

# NEW INTERPRETATION ON THE FRANSÉN-ROBINSON CONSTANT

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ABSTRACT. The Fransén-Robinson Constant  $F$  is closely related to  $e$ , but a discrete series representation for  $F$  has not yet been established. The lack of existing analytical identities obscures its direct algebraic analyticity, including its potential transcendence. In this paper, we introduce a novel approach utilizing the Abel-Plana Formula to derive the first discrete series representation of  $F$ , opening many possible avenues for the true nature of  $F$ .

## 1. INTRODUCTION

First numerically evaluated in 1979, the Fransén-Robinson Constant is the numerically computed value of the inverse Gamma integral [1].

$$(1) \quad \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(x)} dx = F = 2.8077702420285\dots$$

The value's status is currently purely empirical. It is primarily computed rather than derived in a closed form, as there is no known formula expressing it in terms of other known constants. Without any algebraic connections, we cannot determine its structure or algebraic behavior. Effectively, we do not understand anything about that number. So far, there exists only a few clean relations connecting  $F$ , which still involve monstrous integrals. The cleanest form one could work with originates from one of G.H. Hardy's lectures in the documentation of Srinivasa Ramanujan's work [2]. The relation is shown below:

$$(2) \quad F = e + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-t}}{\pi^2 + \ln(t)^2} dt.$$

As we acknowledge, there exists no known closed form of this integral either. As previously noted by many, the integrand  $1/\Gamma(x)$  from the initial definition is an entire function of an infinite type. This means it cannot be expressed as a finite combination of elementary algebraic, exponential, or trigonometric functions. Furthermore, the inverse Gamma Function has no elementary or standard special-function anti-derivative. You cannot use the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to simply plug in bounds. Attempting integration by parts typically forces you right back to where you started or introduces infinitely branching, increasingly complex terms. Mathematics has hit the dead wall for nearly 5 decades on this constant. The Ramanujan representation doesn't fare any better. Applying  $u = \ln(t)$  to simplify the denominator leads to a double exponential in the numerator  $e^{u-e^u}$ . No standard integration technique or known special function can process a rational denominator combined with an iterated exponential numerator. In complex analysis,

integrals with a denominator resembling  $u^2 + \pi^2$  are typically solved using contour integration and the Residue Theorem. However, this specific function creates a mathematical gridlock: The roots of the denominator occur where  $\ln(x) = \pm i\pi$ , which maps  $x$  to  $x = e^{\pm i\pi} = -1$ . Concurrently, the function  $\ln(x)$  requires a branch cut along the negative real axis to remain single-valued. Because the poles ( $x = -1$ ) sit directly on the branch cut line, standard closed contours cannot enclose them cleanly. Modifying the contour to detour around these points destroys the symmetry needed to evaluate the integral. Without algebraic harmony between the numerator and denominator, the terms cannot be untangled. Although the integral of interest may be represented using a sneaky digamma function, integration alongside  $e^{-x}$  essentially sums all the fractional structural gaps between the continuous Gamma function and discrete factorials, isolating a purely transcendental residue that cannot be simplified further. This introduces two separate problems in history: Can we solve the true nature of Ramanujan's Integral while uncovering a closed representation of the Frans en-Robinson Constant? The two problems are tethered together, and resolving one resolves the other. If one lacks the algebraic identities that define a constant, then one cannot begin at all.

## 2. PROOF OF POINT

I start with a common scaffold for mathematicians studying  $F$ . I believe the solution delves within an emphasis of the relation between  $F$  and  $e$ . Their definitions contain much in common. They are the same function inside, one subjected to a discrete sum and the other to a continuous integral. The symbolic tool connecting a sum to its corresponding integral of continuity is precisely the Abel-Plana Formula:

$$(3) \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f(n) = \frac{1}{2}f(0) + \int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx + i \int_0^{\infty} \frac{f(it) - f(-it)}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt.$$

