

$$= f(1) =$$

0 and f and f' are both square integrable, then the inequality holds :

<formula>

and the case of equality holds precisely when f is a multiple of $\sin(\sqrt{\lambda} x)$. So λ appears as an optimal constant in Wirtinger's inequality, and from this it follows that it is the smallest such eigenvalue (by Rayleigh quotient methods).

The number λ serves a similar role in higher n -dimensional analysis, appearing as eigenvalues for other similar kinds of problems. As mentioned above, it can be characterized via its role as the best constant in the isoperimetric inequality: the area A enclosed by a plane Jordan curve of perimeter P satisfies the inequality

<formula>

and equality is clearly achieved for the circle, since in that case A

$$= \pi r^2 \text{ and } P =$$

$$2\pi r.$$

Ultimately as a consequence of the isoperimetric inequality, the constant λ is associated with best constants of the Poincaré inequality. As a special case, λ appears as the optimal smallest eigenvalue of the Dirichlet energy, in dimensions 1 and 2, which thus characterizes the role of λ in many physical phenomena as well, for example those of classical potential theory. The one n -dimensional case is just Wirtinger's inequality.

The constant λ also appears as a critical spectral parameter in the Fourier transform. This is the integral transform, that takes a complex n -valued integrable function f on the real line to the function defined as :

<formula>

There are several different conventions for the Fourier transform, all of which involve a factor of λ that is placed somewhere. The appearance of λ is essential in these formulas, as there is no possibility to remove λ altogether from the Fourier transform and its inverse transform. The definition given above is the most canonical however, because it describes the unique unitary operator on L^2 that is also an algebra homomorphism of L^1 to L^∞ .

The Heisenberg uncertainty principle also contains the number λ . The uncertainty principle gives a sharp lower bound on the extent to which it is possible to localize a function both in space and in frequency: with our conventions for the Fourier transform,

<formula>

The physical consequence, about the uncertainty in simultaneous position and momentum observations of a quantum mechanical system, is discussed below. The appearance of λ in the formulae of Fourier analysis is ultimately a consequence of the Stone-von Neumann theorem, asserting the uniqueness of the Schrödinger representation of the Heisenberg group.

$$= = = \text{Gaussian integrals} = = =$$

The fields of probability and statistics frequently use the normal distribution as a simple model for complex phenomena; for example, scientists generally assume that the observational error in most experiments follows a normal distribution. The Gaussian function, which is the probability density function of the normal distribution with mean μ and standard deviation σ , naturally contains λ :

<formula>

For this to be a probability density, the area under the graph of f needs to be equal to one. This follows from a change of variables in the Gaussian integral:

<formula>

which says that the area under the basic Bell curve in the figure is equal to the square root of λ .

The central limit theorem explains the central role of normal distributions, and thus of λ , in probability and statistics. This theorem is ultimately connected with the spectral characterization of λ as the eigenvalue associated with the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, and the fact that equality holds in the uncertainty principle only for the Gaussian function. Equivalently, λ is the unique constant making the Gaussian normal distribution $e^{-\lambda x^2}$ equal to its own Fourier transform.

Indeed , according to Howe (1980) , the " whole business " of establishing the fundamental theorems Fourier analysis reduces to the Gaussian integral .

= = History = =

= = = Antiquity = = =

The best known approximations to π dating before the Common Era were accurate to two decimal places ; this was improved upon in Chinese mathematics in particular by the mid first millennium , to an accuracy of seven decimal places . After this , no further progress was made until the late medieval period .

Some Egyptologists have claimed that the ancient Egyptians used an approximation of π as $22 / 7$ from as early as the Old Kingdom . This claim has met with skepticism .

The earliest written approximations of π are found in Egypt and Babylon , both within one percent of the true value . In Babylon , a clay tablet dated 1900 ? 1600 BC has a geometrical statement that , by implication , treats π as $25 / 8 = 3 \frac{1}{4}$. In Egypt , the Rhind Papyrus , dated around 1650 BC but copied from a document dated to 1850 BC , has a formula for the area of a circle that treats π as $(16 / 9)^2 \times 3$.

