

## A Subtle Integral?

*Problem 06-002*, by JONATHAN BORWEIN<sup>1</sup> (Dalhousie University, Halifax, NS, Canada) and MARC CHAMBERLAND<sup>2</sup> (Grinnell College, Grinnell, IA).

The following evaluation is given in [1] and used in several interesting applications. Below we present a self-contained version of the proof in [1] and *we request a geometric proof*.

**THEOREM 1.**

$$-\int_0^1 \frac{\log f(x)}{x} dx = \frac{\pi^2}{3ab}$$

for  $0 < a < b$  if  $f(x)^a - f(x)^b = x^a - x^b$  and decreases.

Note that, as Figure 1 illustrates,  $f$  is uniquely determined by this prescription.

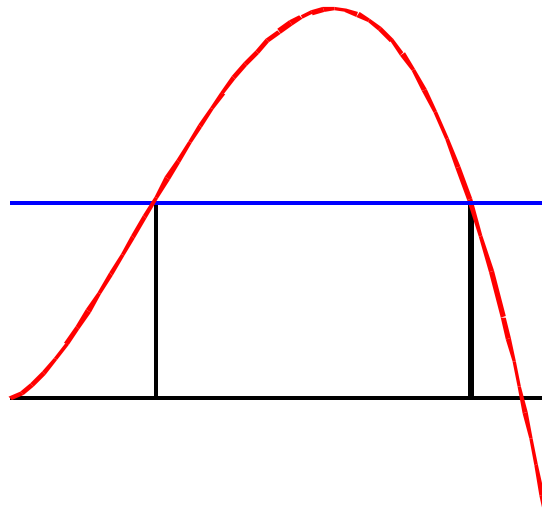


Figure 1: The graph of  $x^a - x^b$ .

*Proof.* One first observes that it suffices to consider the case  $b := a+1$ . The key step is the following identity asserting that for all  $a > 0$

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$$G_a(1-x) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma((a+1)n)}{\Gamma(an)} \frac{(x(1-x)^a)^n}{(na)n!} = -\log(1-x)$$

for  $0 < x < 1/(a+1)$ .

This is provided in Proposition 2 below.

First note that for all  $x$

$$(1) \quad G_a(x) = G_a(f(x))$$

and that  $x^a - x^b$  has its maximum at  $\mu := a/b = a/(a+1)$ . Thus, we have the following:

1.  $G_a(x) = -\log f(x)$  for  $0 < x < \mu$ .
2.  $G_a(x) = -\log x$  for  $\mu < x < 1$ .
3. Using the  $\beta$ -function:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{G_a(x)}{x} dx &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{an^2} \frac{\int_0^1 (1-x)^n x^{na-1} dx}{\beta(an, n)} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{an^2} \frac{\beta(an, n+1)}{\beta(an, n)} dx = \frac{1}{a(a+1)} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6ab}. \end{aligned}$$

4. Clearly

$$\int_{\mu}^1 \frac{G_a(x)}{x} dx = -\int_{\mu}^1 \frac{\log(x)}{x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \log^2(\mu).$$

5. Moreover, integration by parts and (1) provide

$$\begin{aligned} -\int_0^{\mu} \frac{\log f(x)}{x} dx &= \int_0^{\mu} \frac{G_a(x)}{x} dx \\ &= -\int_{\mu}^1 G_a(x) \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \int_{\mu}^1 \log x \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx \\ &= (\log x \log f(x))|_{\mu}^1 - \int_{\mu}^1 \frac{\log f(x)}{x} dx \\ &= \log^2(\mu) - \int_{\mu}^1 \frac{\log f(x)}{x} dx. \end{aligned}$$

6. Hence,

$$\int_0^{\mu} \frac{-\log f(x)}{x} dx = \int_0^{\mu} \frac{G_a(x)}{x} dx = \frac{\pi^2}{6ab} - \frac{1}{2} \log^2(\mu),$$

and

$$\int_{\mu}^1 \frac{-\log f(x)}{x} dx = \frac{\pi^2}{6ab} + \frac{1}{2} \log^2(\mu).$$

□

It remains to prove the following proposition.

**PROPOSITION 2.**

$$(2) \quad G_a(1-x) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(an+n)}{\Gamma(an+1)} \frac{(x(1-x)^a)^n}{n!} = -\log(1-x)$$

for  $0 < x < 1/(1+a)$ ,  $a \geq 0$ .

*Proof.* First we show that the series converges uniformly in  $x$  over the desired interval. The ratio test yields convergence if  $ax(1-x)^a < 1$ . It is easily shown that this function is maximized at  $x = 1/(a+1)$  with a corresponding value less than one. The binomial series implies

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(an+n)}{\Gamma(an+1)} \frac{(x(1-x)^a)^n}{n!} &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(an+n)}{\Gamma(an+1)} \frac{x^n}{n!} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^m}{m!} (an)(an-1)\cdots(an-m+1) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m (an+n-1)(an+n-2)\cdots(an+1-m)}{n!m!} x^{m+n}. \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$-\log(1-x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n},$$

our result is equivalent to proving

$$\sigma_k := \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{(-1)^{k-n} (an+n-1)(an+n-2)\cdots(an+n-k+1)}{n!(k-n)!} = \frac{1}{k}$$

for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . This is readily shown since

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_k &= \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} \sum_{n=1}^k (-1)^n \binom{k}{n} \left( \frac{d^{k-1}}{x^{k-1}} x^{an+n-1} \right) \Big|_{x=1} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} \frac{d^{k-1}}{x^{k-1}} \left( (1-x^{an+n-1})^k - \frac{1}{x} \right) \Big|_{x=1} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} (-1)^k (k-1)! = \frac{1}{k}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Maple suggests the following in terms of hypergeometric functions.