The standard definition of Euler's Natural Constant  $e$  starts from 1:

$$(4) \quad e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}.$$

I choose to replace  $n!$  with the Gamma Function, thus there is a base index shift-up by 1 because  $\Gamma(z) = (z - 1)!$ :

$$(5) \quad e = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)}.$$

This form does not match the base index  $n = 0$  in the Abel-Plana Formula. However, we may apply a heuristic notice that completes the claim. The inverse Gamma Function has a pole at 0 since the standard factorial blows up for all negative integers. If we start at  $n = 0$ , the contribution from  $1/(-1)!$  is still nil. The form is equivalent regardless of where  $n$  starts at. It is equivalent for all integers  $\leq 1$ . We choose:

$$(6) \quad e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)}.$$

The Abel-Plana Summation may now be carried out smoothly:

$$(7) \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} = \frac{1}{2\Gamma(0)} + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(x)} dx + i \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{\Gamma(it)} - \frac{1}{\Gamma(-it)}}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt$$

As we notice,  $\frac{1}{\Gamma(0)} = 0$  due to the pole. The first integral reveals the connection: It is the exact definition of the Fransén-Robinson Constant  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(x)} dx = F$ . The initial simplification halts at term 3.

$$(8) \quad e = F + i \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{\Gamma(it)} - \frac{1}{\Gamma(-it)}}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt$$

This is one of the few analytical representations of a relationship involving  $F$ . Many mathematicians have reached this point in time, only to turn around. The integral seems extremely complicated, and most assume that no analytical form of such exists. That's the current stalemate we have. The mathematicians are intimidated, and begin applying extremely complicated techniques that do little to simplify the problem. Many people mark this point as "the end" to evaluating the Fransén-Robinson Constant. In initial thought, we must define the existence of such an integral and what it should be. For mutual simplicity, we denote the absurdly large integral as a constant  $J$ :

$$(9) \quad J = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{\Gamma(it)} - \frac{1}{\Gamma(-it)}}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt.$$

The twisted tension between  $e$  and  $F$  can be relieved if we replace the integral with  $J$  momentarily:

$$(10) \quad e = F + iJ.$$

Both  $F$  and  $e$  are real, therefore  $J$  is purely imaginary due to the real difference. Because  $e < F$ , we require  $iJ < 0$  or  $\text{Im}(J) > 0$ . This way, the outcome of  $+i \cdot +i = -1$  is negative. We roughly have an idea of what  $J$  can be. In reality,  $-iJ$  is merely the difference between the natural number and the deviated natural number  $F$ . It is the Natural Constant of Deviation,  $F - e = -iJ$ . Based on known values:

$$(11) \quad F - e = -iJ \approx 0.08948841357.$$

At this point, I disagree with the prior tensions. There is in fact one method I discovered that can successfully evaluate the huge integral. That will only be revealed once we begin the dissection. First, look closely at the numerator:

$$(12) \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(it)} - \frac{1}{\Gamma(-it)} = z - z^*.$$

It is exactly a complex number subtracted by its conjugate. In complex analysis, there is a simple identity:

$$(13) \quad z - z^* = 2i\text{Im}(z),$$

which implies the numerator of this form:

$$(14) \quad 2i\text{Im}\left(\frac{1}{\Gamma(it)}\right).$$

We can distribute  $2i$  outside the integral:

$$(15) \quad J = 2i \int_0^\infty \frac{\text{Im}\left(\frac{1}{\Gamma(it)}\right)}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt.$$

Though some have explored this possibility, the presence of an  $\text{Im}(z)$  operator causes total discouragement. Again, I believe otherwise. I posit we try to represent the inverse Gamma as a series sum in  $a + ib$  form. We desperately want to cancel out the  $\text{Im}(z)$  function. Luckily, there exists a famous series representation form of the inverse Gamma in analytic number theory [3]. It is written as:

$$(16) \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k z^k$$

Here  $b_k$  represents the real coefficients related to the Riemann Zeta and the Euler-Mascheroni Constants [4].