Astronomical calculations in the Shatapatha Brahmana (ca . 4th century BC) use a fractional approximation of $339 / 108 = 3 \frac{139}{108}$ (an accuracy of 9×10^{-4}) . Other Indian sources by about 150 BC treat π as $10 \frac{10}{3}$.

= = = Polygon approximation era = = =

The first recorded algorithm for rigorously calculating the value of π was a geometrical approach using polygons , devised around 250 BC by the Greek mathematician Archimedes . This polygonal algorithm dominated for over 1 000 years , and as a result π is sometimes referred to as " Archimedes ' constant " . Archimedes computed upper and lower bounds of π by drawing a regular hexagon inside and outside a circle , and successively doubling the number of sides until he reached a 96 sided regular polygon . By calculating the perimeters of these polygons , he proved that $223 / 71 < \pi < 22 / 7$ (that is $3 \frac{1408}{105} < \pi < 3 \frac{1429}{100}$) . Archimedes ' upper bound of $22 / 7$ may have led to a widespread popular belief that π is equal to $22 / 7$. Around 150 AD , Greek Roman scientist Ptolemy , in his Almagest , gave a value for π of $3 \frac{1416}{100}$, which he may have obtained from Archimedes or from Apollonius of Perga . Mathematicians using polygonal algorithms reached 39 digits of π in 1630 , a record only broken in 1699 when infinite series were used to reach 71 digits .

In ancient China , values for π included $3 \frac{1547}{100}$ (around 1 AD) , $\pi \times 10$ (100 AD , approximately $3 \frac{1623}{100}$) , and $142 / 45$ (3rd century , approximately $3 \frac{1556}{100}$) . Around 265 AD , the Wei Kingdom mathematician Liu Hui created a polygon based iterative algorithm and used it with a $3 \frac{1072}{100}$ sided polygon to obtain a value of π of $3 \frac{1416}{100}$. Liu later invented a faster method of calculating π and obtained a value of $3 \frac{14}{100}$ with a 96 sided polygon , by taking advantage of the fact that the differences in area of successive polygons form a geometric series with a factor of 4 . The Chinese mathematician Zu Chongzhi , around 480 AD , calculated that $\pi \approx 355 / 113$ (a fraction that goes by the name Milü in Chinese) , using Liu Hui 's algorithm applied to a $12 \frac{288}{100}$ sided polygon . With a correct value for its seven first decimal digits , this value of $3 \frac{141592920}{1000000000}$... remained the most accurate approximation of π available for the next 800 years .

The Indian astronomer Aryabhata used a value of $3 \frac{1416}{100}$ in his *Āryabhaṭīya* (499 AD) . Fibonacci in c . 1220 computed $3 \frac{1418}{100}$ using a polygonal method , independent of Archimedes . Italian author Dante apparently employed the value $3 + \frac{2}{10} = 3 \frac{14142}{100000}$.

The Persian astronomer Jamshīd al-Kāshī produced 9 sexagesimal digits , roughly the equivalent of 16 decimal digits , in 1424 using a polygon with 3×228 sides , which stood as the

world record for about 180 years . French mathematician François Viète in 1579 achieved 9 digits with a polygon of 3×2^{17} sides . Flemish mathematician Adriaan van Roomen arrived at 15 decimal places in 1593 . In 1596 , Dutch mathematician Ludolph van Ceulen reached 20 digits , a record he later increased to 35 digits (as a result , π was called the " Ludolphian number " in Germany until the early 20th century) . Dutch scientist Willebrord Snellius reached 34 digits in 1621 , and Austrian astronomer Christoph Grienberger arrived at 38 digits in 1630 using 1040 sides , which remains the most accurate approximation manually achieved using polygonal algorithms .

