

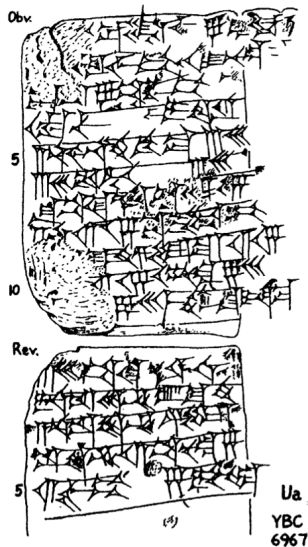
O1 History of Mathematics
Lecture IX
Classical algebra: equation solving
1800BC – AD1800

Monday 5th November 2018
(Week 5)

Summary

- ▶ Early quadratic equations
- ▶ Cubic and quartic equations
- ▶ Further 16th-century developments
- ▶ 17th century ideas
- ▶ 18th century ideas
- ▶ Looking back

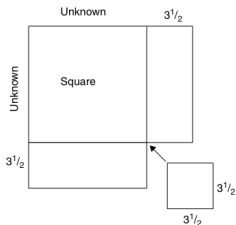
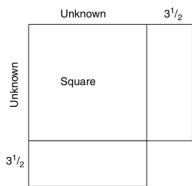
Completing the square, c. 1800 BC



A Babylonian scribe, clay tablet BM 13901, c. 1800 BC:

A reciprocal exceeds its reciprocal by 7. What are the reciprocal and its reciprocal? Break in half the 7 by which the reciprocal exceeds its reciprocal, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ will come up. Multiply $3\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $12\frac{1}{4}$ will come up. Append 60, the area, to the $12\frac{1}{4}$ which came up for you and $72\frac{1}{4}$ will come up. What is the square-side of $72\frac{1}{4}$? $8\frac{1}{2}$. Put down $8\frac{1}{2}$ and $8\frac{1}{2}$ and subtract $3\frac{1}{2}$ from one of them; append $3\frac{1}{2}$ to one of them. One is 12, the other is 5. The reciprocal is 12, its reciprocal 5.

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Points to note

- ▶ We have used the word 'equation' without writing down anything in symbols
- ▶ Solution recipe derived from geometrical insight
- ▶ **Not** (explicitly) a general solution — but reader ought to be able to adapt the method
- ▶ Is this algebra? Geometrical algebra?

Diophantus of Alexandria (3rd century AD)

Arithmeticon Liber I.

47

Ad positiones erit primus $\frac{1}{2}$. secundus $\frac{1}{3}$. tertius $\frac{1}{4}$. quartus $\frac{1}{5}$. Abiciatur denominator partium. Erit itaque primus 10. secundus 9. tertius 12. quartus 14. & satisfaciunt questioni.

Ἐπι τῶν ἀριθμῶν ἡμισυ ὁ μὲν πρῶτος ἢ 10 ὁ δὲ δεύτερος 9 ὁ δὲ τρίτος 12 ὁ δὲ τέταρτος 14. καὶ τῶν αὐτῶν μέρη 1/2 ὁ δὲ πρῶτος 1/3 ὁ δὲ δεύτερος 1/4 ὁ δὲ τρίτος 1/5. καὶ τῶν αὐτῶν μέρη 1/2 ὁ δὲ πρῶτος 1/3 ὁ δὲ δεύτερος 1/4 ὁ δὲ τρίτος 1/5.

IN QUESTIONEM XXVI.

FADDM ratio est huius questionis, quæ & precedentis. Quæ fit infinita recipi solutione, & si determinanda sit ad vicinam, præscribendus est numerus in quo fieri debet æqualitas, tuncque operabimur vt in precedente traditum est. Quod autem denominatores abici iubet Diophantus, vt solutio in integris habeatur, id fit qua si inveni semel numeri questionis satisfaciens, per eundem multiplicetur vel diuidatur, producta isdem & quotiens questionem soluet, cuius rei ratio est quam attigit Xilander, quia scilicet quoties numeri, partes proportionales vicissim dant & accipiunt, quæ autem partium cognominum eadem totorum inter se, ac vicissim est ratio. Vnde etiam colligi potest alius modus solvendi huiusmodi questionibus, cum numero præscribitur in quo fiat æqualitas. Nam si quæstio prius solvatur per operationem Diophanti, & numerus in quo fit æqualitas diuidatur per eum quæ præscribitur, & per quotientem diuidatur item inveni numeri per operationem Diophanti, habebuntur quæstio numeri. Verbi gratia, si queratur quatuor numerorum diuidæ & accipientes eadem partes quas requirit Diophantus, ita vt facta contributione quilibet remaneat 19; solus prius questionem cum Diophantus, & inuenies numeros 10, 9, 12, 14. Et numerus in quo fit æqualitas erit 119. Hunc ergo fit diuidas per numerum præscriptum 19, tunc quotiens 6. per quem fit diuidas illigulam inuenies numeros, sicut 75, 46, 60, 37, quæstio numeri. Possit etiam tam late quam præcedit paulo aliter proponi, requirendo scilicet facta motua contributione sicut numeri diuersi non æquales. Verbi gratia, si inueniendi quatuor numeri, vt prius dando sui trientem & accipiendo sextantem quarti fiat 6. Secundus dando sui quadrantem, & accipiendo trientem secundi fiat 7. Tertius dando sui quintantem, & accipiendo quadrantem secundi fiat 14. Quartus dando sui sextantem, & accipiendo quintantem terti, fiat 13. Et tunc imitabimur artificium operationis quæ ad precedentem tradita est, hoc modo. Ponatur primus 3. N. cum ergo multatus suo triente & additus sextante quarti faciat 6. erit 6 - 2 N. sextans quartæ, & ipse quartus 16 - 12 N. vnde ablato sextante, manent 30. - 10 N. quæ cum triente terti debent facere 31. Igitur quintans terti est 10 N. - 7. Ideoque ipse tertius est 10 N. - 31, qui multatus quintante manet 40 N. - 18. debetque tunc cum quadrante secundi facere 14. Quare 42 - 40 N. est quadrans secundi, & ipse secundus 168 - 160 N. vnde ablato quadrante manent 126 - 120 N. quæ cum triente primi debent facere 7. sed faciunt 126 - 119 N. hoc ergo sequatur 7, & fit 1 N. 1. Ad positiones primus est 3, secundus 8, tertius 15, quartus 14.

