Euler's pioneering equation

'The most beautiful theorem in mathematics'

Robin Wilson



'The most beautiful theorem in mathematics' (Mathematical Intelligencer) 'The greatest equation ever' (almost – runner up to Maxwell's equations) (Physics World)

Richard Feynman (aged 14): 'the most remarkable formula in math'

Sir Michael Atiyah: 'the mathematical equivalent of Hamlet's To be or not to be: very succinct, but at the same time very deep'

Keith Devlin: 'Like a Shakespearian sonnet that captures the very essence of love, or a painting that brings out the beauty of the human form that is far more than just skin deep, Euler's equation reaches down into the very depths of existence' Featured in *The Simpsons* (twice) and in a criminal court case.

Euler's equation

- 'the most beautiful theorem in mathematics'

- **Five important constants:**
- 1 the counting number
- 0 the nothingness number
- π the circle number
- *e* the exponential number
- *i* the imaginary number

 $e^{i\pi}$ + 1 = 0 (or $e^{i\pi} = -1$)

Euler's equation

- 'the most beautiful theorem in mathematics'

- **Five important constants:**
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- 0 the nothingness number
- π the circle number
- *e* the exponential number
- *i* the imaginary number

Leonhard Euler had a farm, e, i, e, i, 0,And on that farm he had 1 π -g, e, i, e, i, 0.

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$

(or $e^{i\pi} = -1$)

Euler's identity

There's no real reason why there should be any connection between e^x and $\cos x$ and $\sin x$.



$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$



Exponential growth / decay: population growth and the decay of radium electric current, quantum mechanics, radio waves signal analysis image processing

1: the counting number

Our decimal place-value system uses only 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 0. It's a place-value system: 5157 means $(5 \times 1000) + (1 \times 100) + (5 \times 10) + 7$ or $(5 \times 10^3) + (1 \times 10^2) + (5 \times 10^1) + (7 \times 10^0)$ We can then carry out calculations in columns – units, tens, hundreds, thousands, etc.

Similarly the binary system uses only 0 and 1: for example, 1101 means $(1 \times 2^3) + (1 \times 2^2) + (0 \times 2^1) + (1 \times 2^0)$ [= 13]

Egyptian counting

Decimal system, written on papyrus with different symbols for 1, 10, 100, etc.





1 = rod; 10 = heel bone; 100 = coiled rope; 1000 = lotus flower



Mesopotamian counting

Cuneiform writing: place-value system based on 60: symbols for 1 and 10



For example:

< I I <<< YYYY YYY

or 1, 12, 37, means

 $(1 \times 60^2) + (12 \times 60^1) + (37 \times 60^0) = 3600 + 720 + 37 = 4357$

The classical world

Roman numerals: decimal system using the symbols I = 1, V = 5, X = 10, L = 50, C = 100, D = 500, M = 1000: so 2018 is MMXVIII.

Greek number system: decimal system with different symbols (Greek letters) for

- 1, 2, . . . , 9,
- 10, 20, . . . , 90,
- 100, 200, . . . , 900.

So 888 is written as $\omega \pi \eta$.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
α	β	γ	δ	З	ς	ζ	η	θ
10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90
1	κ	λ	μ	ν	Ę	0	π	Q
100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900
ρ	σ	τ	υ	φ	χ	Ψ	ω	þ

Chinese decimal counting boards





Mayan counting

Place-value system based mainly on 20, using symbols for 1 and 5.





means (12 × 20) + 13 = 273





Indian counting

King Asoka (c. 250 BC), first Buddhist monarch: numbers inscribed on pillars around the kingdom They used a place-value system based on 10, with only 1, 2, 3, . . . , 9 - and (later) also 0



0 – the 'nothingness' number

- ← Gwalior, c. 800
- **↓** Peshawar, c. 300-400



Brahmagupta (c.AD 600)



Calculating with zero and negative numbers.

 $4 \times 0 = 9 \times 0$, so 4 = 9??

The sum of cipher and negative is negative; Of positive and nought, positive; Of two ciphers, cipher.

Negative taken from cipher becomes positive, and positive from cipher is negative; Cipher taken from cipher is nought.

The product of cipher and positive, or of cipher and negative, is nought; Of two ciphers, it is cipher.

Cipher divided by cipher is nought.



