

BO1 History of Mathematics
Lecture XV
Geometry and number theory
Part 1: Non-Euclidean geometry

MT 2020 Week 8

Summary

Part 1

- ▶ Euclid's *Elements* revisited
- ▶ The parallel postulate
- ▶ Non-Euclidean geometry

Part 2

- ▶ Number theory down the centuries

Euclid's *Elements*

Euclid's Elements, in 13 books, compiled c. 250 BC.

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Books I–V: definitions, postulates, plane geometry of lines and circles

Book VI: similarity, proportion

Books VII–IX: number theory

Book X: commensurability, irrational numbers, surds

Books XI–XIII: solid geometry ending with the classification of the regular polyhedra

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Euclid in English

BOOK I.

DEFINITIONS.

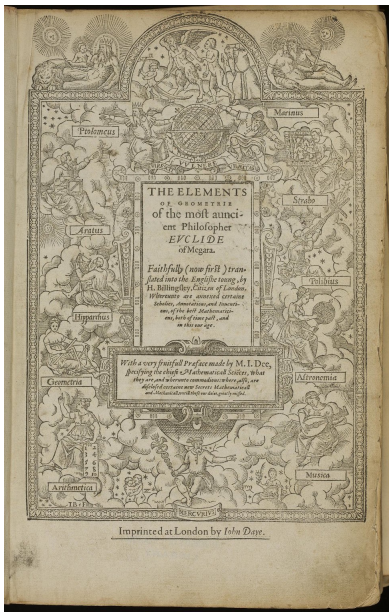
1. A **point** is that which has no part.
2. A **line** is breadthless length.
3. The extremities of a line are points.
4. A **straight line** is a line which lies evenly with the points on itself.
5. A **surface** is that which has length and breadth only.
6. The extremities of a surface are lines.
7. A **plane surface** is a surface which lies evenly with the straight lines on itself.
8. A **plane angle** is the inclination to one another of two lines in a plane which meet one another and do not lie in a straight line.
9. And when the lines containing the angle are straight, the angle is called **rectilineal**.
10. When a straight line set up on a straight line makes the adjacent angles equal to one another, each of the equal angles is **right**, and the straight line standing on the other is called a **perpendicular** to that on which it stands.
11. An **obtuse angle** is an angle greater than a right angle.
12. An **acute angle** is an angle less than a right angle.
13. A **boundary** is that which is an extremity of anything.
14. A **figure** is that which is contained by any boundary or boundaries.
15. A **circle** is a plane figure contained by one line such that all the straight lines falling upon it from one point among those lying within the figure are equal to one another ;



Canonical English edition by
Sir Thomas L. Heath, 1908

See also the [Reading Euclid Project](#)

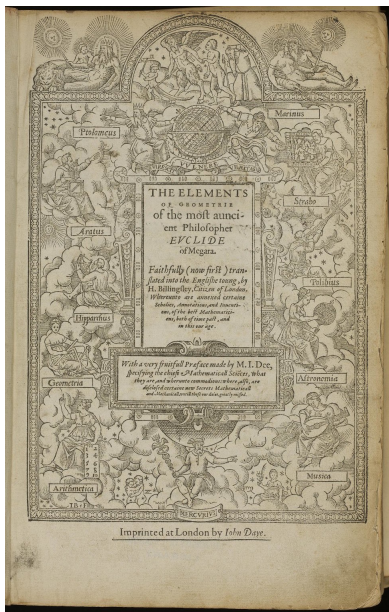
Billingsley's Euclid, 1570



The Elements of Geometrie:

“Faithfully (now first) translated
into the Englishe tounge” by
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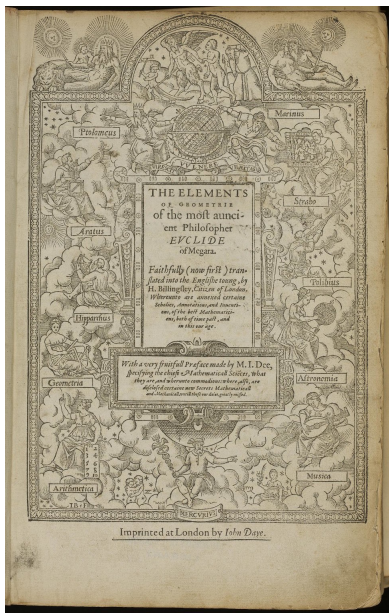