QUESTIO XXVII.

INVENIRE tres numeros vt quilibet à reliquis duobus coniunctis partem imperatam accipiat, & sicut æquales. Statutum sit primum à reliquis

Ἐπι τρεῖς ἀριθμοὺς ὅπως ἕκαστος πρὸς τὸ λοιπῶν δύο ὡς τοὺς ἀριθμοὺς μέρη 1/2 ὁ πρῶτος 1/3 ὁ δεύτερος 1/4 ὁ τρίτος 1/5. καὶ τῶν αὐτῶν μέρη 1/2 ὁ πρῶτος 1/3 ὁ δεύτερος 1/4 ὁ τρίτος 1/5.

Problem I.27: Find two numbers such that their sum and product are given numbers

Muḥammad ibn Mūsā al-Khwārizmī (c. 780–c. 850)



Noted six cases of equations:

1. Squares are equal to roots
($ax^2 = bx$)
2. Squares are equal to numbers
($ax^2 = c$)
3. Roots are equal to numbers
($bx = c$)
4. Squares and roots are equal to numbers
($ax^2 + bx = c$)
5. Squares and numbers are equal to roots
($ax^2 + c = bx$)
6. Roots and numbers are equal to squares
($bx + c = ax^2$)

Muhammad ibn Mūsā al-Khwārizmī (c. 780–c. 850)

السطح الاعظم وهو سطح دة وقد علمنا ان ذلك
كله اربعة وستون واحد اضلاعه حلجورة وهو
ثمانية فاذا نقصنا من الثمانية مثل ربع العشرة مرتين
من طرفي ضلع السطح الاعظم الذي هو سطح دة فهو
خمسه بقي من ضلعه ثلثة وهو جند ذلك للال
وانما نصفنا العشرة الاجراد وصرناها في منهاها ووزنا
ها على العدد الذي هو تسعة وتلتون ليتم لنا بناء
السطح الاعظم بما نقص من زوايا الاربعة لان
كل عدد يضرب ربعه في مثله ثم في اربعة يكون
مثل ضرب نصفه في مثله فاستغينا بضرب
نصف الاجراد في منهاها عن الربع في مثله ثم في اربعة
وهذا صورته

	ب	
ج	ا	د
	ه	

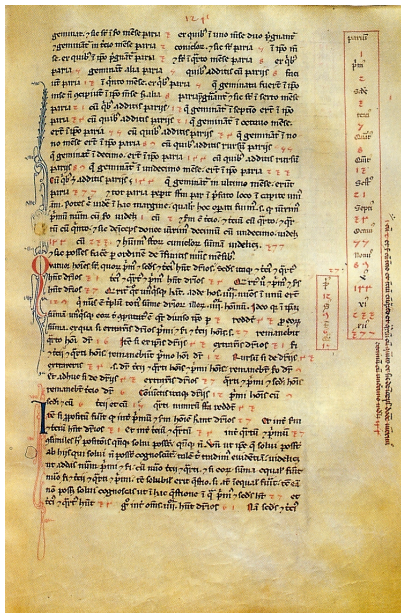
وله ايضا صورة اخرى توردى الى هذا وهي سطح
اب وهو الال فاردنا ان توريد عليه مثل عشرة

An algorithm for case (4) on
the previous slide

Leonardo of Pisa (Fibonacci) (c. 1175–c. 1240/50)

Liber abaci (or *Liber abbaci*),
Pisa, 1202:

- ▶ included al-Khwārizmi's recipes
- ▶ geometrical demonstrations and lots of examples
- ▶ didn't go very far beyond predecessors, **but** began transmission of Islamic ideas to Europe



Cubic equations (1)

Italy, early 16th century:

solutions to cubics of the form $x^3 + px = q$

- ▶ found by Scipione del Ferro (or Ferro) (c. 1520)
- ▶ taught to Antonio Maria Fiore (pupil)
- ▶ and Annibale della Nave (son-in-law)
- ▶ rediscovered by Niccolò Tartaglia (1535)
- ▶ passed in rhyme to Girolamo Cardano (1539)

