

BO1 History of Mathematics
Lecture VI
Infinite series
Part 2: The 17th century

MT 2021 Week 3

Infinite series 1600–1900: an overview

Lecture VI:

- ▶ mid–late 17th century: many discoveries
- ▶ early 18th century: much progress
- ▶ later 18th century: doubts and questions

Infinite series 1600–1900: an overview

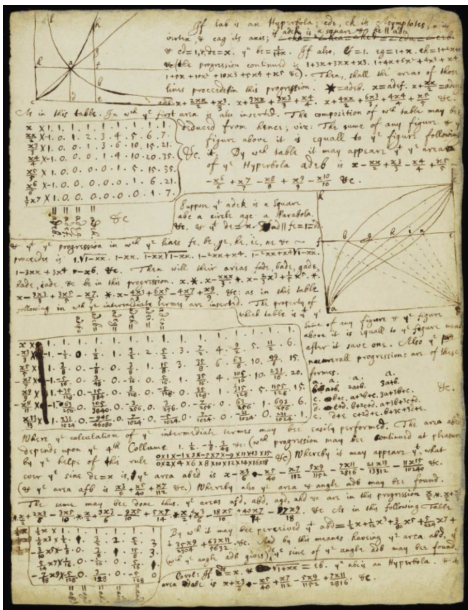
Lecture VI:

- ▶ mid–late 17th century: many discoveries
- ▶ early 18th century: much progress
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Lecture VII:

- ▶ early 19th century: Fourier series
- ▶ early 19th century: convergence better understood

Newton and the general binomial theorem



CUL Add. MS 3958.3, f. 72

(See lecture IV)

Recall: Newton's integration of $(1+x)^{-1}$

	$(1+x)^{-1}$	$(1+x)^0$	$(1+x)^1$	$(1+x)^2$	$(1+x)^3$	$(1+x)^4$...
x	1	1	1	1	1	1	...
$\frac{x^2}{2}$	-1	0	1	2	3	4	...
$\frac{x^3}{3}$	1	0	0	1	3	6	...
$\frac{x^4}{4}$	-1	0	0	0	1	4	...
$\frac{x^5}{5}$	1	0	0	0	0	1	...
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots

The entry in the row labelled $\frac{x^m}{m}$ and the column labelled $(1+x)^n$ is the coefficient of $\frac{x^m}{m}$ in $\int(1+x)^n dx$. (NB.

Newton did **not** use the notation $\int(1+x)^n dx$.)

Newton's method of interpolation

	$=f_0$	$=f_1$	$=f_2$	$=f_3$	$=f_4$	$=f_5$	$=f_6$	$=f_7$	$=f_8$	$=f_9$	$=f_{10}$	$=f_{11}$	$=f_{12}$	$=f_{13}$	$=f_{14}$	$=f_{15}$
$x^0 X$	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.	1.
$-\frac{x^1}{3} X$	-1.	$-\frac{1}{2}$	0.	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.	$\frac{3}{2}$	2.	$\frac{5}{2}$	3.	$\frac{7}{2}$	4.	$\frac{9}{2}$	5.	$\frac{11}{2}$	6.	
$\frac{x^2}{5} X$	1.	$\frac{3}{8}$	0.	$-\frac{1}{8}$	0.	$\frac{3}{8}$	1.	$\frac{15}{8}$	3.	$\frac{35}{8}$	6.	$\frac{63}{8}$	10.	$\frac{99}{8}$	15.	
$-\frac{x^3}{7} X$	-1.	$-\frac{5}{16}$	0.	$\frac{3}{48}$	0.	$-\frac{1}{16}$	0.	$\frac{5}{16}$	1.	$\frac{35}{16}$	4.	$\frac{105}{16}$	10.	$\frac{231}{16}$	20.	
$\frac{x^4}{9} X$	1.	$+\frac{75}{128}$	0.	$-\frac{15}{384}$	0.	$\frac{3}{128}$	0.	$-\frac{5}{128}$	0.	$\frac{35}{128}$	1.	$\frac{315}{128}$	5.	$\frac{1155}{128}$	15.	
$-\frac{x^5}{11} X$	-1.	$-\frac{63}{256}$	0.	$\frac{105}{3840}$	0.	$-\frac{3}{256}$	0.	$\frac{3}{256}$	0.	$-\frac{7}{256}$	0.	$\frac{63}{256}$	1.	$\frac{693}{256}$	6.	
$\frac{x^6}{13} X$	1.	$\frac{231}{1024}$	0.	$-\frac{245}{46080}$	0.	$\frac{7}{1024}$	0.	$-\frac{5}{1024}$	0.	$\frac{7}{1024}$	0.	$\frac{-31}{1024}$	0.	$\frac{231}{1024}$	1.	

... of intermediate terms may be ...

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In fact, this method extends easily to any integer n

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Newton's explanation:

The property of which table is that the sum of any figure and the figure above it is equal to the figure next after it save one. Also the numerall progressions are of these forms.

a	a	a	a	
b	$a + b$	$2a + b$	$3a + b$	
c	$b + c$	$a + 2b + c$	$3a + 3b + c$	&c.
d	$c + d$	$b + 2c + d$	$a + 3b + 3c + d$	
e	$d + e$	$c + 2d + e$	$b + 3c + 3d + e$	

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §8.1.1.)