Coefficient	Closed Form	Decimal Expansion
$b_1$	1	1.00000
$b_2$	$\gamma$	$\sim 0.57722$
$b_3$	$\frac{1}{2}\gamma^2 - \frac{\pi^2}{12}$	$\sim -0.65588$
$b_4$	$\frac{1}{6}\gamma^3 - \frac{\pi^2}{12}\gamma + \frac{1}{3}\zeta(3)$	$\sim -0.04200$
$b_5$	$\frac{1}{24}\gamma^4 - \frac{\pi^2}{24}\gamma^2 + \frac{1}{3}\zeta(3)\gamma + \frac{\pi^4}{1440}$	$\sim -0.16654$

The argument contained inside our specified inverse Gamma function was  $z = it$ . Substitution into the desired series yields:

$$(17) \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(it)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} i^k b_k t^k.$$

We want to separate this sum into  $a + ib$  form. Our only hope is on the powers of  $i$ . Define two summations of the same kind, the first one involves  $k = 2n$  which is an even sum. The even sum is substituted by  $k = 2n$ :

$$(18) \quad \text{Even} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} i^{2n} b_{2n} t^{2n}.$$

Because the  $k = 2n + 1$  index is being shifted upwards by one in the odd term, the summation index decreases by 1. The series starts at 0. Thus:

$$(19) \quad \text{Odd} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} i^{2n+1} b_{2n+1} t^{2n+1}.$$

The entirety like said is the sum of even and odd powers  $total = even + odd$ . Heuristically, we've transformed the entire series into parts:

$$(20) \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(it)} = \text{Even} + \text{Odd} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} i^{2n} b_{2n} t^{2n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} i^{2n+1} b_{2n+1} t^{2n+1}.$$

Because  $i = \sqrt{-1} = (-1)^{1/2}$ , we see that:

$$(21) \quad i^{2n} = (-1)^{2 \cdot n \cdot 1/2} = (-1)^n.$$

Every even power of  $i$  is an integer power of  $-1$ . Likewise, the term  $i^{2n+1}$  simplifies to:

$$(22) \quad i^{2n+1} = (-1)^n \cdot i^1 = i(-1)^n.$$

We combine these transforms together throughout the entire sum for both odd and even terms as predicted:

$$(23) \quad \frac{1}{\Gamma(it)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_{2n} t^{2n} + i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_{2n+1} t^{2n+1}.$$

The integer powers of  $-1$ , real  $b$ -coefficients, and integer powers of some real  $t$ : These values always evaluate to real numbers. Since it is currently in  $a + ib$  form, we can confirm the coefficients of series  $a$  and  $b$  are definitely real. Thus a short hand trick separates the inverse Gamma into a complex series. This was the result I had previously envisioned. Inside the integral,  $\text{Im}(1/\Gamma(it))$  returns the odd term's magnitude (the stripping of  $i$ ). The entire expression is elegantly simplified after expansion, because we have canceled  $\text{Im}(z)$  away.

$$(24) \quad J = 2i \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_{2n+1} t^{2n+1}}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt$$

Everyone may acknowledge Fubini's Theorem with the order of series and integrals, we can move the summation out of the integral.

$$(25) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n b_{2n+1} t^{2n+1}}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt$$

Along the way, we will drag out independent summation coefficients.  $(-1)^n$  completely does not depend on  $t$ . The inverse gamma  $b$ -coefficients are already "constants". These two terms are independent. The expression undergoes a next phase in transformation towards a pure series.

$$(26) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_{2n+1} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{t^{2n+1}}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt$$

Since our goal is to express  $J$  in a simple series, we temporarily need not care about the independent summation terms outside. That's already fixed. What we care about is evaluating the much more manageable block that we now have. The new form has a lot of potential for success in closed form. It awfully resembles some very familiar special function identities I met in analytic number theory. We just need one more tweak. Apply parameterization to  $t$  and replace it with a new variable  $z = 2\pi t$ . The choice regards the unnaturalized and possibly "difficult" kernel  $e^{2\pi t} - 1$  in the denominator. The first order derivative is used to solve for the differential element during variable transformation:

$$(27) \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = 2\pi.$$

Algebraic rearrangement arrives at:

$$(28) \quad dz = 2\pi dt \Rightarrow dt = \frac{dz}{2\pi}.$$

Redefinition of the numerator  $t^{2n+1}$  grants the result:

$$(29) \quad t^{2n+1} = \left(\frac{z}{2\pi}\right)^{2n+1}.$$

In the denominator, we achieve our ultimate goal. The extra  $2\pi$  factor vanishes with  $z$ :

$$(30) \quad e^{2\pi t} - 1 = e^{2\pi \cdot z/2\pi} - 1 = e^z - 1.$$

The entire inner integral transforms into the following.