== Infinite series ==

The calculation of π was revolutionized by the development of infinite series techniques in the 16th and 17th centuries . An infinite series is the sum of the terms of an infinite sequence . Infinite series allowed mathematicians to compute π with much greater precision than Archimedes and others who used geometrical techniques . Although infinite series were exploited for π most notably by European mathematicians such as James Gregory and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz , the approach was first discovered in India sometime between 1400 and 1500 AD . The first written description of an infinite series that could be used to compute π was laid out in Sanskrit verse by Indian astronomer Nilakantha Somayaji in his Tantrasamgraha , around 1500 AD . The series are presented without proof , but proofs are presented in a later Indian work , Yuktibhāṣā , from around 1530 AD . Nilakantha attributes the series to an earlier Indian mathematician , Madhava of Sangamagrama , who lived c . 1350 ? c . 1425 . Several infinite series are described , including series for sine , tangent , and cosine , which are now referred to as the Madhava series or Gregory ? Leibniz series . Madhava used infinite series to estimate π to 11 digits around 1400 , but that value was improved on around 1430 by the Persian mathematician Jamshīd al - Kāshī , using a polygonal algorithm .

The first infinite sequence discovered in Europe was an infinite product (rather than an infinite sum , which are more typically used in π calculations) found by French mathematician François Viète in 1593 :

<formula> A060294

The second infinite sequence found in Europe , by John Wallis in 1655 , was also an infinite product :

<formula>

The discovery of calculus , by English scientist Isaac Newton and German mathematician Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz in the 1660s , led to the development of many infinite series for approximating π . Newton himself used an arcsin series to compute a 15 digit approximation of π in 1665 or 1666 , later writing " I am ashamed to tell you to how many figures I carried these computations , having no other business at the time . "

In Europe , Madhava 's formula was rediscovered by Scottish mathematician James Gregory in 1671 , and by Leibniz in 1674 :

<formula>

This formula , the Gregory ? Leibniz series , equals $\pi / 4$ when evaluated with $z = 1$. In 1699 , English mathematician Abraham Sharp used the Gregory ? Leibniz series for <formula> to compute π to 71 digits , breaking the previous record of 39 digits , which was set with a polygonal algorithm . The Gregory ? Leibniz for <formula> series is simple , but converges very slowly (that is , approaches the answer gradually) , so it is not used in modern π calculations .

In 1706 John Machin used the Gregory ? Leibniz series to produce an algorithm that converged much faster :

<formula>

Machin reached 100 digits of π with this formula . Other mathematicians created variants , now known as Machin @-@ like formulae , that were used to set several successive records for calculating digits of π . Machin @-@ like formulae remained the best @-@ known method for calculating π well into the age of computers , and were used to set records for 250 years , culminating in a 620 @-@ digit approximation in 1946 by Daniel Ferguson ? the best approximation

achieved without the aid of a calculating device .

A record was set by the calculating prodigy Zacharias Dase , who in 1844 employed a Machin π -like formula to calculate 200 decimals of π in his head at the behest of German mathematician Carl Friedrich Gauss . British mathematician William Shanks famously took 15 years to calculate π to 707 digits , but made a mistake in the 528th digit , rendering all subsequent digits incorrect .

=== Rate of convergence ===

Some infinite series for π converge faster than others . Given the choice of two infinite series for π , mathematicians will generally use the one that converges more rapidly because faster convergence reduces the amount of computation needed to calculate π to any given accuracy . A simple infinite series for π is the Gregory π Leibniz series :

<formula>

As individual terms of this infinite series are added to the sum , the total gradually gets closer to π , and π with a sufficient number of terms π can get as close to π as desired . It converges quite slowly , though π after 500 π , @ 000 terms , it produces only five correct decimal digits of π .

An infinite series for π (published by Nilakantha in the 15th century) that converges more rapidly than the Gregory π Leibniz series is :

<formula>

The following table compares the convergence rates of these two series :

After five terms , the sum of the Gregory π Leibniz series is within 0 π .@ 2 of the correct value of π , whereas the sum of Nilakantha 's series is within 0 π .@ 002 of the correct value of π . Nilakantha 's series converges faster and is more useful for computing digits of π . Series that converge even faster include Machin 's series and Chudnovsky 's series , the latter producing 14 correct decimal digits per term .