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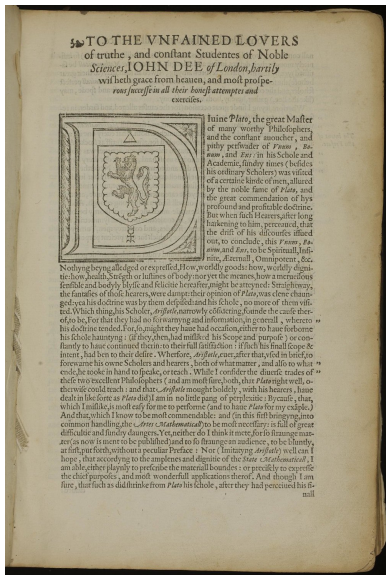
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Preface by John Dee

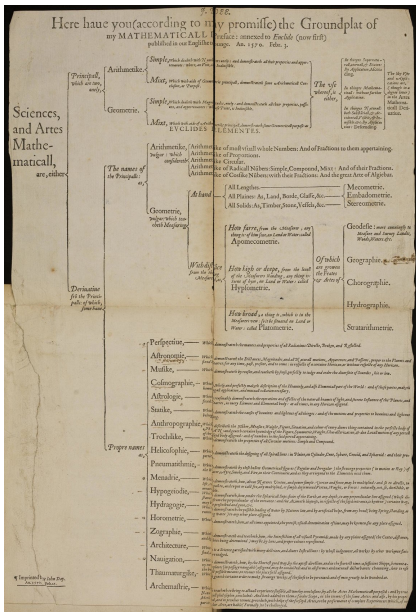
Dee's Preface



Dee's 'Groundplat'

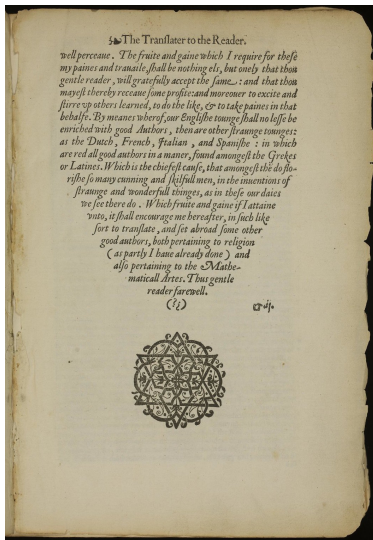
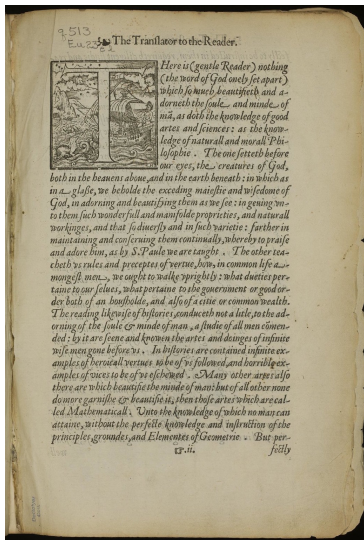
Here haue you (according to my promise) the Groundplat of my MATHEMATICALL Preface: annexed to Euclide (now first) published in our English tongue. An. 1570. Feb. 5.	
<p>Sciences, and Artes Mathematicall, are, either</p> <p>Principall, which are more easily</p> <p>Deriuative from the Princi- pall, of which some are</p>	<p>Arithmetike, which is the Science of Numbers</p> <p>Geometrie, which is the Science of Lines, Surfaces, and Solids</p> <p>Algebra, which is the Science of Equations</p> <p>Musike, which is the Science of Sound</p> <p>Cosmographie, which is the Science of the Earth</p> <p>Astronomie, which is the Science of the Heavens</p> <p>Staticke, which is the Science of Weights</p> <p>Andropographie, which is the Science of Medicine</p> <p>Tridachme, which is the Science of Trigonometry</p> <p>Heliosophie, which is the Science of Optics</p> <p>Pneumatike, which is the Science of Aer</p> <p>Meteore, which is the Science of Weather</p> <p>Hypogeometrie, which is the Science of Subterranean Things</p> <p>Hydrographie, which is the Science of Water</p> <p>Horometrie, which is the Science of Time</p> <p>Zoographie, which is the Science of Animals</p> <p>Architectur, which is the Science of Building</p> <p>Navigation, which is the Science of Sailing</p> <p>Thaumaturgie, which is the Science of Magic</p> <p>Archemantie, which is the Science of Divination</p>

Dee's 'Groundplat'



See: Jennifer M. Rampling, 'The Elizabethan mathematics of everything: John Dee's 'Mathematicall praeface' to Euclid's *Elements*', *BSHM Bulletin: Journal of the British Society for the History of Mathematics* **26**(3) (2011) 135–146

Billingsley's Preface, pp. 1, 3



Pop-up Euclid

of Euclides Elementes.

