

BO1 History of Mathematics
Lecture VI
Infinite series
Part 3: The 18th century

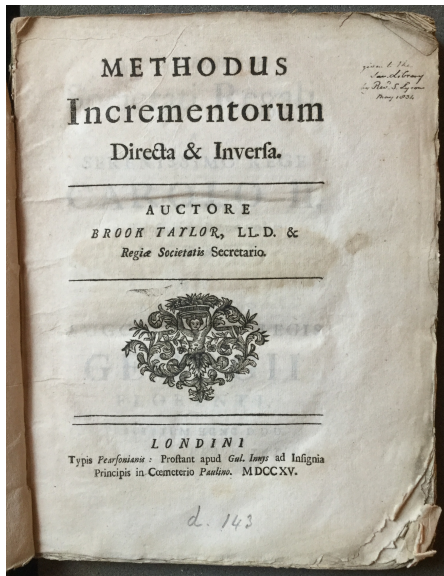
MT 2021 Week 3

Move on to the 18th century

Eighteenth century:

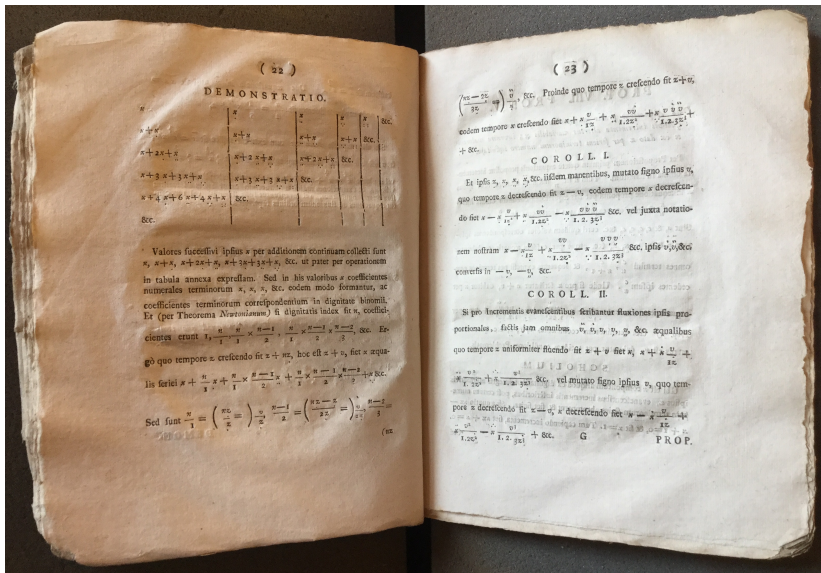
- ▶ as in 17th century, much progress;
- ▶ also many questions and doubts

Taylor series



Brook Taylor,
*The method of direct and
inverse increments* (1715)

Taylor series



(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §8.2.1.)

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$$x + \frac{n}{1}\delta x + \frac{n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2}\delta(\delta x) + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}\delta(\delta(\delta x)) + \dots$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & x + \frac{n}{1}\delta x + \frac{n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2}\delta(\delta x) + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}\delta(\delta(\delta x)) + \dots \\ &= x + \delta x \frac{n\delta z}{1\delta z} + \delta(\delta x) \frac{n\delta z(n-1)\delta z}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot (\delta z)^2} + \delta(\delta(\delta x)) \frac{n\delta z(n-1)\delta z(n-2)\delta z}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3(\delta z)^3} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

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Assumptions:

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- ▶ $\delta x \propto \dot{x}$ and $\delta z \propto \dot{z}$, so in each case the former can be replaced by the latter

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In essence (in modern terms): $\frac{\delta x}{\delta z} \rightarrow \frac{dx}{dz}$, $\frac{\delta(\delta x)}{(\delta z)^2} \rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dz^2}$, and so on

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Again in modern terms, we arrive at:

$$x + \frac{dx}{dz} v + \frac{d^2x}{dz^2} \frac{v^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{d^3x}{dz^3} \frac{v^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \dots$$

Cf. Taylor's notation in *Mathematics Emerging*, §8.1.2

Suppose that y can be expressed as
 $A + Bz + Cz^2 + Dz^3 + \dots$

610 *Of the inverse method of Fluxions.* Book II.

ties multiplied by $k + 1x^m + mx^{2m}$ &c. raised to a power of any exponent k . *De quadrat. curvar.* prop. 5. &c. 6.

751. The following theorem is likewise of great use in this doctrine. Suppose that y is any quantity that can be expressed by a series of this form $A + Bz + Cz^2 + Dz^3 + \dots$ where A, B, C, \dots represent invariable coefficients as usual, any of which may be supposed to vanish. When z vanishes, let E be the value of y , and let $\dot{E}, \ddot{E}, \ddot{\dot{E}}, \dots$ be then the respective values of $\dot{y}, \ddot{y}, \ddot{\dot{y}}, \dots$ &c. z being supposed to flow uniformly.