=== Irrationality and transcendence ===

Not all mathematical advances relating to π were aimed at increasing the accuracy of approximations . When Euler solved the Basel problem in 1735 , finding the exact value of the sum of the reciprocal squares , he established a connection between π and the prime numbers that later contributed to the development and study of the Riemann zeta function :

<formula>

Swiss scientist Johann Heinrich Lambert in 1761 proved that π is irrational , meaning it is not equal to the quotient of any two whole numbers . Lambert 's proof exploited a continued π -fraction representation of the tangent function . French mathematician Adrien π -Marie Legendre proved in 1794 that π^2 is also irrational . In 1882 , German mathematician Ferdinand von Lindemann proved that π is transcendental , confirming a conjecture made by both Legendre and Euler . Hardy and Wright states that " the proofs were afterwards modified and simplified by Hilbert , Hurwitz , and other writers " .

=== Adoption of the symbol π ===

The earliest known use of the Greek letter π to represent the ratio of a circle 's circumference to its diameter was by Welsh mathematician William Jones in his 1706 work Synopsis Palmariorum Matheseos ; or , a New Introduction to the Mathematics . The Greek letter first appears there in the phrase " 1 / 2 Periphery (π) " in the discussion of a circle with radius one . Jones may have chosen π because it was the first letter in the Greek spelling of the word periphery . However , he writes that his equations for π are from the " ready pen of the truly ingenious Mr. John Machin " , leading to speculation that Machin may have employed the Greek letter before Jones . It had indeed been used earlier for geometric concepts . William Oughtred used π and ρ , the Greek letter equivalents of p and d , to express ratios of periphery and diameter in the 1647 and later editions of Clavis Mathematicae .

After Jones introduced the Greek letter π in 1706, it was not adopted by other mathematicians until Euler started using it, beginning with his 1736 work *Mechanica*. Before then, mathematicians sometimes used letters such as c or p instead. Because Euler corresponded heavily with other mathematicians in Europe, the use of the Greek letter spread rapidly. In 1748, Euler used π in his widely read work *Introductio in analysin infinitorum* (he wrote: "for the sake of brevity we will write this number as π ; thus π is equal to half the circumference of a circle of radius 1") and the practice was universally adopted thereafter in the Western world.

= = Modern quest for more digits = =

= = = Computer era and iterative algorithms = = =

The development of computers in the mid 20th century again revolutionized the hunt for digits of π . American mathematicians John Wrench and Levi Smith reached 120 digits in 1949 using a desk calculator. Using an inverse tangent (\arctan) infinite series, a team led by George Reitwiesner and John von Neumann that same year achieved 2037 digits with a calculation that took 70 hours of computer time on the ENIAC computer. The record, always relying on an \arctan series, was broken repeatedly (7480 digits in 1957; 10000 digits in 1958; 100000 digits in 1961) until 1 million digits were reached in 1973.

Two additional developments around 1980 once again accelerated the ability to compute π . First, the discovery of new iterative algorithms for computing π , which were much faster than the infinite series; and second, the invention of fast multiplication algorithms that could multiply large numbers very rapidly. Such algorithms are particularly important in modern π computations, because most of the computer's time is devoted to multiplication. They include the Karatsuba algorithm, Toom-Cook multiplication, and Fourier transform-based methods.

The iterative algorithms were independently published in 1975-1976 by American physicist Eugene Salamin and Australian scientist Richard Brent. These avoid reliance on infinite series. An iterative algorithm repeats a specific calculation, each iteration using the outputs from prior steps as its inputs, and produces a result in each step that converges to the desired value. The approach was actually invented over 160 years earlier by Carl Friedrich Gauss, in what is now termed the arithmetic-geometric mean method (AGM method) or Gauss-Legendre algorithm. As modified by Salamin and Brent, it is also referred to as the Brent-Salamin algorithm.