Fol. 314.

and narrow or and narrower, as length, and their angles (or the length or breadth thereof), in one point. So all their angles there, beyond together, make a solid angle. And for the better light thereof, I have here here a figure whereby to shew more easily concerning it. The body of the figure is a triangle, $A B C$, and on every side of the triangle $A B$ I have drawn up a triangle, as upon the side $A B$, I have drawn up the triangle $A B D$. And upon the side $A C$, the triangle $A C E$, and upon the side $B C$, the triangle $B C F$. And so by joining the triangles raised up, shall these appear, namely, the points D , E , and F meet together in one point, G . And shall easily and plainly see how these three superficial angles $A B C$, $B C F$, $F C E$, $E A D$, and $A D B$ together, touching the one the other in the point G , make a solid angle.



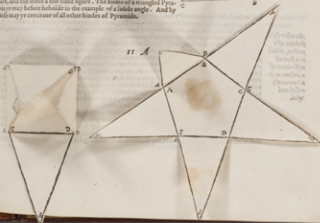
12 A Pyramid is a solide figure contained under many playne superficieses set upon one playne superficies, and gathered together to one point.

Term definition.

Two superficieses raised upon any ground can not make a Pyramid, for that two superficial angles joined together in the top, cannot, as before is said, make a solid angle. Wherefore what the square, the circle, or how many other superficieses are raised up to one superficies being the ground, for base, and one meeting down with their breadth, all as the height all their angles concure in one point, making then a solid angle: the solide included, bounded, and terminated by their superficieses is called a Pyramid, as you see in a tower of four sides, and in a spire of a steeple which containeth many sides, either of which is a Pyramid.

And because that all the superficieses of every Pyramid is raised from one playne superficies as from the base, and tends to one point, as much as needeth to pull together all the superficieses of a Pyramid, are triangles, except the base, which may be of any forme or figure except a circle. For if the base be a circle, then it is divided out with files, or down superficieses, but with one round superficies, and hath not the name of a Pyramid, but is called, as hereafter shall appear, a Cone.

Of Pyramids, there are divers kinds. For according to the variety of the base is brought forth the variety and diversitie of kinds of Pyramids. If the base of a Pyramid be a triangle, then it is called a triangular Pyramid. If the base be a square, then it is called a square Pyramid. If the base be a pentagon, then it is a pentagonal or five-sided Pyramid. And so forth according to the variety of the angles of the base infinitely. Although that the figure of a Pyramid can not be well expressed in a playne superficies, yet may ye sufficiently conceive of it both by the figure before set in the solution of a solid angle, and by the figure here set, if ye imagine the point A together with the lines $A B$, $A C$, and $A D$, to be raised up on high. And yet that the reader may more clearly see the forme of a Pyramid, I have here set two sundry Pyramids which will appear manifestly, if ye make the papers wherein are drawn the triangular sides of the Pyramid, in such sort that the poyntes of the angles of each triangle may in every Pyramid concure in one point, and make a solid angle: one of which hath for his base a square sided figure, and the other a five sided figure. The forme of a triangular Pyramid may be beheld in the example of a solid angle. And by this may ye conceive of all other kinds of Pyramids.



Book I: definitions

The first booke of Euclides Elementes.



THE FIRST BOOK is treated of the most simple, easie, and first matters and groundes of Geometry, as, namely, of Lines, Angles, Triangles, Parallels, Squares, and Pyramidellomnes. First of these definitions, shewing what they are. After that it teacheth how to draw Parallel lines, and how to forme diversitie figures of three sides, & foure sides, according to the variety of their sides, and Angles: & copareth them all with Triangles, & also together the one with the other. In it also is taught how a figure of any forme may be changed into a Figure of an other forme. And for that it enutereath of these most common and generall theorems, the first place in order: as that without which, the other bookes of *Euclide* which follow, and also the workes of others which have written in Geometry, cannot be perceived nor understood. And forasmuch as all the demonstrations and proofes of all the propositions in this whole booke, depende of these groundes and principles following, which by reason of their playnes neede no great declaration, yet to remove all (ye it never fo)le obscurity, there are here set certayne shorte and manifest expositions of them.

