BO1 History of Mathematics Lecture VIII Establishing rigorous thinking in analysis

MT 2021 Week 4

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Summary

Part 1

- French institutions
- Fourier series
- Early-19th-century rigour

Part 2

- Limits, continuity, differentiability
- Mathematics of small quantities
- The baton passes from France to Germany

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The 1798 Egyptian Expedition Under the Command of Bonaparte, Cogniet

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French revolution (1789) led to

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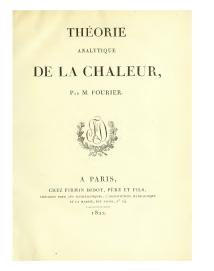
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and a new focus on rigour



Joseph Fourier, *Analytic theory of heat*, 1822



See: Bernard Maurey, 'Fourier, one man, several lives', *European* Mathematical Society Newsletter, no. 113 (Sept 2019), 8–20

Suppose that $\phi(x) = a \sin x + b \sin 2x + c \sin 3x + \cdots$

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After many pages of calculations, multiplying and comparing power series, Fourier found that the coefficient of sin nx must be

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Fourier's derivation was based on 'naive' manipulations of infinite series. It was ingenious but non-rigorous and shaky (see: *Mathematics emerging*, §8.4.1).

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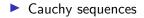
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BUT it led to profound results

The development of 'rigour':

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Cauchy sequences



The development of 'rigour':

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Cauchy sequences

continuity

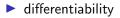


The development of 'rigour':

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The development of 'rigour':

Cauchy sequences

continuity

limits

differentiability

 \blacktriangleright ϵ , δ notation

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Bernard Bolzano, Purely analytic proof of the theorem that between any two values which give opposite values lies at least one real root of the equation, 1817



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The most common kind of proof depends on a truth borrowed from geometry, namely, that every continuous line of simple curvature of which the ordinates are first positive and then negative (or conversely) must necessarily intersect the x-axis somewhere at a point that lies in between those ordinates. There is certainly no question concerning the correctness, nor indeed the obviousness, of this geometrical propositon. But it is clear that it is an intolerable offense against correct method to derive truths of pure (or general) mathematics (i.e., arithmetic, algebra, analysis) from considerations which belong to a merely applied (or special) part, namely, geometry.

If a series of quantities has the property that the difference between its n-th term and every later one remains smaller than any given quantity ... then there is always a certain constant quantity ... which the terms of this series approach.

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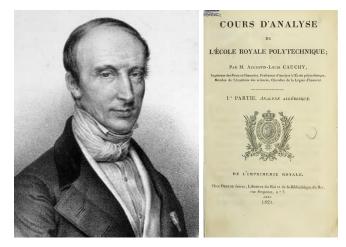
If a series of quantities has the property that the difference between its n-th term and every later one remains smaller than any given quantity ... then there is always a certain constant quantity ... which the terms of this series approach.

Proof: The hypothesis that there exists a quantity X which the terms of this series approach ... contains nothing impossible ...

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §16.1.1; for a full translation, see: S. B. Russ, A translation of Bolzano's paper on the intermediate value theorem, *Historia Mathematica* **7**(2) (1980), 156–185)

Cauchy's Cours d'analyse

Augustin-Louis Cauchy, *Cours d'analyse de l'École royale* polytechnique (1821)



(Annotated translation by Robert E. Bradley and C. Edward Sandifer, Springer, 2009)

Cauchy sequences: Cauchy (1821)

Augustin-Louis Cauchy, *Cours d'analyse* (1821), Ch. VI, pp. 124, 125:

In order for the series $u_0, u_1, u_2, ...$ [that is, $\sum u_i$] to be convergent ... it is necessary and sufficient that the partial sums

$$s_n = u_0 + u_1 + u_2 + \&c. \ldots + u_{n-1}$$

converge to a fixed limit s: in other words, it is necessary and sufficient that for infinitely large values of the number n, the sums

$$s_n, s_{n+1}, s_{n+2}, \& c...$$

differ from the limit s, and consequently from each other, by infinitely small quantities.

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(See: Mathematics emerging, §16.1.2.)