Cubic equations (2)

$$x^3 + px = q$$

*When the cube with the things next after
Together equal some number apart
Find two others that by this differ
And this you will keep as a rule
That their product will always be equal
To a third cubed of the number of things
The difference then in general between
The sides of the cubes subtracted well
Will be your principal thing.*

(Tartaglia, 1546; see: *Mathematics emerging*, §12.1.1)

Cubic equations (3)

Interpretation of Tartaglia's rhyme:

Find u, v such that

$$x^3 + px = q$$

$$u - v = q, \quad uv = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right)^3.$$

*When the cube with the things next after
Together equal some number apart
Find two others that by this differ
And this you will keep as a rule
That their product will always be equal
To a third cubed of the number of things
The difference then in general between
The sides of the cubes subtracted well
Will be your principal thing.*

Then

$$x = \sqrt[3]{u} - \sqrt[3]{v}$$

NB: In an equation

$y^3 + ay^2 + by + c = 0$ we can put
 $y = x - \frac{a}{3}$ to remove the square
term, so this solution is general.

Cubic equations (4)

In modern terms, one of the solutions of the equation $ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$ has the form

$$x = \sqrt[3]{\left(-\frac{b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right) + \sqrt{\left(-\frac{b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{c}{3a} - \frac{b^2}{9a^2}\right)^3}} \\ + \sqrt[3]{\left(-\frac{b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right) - \sqrt{\left(-\frac{b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{c}{3a} - \frac{b^2}{9a^2}\right)^3}} - \frac{b}{3a}$$

with similar expressions (in **radicals**) for the remaining two roots

Cardano's *Ars magna, sive de regulis algebraicis* (1545)

HIERONYMI CAR
DANI, PRÆSTANTISSIMI MATHE-
MATICI, PHILOSOPHI, AC MEDICI,
ARTIS MAGNÆ,
SIVE DE REGVLIS ALGEBRAICIS,
Lib. unus. Qui & totius operis de Arithmetica, quod
OPVS PERFECTVM
inscriptus, est in ordine Decimus.



Hæc in hoc libro, studio Lector, Regulas Algebraicæ (Itali, de la Cos
la uocant) nouis adiuuentibus, ac demonstrationibus ab Authore tra
duntur, ut pro paucis uerba uulgo tenis, iam septuaginta ceteris. Neq
q̄ scilicet, ubi uicis numerus alter, aut duo uni, uerum etiam, ubi duo duobus,
aut tres uni optales fuerint, nodum explicat. Hunc a dte librum ideo fecer
sim edere placuit, ut hoc abstrusissimum, & plane inuestigabile totius Arithmet
ce thesaurum in lucem eruat, & quasi in theatro quodam omnibus ad spectan
dum expositum. Lectores incitentur, ut reliquos Operis Perfecti libros, qui per
Tomos edentur, tanto ausidius amplectantur, ac minore fastidio perdant.

HIERONYMI CARDANI

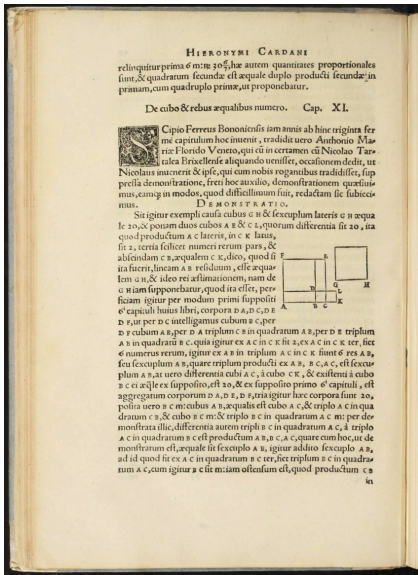
3 Numerus & positio, & ignota quantitas.
4 Numerus & quadrati positio, & ignota quantitas, seu numerus
& q̄d^{us} quantitas ignota, seu numerus cū q̄d^{us} positionis
quantitas ignota, seu numerus & productum ex positione in quan
tatem ignota, cum altera earum, uel cum quadrato unius earum.

Capitula primitiua.