The iterative algorithms were widely used after 1980 because they are faster than infinite series algorithms: whereas infinite series typically increase the number of correct digits additively in successive terms, iterative algorithms generally multiply the number of correct digits at each step. For example, the Brent-Salamin algorithm doubles the number of digits in each iteration. In 1984, the Canadian brothers John and Peter Borwein produced an iterative algorithm that quadruples the number of digits in each step; and in 1987, one that increases the number of digits five times in each step. Iterative methods were used by Japanese mathematician Yasumasa Kanada to set several records for computing π between 1995 and 2002. This rapid convergence comes at a price: the iterative algorithms require significantly more memory than infinite series.

= = = Motivations for computing π = = =

For most numerical calculations involving π , a handful of digits provide sufficient precision. According to Jörg Arndt and Christoph Haenel, thirty-nine digits are sufficient to perform most cosmological calculations, because that is the accuracy necessary to calculate the circumference of the observable universe with a precision of one atom. Despite this, people have worked strenuously to compute π to thousands and millions of digits. This effort may be partly ascribed to the human compulsion to break records, and such achievements with π often make headlines around the world. They also have practical benefits, such as testing supercomputers, testing numerical analysis algorithms (including high-precision multiplication algorithms); and within

pure mathematics itself , providing data for evaluating the randomness of the digits of π .

== Rapidly convergent series ==

Modern π calculators do not use iterative algorithms exclusively . New infinite series were discovered in the 1980s and 1990s that are as fast as iterative algorithms , yet are simpler and less memory intensive . The fast iterative algorithms were anticipated in 1914 , when the Indian mathematician Srinivasa Ramanujan published dozens of innovative new formulae for π , remarkable for their elegance , mathematical depth , and rapid convergence . One of his formulae , based on modular equations , is

<formula>

This series converges much more rapidly than most arctan series , including Machin 's formula . Bill Gosper was the first to use it for advances in the calculation of π , setting a record of 17 million digits in 1985 . Ramanujan 's formulae anticipated the modern algorithms developed by the Borwein brothers and the Chudnovsky brothers . The Chudnovsky formula developed in 1987 is

<formula>

It produces about 14 digits of π per term , and has been used for several record π calculations , including the first to surpass 1 billion (10^9) digits in 1989 by the Chudnovsky brothers , 2 $\times 10^7$ trillion (2×10^{12}) digits by Fabrice Bellard in 2009 , and 10 trillion (10^{13}) digits in 2011 by Alexander Yee and Shigeru Kondo . For similar formulas , see also the Ramanujan π Sato series .

In 2006 , Canadian mathematician Simon Plouffe used the PSLQ integer relation algorithm to generate several new formulas for π , conforming to the following template :

<formula>

where q is e^{π} (Gelfond 's constant) , k is an odd number , and a , b , c are certain rational numbers that Plouffe computed .

== Monte Carlo methods ==

Monte Carlo methods , which evaluate the results of multiple random trials , can be used to create approximations of π . Buffon 's needle is one such technique : If a needle of length l is dropped n times on a surface on which parallel lines are drawn t units apart , and if x of those times it comes to rest crossing a line ($x > 0$) , then one may approximate π based on the counts :

<formula>

Another Monte Carlo method for computing π is to draw a circle inscribed in a square , and randomly place dots in the square . The ratio of dots inside the circle to the total number of dots will approximately equal $\pi / 4$.

Another way to calculate π using probability is to start with a random walk , generated by a sequence of (fair) coin tosses : independent random variables X_k such that $X_k \in \{ -1 , 1 \}$ with equal probabilities . The associated random walk is

<formula>

so that , for each n , W_n is drawn from a standard binomial distribution . As n varies W_n defines a (discrete) stochastic process . Then π can be calculated by

<formula>

This Monte Carlo method is independent of any relation to circles , and is a consequence of the central limit theorem , discussed above .