Newton's method of interpolation

	$(1-x^2)^{-1}$	$(1-x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$	$(1-x^2)^0$	$(1-x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$	$(1-x^2)^1$	$(1-x^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}$	$(1-x^2)^2$...
x	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	...
$-\frac{x^3}{3}$	-1	$-\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$\frac{3}{2}$	2	...
$\frac{x^5}{5}$	1	$\frac{3}{8}$	0	$-\frac{1}{8}$	0	$\frac{3}{8}$	1	...
$-\frac{x^7}{7}$	-1	$-\frac{5}{16}$	0	$\frac{3}{48}$	0	$-\frac{1}{16}$	0	...
$\frac{x^9}{9}$	1	$\frac{35}{128}$	0	$-\frac{15}{384}$	0	$\frac{3}{128}$	0	...
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots

The entry in the row labelled $\pm \frac{x^m}{m}$ and the column labelled $(1-x^2)^n$ is the coefficient of $\pm \frac{x^m}{m}$ in $\int (1-x^2)^n dx$.

(NB: possible slips in the last two rows of the original table)

Newton's method of interpolation

Can fill in some initial values by other methods

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Newton applied the formula

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!}$$

to fractional n ,

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Newton applied the formula

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!}$$

to fractional n , so that

$$\binom{1/2}{1} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \binom{1/2}{2} = \frac{1/2(1/2-1)}{2!} = -\frac{1}{8}$$

and so on

Newton and the general binomial theorem

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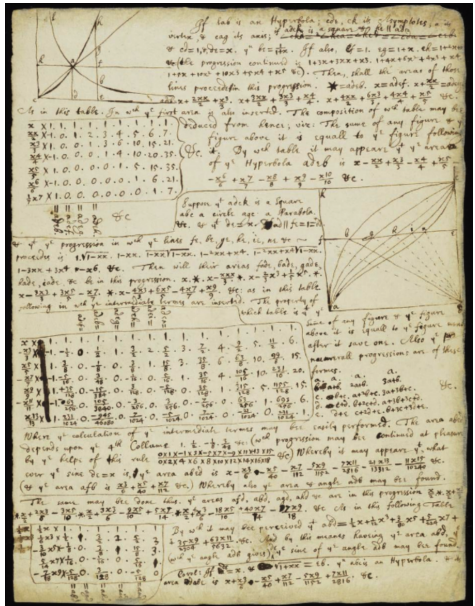
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On Newton and the binomial theorem, see

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xv_PWwdDWDk

One more table

The table at the bottom of the page gives the interpolations for $(1+x)^n$ for half-integer n



Further discoveries by Newton

By further interpolations and integrations (based on strong geometric intuition) Newton found further series for:

▶ $(1 + x)^{p/q}$

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- ▶ arcsin, arctan, ...

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §§8.1.2–8.1.3.)

Newton on the move from finite to infinite series

And whatever common analysis performs by equations made up of a finite number of terms (whenever it may be possible), this method may always perform by infinite equations: in consequence, I have never hesitated to bestow on it also the name of analysis.

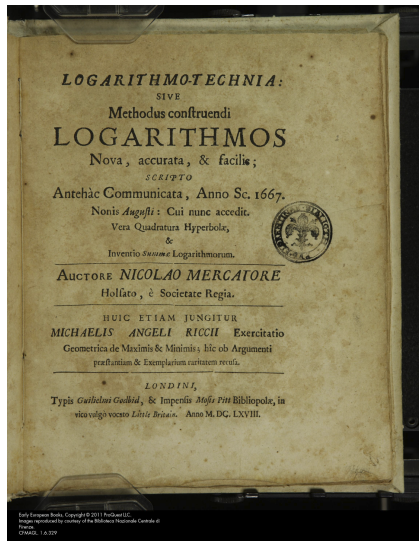
(*De analysi*, 1669; Derek T. Whiteside, *The mathematical papers of Isaac Newton*, CUP, 1967–1981, vol. II, p. 241)

Other 17th-century discoveries (2)

Mercator's series (1668), found by long division:

$$\frac{1}{1+a} = 1 - a + aa - a^3 + a^4 \text{ (&c.)}$$

Gives rise to series for log



Other 17th-century discoveries (3)



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$$\theta = \tan \theta - \frac{1}{2} \tan^3 \theta + \frac{1}{5} \tan^5 \theta - \dots$$

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$$\text{for } -\frac{\pi}{4} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$$

Gregory to Collins, 23rd November 1670:

I suppose these series I send here enclosed, may have some affinity with those inventions you advertise me that Mr. Newton had discovered.

(On Gregory's work, see: *Mathematics emerging*, §8.1.4.)

Other 17th-century discoveries (4)

Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz (1675):

The area of a circle with unit diameter is given by

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} + \&c.$$

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The error in the sum is successively less than $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{7}$, etc.

Therefore the series as a whole contains all approximations at once, or values greater than correct and less than correct: for according to how far it is understood to be continued, the error will be smaller than a given fraction, and therefore also less than any given quantity. Therefore the series as a whole expresses the exact value.

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §8.3.)

Series in the 17th century: 'convergence'

John Wallis (1656), *Arithmetica infinitorum*:

$$\square = \frac{4}{\pi} = \frac{3 \times 3 \times 5 \times 5 \times 7 \times 7 \times \dots}{2 \times 4 \times 4 \times 6 \times 6 \times 8 \times \dots}$$

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and so on)

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Leibniz (1675): 'alternating' series

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Power series rank with calculus as a major advance of the 17th century

Calculus and series combined

Newton's treatise of 1671,
published 1736