Capitula deriuatiua.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1 Numerus æqualis q̄d ^{us} & rebus. | 1 Numerus æq̄lis q̄d q̄d & q̄d. |
| 2 Numerus & res æqualia quadrato. | 2 Numerus æqualis cu q̄d & cub. |
| 3 Numerus & q̄d æqualia rebus. | 3 Numerus & q̄d æquales q̄d q̄d. |
| 4 Numerus æqualis cubo & rebus. | 4 Numerus & cub æq̄lis cub q̄d. |
| 5 Numerus & res æqualia cubis. | 5 Numerus & q̄d q̄d æqualia q̄d. |
| 6 Numerus & cubus æq̄l rebus æq̄tio prima. | 6 Numerus & cub q̄d æq̄lia cub. |
| 7 Numerus & cub æq̄lia rebus q̄ ^{us} secunda. | 7 Numerus æq̄lis q̄d & cub q̄d. |
| 8 Numerus æq̄lis q̄drato & cubo. | 8 Numerus æq̄lis cub & cubo cubi. |
| 9 Numerus & q̄dratum æqualia cubo. | 9 Numerus & q̄d æq̄lia cub q̄d. |
| 10 Numerus & cub æq̄lia q̄drato q̄ ^{us} prima. | 10 Numerus & q̄d q̄d æq̄lia cub q̄drati. |
| 11 Numerus & cub æq̄lia q̄drato q̄ ^{us} secunda. | 11 Numerus & cub q̄d æq̄l q̄d q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . |
| 12 Numerus æq̄lis rebus q̄drato & cubo. | 12 Nu ^{us} & cub cub æq̄lia cub q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . |
| 13 Numerus & res æq̄lia quadrato & cubo. | 13 Nu ^{us} & cub q̄d æq̄lia q̄d q̄ ^{us} secunda. |
| 14 Numerus & res & q̄d æqualia cubo. | 14 Nu ^{us} & cub cub æq̄lia cub q̄ ^{us} secūd ^{us} . |
| 15 Numerus & q̄d æq̄lia rebus & cub q̄ ^{us} prima. | 15 Numerus æq̄lis q̄d q̄d & cub q̄drati. |
| 16 Numerus & q̄d æq̄lia rebus & cubo q̄ ^{us} secunda. | 16 Numerus æq̄lis cub q̄d & cub cubi. |
| 17 Numerus & q̄d æq̄lia rebus & cub q̄ ^{us} prima. | 17 Numerus & q̄d q̄d æq̄lia cub q̄drati. |
| 18 Numerus & q̄d æq̄lia rebus & cubo q̄ ^{us} secunda. | 18 Numerus & cub q̄d æq̄lia cub cubi. |
| 19 Numerus & q̄d æq̄lia rebus & cubo q̄ ^{us} prima. | 19 Nu ^{us} & cub q̄d æq̄lia q̄d q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . |
| 20 Numerus & q̄d æq̄lia rebus & cubo q̄ ^{us} secunda. | 20 Nu ^{us} & cub cub æq̄lia cub q̄d q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . |
| 21 Nu ^{us} & cub q̄d æq̄l q̄d q̄ ^{us} secūd ^{us} . | 21 Nu ^{us} & cub q̄d æq̄l q̄d q̄ ^{us} secūd ^{us} . |
| 22 Nu ^{us} & cub cub æq̄l q̄d q̄ ^{us} secūd ^{us} . | 22 Nu ^{us} & cub cub æq̄l cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} secūd ^{us} . |
| 23 Nu ^{us} æq̄lis q̄d & q̄d q̄d & cub q̄d. | 23 Nu ^{us} æq̄lis q̄d & q̄d q̄d & cub q̄d. |
| 24 Nu ^{us} æq̄lis cub & cub q̄d & cub cu. | 24 Nu ^{us} & cub cub æq̄l cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} secūd ^{us} . |
| 25 Nu ^{us} & q̄d æq̄lia cub q̄d & cub q̄d. | 25 Nu ^{us} & q̄d æq̄lia cub q̄d & cub q̄d. |
| 26 Nu ^{us} & cub æq̄lia cub q̄d & cub cu. | 26 Nu ^{us} & cub æq̄lia cub q̄d & cub cu. |
| 27 Nu ^{us} & q̄d & q̄d q̄d æq̄lia cub q̄d. | 27 Nu ^{us} & q̄d & q̄d q̄d æq̄lia cub q̄d. |
| 28 Nu ^{us} & cub & cub q̄d æq̄lia cu cub. | 28 Nu ^{us} & cub & cub q̄d æq̄lia cu cub. |
| 29 Nu ^{us} & q̄d q̄d æq̄l q̄d & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . | 29 Nu ^{us} & q̄d q̄d æq̄l q̄d & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . |
| 30 Nu ^{us} & cu q̄d æq̄lia & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . | 30 Nu ^{us} & cu q̄d æq̄lia & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} pri ^{us} . |
| 31 Nu ^{us} & q̄d q̄d æq̄l q̄d & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} sec. | 31 Nu ^{us} & q̄d q̄d æq̄l q̄d & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} sec. |
| 32 Nu ^{us} & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} cu & cu cu q̄ ^{us} sec. | 32 Nu ^{us} & cu q̄d q̄ ^{us} cu & cu cu q̄ ^{us} sec. |

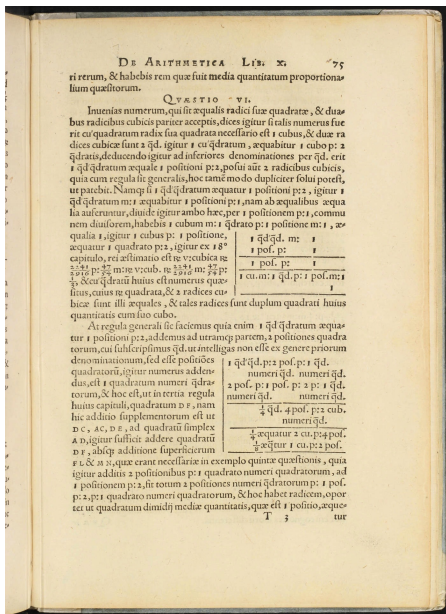
Cardano on the cubic



- ▶ Geometrical justification remains
- ▶ **General solution** (to particular case), rather than example to be followed
- ▶ Make substitution $x = y - \frac{a}{3}$ in $y^3 + ax^2 + bx + c = d$ to suppress square term and obtain equation of the form $x^3 + px = q$ — **manipulation** of equations prior to solution

Quartic equations (1)

General solution discovered (again on a case-by-case basis) by Lodovico Ferrari (c. 1540) and published by Cardano, in the form of worked examples, alongside solution of cubic



Quartic equations (2)

In modern terms, suppose that

$$x^4 = px^2 + qx + r.$$

Add $2yx^2 + y^2$ to each side to give

$$(x^2 + y)^2 = (p + 2y)x^2 + qx + (r + y^2).$$

Now we seek y such that the right hand side is a perfect square:

$$8y^3 + 4py^2 + 8ry + (4pr - q^2) = 0.$$

So the problem is reduced to solving a cubic equation and then a quadratic.