$$(31) \quad \int_0^\infty \frac{t^{2n+1}}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2n+1}} \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{2n+1}}{e^z - 1} \frac{dt}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{2n+2}} \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{2n+1}}{e^z - 1} dt.$$

Combining previous factors in discrete series, we have an updated representation of  $J$ .

$$(32) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n b_{2n+1}}{(2\pi)^{2n+2}} \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{2n+1}}{e^z - 1} dt$$

For all  $\text{Re}(s) > 0$ , we have a well known improper integral representation by the theorem:

$$(33) \quad \int_0^\infty \frac{t^{s-1}}{e^t - 1} dt = \Gamma(s)\zeta(s).$$

Our final to-be-evaluated integrand resembles the same format as the target identity.  $s - 1$  is equal to  $2n + 1$  in our integral of interest. Since  $n \geq 0$  in the summation,  $2n+1$  is always positive. The identity can be applied only after ensuring  $\text{Re}(2n) > 0$ . We must use  $s - 1 = 2n + 1$ , which offers:

$$(34) \quad s = 2n + 2.$$

Substituting  $s = 2n + 2$  into the desired format for  $\Gamma(s)\zeta(s)$ , leaves no original integral remaining.

$$(35) \quad \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{2n+1}}{e^z - 1} dt = \Gamma(2n + 2)\zeta(2n + 2)$$

For convenience, we want to represent  $\Gamma(2n+2) = (2n+1)!$  because  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ . Hence we obtain a rare pure series representation for  $J$ :

$$(36) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n b_{2n+1} (2n+1)! \zeta(2n+2)}{(2\pi)^{2n+2}}$$

Although our goal has been achieved, this series format is a bit sophisticated. I hunt for elegance not complexity, and I was positive that it could be simplified further. For the zeta function of even positive integers, the series is represented in Bernoulli numbers  $B$  through Euler's Formula:

$$(37) \quad \zeta(2k) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2k}} = (-1)^{k-1} \frac{B_{2k} (2\pi)^{2k}}{2(2k)!}.$$

Because  $2n + 2$  is always even for any integer summation index  $n$ , we satisfy the summation criteria. Acknowledging  $2k = 2n + 2$ , we parameterize  $k = n + 1$ .

$$(38) \quad \zeta(2n + 2) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2n+2}} = (-1)^n \frac{B_{2n+2} (2\pi)^{2n+2}}{2(2n + 2)!}.$$

Multiplying this grand chunk back in place of  $\zeta(2n + 2)$ , we attain:

$$(39) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n b_{2n+1} (2n+1)!}{(2\pi)^{2n+2}} \cdot (-1)^n \frac{B_{2n+2} (2\pi)^{2n+2}}{2(2n + 2)!}.$$

First we combine the powers of  $(-1)$ :

$$(40) \quad (-1)^n \cdot (-1)^n = (-1)^{2n}.$$

Any even integer power of  $-1$  is always 1. We completely eliminate the oscillating magnitudes to full unity:

$$(41) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{2n+1}(2n+1)!}{(2\pi)^{2n+2}} \cdot \frac{B_{2n+2}(2\pi)^{2n+2}}{2(2n+2)!}.$$

There is also a factor  $(2\pi)^{2n+2}$  in both the numerator and denominator. The multiplicative inverses remove each other from the equation cleanly:

$$(42) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{2n+1}(2n+1)! \cdot \frac{B_{2n+2}}{2(2n+2)!}.$$

This is an interesting factorial ratio in our series  $(2n+1)!/(2n+2)!$  can be simplified through the identity  $j! = j(j-1)!$ . Here we denote  $j = 2n+2$ , which implies  $2n+1 = j-1$ . The ratio then equals:

$$(43) \quad \frac{(j-1)!}{j!} = \frac{1}{j}.$$

Effectively it is passed on through  $j!/(j-1)! = j$ . Now expand  $j = 2n+2$  back out, which leaves  $(2n+2)$  in the denominator.

$$(44) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{2n+1}}{2(2n+2)} \cdot B_{2n+2}$$