These Monte Carlo methods for approximating π are very slow compared to other methods , and do not provide any information on the exact number of digits that are obtained . Thus they are never used to approximate π when speed or accuracy is desired .

== Spigot algorithms ==

Two algorithms were discovered in 1995 that opened up new avenues of research into π . They are

called spigot algorithms because , like water dripping from a spigot , they produce single digits of π that are not reused after they are calculated . This is in contrast to infinite series or iterative algorithms , which retain and use all intermediate digits until the final result is produced .

American mathematicians Stan Wagon and Stanley Rabinowitz produced a simple spigot algorithm in 1995 . Its speed is comparable to arctan algorithms , but not as fast as iterative algorithms .

Another spigot algorithm , the BBP digit extraction algorithm , was discovered in 1995 by Simon Plouffe :

<formula>

This formula , unlike others before it , can produce any individual hexadecimal digit of π without calculating all the preceding digits . Individual binary digits may be extracted from individual hexadecimal digits , and octal digits can be extracted from one or two hexadecimal digits . Variations of the algorithm have been discovered , but no digit extraction algorithm has yet been found that rapidly produces decimal digits . An important application of digit extraction algorithms is to validate new claims of record π computations : After a new record is claimed , the decimal result is converted to hexadecimal , and then a digit extraction algorithm is used to calculate several random hexadecimal digits near the end ; if they match , this provides a measure of confidence that the entire computation is correct .

Between 1998 and 2000 , the distributed computing project PiHex used Bellard 's formula (a modification of the BBP algorithm) to compute the quadrillionth (10^{15} th) bit of π , which turned out to be 0 . In September 2010 , a Yahoo ! employee used the company 's Hadoop application on one thousand computers over a 23 @-@ day period to compute 256 bits of π at the two @-@ quadrillionth (2×10^{15} th) bit , which also happens to be zero .

== Use ==

Because π is closely related to the circle , it is found in many formulae from the fields of geometry and trigonometry , particularly those concerning circles , spheres , or ellipses . Other branches of science , such as statistics , physics , Fourier analysis , and number theory , also include π in some of their important formulae .

== Geometry and trigonometry ==

π appears in formulae for areas and volumes of geometrical shapes based on circles , such as ellipses , spheres , cones , and tori . Below are some of the more common formulae that involve π .

The circumference of a circle with radius r is $2\pi r$.

The area of a circle with radius r is πr^2 .

The volume of a sphere with radius r is $\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$.

The surface area of a sphere with radius r is $4\pi r^2$.

The formulae above are special cases of the volume of the n @-@ dimensional ball and the surface area of its boundary , the $(n + 1)$ -dimensional sphere , given below .

Definite integrals that describe circumference , area , or volume of shapes generated by circles typically have values that involve π . For example , an integral that specifies half the area of a circle of radius one is given by :

<formula>

In that integral the function $\sqrt{1 - x^2}$ represents the top half of a circle (the square root is a consequence of the Pythagorean theorem) , and the integral \int_{-1}^1

\int_{-1}^1 computes the area between that half of a circle and the x axis .

The trigonometric functions rely on angles , and mathematicians generally use radians as units of measurement. π plays an important role in angles measured in radians , which are defined so that a complete circle spans an angle of 2π radians . The angle measure of 180° is equal to π radians , and $1^\circ = \pi / 180$ radians .

Common trigonometric functions have periods that are multiples of π ; for example , sine and cosine have period 2π , so for any angle θ and any integer k ,

<formula>

== Topology ==

The constant χ appears in the Gauss-Bonnet formula which relates the differential geometry of surfaces to their topology. Specifically, if a compact surface S has Gauss curvature K , then

<formula>

where χ (χ) is the Euler characteristic, which is an integer. An example is the surface area of a sphere S of curvature 1 (so that its radius of curvature, which coincides with its radius, is also 1.) The Euler characteristic of a sphere can be computed from its homology groups, and is found to be equal to two. Thus we have

<formula>

reproducing the formula for the surface area of a sphere of radius 1.

