

π is irrational

born in Switzerland, eventually worked alongside Euler.

- Johann Heinrich Lambert (1728-1777) - Did a lot of math and physics, particularly optics & trigonometry (he was the first to use hyperbolic trigonometric functions). He gave what is widely recognized as the first ^{rigorous} proof of $\pi \notin \mathbb{Q}$, ~~although his proof is not as rigorous~~

Continued fractions:

①
$$x = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{a_3 + \dots}}}$$

Simple ctd fraction
($a_i \in \mathbb{N}$, always converges)

③ Meaning of "convergence" for a continued frac.

$$x_n = a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \dots}}} \rightarrow x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

\uparrow
 n^{th} convergent.

② complicated ctd fraction:

$$x = a_0 + \frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \dots}}$$

$a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Convergence is tricky usually

④ with simple continued fractions,
infinite \iff irrational.
but with complicated ctd fs, it is not so simple.

Theorem 2: The infinite continued fraction $\frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \dots}}}$ converges to an irrational value if $a_n > b_{n+1} + 1$ for all $n \geq \text{some } n_0$. (where $a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{N}$)

Proof: since $\frac{b_1}{a_1 + x}$ is irrational iff x is irrational, it suffices to prove in the case $n_0 = 1$. The continued fraction converges to a value in $(0, 1)$.
← (non-trivial exercise of algebra involving numerators & denominators of continued fraction convergents).
write this as a theorem!

Suppose that the value is $\frac{A_2}{A_1}$, where both are positive integers.

then $0 < A_2 < A_1$. Then $\frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{a_1 - \frac{b_2}{a_2 - \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \dots}}}{b_1} \Rightarrow \frac{A_2 a_1 - A_1 b_1}{A_2} = \frac{b_2}{a_2 - \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \dots}}$

but $\frac{b_2}{a_2 - \frac{b_3}{a_3 + \dots}}$ satisfies hypothesis of Theorem 1 as well, so, letting $A_3 = A_2 a_1 - A_1 b_1$, we find that $0 < A_3 < A_2 < A_1$. This can be continued indefinitely but all of these are positive integers. Absurd.

In the proof of Theorem 2, we can actually weaken the hypothesis to: $a_n \geq b_n + 1 \quad \forall n \geq n_0$ and $a_n > b_n + 1$ for infinitely many n (see details of Theorem 1).

To start guessing at a continued fraction for $\tan(x)$,

Lambert begins with the power series for \sin & \cos :

$$\sin(v) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n v^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \cos(v) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n v^{2n}}{(2n)!}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tan(v) &= \frac{v - \frac{v^3}{6} + \frac{v^5}{120} - \dots}{1 - \frac{v^2}{2} + \frac{v^4}{24} - \dots} = \frac{v}{1 - \frac{v^2}{2} + \frac{v^4}{24} - \dots} = 1 - \left(\frac{\frac{v^2}{3} - \frac{v^4}{20} + \dots}{1 - \frac{v^2}{6} + \frac{v^4}{120} - \dots} \right) \\ &= \frac{v}{1 - \frac{v^2}{3 \left(\frac{1 - \frac{v^2}{6} + \frac{v^4}{120} - \dots}{1 - \frac{v^2}{10} + \dots} \right)}} = \frac{v}{1 - \frac{v^2}{3 - \left(\frac{\frac{v^2}{5} - \dots}{1 - \frac{v^2}{10} + \dots} \right)}} = \frac{v}{1 - \frac{v^2}{3 - \frac{v^2}{5 - \dots}}} \end{aligned}$$

So he conjectured that $\tan(v) = \cfrac{v}{1 - \cfrac{v^2}{3 - \cfrac{v^2}{5 - \cfrac{v^2}{7 - \cfrac{v^2}{9 - \dots}}}}}$

and then proved this by

formalizing the previous calculations

& creating a few recurrence relations.

$$\text{So } \tan\left(\frac{\varphi}{\omega}\right) = \cfrac{\varphi}{\omega - \cfrac{\omega \varphi^2}{3\omega^2 - \cfrac{\omega^2 \varphi^2}{5\omega^2 - \cfrac{\omega^2 \varphi^2}{7\omega^2 - \dots}}}} = \cfrac{\varphi}{\omega - \cfrac{\varphi^2}{3\omega - \cfrac{\varphi^2}{5\omega - \dots}}}$$

So, if p and q are both integers, we get a continued fraction of the form in the hypothesis of Thm 2.