Then $y = E + \frac{\dot{E}z}{1} + \frac{\ddot{E}z^2}{1 \times 2 z^2} + \frac{\ddot{\dot{E}}z^3}{1 \times 2 \times 3 z^3} + \frac{\ddot{\dot{\dot{E}}}z^4}{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 z^4} + \dots$

&c. the law of the continuation of which series is manifest. For since $y = A + Bz + Cz^2 + Dz^3 + \dots$ it follows that when $z = 0$, A is equal to y ; but (by the supposition) E is then equal to y ; consequently $A = E$. By taking the fluxions, and dividing by \dot{z} , $\frac{\dot{y}}{z} = B + 2Cz + 3Dz^2 + \dots$ and when

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$2C + 6Dz + \dots$ let $z = 0$, and substituting \dot{E} for \dot{y} , $\frac{\ddot{E}}{z^2} =$

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Maclaurin's *Treatise of fluxions*, vol. II, p. 610

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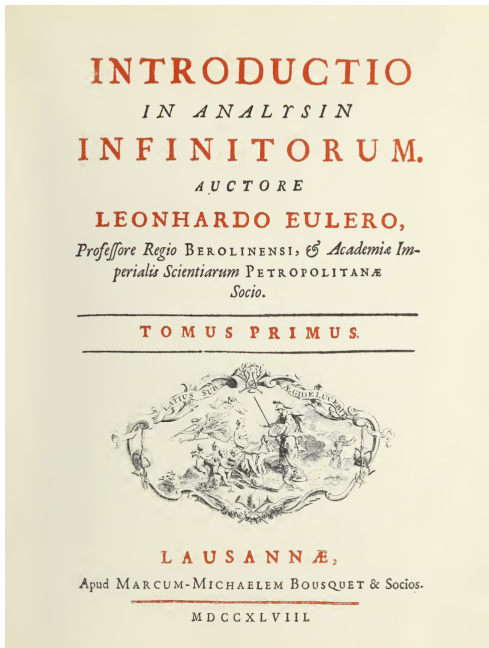
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“the law of the continuation of [the] series is manifest”

(*Mathematics emerging*, §8.2.2.)

Euler's *Introductio*

Leonhard Euler, *Introduction to analysis of the infinite* (1748)



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Since fractional or irrational functions of z are not confined to complete forms $A + Bz + Cz^2 + Dz^3 + \text{etc.}$ where the number of terms is finite, it is usual to seek expressions of this kind carrying on to infinity, which exhibit the value of the function whether fractional or irrational. And indeed the nature of transcendental functions is thought to be better understood if expressed in this kind of form, even though infinite.

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Euler derived series for sine, cosine, exp, log, etc.;

he also discovered relationships between them, for example:

$$\cos v = \frac{1}{2}(e^{iv} + e^{-iv})$$



XXXV^{ME} MÉMOIRE.

Reflexions sur les Suites & sur les Racines imaginaires.

S. I.

Reflexions sur les suites divergentes ou convergentes.

1. SI on éleve $1 + \mu$ à la puissance m , le terme n^e de la serie sera $\mu^{n-1} \times \frac{m(m-1)\dots(m-n+2)}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots n-1}$, & le suivant, c'est-à-dire le $(n+1)^e$, sera $\mu^n \times \frac{m(m-1)\dots(m-n+2)(m-n+1)}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots n-1 \cdot n}$; donc le rapport du $(n+1)^e$ terme au n^e sera $\frac{\mu(m-n+1)}{n}$; or pour que la serie soit convergente, il faut que ce rapport (abstraction faite du signe qu'il doit avoir) soit $<$ que l'unité.

2. Remarquons d'abord que la formule précédente donnera le moyen de former très-prompement les termes d'une suite: par exemple, si $m = \frac{1}{2}$, il faudra multiplier le premier terme par $\mu \times \frac{1}{2}$ pour avoir le second;

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D'Alembert, 1761:

... all reasoning and calculation based on series that do not converge, or that one may suppose not to, always seems to me extremely suspect, even when the results of this reasoning agree with truths known in other ways.



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D'Alembert, 1761:

... all reasoning and calculation based on series that do not converge, or that one may suppose not to, always seems to me extremely suspect, even when the results of this reasoning agree with truths known in other ways.

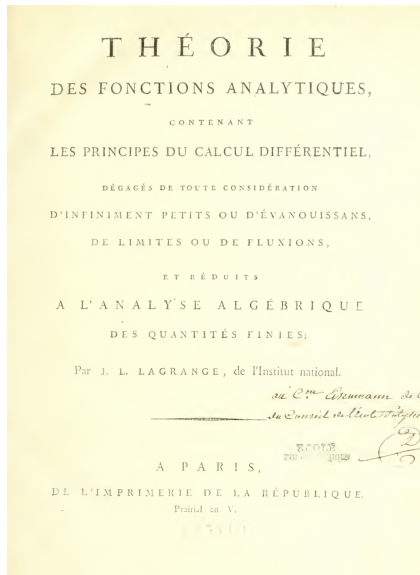
Introduced, without proof, what came to be known (in a more general setting) as **d'Alembert's ratio test**.

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §8.3.1.)

Lagrange's use of series

J.-L. Lagrange, *Théorie des fonctions analytiques* (1797)

Lagrange's use of series: an attempt to liberate calculus from infinitely small quantities (essentially by treating only those functions that may be described by power series)



Lagrange and convergence

... [one needs] a way of stopping the expansion of the series at any term one wants and of estimating the value of the remainder of the series.

This problem, one of the most important in the theory of series, has not yet been resolved in a general way

Lagrange found bounds for the 'remainder' ...

and applied his findings to the binomial series ...

thus proving what Newton had taken for granted

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §8.3.2.)