NB: In an equation $y^4 + ay^3 + by^2 + cy + d = 0$ we can put $y = x - \frac{a}{4}$ to remove the cube term, so this solution is general.

Quartic equations (3)

Formulae for the solutions of the general quartic equation, in all their unedifying glory, may be found at:

<http://planetmath.org/QuarticFormula>

Cardano's *Ars Magna* may also be found online [here](#)

Further 16th-century developments



Rafael Bombelli, *L'algebra* (1572):

- ▶ heavily influenced by Cardano
- ▶ equation solving, new notation
- ▶ exploration of complex numbers
[to be dealt with in a later lecture]

Further 16th-century developments

L'ARITHMETIQUE
DE SIMON STEVIN
DE BRUGES:

Contenant les computations des nombres
Arithmetiques ou vulgaires :

Aussi l'Algebre, avec les equations de cinq quantitez.

Ensemble les quatre premiers liures d'Algebre
de Diophante d'Alexandrie, maintenant pre-
mierement traduits en François.

*Encore vn liure particulier de La Pratique d'Arithmetique,
contenant entre autres, Les Tables d'Interest, La Dixme;
Et vn traicté des Incommensurables grandeurs :
Avec l'Explication du Dixiesme Liure d'Euclide.*



A LEYDE,
De l'Imprimerie de Christophle Plantin.
c. 10. 10. LXXXV.

Simon Stevin, *L'arithmetique ... aussi
l'algebre* (1585):

- ▶ heavily influenced by Cardano through Bombelli
- ▶ appended his treatise on decimal notation

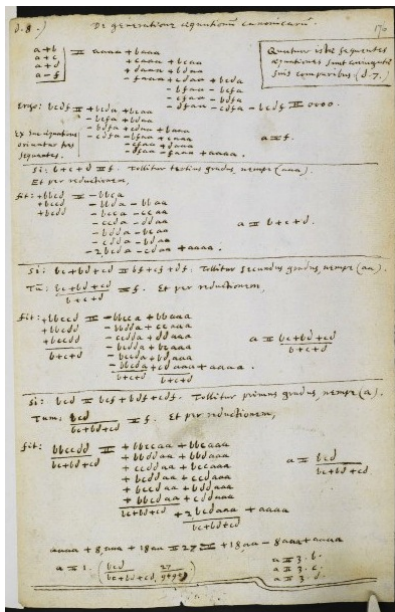
Further 16th-century developments

François Viète (1590s):

- ▶ links between algebra and geometry
- ▶ (algebra as 'analysis' or 'analytic art')
- ▶ notation [recall Lecture III]
- ▶ numerical methods for solving equations



Thomas Harriot (c. 1600)

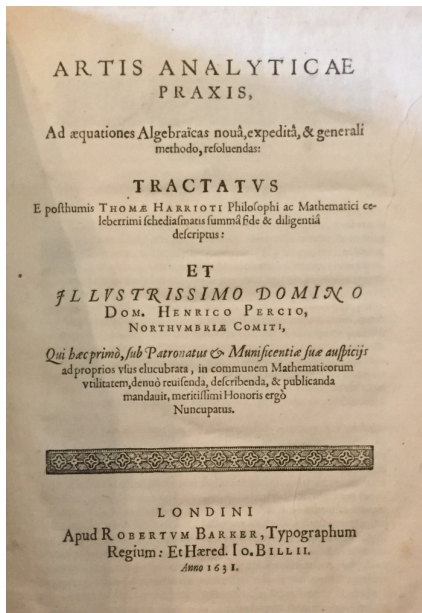


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Note:

- ▶ notation [see lecture III];
- ▶ appearance of polynomials as products of linear factors.

Thomas Harriot (1631)

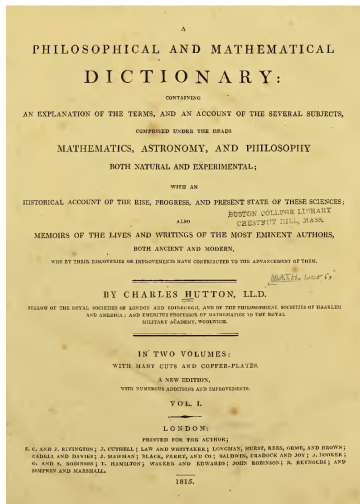


Some of Harriot's ideas found their way into his *Artis analyticae praxis* (*The practice of the analytic art*), published posthumously in 1631

But editors did not permit negative or imaginary roots [to be discussed further in a later lecture]

See *Mathematics emerging*, §12.2.1.