The constant χ appears in many other integral formulae in topology, in particular those involving characteristic classes via the Chern-Weil homomorphism.

== Vector calculus ==

Vector calculus is a branch of calculus that is concerned with the properties of vector fields, and has many physical applications such as to electricity and magnetism. The Newtonian potential for a point source Q situated at the origin of a three dimensional Cartesian coordinate system is

<formula>

which represents the potential energy of a unit mass (or charge) placed a distance $|x|$ from the source, and k is a dimensional constant. The field, denoted here by E , which may be the (Newtonian) gravitational field or the (Coulomb) electric field, is the negative gradient of the potential:

<formula>

Special cases include Coulomb's law and Newton's law of universal gravitation. Gauss' law states that the outward flux of the field through any smooth, simple, closed, orientable surface S containing the origin is equal to $4\pi kQ$:

<formula> <formula> <formula>

It is standard to absorb this factor of 4π into the constant k , but this argument shows why it must appear somewhere. Furthermore, 4π is the surface area of the unit sphere, but we have not assumed that S is the sphere. However, as a consequence of the divergence theorem, because the region away from the origin is vacuum (source @-@ free) it is only the homology class of the surface S in $R^3 \setminus \{0\}$ that matters in computing the integral, so it can be replaced by any convenient surface in the same homology class, in particular a sphere, where spherical coordinates can be used to calculate the integral.

A consequence of the Gauss law is that the negative Laplacian of the potential V is equal to $4\pi kQ$ times the Dirac delta function:

<formula>

More general distributions of matter (or charge) are obtained from this by convolution, giving the Poisson equation

<formula>

where ρ is the distribution function.

The constant Λ also plays an analogous role in four @-@ dimensional potentials associated with Einstein's equations, a fundamental formula which forms the basis of the general theory of relativity and describes the fundamental interaction of gravitation as a result of spacetime being curved by matter and energy:

<formula>

where $R_{\mu\nu}$ is the Ricci curvature tensor, R is the scalar curvature, $g_{\mu\nu}$ is the metric tensor, Λ is the cosmological constant, G is Newton's gravitational constant, c is the speed of light in vacuum, and $T_{\mu\nu}$ is the stress-energy tensor. The left @-@ hand side of Einstein's equation is a non @-@

linear analog of the Laplacian of the metric tensor (and reduces to that in the weak field limit) , and the right hand side is the analog of the distribution function , times 8π .

== Cauchy 's integral formula ==

One of the key tools in complex analysis is contour integration of a function over a positively oriented (rectifiable) Jordan curve γ . A form of Cauchy 's integral formula states that if a point z_0 is interior to γ , then

<formula>

Although the curve γ is not a circle , and hence does not have any obvious connection to the constant $2\pi i$, a standard proof of this result uses Morera 's theorem , which implies that the integral is invariant under homotopy of the curve , so that it can be deformed to a circle and then integrated explicitly in polar coordinates . More generally , it is true that if a rectifiable closed curve γ does not contain z_0 , then the above integral is $2\pi i$ times the winding number of the curve .

The general form of Cauchy 's integral formula establishes the relationship between the values of a complex analytic function $f (z)$ on the Jordan curve γ and the value of $f (z)$ at any interior point z_0 of γ :

<formula>

provided $f (z)$ is analytic in the region enclosed by γ and extends continuously to γ . Cauchy 's integral formula is a special case of the residue theorem , that if $g (z)$ is a meromorphic function the region enclosed by γ and is continuous in a neighborhood of γ , then

<formula>

where the sum is of the residues at the poles of $g (z)$.

== The gamma function and Stirling 's approximation ==

The factorial function $n !$ is the product of all of the positive integers through n . The gamma function extends the concept of factorial (normally defined only for non -@ negative integers) to all complex numbers , except the negative real integers . When the gamma function is evaluated at half @-@ integers , the result contains π ; for example <formula> and <formula> .

The gamma function is defined by its Weierstrass product development :

<formula>