So if v is rational ^{and nonzero} then $\tan(v)$ is irrational.

but $\tan(\frac{\pi}{4}) = 1$, so $\frac{\pi}{4}$ is irrational so π is irrational.

you may know that there is another continued fraction involving π : $\pi = \cfrac{4}{1 + \cfrac{1^2}{2 + \cfrac{1^2}{2 + \cfrac{3^2}{2 + \cfrac{5^2}{2 + \dots}}}}}$. However, there

were no tools (like theorem 2) known at the time which could be used to show this is irrational.

- this was due to Leonhard Euler in 1765, 103 years before Johann Lambert's proof that π is irrational.
- Lambert's was the first rigorous proof of this fact (which was published) but it was a commonly held belief. Euler, one of Lambert's collaborators suspected $\pi \notin \mathbb{Q}$, ^{→ but could not prove it!} and it is also speculated that the Indian mathematician Aryabhata believed π was irrational all the way back in 500 BC.
- And of course, the Greeks also posed the question of "squaring the circle," which is very related. π was not proved to be transcendental until 1882 by Ferdinand von Lindemann, although Lambert conjectured that π was transcendental in the paper we examined (even though the existence of transcendental numbers in general was not known at the time).

Theorem 1: If the infinite continued fraction $\frac{b_1}{a_1 - \frac{b_2}{a_2 - \dots}}$ satisfies $a_n \geq b_n + 1 \ \forall n$, then it converges to a value $A \in (0, 1]$.
 if $a_n > b_n + 1$ for some n then $A < 1$.

Proof? nah

More stuff that Lambert did in his paper (notice the "logarithmiques" in his title).

Theorem 3: The infinite continued fraction $\frac{b_1}{a_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_2 + \dots}}$ converges to an irrational value if $a_n \geq b_n \ \forall n \geq n_0$.

Continued fraction for e : $\frac{e^u + 1}{2} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{\frac{2}{u} + \frac{1}{\frac{6}{u} + \frac{1}{\frac{10}{u} + \frac{1}{\frac{14}{u} + \dots}}}}}$

So $e^u = -1 + \frac{2}{1 - \frac{u}{2 + \frac{u^2}{6 + \frac{u^2}{10 + \frac{u^2}{14 + \dots}}}}}$

So $e^{\frac{A}{B}} = -1 + \frac{2}{1 - \frac{A}{2B + \frac{A^2}{6B + \frac{A^2}{10B + \frac{A^2}{14B + \dots}}}}}$

← skip this one

this if $u \neq 0$
 is rational,
 e^u is irrational.

this fact had already been proven in the early 1700s by Johann Bernoulli, but by a different method.
 and Euler too

$$e = 2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{4 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{6 + \dots}}}}}}}}$$

the wikipedia page for

"irrationality of e "

has in it's "generalizations"

section that Liouville proved in

1840 that e^2 is irrational, and I could not find anything online saying explicitly

that Lambert had the first proof of

$e^a \notin \mathbb{Q}$, but I also couldn't find

any earlier proof of this fact.

The proof taught today involves some strange polynomial functions,

but I like Lambert's proof better.

Another way to write $\tan(v)$ is

$$\tan(v) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{\frac{3}{v} - \frac{1}{\frac{5}{v} - \frac{1}{\frac{7}{v} - \dots}}}}$$

If we use hyperbolic trig...

$$\frac{e^v - e^{-v}}{2} = v + \frac{v^3}{3!} + \frac{v^5}{5!} + \frac{v^7}{7!} + \dots$$

$$\frac{e^v + e^{-v}}{2} = 1 + \frac{v^2}{2!} + \frac{v^4}{4!} + \frac{v^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$\frac{e^v - e^{-v}}{e^v + e^{-v}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{v} + \frac{1}{\frac{3}{v} + \frac{1}{\frac{5}{v} + \dots}}}$$

//

$$\frac{e^{2v} - 1}{e^{2v} + 1}, \text{ done}$$

$$\frac{e^x - 1}{e^x + 1} = \frac{1}{\frac{2}{x} + \frac{1}{\frac{6}{x} + \frac{1}{\frac{10}{x} + \dots}}}$$

and

$$\frac{e^x - 1}{e^x + 1} = \frac{e^x + 1 - 2}{e^x + 1} = 1 - \frac{2}{e^x + 1} \Rightarrow \frac{e^x + 1}{2} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{\frac{2}{x} + \frac{1}{\frac{6}{x} + \dots}}}$$