Commentary on Harriot



Charles Hutton, *A mathematical and philosophical dictionary*, London, 1795, vol. 1, p. 91 (p. 96 of revised edition, 1815):

He shewed the universal generation of all the compound or affected equations, by the continual multiplication of so many simple ones; thereby plainly exhibiting to the eye the whole circumstances of the nature, mystery and number of the roots of equations; with the composition and relations of the coefficients of the terms; . . .

Algebra in the 17th century

From 1600 onwards, 'algebra' as a set of recipes and techniques began to diverge in two (linked) directions:

- ▶ 'algebra' as a tool or a language (a.k.a. 'analysis' or the 'analytic art')
- ▶ 'algebra' as an object of study in its own right (the 'theory of equations')

Descartes on algebra

Polynomials feature in Descartes' *La géométrie* (1637), e.g.:

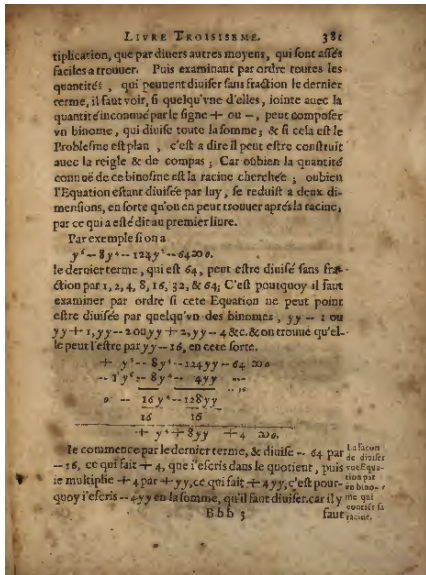
- ▶ one example to show that polynomials can be constructed from their roots (influenced by Harriot?);
- ▶ 'rule of signs': the number of positive ('true') roots of a polynomial is at most the number of times that the sign changes as we read term-by-term; the number of negative ('false') roots is at most the number of successions of the same sign; for example,

$$x^4 - 4x^3 - 19x^2 + 106x - 120 = 0$$

has at most 3 positive roots and at most one negative;

- ▶ can always make a transformation to remove the second-highest term.

Descartes on cubics



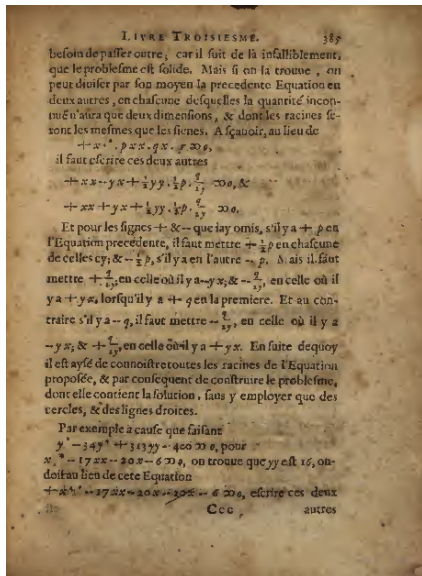
Search for roots of a cubic by examining the factors of the constant term:

if α is such a factor, test whether $x - \alpha$ divides the polynomial.

Examines the example

$$y^6 - 8y^4 - 124y^2 - 64 = 0$$

Descartes on quartics



To solve $+x^4 + px^2 + qx + r = 0$
(Descartes' notation), that is,

$$x^4 \pm pxx \pm qx \pm r = 0,$$

he sought to write the quartic as a product of two quadratics. This led him to

$$y^6 \pm 2py^4 + (pp \pm 4r)yy - qq = 0$$

As in Ferrari's/Cardano's method: a quartic is reduced to a cubic

Summary and a glance ahead

By 1600, general solutions were available for quadratic, cubic and quartic equations — specifically, general solutions **in radicals**, i.e., solutions constructed from the coefficients of a given polynomial equation via $+$, $-$, \times , \div , $\sqrt{\quad}$, $\sqrt[3]{\quad}$, $\sqrt[4]{\quad}$, \dots

NB: A solution in radicals may be constructed by ruler and compass.

Spoiler: the general quintic equation is **not** solvable in radicals.

By the 1770s, mathematicians (notably Lagrange) had come to suspect this, but it was not **proved** until the 1820s.

So did anything interesting happen in algebra during the 17th and 18th centuries?

A typical 20th-century view

Luboš Nový, *Origins of modern algebra* (1973), p. 23:

From the propagation of Descartes' algebraic knowledge up to the publication of the important works of Lagrange [and others] in the years 1770–1, the evolution of algebra was, at first glance, hardly dramatic and one would seek in vain for great and significant works of science and substantial changes.

Fair point? Or not?

Some 17th-century developments: Hudde's rule (1657)

434 IOHANNIS HUDDENII EPIST. I.
 quæro, per Methodum superius explicatam, maximum
 earum communem diviforem; atque hujus ope æqua-
 tionem Propositam toties divido, quoties id fieri po-
 test.

