{2} - y + y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \delta) = f(\frac{\pi}{2} - y + y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}) + \delta \cdot f'(\frac{\pi}{2} - y + y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}) + \dots \quad \frac{\pi}{2} - y + y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6}$$

Thus the limit object  $\frac{\pi}{2} - y + y^3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} - \dots$  is the solution for  $f(\ell) = 0$ .

Appendix III. The Kepler's equation, how comes it?



By the equal-area-equal-time law of the planet motion, we have (Fig. 4):

$$\frac{\text{shaded area}}{\text{ellipse area}} = \frac{t}{T} \quad \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{time elapsed} \\ \rightarrow \text{orbit period} \end{array}$$

where: shaded area = the area with base  $a-c$  and apex P, denoted by  $(a-c)P$ .  
= the area of  $(a-c)P'$  compressed by the factor  $\frac{b}{a}$ .

= (sector  $\epsilon$  of the big circle - triangle  $cP'$ )  $\cdot \frac{b}{a}$ .

=  $(\pi a^2 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2\pi} - c \cdot a \sin \epsilon \cdot \frac{1}{2}) \cdot \frac{b}{a}$  (notice that  $c = a \cdot e$ )

=  $(\epsilon - e \cdot \sin \epsilon) \cdot \frac{1}{2} ab$

Thus 
$$\frac{(\epsilon - e \cdot \sin \epsilon) \cdot \frac{1}{2} ab}{\pi ab} = \frac{t}{T} .$$