Definitions.

1. A point is that, which hath no part.

The better to understand what manner of thing a *point* is, ye must note that the nature and propriety of quantitie (when of Geometry entreated) is to be divided, so that whatsoever may be divided into sundry partes, is called quantitie. And a point, although it pertaine to quantitie, and hath his being in quantitie, yet it is no quantitie, for that it cannot be divided. Because (as the definition saith), it hath no partes into which it should be divided. So that a point is the least thing that by minde and understanding can be imagined and conceived: in the which, there can be nothing else, as the point *A* in the margin.

A *point* is of *Pythagoras* Scholers after this manner defined: *A point is an one in which hath position.* Numbers are conceived in mynde without any forme & figure, and therefore without matter: whereon to reasse figure, & consequently without place and position. Wherefore vniuersitie being a part of number, hath no position, nor determinate place. Whereby it is manifest, that number is more simple and pure then is magnitude, and also immateriall: and so vniuersitie which is the beginning of number, is lesse materiall then a figure or point, which is the beginning of magnitude. For a point is materiall, and requieth position and place, and thereby differs from vniuersitie.

2. A line is length without breadth.

There pertaine to quantitie three dimensions, length, breadth, & thickness, or depth: and by these three are all quantities measured & made known. There are also, according

The argument of the first booke.

do other definition of a line.

The endes of a line.

Definition of a point.

A.

Definition of a point.

Definition of a line.

Definition of a point.

A point is in part of quantitie.

Definition of a line.

Definition of a line.

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Definition of a line.

Definition of a line.

Definition of a line.

Definition of a line.

Definition of a line.

The first Booke

to these three dimensions, three kindes of continuall quantitie: a line, a superficies, or plane, and a body. The first kind, namely a line is here defined in these words, *a line is length without breadth.* A point, for that it is no quantitie nor hath any partes into which it may be divided, but remaineth indissoluble, hath not, nor can have any of these three dimensions: it neither hath length, breadth, nor thickness. But to a line, which is the first kind of quantitie, is attributed the first dimension, namely, length, and only that, for it hath neither breadth nor thickness, but is conceived to be drawne in length only, and by it, it may be divided into partes as many as ye list, equal or vnequal. But as touching breadth it remaineth indissoluble. As the line *AB*, which is once drawne in length, may be divided in the point *C* equally, or in the point *D* vnequally, and so into as many partes as ye list. There are also of diuers other generall definitions of a line: as

A C D B

a line is the moony of a point, as the motion or draught of a pinne or a penne to your fence maketh a line.
Again, a line is a magnitude having one onely space or dimension, namely, length, wanting breadth and thickness.

3 The endes or limites of a line, are points.

For a line hath his beginning from a point, and likewise endeth in a point: so that by this also it is manifest, that points, for their simplicity and lacke of composition, are neither quantitie, nor partes of quantitie, but only the termes and endes of quantitie. As the pointes *a* & *b*, are onely the endes of the line *AB*, and no partes thereof. And herein differeth a point in quantitie, from vniuersitie in number: for that although vniuersitie be the beginning of numbers, and no number: as a point is the beginning of quantitie, and no quantitie: yet vniuersitie is vniuersitie a part of number, or number is nothing else, but a collection of vniuersities, and therefore may be divided into them, as into his partes. But a point is an art of quantitie, or of a line: neither is a line composed of points, as partes of vniuersities. For things indissoluble being neuer so many added together, can neuer make a thing dissoluble: as an instant in time, is neither time, nor part of time, but only the beginning and end of time, and coupleth & ioyneth partes of time together.

A B

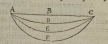
4 A right line is that which lieth equally betwene his pointes.

As the whole line *AB* lieth straight and equally between the pointes *A* & *B* without any going up or coming downe on either side.