The Hindu-Arabic numerals





π : the circle number



 $\pi = 3.14159... (< \frac{22}{7})$ is

the ratio of the circumference C to the diameter d:

 $\pi = C/d$, so $C = \pi d = 2\pi r$ (r = radius)

the ratio of the area A to the square of the radius r: $\pi = A/r^2$, so $A = \pi r^2$

π to 500 decimal places

3.1415926535897932384626433832795028841971693993751058209749 51957781857780532171226806613001927876611195909216420198 ...

The Vienna metro (Karlplatz)



π to 2000 decimal places

3.141592653589793238462643383279502884197169399375105820974944592307816406286208998628034

How I wish I could calculate pi! (3.141592) May I have a large container of coffee 3. 1 4 1 5 9 2 6 ...

How I need a drink, alcoholic of course, after all these lectures informing Gresham audiences . . .

3.14159265358979 ...

ἀει ὁ Θεος ὁ Μεγας γεωμετρει / το κυκλου μηκος ἰνα ὀριση διαμετρω / παρηγαγεν ἀριθμον ἀπεραντον / και ὀν φευ οὐδεποτε ὀλον / θνητοι θα εὑρωσι [Great God ever geometrizes – to define the circle length by its diameter ...]

3.1415926535897932384626...



Mesopotamian value of π (c.1800 BC)

> Ratio of the perimeter of the hexagon to the circumference of the circle is 0; 57, 36

 $\frac{6r}{2\pi r} = \frac{3}{\pi} = \frac{57}{60} + \frac{36}{3600}$ So $\pi = \frac{3^{1}}{8} = 3.125$ An Egyptian problem in geometry Problem 50. Example of a round field of diameter 9 khet. What is its area?

Answer:

Take away ¹/₉ of the diameter, namely 1; the remainder is 8. Multiply 8 times 8; it makes 64. So it contains 64 setat of land.



Area = $(d - \frac{1}{9}d)^2 = (\frac{8}{9}d)^2 = \frac{256}{81}r^2$ which is about 3.160 r^2

The Biblical value (c.550 BC)

I Kings VII, 23 and II Chronicles IV, 2 Also, he made a molten sea of ten cubits from brim to brim, round in compass, and five cubits the height thereof; and a line of thirty cubits did compass it round about.

So: $\pi = \frac{30}{10} = 3$



Using polygons







Antiphon: $\pi > 2$, $\pi > 2.828$ Bryson: $\pi < 4$, $\pi < 3.32$



Archimedes: repeatedly double the number of sides: $6 \rightarrow 12 \rightarrow 24 \rightarrow 48 \rightarrow 96$ result: $3^{10}/_{71} < \pi < 3^{1}/_{7}$ 3.14084 3.14286

Chinese values for π



Liu Hui (AD 263) π = 3.14159 (3072 sides)

Zu Chongzhi (AD 500) $\pi = 3.1415926$ (24,576 sides) and $\pi = \frac{355}{113}$ Ludolph van Ceulen (Dutch) (1540-1610)

1596: 20 d. p. 515,396,075,520 = 60 × 2³³ sides →

1610: 35 d. p. 4,611,686,018,427,387,904 = 2⁶² sides





The series for $\tan^{-1} x$ $\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{1}{3} x^3 + \frac{1}{5} x^5 - \frac{1}{7} x^7 + \dots$ So, with x = 1 we have: $\pi/4 = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \dots$



But this converges extremely slowly: 300 terms give only two decimal places of π . Much better is:

 $\pi/4 = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$ $= \left\{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 + \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^5 - \frac{1}{7} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^7 + \dots\right\}$ $- \left\{\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3 + \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^5 - \frac{1}{7} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^7 + \dots\right\},$ which converges much faster.

Machin's tan⁻¹ formula (1706)



 $\pi = 16 \tan^{-1} (1/_{5}) - 4 \tan^{-1} (1/_{239})$ $= 16 \{ 1/_{5} - 1/_{3} (1/_{5})^{3} + 1/_{5} (1/_{5})^{5} - 1/_{7} (1/_{5})^{7} + \dots \}$ $- 4 \{ (1/_{239}) - 1/_{3} (1/_{239})^{3} + 1/_{5} (1/_{239})^{5} - 1/_{7} (1/_{239})^{7} + \dots \}$ Machin used this series to calculate π to 100 decimal places