Exempli gratiâ, proponatur hæc æquatio $x^3 - 4xx + 5x - 200$,
 in qua duæ sunt æquales radices. Multiplico ergo ipsam per A-
 rithmeticam Progressionem qualemcunque, hoc est, cujus incre-
 mentum vel decrementum sit vel 1, vel 2, vel 3, vel alius quili-
 bet numerus; & cujus primus terminus sit vel 0, vel +, vel -
 quam 0: Ita ut semper ejus ope talis terminus æquationis tolli
 possit, qualem quis voluerit, collocando tantum sub eo 0.

Ut si, exempli causâ, ultimum ejus terminum auferre velim,
 multiplicatio fieri potest ipsius $x^3 - 4xx + 5x - 200$
 per hanc progressionem $\begin{array}{cccc} 3. & 2. & 1. & 0 \end{array}$
 fietque $\begin{array}{cccc} 3x^3 & -8xx & +5x & -200 \end{array}$.

Maxima autem communis divisor hujus & Propositæ æqua-
 tionis est $x - 100$, per quam Proposita bis dividi potest; ita
 ut ejusdem radices sint 1, 1, & 2.

Sic si cupiam 1^{am} æquationis terminum auferre, multiplica-
 tio institui potest ipsius $x^3 - 4xx + 5x - 200$
 per hanc progressionem $\begin{array}{cccc} 0. & 1. & 2. & 3. \end{array}$

& fit $\begin{array}{cccc} * & -4xx & +10x & -600 \end{array}$.

Cujus quidem ac Propositæ æquationis maximus communis
 divisor, ut antea, est $x - 100$.

Similiter si 2^{am} terminum tollere lubeat, multiplicatio fieri
 potest, hoc pacto: $\begin{array}{cccc} x^3 & -4xx & +5x & -200 \\ +1. & 0. & -1. & -2 \end{array}$

& prodibit $\begin{array}{cccc} x^3 & * & -5x & +400 \end{array}$.

Cujus item & Propositæ maximus communis divisor est
 $x - 100$.

Ubi notandum, non necessarium esse, semper uti Progressione
 cujus excessus sit 1, quanquam ea communiter sit optima.

Published 1659 as an addendum to van
 Schooten's Latin translation of
 Descartes' *La géométrie*:

$x^3 - 4xx + 5x - 2 = 0$ has a double root
 $x = 1$;

multiply the terms of the equation by
 numbers in arithmetic progression:

$3x^3 - 8xx + 5x = 0$ also has a double
 root $x = 1$,

as does $-4xx + 10x - 6 = 0$.

(Modern form of rule: if r is a double
 root of $f(x) = 0$, then it is a root of
 $f'(x) = 0$ also.)

See *Mathematics emerging*, §12.2.2.

Some 17th-century developments: Tschirnhaus transformations (1683)

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ACTA ERUDITORUM
 METHODUS AUFERENDI OMNES TER-
 minos intermedios ex data æquatione,
 per D. T.

EX Geometria Dn. Des Cartes notum est, qua ratione semper secun-
 dus terminus ex data æquatione possit auferri; quoad plures termi-
 nos intermedios auferendos, hæcenus nihil inventum vidi in Arte Ana-
 lytica, imo non paucos offendi, qui crediderunt, id nulla arte perfici
 posse. Quapropter hic quædam circa hoc negotium aperire conatus
 verum saltem pro iis, qui Artis Analyticæ apprime gnari, cum aliis
 tam brevi explicatione vix satisfieri possit: reliqua, quæ hic desiderari
 possent, alii tempori refervans.

Primo itaque loco, ad hoc attendendum; sit data aliqua æquatio
 cubica $x^3 - px x + qx - r = 0$, in qua x radices hujus æquationis desi-
 gnat; p, q, r , cognitæ quantitates representant: ad auferendum jam
 secundum terminum supponatur $x = y + a$; jam ope harum duarum æ-
 quationum inveniat tertiam, ubi quantitas x abût, & erit
 $y^3 + 3ay + 3a^2y + a^3 = 0$ Ponatur nunc secundus terminus æqua-
 $-p y y - 2p a y - p a a$ lis nihilo (quia hunc auferre nostra in-
 $+q y + q a$ tentio) eritque $3ay - p y y = 0$. Unde
 $-r$ $a = \frac{r}{3}$: id quod indicat, ad auferendum

secundum terminum in æquatione Cubica, supponendum esse loco
 $x = y + a$ (prout modo fecimus) $x = y + \frac{r}{3}$. Hæc jam vulgata admo-
 dum sunt, nec hic referuntur aliam ob causam, quam quia sequentia
 admodum illustrant, dum hæc bene intellectis, eo facilius, quæ modo
 proponam, capiuntur.