A B

Curues and certain others, define a right line thus: *A right line is that which extendeth or draweth that is or may be drawn from point to point, so that it lieth equally betwene them.*

*A right line is the shortest of all lines, which lieth betwene the selfe same limites or endes: which in manner all one with the definition of *Compas*. As of all their lines *ABC*, *ADC*, *AEC*, *AFC*, which are all drawn from the point *A*, to the point *C*, which are *Compas* (speakers), or which have the selfe same limites or endes, as *Archimedes* teacheth, the line *ABC*, being a right line, is the shortest.*



Also, to define a right line after this manner: A right line is that whose middle part lieth not crookedness. As if you put any string in the middle of a right line, you shall not see from the one end to the other, which thing it happeneth not in a crooked line. The Eclipse of the Sunne (say Astronomers) then happeneth, when the Sunne, & our eye are in one right line. For the Moone then being in the middle betwene vs and the Sunne, causeth it to be darkened. Diuers other define a right line diuersly, as followeth.

a right line is that which lieth betwene his extremes.
Again, a right line is that which lieth on one line of force cannot make a figure.
Again.

Book I: postulates

Definition of a
divergence δ
p.p.v.

The first Booke

33 Rhomboides (or a diamond like) is a figure, whose opposite sides are equal, and whose opposite angles are also equal, but it hath neither equal sides nor right angles.

As in the figure $ABCD$, all the four sides are not equal, but the two sides AB and CD , being opposite the one to the other, also the other two sides AC and BD , being also opposite, are equal to the one to the other. Likewise the angles are not right angles, but the angles CAB , and CDB , are obtuse angles, and opposite and equal the one to the other. Likewise the angles ABD , and ACD are acute angles, and opposite, and also equal the one to the other.

Торговля и
промышленность

34 All other figures of four sides besides these, are called trapezia, or tables.

Such are all figures, in which is observed no equality of sides nor angles: as the figures *A* and *B*, in the margin, which have neither equal sides, nor equal angles, but are described at all adventure without observation of order, and therefore they are called *irregular figures*.

Definition of
Parallel lines.

35 Parallel or equidistant right lines are such, which being in one and the selfe same superficies, and produced infinitely on both sydes, do neuer in any part conuerre.

As are the lines AB and CD in the example

3 Petitions or requestes.

From any point to any point, to draw a right line

What Possi-
bility?

After the definition, which is the first kind of principles, now follow propositions, which are the second kind of principles; which are certain general conclusions, or *axioms*, or *perceptions*, that they are perceived to be true, as those that they are *veraciter*. So, for example, a man that hath but common sense, can now deny them. Of which, the first is that, which is here set. As from the point *A*, to the point *B*, which will deny, but easily grant that a right line may be drawn: For two points howsoever they be set, are imagined to be in one and the same finite frame, whereon superficies, whereon a line, whereon a point, the other there is some shorter draught, which is a right line. Likewise any two right lines, howsoever they be set, are imagined to be in one superficies, and therefore in any one line to any one line, may be drawn a superficies.

2 To produce a right line finite, straight forth continually

As to draw in length continually the right line *AB*, who will not graunt? For there is no magnitude so great, but that there may be a greater, nor any so little, but that there may be a lesse. And

a line

of Euclid's Elements.

Fol. 6.

a line is a draught from one point to another, therefore from the point *B*, which is the end of the line *AB*, may be drawn a line to some other point, as to the point *C*, and from that to another, and so infinitely.


3 Upon any centre and at any distance, to describe a circle

A playnes superficies may in compasse be extended infinitely: as from any point to any point may be drawn a right line, by reason whereof it cometh to passe that this circle may be described upon any centre and at any space or distance. As upon the centre *A* and upon the space *AB*, ye may describe the circle *BC*, & upon the same centre, upon the distance *AD* ye may describe the circle *DE*, or upon the same centre *A*, according to the distance *AF*, ye may describe the circle *FG*, and so infinitely extending your space.

4 All right angles are equal to the one to the other.

This proposition is plain, and, offereth it selfe evener to the
 fence. For as much as a right angle is caused of one right line
 falling perpendicularly vpon an other, and no one line can fall
 more perpendicularly vpon a line then an other; therefore no one
 right angle can be greater then the other neither doe the length or
 breadth of the lines alter the greatness of the angle. For
 example, the right angle ABE though it be made of much
 longer lines then the right angle DEF , whole lines are much shorter, yet is that angle no
 greater then the other. For if you tie the point E fast vpon the point D , then shall the
 line ED evenly and fully fall vpon the line AD . And the line EF shall also fall equally vpon
 the line AB , so that the angle DEF be equal to the angle ABE , for that the times
 which each line, then, are of like inclination.