**CONJECTURE 3.** *Let  $a$  be a positive integer. Then*

$$G_a(1-x) = x(1-x)^a {}_{a+2}F_{a+1} \left[ \begin{matrix} 1, 1, \frac{a+2}{a+1}, \frac{a+3}{a+1}, \dots, \frac{2a+1}{a+1} \\ \frac{a+1}{a}, \frac{a+2}{a}, \dots, \frac{2a-1}{a}, 2, 2 \end{matrix} ; \frac{(a+1)^{a+1}}{a^a} x(1-x)^a \right].$$

EXAMPLE 4. The function  $f$  can be determined explicitly in some cases:

1. for  $b = 2a$  :  $f(x) = (1 - x^a)^{1/a}$ ;
2. for  $b = 3a$  :  $f(x) = (-x^a/2 + \sqrt{4 - 3x^{2a}})^{1/a}$ ;
3. for  $2b = 3a$  :  $f(x) = (1/2 - x^a/2 + \sqrt{-3x^{2a} + 2x^a + 1/2})^{1/a}$ .

□

EXAMPLE 5. An interesting identity is produced if we let  $b$  approach  $a$  from above. First, let  $f_{a,b}$  denote the unique decreasing function  $f$  which satisfies  $f(x)^a - f(x)^b = x^a - x^b$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(x)^a - f(x)^b &= x^a - x^b \\ \Leftrightarrow \int_a^b \frac{d}{dc} f_{a,b}^c(x) dc &= \int_a^b \frac{d}{dc} x^c(x) dc \\ \Leftrightarrow \frac{\log f_{a,b}(x)}{\log x} &= \frac{\int_a^b x^c(x) dc}{\int_a^b f_{a,b}^c(x) dc}. \end{aligned}$$

For simplicity, let  $a = 1$ . Letting  $b \rightarrow 1$  gives

$$f_{1,1}(x)^{f_{1,1}(x)} = x^x.$$

Since the function  $f(x) = x^x$  is decreasing on  $(0, 1/e)$  and increasing on  $(1/e, 1)$  and it satisfies  $f(0) = f(1) = 1$ , this shows the function  $f_{1,1}(x)$  is well-defined and decreasing. It is straightforward to show that

$$f_{1,1}(x) = \frac{x \log x}{W(x \log x)}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1/e,$$

where  $W$  is the *Lambert W function* defined implicitly through  $W(x)e^{W(x)} = x$ . Using point 5 in the proof of Theorem 1 yields

$$-\int_0^{1/e} \frac{\log f_{1,1}(x)}{x} dx = -\int_0^{1/e} \frac{W(x \log x)}{x} dx = \frac{\pi^2}{6} - \frac{1}{2}.$$

□

EXAMPLE 6. The authors of [1] noted that the case  $(a, b) = (1, 2)$  is simple since  $f_{1,2}(x) = 1 - x$ , leading to the well-known integral

$$-\int_0^1 \frac{-\log(1-x)}{x} dx = \frac{\pi^2}{6}.$$

This example attempts to derive Theorem 1 as a special case of other integrals.

Let  $g(x)$  be a smooth, increasing function satisfying  $g(0) = 0$ , and let  $x = \bar{x}$  be the first positive value for which  $g(x) = 1$ . Define the function  $f$  such that

$$(3) \quad f(x) := (1 - g(x))^{xg'(x)/g(x)}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} - \int_0^{\bar{x}} \frac{\log f(x)}{x} dx &= - \int_0^{\bar{x}} \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} \log(1 - g(x)) dx \\ &= - \int_0^{\bar{x}} \log(1 - g(x)) d(\log g(x)) \\ &= - \int_0^1 \log(1 - u) d(\log u) \\ &= \frac{\pi^2}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

This means that to prove Theorem 1 it is sufficient to prove that there exists a function  $g$ , as described above, with  $\bar{x} = 1$  for each function  $f = f_{a,b}(x)^{ab/2}$ . The case  $f_{1,2}$  works with  $g(x) = x$ . The case  $f_{a,2a}$  works with  $g(x) = x^a$ .

Note that the differential equation (3) can be solved in general to yield

$$g(x) = 1 - \operatorname{dilog}^{-1} \left( \int_0^x \frac{-\log f(y)}{y} dy \right).$$

□

**EXAMPLE 7.** Finally, we note that this will all work if we take a unimodal (analytic) function  $H$  with  $H(0) = H(1) = 0$  and solve  $H(x) = H(f(x))$ . If we can find coefficients such that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \frac{H(x)^n}{\int_0^1 H(x)^n} dx = -\log(x),$$

then we should be able to evaluate the corresponding integrals in terms of  $\sum_{n>0} A_n$ .

*Status.* This problem is open.

## REFERENCE

- [1] ALEXANDER E. HOLROYD, THOMAS M. LIGGETT, AND DAN ROMIK, Integrals, Partitions and Cellular Automata, *Trans. Amer. Math. Soc.* **356** (2004), 3349–3368. MSC (2000): Primary 26A06; Secondary 05A17, 60C05.