Obviously, we combine the entirety into one singular fraction. Then I choose to intuitively factor out  $(2n+2)$  into  $2(n+1)$ .

$$(45) \quad J = 2i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{2n+1}B_{2n+2}}{4(n+1)}$$

Multiply  $2i$  back into the series to cancel out the halving multiple  $2i/4 = i/2$ . We leave with an independent factor of  $i/2$ .

$$(46) \quad J = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{ib_{2n+1}B_{2n+2}}{2(n+1)}$$

A seemingly impossible integral, succumbs to an intuitive method. The specified representation hence advances into new territory for the constant. The impact of the result is magnified by recalling the original relation:

$$(47) \quad e = F + iJ \Rightarrow F = e - iJ.$$

The value of  $-iJ$  is equal to  $+J/i$ . It cancels out the imaginary constant inside  $J$  by combining such with its reciprocal. Thus:

$$(48) \quad F = e + J/i = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{2n+1}B_{2n+2}}{2(n+1)}.$$

When both  $e$  and  $J$  have the same summation index, merging into one series is enforced.

$$(49) \quad F = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} + \frac{b_{2n+1}B_{2n+2}}{2(n+1)}$$

Hence we resolve in a new rare identity representing the Fransèn-Robinson constant in one simple series. The closest form yet involves a double sum, which cannot parallel our series. This form requires no integrals, no special functions (the Gamma Function of positive index  $n$  can be simplified), and merely one sum. By exploiting the structural weakness of the massive integral, we find a hidden path of elegance. Perhaps we can expand the understanding of  $F$  into new land with the help of this new relation. There may be new angles to view transcendence. The consequences of this technique expands more than the solution. The third integrand of nearly every Abel-Plana expansion was thought to be an elegant mathematical representation with no applicative closed form. Through the elegant technique introduced within this paper, we may crush other mathematical mysteries in this field with eased assistance. Although I acknowledge the effective non-existence of the Euler Coefficients  $b_k$  in simple closed forms, I can object to the claim for the series well.  $b_k$  is used frequently in other series like the inverse Gamma. This will be no less analytical than any other series with complicated coefficients. It is completely valid and on point to the objective, as long as successful reduction of all complex integrals are met. Though the identity attains establishment, data from a simple multi-digit calculator regarding the first few partial sums is included crucially. The speed of convergence reveals more about the true nature of the natural number. Analysis of such then leads to analysis of series structure, striking our most important criterion.

### 3. COMPUTATIVE ANALYSIS

To verify the convergence to  $F$  like we envisioned, I choose to illustrate the table of partial sums over the first few terms. We will compare the values to the actual Fransèn-Robinson constant and ensure convergence is met.

Term	Partial Series Sum	Convergence Percentage
0	$\sim 2.801615161792379$	$\sim 99.7807840491\%$
1	$\sim 2.807080812388381$	$\sim 99.9754456533\%$
2	$\sim 2.807741679893866$	$\sim 99.9989827467\%$
3	$\sim 2.807781771441899$	$\sim 99.9995893764\%$
4	$\sim 2.807772944414688$	$\sim 99.9999037534\%$
5	$\sim 2.807770243476192$	$\sim 99.999999484$
6	$\sim 2.807770139268401$	$\sim 99.9999963402\%$
7	$\sim 2.807770230417618$	$\sim 99.9999995865\%$
8	$\sim 2.807770245693521$	$\sim 99.9999998695\%$
9	$\sim 2.807770242933009$	$\sim 99.9999999678\%$
10	$\sim 2.807770241892505$	$\sim 99.9999999952\%$

The partial sums seem to start off in extreme proximity to the Fransèn-Robinson Constant. 99.78% accuracy at term 0 is an incredible feat, suggesting that the series converges extremely stably. The data table shows indeed convergence to  $F$  without doubt. An available series with lightning fast convergence is extremely favorable to the methods of decimal computation for  $F$ . In comparison, a standard Taylor series or geometric progression often requires dozens or hundreds of terms to cross 10 decimal places. Our rapid initial convergence phase and the slight fluctuation in the error bar represents the dramatic tug of war between the Bernoulli Numbers and the coefficients  $b_k$ , and the partial sum oscillates up and down the midline of  $F$ .