It may evidently also be shew'd at the centre of a circle. For if ye draw in a circle two diameters, the one cutting the other in the centre by right angles, ye shall divide the circle into foure equal partes, of which each containeth one right angle, so are all the foure right angles about the centre of the circle equal.



¶ When a right line falling upon two right lines, doth make on one & the selfe same syde, the two inward angles lesse then two right angles, then shal these two right lines being produced at length concurre on that part, in which are the two angles lesse then two right angles.

As if the right line AB fall upon two right lines, namely CD and EF , that it make two equal inward angles on the one side, as the angles D H I B , left then two right angles (as in the example they do) the said two lines CD , and EF , being drawn forth in length on that part, wherein the two angles being less than two right angles, cannot fall at Legn, concur and meet together: as in the point D , as it is easy to see. For the parts of the lines towards D F are more inclined the one to the other

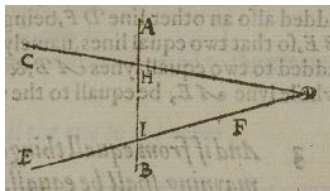


Postulate 5

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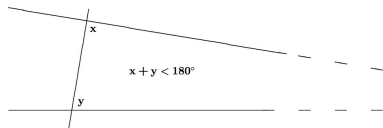
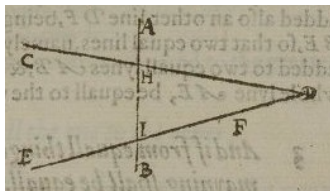
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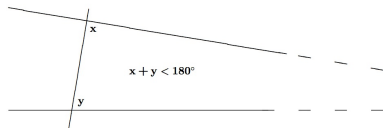
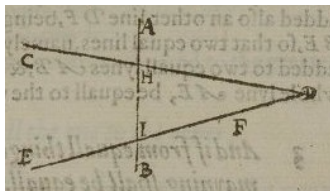
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Equivalent formulation (Proclus, 5th century; John Playfair, 1795):
given a straight line L and a point P not on L there is one and only one straight line through P that is parallel to L .

Classical disquiet about the fifth postulate

Original to Euclid?

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Original to Euclid? Less 'self-evident' than the other postulates?

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It is then clear from this that we must seek a proof of the present theorem, and that it is alien to the special character of postulates.

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See Heath, pp. 202–220

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two convergent straight lines intersect and it is impossible for two convergent straight lines to diverge in the direction in which they converge

Described the situations that may occur if the postulate is **omitted**

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Nasir al-Din al-Tusi (1201–1274) criticised Khayyám's attempted proof, offered his own

Mediaeval disquiet about the fifth postulate

In the Islamic world:

Ibn al-Haytham (Alhazen) (965–1039) attempted (unsuccessfully) to prove the parallel postulate by contradiction

Omar Khayyám (1050–1123) attempted to prove the fifth postulate on the basis of the following alternative:

two convergent straight lines intersect and it is impossible for two convergent straight lines to diverge in the direction in which they converge

Described the situations that may occur if the postulate is **omitted**

Nasir al-Din al-Tusi (1201–1274) criticised Khayyám's attempted proof, offered his own

Al-Tusi's thoughts found their way into Europe via the writings (1298) of his son Sadr al-Tusi

Early modern disquiet about the fifth postulate

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Attempts to prove the fifth postulate on the basis of Euclid's other axioms had resulted only in equivalent forms — so can we have a consistent geometry in which it the parallel postulate **fails**?

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Similar results derived by Johann Heinrich Lambert (1728–1777) in his *Theorie der Parallellinien* (1766)

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Non-Euclidean geometries

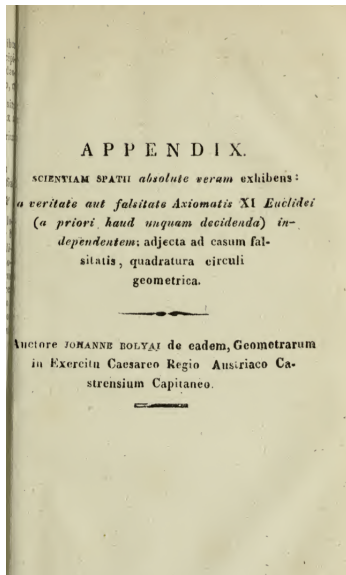
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Pursued (against paternal advice) and solved by János Bolyai (1802–1860): “I have created a new and different world out of nothing” (1823)

