

For  $c$  satisfying  $0 \leq c \leq 1$  it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{1-c}^1 x^n dx &= \int_0^1 x^n dx - \int_0^{1-c} x^n dx \\ &= A_n[1 - (1-c)^{n+1}] \\ &= A_n[(n+1)c - \frac{n(n+1)}{2}c^2 + \dots + (-1)^n c^{n+1}]. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

But by reflecting in the line  $x = 1/2$ , we also obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{1-c}^1 x^n dx &= \int_0^c (1-x)^n dx \\ &= \int_0^c 1 - nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}x^2 - \dots + (-1)^n x^n dx \\ &= cA_0 - nc^2A_1 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}c^3A_2 - \dots + (-1)^n c^{n+1}A_n. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Since the two polynomials (1) and (2) in  $c$  agree for all  $c$  in  $[0, 1]$ , they must be identical. Comparing their linear terms gives the required result  $A_n = 1/(n+1)$ . ■

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.** I would like to thank David Tacon for sparking my interest in Cavalieri's arguments, and both Ilan Vardi and the referee for helpful historical remarks.

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## On Euler's Constant—Calculating Sums by Integrals

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Li Yingying

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**1. INTRODUCTION.** Euler's constant  $\gamma$  is defined by

$$\gamma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} D_n,$$

where

$$D_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} - \log(n+1)$$

for  $n$  in  $\mathbb{N}$ . Write

$$r_n = \gamma - D_n.$$

R. M. Young [1] gave the following estimate for  $r_n$ :

$$\frac{1}{2(n+1)} < r_n < \frac{1}{2n}. \tag{1}$$

D. W. DeTemple [2] considered

$$\tilde{D}_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} - \log\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

in place of  $D_n$  and showed that

$$\frac{7}{960} \cdot \frac{1}{(n+1)^4} < \gamma - \tilde{D}_n + \frac{1}{24\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2} < \frac{7}{960n^4}.$$

An earlier discussion of  $D_n$  can be found in Rippon [3]. Furthermore, DeTemple and Wang [4] established an estimate for  $r_n$  in which Bernoulli numbers are involved.

In this note we use an elementary method to give an exact representation of  $r_n$ , from which asymptotic estimates for  $r_n$  are then derived. Our method is to calculate sums by means of integrals.

**2. THE METHOD.** Rewrite  $D_n$  as

$$D_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{k} - \int_k^{k+1} \frac{1}{x} dx \right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \int_0^1 \frac{t}{k(k+t)} dt. \tag{2}$$

From (2) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} r_n &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t}{k(k+t)} dt \\ &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 t \left( \frac{1}{k(k+t)} - \frac{1}{k(k+1)} \right) dt + \int_0^1 t dt \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)} \\ &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)}{k(k+1)(k+t)} dt + \frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 t dt. \end{aligned}$$

Write

$$r_1(n) = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)}{k(k+1)(k+t)} dt, \quad a_1 = \int_0^1 t dt. \tag{3}$$

Then

$$r_n = r_1(n) + \frac{a_1}{n+1}. \quad (4)$$

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} r_1(n) &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)}{k(k+1)(k+t)} dt \\ &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 t(1-t) \left( \frac{1}{k(k+1)(k+t)} - \frac{1}{k(k+1)(k+2)} \right) dt \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)}{k(k+1)(k+2)} dt \\ &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)(2-t)}{k(k+1)(k+2)(k+t)} dt \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 t(1-t) dt \left( \frac{1}{k(k+1)} - \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)(2-t)}{k(k+1)(k+2)(k+t)} dt + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 t(1-t) dt \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)}. \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$r_2(n) = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)(2-t)}{k(k+1)(k+2)(k+t)} dt, \quad a_2 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 t(1-t) dt. \quad (5)$$

Then

$$r_n = r_2(n) + \frac{a_1}{n+1} + \frac{a_2}{(n+1)(n+2)}.$$

For  $m$  in  $\mathbb{N}$  with  $m \geq 2$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} r_m(n) &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t(1-t)(2-t) \cdots (m-t)}{k(k+1)(k+2) \cdots (k+m)(k+t)} dt, \\ a_m &= \frac{1}{m} \int_0^1 t(1-t) \cdots (m-1-t) dt. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

By induction we get

$$r_n = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{a_k}{(n+1)(n+2) \cdots (n+k)} + r_m(n).$$

From (3) and (5) we learn that

$$2a_2 \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)^2} < r_1(n) < 2a_2 \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2(k+1)},$$

from which we derive (using the fact that  $a_2 = 1/12$ ) the estimate

$$\frac{1}{12(n+1)(n+2)} < r_1(n) < \frac{1}{12n(n+1)}. \tag{7}$$

Hence we arrive via (4) and (7) at

$$\frac{1}{2(n+1)} + \frac{1}{12(n+1)(n+2)} < r_n < \frac{1}{2(n+1)} + \frac{1}{12n(n+1)},$$

which is stronger than (1).