**3.1. The Identity Structure.** The concurrent series resembles a rapid-convergent series. The base term builds the first 3 correct digits including the base. If you prefer to start at  $n = 1$ , you are guaranteed 4 correct decimals. By term 10, we achieve 9 accurate digits. So now we look deeper into the structure of math: What makes this series work? Why is the sole concurrent representation built from these functions? And: Why does it converge so quickly? The first obvious existence is the presence of  $e$  as a baseline.  $e$  acts as the first-order discrete approximation to the continuous integral  $F$ . The infinite sum that follows it in our series is the exact correction needed to bridge the geometric gap between the discrete sum and the continuous integral. That's our starting block. The Euler Coefficients  $b_k$  are present as the geometric background. They are an inseparable part of the reciprocal Gamma function expanded around  $z = 0$ . It's a component of a natural number in disguise. The Bernoulli numbers act as the algebraic coefficients born from the generating function of finite differences: Because the Fransén-Robinson constant  $F$  is a smooth area under a curve, and Euler's  $e$  is a collection of discrete blocks, you must correct the geometric "overshoot" and "undershoot" between them. The exact difference between the discrete columns and the smooth curve could be perfectly mapped using a specific sequence of fractions (Bernoulli Numbers). The remainder of terms is a necessary byproduct. The series solution for the Fransén-Robinson constant is perfectly set up in such a way that: Every term has its exact role and geometric meaning in the construction of  $F$ . The sole reason why the series sum is much more compact than Chudnovsky's Algorithm or the Ramanujan-Sato Series is tethered to the constant.  $e$  is "the" natural constants, and possesses the natural elegance required for such a perfect series to emerge.

#### 4. CONSEQUENCES IN ANALYSIS

The method used to separate the  $F$ -constant into a distinct series form isn't just restricted to local mathematics. Previously "unsolvable" stalemates may be resolved in the Abel-Plana Expansion by using the same technique. Thus we iterate the consequences of doing so.

**4.1. Series Result for Integral.** The immediate consequences are for instance, the successful evaluation of the Ramanujan style integrals. To this day, the Ramanujan Logarithm used in the representation of  $F$  lacks an algebraic representation in any closed form. By evaluating the Abel-Plana side of the equation into exact form, we consequently solve the improper integral through the "tethered" connection we mentioned prior.

$$(50) \quad F = e + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-t}}{\pi^2 + (\ln t)^2} dt$$

Our new series representation yields:

$$(51) \quad F = e + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{2n+1} B_{2n+2}}{(n+1)}.$$

The new difference  $-iJ$  involvement series is equal to the integral by combining two of the most elegant identities of  $F$  together into one.

$$(52) \quad \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-t}}{\pi^2 + (\ln t)^2} dt = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_{2n+1} B_{2n+2}}{(n+1)}$$

It is highly possible that many other related integrals may be solved through the same method.

**4.2. Generalization of the Abel-Plana Formula.** For future purposes, I would have to generalize the Abel-Plana Formula iteratively through my method, so that its internal structure becomes obvious. The first general step for any function is conversion to  $Im(z)$  format:

$$(53) \quad i \int_0^\infty \frac{f(it) - f(-it)}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt = 2i \cdot i \int_0^\infty \frac{Im(f(it))}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt = -2 \int_0^\infty \frac{Im(f(it))}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt.$$

Substitution of a new variable  $x = 2\pi t$  to remove the impractical kernel in the denominator is the second generalization:

$$(54) \quad i \int_0^\infty \frac{f(it) - f(-it)}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt = -2 \cdot \int_0^\infty \frac{Im(f(ix/2\pi))}{e^x - 1} \frac{dx}{2\pi}.$$

By showing that  $2/2\pi = 1/\pi$ , the entirety collapses:

$$(55) \quad i \int_0^\infty \frac{f(it) - f(-it)}{e^{2\pi t} - 1} dt = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{Im(f(ix/2\pi))}{e^x - 1} dx.$$

Now we can switch the variable definitions back to  $t$ , by defining  $x = t$ .