Bolyai's geometry



Published as appendix 'The science absolute of space: independent of the truth or falsity of Euclid's axiom XI (which can never be decided a priori)' to father's textbook

Tentamen iuventutem studiosam in elementa matheosos introducendi
(1832)

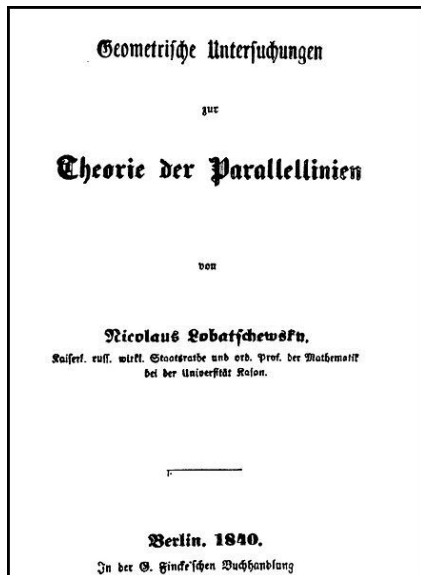
English translation by George Bruce Halstead (1896)

Meanwhile in Russia...



Non-Euclidean geometry
developed independently by
Nikolai Ivanovich Lobachevskii
[Николай Иванович
Лобачевский] (1792–1856)
using the negation of Playfair's
axiom

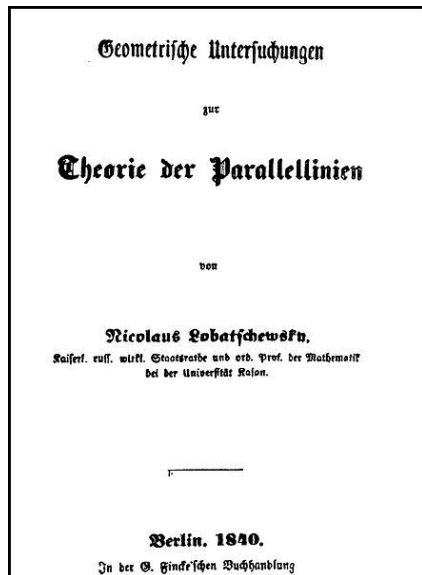
Lobachevskii's works



Complicated story of dissemination...

Geometriya [Геометрия] written in 1823 but was not published until 1909

Lobachevskii's works

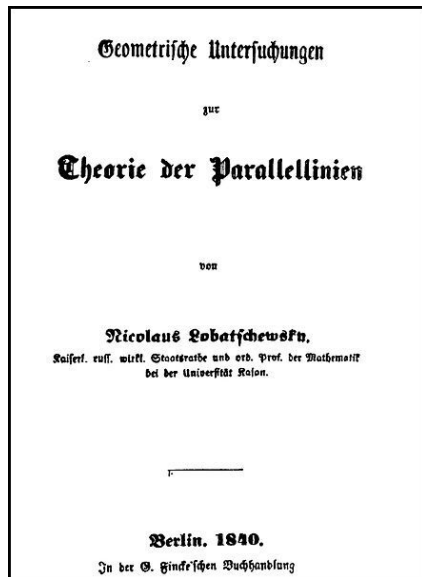


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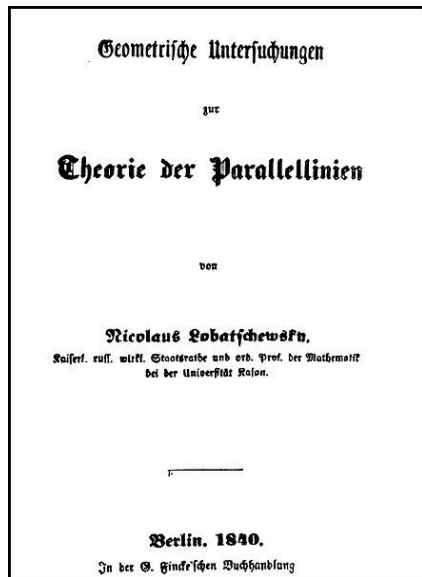


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Other works in Russian, French and German, including *Geometrische Untersuchungen zur Theorie der Parallellinien* (1840), *Pangéométrie* (1855)

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- ▶ helped drive the late 19th-century move towards axiomatisation