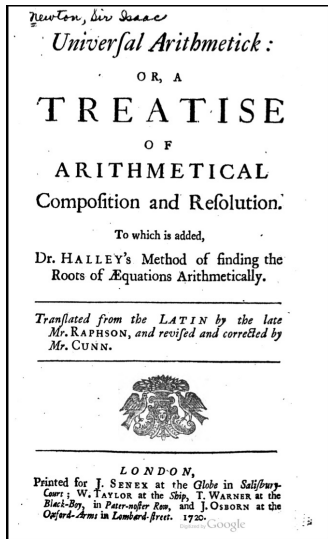
Sint jam secundo in æquatione data auferendi duo termini:
 dico, quod supponendum sit, $x = b x + y + a$; si tres, $x^3 = c x x + b x$
 $+ y + a$; si quatuor, $x^4 = d x^3 + c x x + b x + y + a$, atque sic in in-
 finitum. Vocabo autem has æquationes assumptas, ut eas distin-
 guam ab æquatione, quæ ut data consideratur. Ratio autem ho-
 rum est: quæ eadem ratione, prout ope æquationis $x = y + a$ saltem
 unicus terminus poterat auferri, quia nimirum unica saltem inde-
 terminata hic existit a , sic eadem ratione ope hujus $x = b x + y + a$,
 non nisi duo termini possunt auferri, quia duæ indeterminatæ a & b
 adiunt;

For an equation $x^3 - px^2 + qx - r = 0$

- ▶ to remove one term put $x = y + a$
(where $a = p/3$)
- ▶ can we remove both the middle terms?
- ▶ to remove two terms put
 $x^2 = bx + y + a$

See *Mathematics emerging*, §12.2.3.

An 18th-century development: Newton's *Arithmetica universalis* (1707)



Rules for sums of powers of roots of

$$x^n - px^{n-1} + qx^{n-2} - rx^{n-3} + sx^{n-4} - \dots = 0$$

sum of roots	=	p
sum of roots ²	=	$pa - 2q$
sum of roots ³	=	$pb - qa + 3r$
sum of roots ⁴	=	$pc - qb + ra - 4s$

Developments of the 17th and 18th centuries

- ▶ Symbolic notation
- ▶ Understanding of the structure of polynomials
- ▶ ... of the number and nature of their roots
- ▶ ... of the relationship between roots and coefficients
- ▶ ... of how to manipulate them
- ▶ ... of how to solve them numerically
- ▶ The leaving behind of geometric intuition?

Some 18th-century theory of equations

Recall:

- ▶ cubic equations can be solved by means of quadratics
- ▶ quartic equations can be solved by means of cubics

Some 18th-century theory of equations

Recall:

- ▶ quadratic equations can be solved by means of linear equations
- ▶ cubic equations can be solved by means of quadratics
- ▶ quartic equations can be solved by means of cubics

The 'reduced' or 'resolvent' equation:

- ▶ for cubics, the reduced equation is of degree 2
- ▶ for quartics, the reduced equation is of degree 3
- ▶ for quintics, the reduced equation is of degree ?

Some 18th-century hypotheses

Euler's hypothesis (1733):

- ▶ for an equation of degree n the degree of the reduced equation will be $n - 1$

Bézout's hypothesis (1764):

- ▶ for an equation of degree n the degree of the reduced equation will in general be $n!$
- ▶ though always reducible to $(n - 1)!$
- ▶ possibly further reducible to $(n - 2)!$

Lagrange's 'Réflexions' 1770/71

J.-L. Lagrange, 'Réflexions sur la résolution algébrique des équations', Berlin (1770/1):

Examined all known methods of solving

- ▶ quadratics: the well-known solution
- ▶ cubics: methods of Cardano, Tschirnhaus, Euler, Bézout
- ▶ quartics: methods of Cardano, Descartes, Tschirnhaus, Euler, Bézout

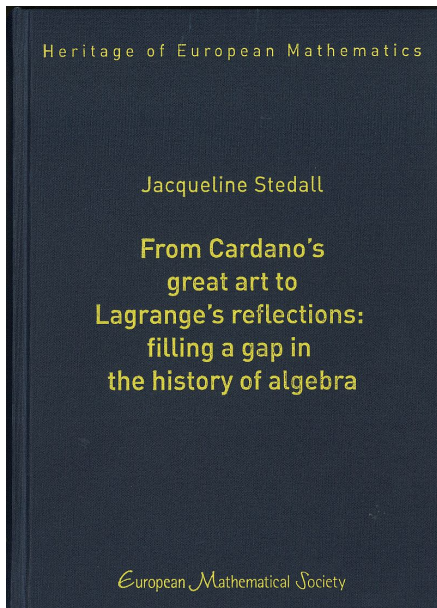
seeking to identify a uniform method that could be extended to higher degree

A typical 20th-century view revisited

Luboš Nový, *Origins of modern algebra* (1973), p. 23:

From the propagation of Descartes' algebraic knowledge up to the publication of the important works of Lagrange [and others] in the years 1770–1, the evolution of algebra was, at first glance, hardly dramatic and one would seek in vain for great and significant works of science and substantial changes.

Filling a gap in the history of algebra (2011)



*The hitherto untold story
of the slow and halting
journey from Cardano's
solution recipes to
Lagrange's sophisticated
considerations of
permutations and
functions of the roots of
equations . . . [Preface]*

From Stedall's preface:

This assertion . . . from Nový quoted above, betrays yet another fundamental shortcoming of several earlier accounts, a view that mathematics somehow progresses only by means of 'great and significant works' and 'substantial changes'. Fortunately, the truth is far more subtle and far more interesting: mathematics is the result of a cumulative endeavour to which many people have contributed, and not only through their successes but through half-formed thoughts, tentative proposals, partially worked solutions, and even outright failure. No part of mathematics came to birth in the form that it now appears in a modern textbook: mathematical creativity can be slow, sometimes messy, often frustrating.