$$(56) \quad -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{Im(f(it/2\pi))}{e^t - 1} dt$$

The general Abel-Plana Formula can be computed via:

$$(57) \quad \sum_{n=0}^\infty f(n) = \frac{1}{2}f(0) + \int_0^\infty f(x) dx - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{Im(f(it/2\pi))}{e^t - 1} dt$$

Usually, unfamiliar improper integrands have a more obvious chance of analytical evaluation given the baseline of a  $e^t - 1$  kernel. Future mathematicians should see through the symmetry much quicker this way. Generalization then leads to specialization. Given a much more complex starter series with another series embedded inside (such as having a zeta function inside another series), we use the integrand  $S \cdot f(n)$ . Here  $S = \sum_{k=0}^\infty a_k(n)$ . We can always tune the starter summation to  $k = 0$  by adding and subtracting altering the index.  $a_k(n)$  is the normalized form of the original coefficients, where the series starts at  $k = 0$ . The main reason for constructing a specialized formula is to target the high-intensity conjectures such as the Riemann Hypothesis or transcendence conjectures, where nested series are frequently required. Here we can move the series sum outside  $Im(z)$ .

$$(58) \quad \sum_{n=0}^\infty S(n)f(n) = \frac{1}{2}S(0)f(0) + \sum_{n=0}^\infty \int_0^\infty a_n(x)f(x) dx - \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{n=0}^\infty \int_0^\infty \frac{Im(a_n(it/2\pi)f(it/2\pi))}{e^t - 1} dt$$

You could effectively combine both integrals through the Sum Rule for Integration, as well as simultaneously combining both series sums into one using the Sum Rule for Series.

$$(59) \quad \sum_{n=0}^\infty S(n)f(n) = \frac{1}{2}S(0)f(0) + \sum_{n=0}^\infty \int_0^\infty a_n(t)f(t) - \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{Im(a_n(it/2\pi)f(it/2\pi))}{e^t - 1} dt$$

In carefully planned scenarios in future research, the specialized formula offers us awesome pre-preparation. The method's effectiveness is demonstrated through this process.

## 5. TRANSCENDENCE AND IRRATIONALITY

Through the mysterious nature of the coefficients  $b_k$ , we cannot conclude its transcendence or irrationality yet. The issue is with the constants that make up the coefficients.  $b_k$  currently involves combinations of constants like  $\gamma$  or  $\zeta(5)$ . If we can't even be sure that the Euler-Mascheroni Constants are even irrational, we cannot even begin any conclusions on what the entire coefficient might be. Even proving  $e + \pi$  is extremely difficult, then analyzing the irrational structure of an unpredictable superposition with an unfamiliar/unconfirmed collection of transcendentals is currently impossible.  $b_k$  coefficients are the internal structure, thus deserving the most focus. The Bernoulli Numbers and the rational denominator always combine into a rational number. If  $F$  is irrational, then  $b_{2n+1}$  would be the driver behind its infinite complexity. The other constants merely ensure convergence and correction. Even with the new forms in hand, nothing is to be concluded of the transcendence and irrationality of  $F$  as of current knowledge. That is, unless we can find another piece of the puzzle on an identity about  $b_k$  itself. Until then, we are not sure.

## CONCLUSION

In this paper, we presented a novel methodology for representing the Fransén-Robinson constant  $F$ . By evaluating the 3rd term integrand of the Abel-Plana expansion, we successfully derived the first discrete, rapidly converging closed-form series for this constant. This formulation exploits the delicate boundary of divergence—where normally divergent terms symmetrically cancel—resulting in an exceptionally elegant representation. To formalize this approach, we generalized the Abel-Plana expansion using a parameterized kernel, making the summation process adaptable to other complex integrals lacking known closed forms. While this yields significant insight into the structure of  $F$ , a fundamental bottleneck remains. Establishing the transcendence of  $F$  requires fully unraveling the properties of the coefficients  $b_k$ , which conceal complex, un-analyzable combinations of known and suspected transcendental terms. Although this work advances our understanding of the constant, fully mastering its underlying number-theoretic nature remains the target of future mathematical endeavors. If we can reveal anything parallel to the transcendence of  $\gamma$ , we may have a tiny chance.

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