Further results from Cauchy's Cours d'analyse:

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Further results from Cauchy's Cours d'analyse:





Further results from Cauchy's Cours d'analyse:

ratio test;





Further results from Cauchy's Cours d'analyse:

ratio test;

root test;

alternating series test (proof uses Cauchy sequences);

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and many more.

(See Mathematics emerging, §16.1.2)

Cauchy sequences concluded

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▶ in Abel's proof of the general binomial theorem (1826)

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BUT the convergence of Cauchy sequences themselves remained unproved

Part 2: Further Rigour

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Early definitions of continuity:



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Later definitions of continuity:

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[Question: dependence? plagiarism? or a common source?]

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D'Alembert (1751): 'one may approach a limit as closely as one wishes ... but never surpass it'; example: polygons and circle; he assumed that $\lim AB = \lim A \times \lim B$; a dictionary definition only — no theory Encyclopedie online (in French)

Limits: a later definition

Cauchy, Cours d'analyse (1821), p. 4:

When the values successively given to a variable approach indefinitely to a fixed value, so as to finish by differing from it by as little as one would wish, the latter is called the <u>limit</u> of all the others.

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Examples:

- an irrational number is a limit of rationals;
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Examples:

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BUT still no formal definition of

- 'as small as one wishes',
- 'as closely as one wishes', ...

Differentiability: early ideas

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led naturally to consideration of

$$\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$$

as an approximation to f'(x), for small h

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Ampère (1806) struggled with the meaning of

$$\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$$

- why isn't it just zero or infinite?



Cauchy, Résumé des leçons données à l'École royale polytechnique sur le calcul infinitésimal, 1823

(Translation by Dennis M. Cates, Fairview Academic Press, 2012)

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but no concerns about existence in general

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §14.1.4.)

Arbitrarily small intervals

A theorem of Lagrange (1797):

If the first derived function of a function f is strictly positive on an interval [a, b], then f(b) > f(a).

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Unconvincing to modern eyes, but a useful technique.

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §11.2.3.)

Cauchy, *Cours d'analyse* (1821), Note III, p. 460 (On the numerical solution of equations):

Theorem: Let f be a real function of the variable x, which remains continuous with respect to this variable between the limits $x = x_0$, x = X. If the two quantities $f(x_0)$, f(X) are of opposite signs, the equation f(x) = 0 will be satisfied by one or more real values of x contained between x_0 and X.

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §11.2.6.)

Cauchy's proof:

Choose m > 1. Divide the interval $[x_0, X]$ into m equal parts;

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Cauchy's proof:

Choose m > 1. Divide the interval $[x_0, X]$ into m equal parts; find neighbouring division points x_1, X' such that $f(x_1), f(X')$ are of opposite signs.

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IVT revisited

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But it also provides a much more convincing proof of the Intermediate Value Theorem than that appearing earlier in Cauchy's text (*Cours d'analyse*, Ch. II, Theorem 4: p. 44).

ε and δ appear

A theorem of Cauchy, Résumé (1823):

Suppose that in the interval $[x_0, X]$ we have A < f'(x) < B. Then we also have

$$A < \frac{f(X) - f(x_0)}{X - x_0} < B$$

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Proof: Choose two quantities ϵ , δ ,... such that for $i < \delta$

$$f'(x) - \epsilon < rac{f(x+i) - f(x)}{i} < f'(x) + \epsilon$$

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etc.

(See: Mathematics emerging, §14.1.5.)

Hints of a broader class of functions

If a Taylor series exists for a given function, and all the coefficients vanish, then surely the function itself must vanish ...

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However, Cauchy gave the example $f(x) = e^{-x^2} + e^{-x^{-2}}$, which is clearly never zero, but all of its derivatives vanish

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So not every function can be expanded into a Taylor series, and it appears to be possible to conceive of functions to which the calculus is not immediately or naturally applicable ...

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BUT we have no direct sources, only lecture notes or books by his pupils and followers

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From France to Germany

By the later 19th century the mathematical centre of gravity in Europe had moved from the Parisian Écoles to the German universities:

Göttingen (est. 1734): Gauss, Dirichlet, [Dedekind], Riemann, Klein, Hilbert, ...

Berlin (est. 1810): Crelle (editor), Dirichlet, Eisenstein, Kummer, [Jacobi], Kronecker, Weierstrass, ...

with a focus on both research and teaching.