From (6) we obtain (for  $m \geq 2$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} r_m(n) &< a_{m+1} \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{(k-1)k \cdots (k+m-1)} - \frac{1}{k(k+1) \cdots (k+m)} \right) \\ &= \frac{a_{m+1}(n-1)!}{(n+m)!} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$r_m(n) > \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{(m+1)a_{m+1}(k-1)!}{(k+1)(k+m)!} > \frac{n(m+1)a_{m+1}}{n+2} \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{(k-2)!}{(k+m)!}.$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{(k-2)!}{(k+m)!} &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k-1)k \cdots (k+m)} \\ &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(m+1)} \\ &\quad \times \left( \frac{1}{(k-1)k \cdots (k+m-1)} - \frac{1}{k(k+1) \cdots (k+m)} \right) \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(m+1)(n+m)!}, \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$r_m(n) > \frac{a_{m+1}n!}{(n+2)(n+m)!}.$$

On the other hand, it is obvious from (6) that for  $m \geq 2$

$$\frac{1}{6m}(m-2)! \leq a_m \leq \frac{1}{6m}(m-1)!.$$

We conclude that

$$\frac{1}{6(n+2)m(m+1)\binom{m+n}{m}} < r_m(n) < \frac{1}{6n(m+1)\binom{m+n}{m}} \tag{8}$$

for  $m \geq 2$ , where

$$\binom{m+n}{m} = \frac{m!n!}{(m+n)!}.$$

Taking into account (7), we see that (8) is also valid for  $m = 1$ . From (8) we infer

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} r_m(n) = 0.$$

We have thus established the following theorem:

**Theorem.** *Let  $D_n = \sum_{k=1}^n k^{-1} - \log(n+1)$  and let  $\gamma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} D_n$  be Euler's constant. Then*

$$r_n = \gamma - D_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{(n+1) \cdots (n+k)},$$

where

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad a_k = \frac{1}{k} \int_0^1 t(1-t) \cdots (k-1-t) dt \quad (k > 1).$$

Furthermore,

$$\frac{1}{6(n+2)m(m+1)\binom{m+n}{m}} < r_n - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{a_k}{(n+1) \cdots (n+k)} < \frac{1}{6n(m+1)\binom{m+n}{m}}.$$

The referee kindly produced the following table for the numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_8$ :

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= \frac{1}{2}, a_2 = \frac{1}{12}, a_3 = \frac{1}{12}, \\ a_4 &= \frac{19}{120}, a_5 = \frac{9}{20}, a_6 = \frac{863}{504}, \\ a_7 &= \frac{1375}{168}, a_8 = \frac{33953}{720}. \end{aligned}$$

He also pointed out that  $a_k$  can be expressed in terms of Stirling numbers of the first kind  $s(k, j)$  as

$$a_k = \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{s(k, j)}{j+1}.$$

Our proof is a completely elementary calculation applying integrals to estimate certain sums. The method can be applied to other cases as well.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.** The author is grateful to Professor Wang who encouraged her to write this paper; also, she thanks the referee for valuable suggestions and for correcting typographical mistakes. The project was supported by a grant from the Education Ministry of China.

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## Life on the Edge

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Alf van der Poorten

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**1. INTRODUCTION.** One knows that  $\log(1 - z) = -\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z^n/n$  for  $|z| \leq 1$  and  $z \neq 1$ . Because  $1 - e^{i\theta} = -2i \sin(\theta/2) \cdot e^{i\theta/2}$  and  $-i = e^{-\pi i/2}$ , we see that

$$\log(1 - e^{i\theta}) = \log(-i) + \log\left(2 \sin \frac{\theta}{2}\right) + \log e^{i\theta/2} = \log\left(2 \sin \frac{\theta}{2}\right) - i\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right),$$

and on taking real and imaginary parts of  $-\log(1 - z)$  with  $z = e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ , it follows that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos n\theta}{n} = -\log\left(2 \sin \frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin n\theta}{n} = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\theta}{2} \tag{1}$$

for  $0 < \theta < 2\pi$ .

The relevant rule of thumb is that power series can safely be treated as if they were polynomials of [very] high degree *provided one stays well away from the boundary of the disc of convergence*. So, guessing that  $\log(1 - e^{i\theta})$  has imaginary part  $\sum_{n \geq 1} (\sin n\theta)/n = (\pi - \theta)/2$  for  $0 < \theta < 2\pi$  is scary stuff requiring the presence of a qualified mathematician.\* Do not try it at home.

In fact, oops! What if  $\theta$  creeps down to zero? Surely, all the terms of the series become zero? But its purported sum becomes  $\pi/2$ !

**2. EVALUATION OF AN INTEGRAL.** Not to worry. Look carefully at the graph of  $(\sin x)/x$ . It's the sine curve wriggling pathetically as it is squeezed between the hyperbolae  $xy = 1$  and  $xy = -1$ .

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\*MGR: Mathematical Guidance Recommended. Possible use of strong technical language and presence of naked singularities.