John Machin was Gresham Professor of Astronomy from 1713 to 1751

There are various other ways of finding the Lengths,
or Areas of particular Curve Lines, or Planes, which
may very much facilitate the Practice; as for Inflance,
in the Circle, the Diameter is to Circumference as 1 ro
$$\overline{16} - \frac{4}{5} - \frac{16}{239} - \frac{1}{5} \frac{16}{5^3} - \frac{4}{239^3} + \frac{16}{5^5} - \frac{4}{239^5} - \frac{5}{5} \frac{5}{5} - \frac{5}{239^5} - \frac{5}{5} \frac{5}{5} - \frac{5}{239^5} - \frac{5}{5} \frac{5}{5} \frac{5}{5} - \frac{5}{5} \frac{5}{5} \frac{5}{5} - \frac{5}{5} \frac{5$$

Theref. the (Radius is to $\frac{1}{2}$ Periphery, or) Diameter is to the Periphery, as 1,000, &c. to 3,141592653.58979323 94.6264338327.9502884197.1693993751.0582097494. 4592307816.4062862c89.9862803482.5342117007.9 +, True to above a 100 Places; as Computed by the Accurate and Ready Pen of the Truly Ingenious Mr. John Machin: Purely as an Infrance of the Vaft advan-

William Shanks's value of π

In 1873, using Machin's formula, William Shanks calculated π to 707 decimal places, which appear in the ' π -room' in the Palais de la Découverte in Paris.



Unfortunately, ...

Buffon's needle experiment (1777)





L = length of needle D = distance between lines

Probability of crossing a line = $2/\pi \times L/D$ Here: $5/_{10} = 2/\pi \times 4/_5$, so $\pi = \frac{16}{5} = 3.2$

Legislating for π

State legislature of Indiana (1897) Edwin J. Goodman M.D. proposed:

A bill for an act introducing a new mathematical truth and offered as a contribution to education to be used only in the State of Indiana free of cost by paying any royalties whatever on the same, provided it is accepted and adopted by the official action of the legislature in 1897.

The bill went to the House Committee on Swamp Lands (!) and then to the Committee on Education, where it was passed: Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana:

It has been found that the circular area is to the quadrant of the circumference, as the area of an equilateral rectangle is to the square on one side. The diameter employed as the linear unit according to the present rule in computing the circle's area is *entirely wrong* ...

The bill then went to the Committee on Temperance (!), where it was noticed (and stopped) by Mathematics professor C. A. Waldo (Purdue)

Some weird results

Ramanujan (1914):

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{\sqrt{8}}{9801} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(4n)!}{(n!)^4} \times \frac{1103 + 26390n}{396^{4n}}$$

The Chudnovsky brothers (1989):

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = 12 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(6n)!}{(n!)^3 (3n)!} \times \frac{13591409 + 545140134n}{(640320)^{n+1/2}}$$

Bailey, Borwein and Plouffe (1995):

$$\pi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{16^n} \left(\frac{4}{8n+1} - \frac{2}{8n+4} - \frac{1}{8n+5} - \frac{1}{8n+6} \right)$$

Circling the earth



The earth's circumference is about 25,000 miles (132 million feet) Tie a string tightly around the earth. Then extend the string by just 2π (\approx 6.3) feet, and prop it up equally all around the earth.

How high above the ground is the string?

Circling the earth

The earth's circumference is about 25,000 miles. Tie a string tightly around the earth, extend the string by 2π (\approx 6.3) feet, and prop it up equally *all around the earth*. How high above the ground is the string?



If the earth's radius is r, then the original string has length $2\pi r$. When we extend the string by 2π , the new circumference is $2\pi r + 2\pi = 2\pi (r + 1)$, so the new radius is r + 1 - soeverywhere the string is now *one foot* off the ground.

e: the 'exponential number'

e = 2.7182818284590452360287471352...

The letter *e* first appeared in an unpublished paper of Euler around 1727, and in a letter of 1731.

It first appeared in print in 1736 in his *Mechanica*:

'where *e* denotes the number whose hyperbolic logarithm is 1'.

Corollarium II.

171. Quanquam autem in ista acquatione ipfa potentia p non inest, tamen eius directio a qua relatio elementorum dx et dy pendet, adhuc super est. Data igitur directione potentiae punctum in quouis loco sollicitantis, et ipsa curua in qua punctum mouetur, poterit ex his solis datis determinari puncti celeritas in quouis loco. Erit enim $\frac{do-dyd}{rdx}$ soli c denotat numerum, cuius logarithmus hyperbolicus est r.

A chessboard problem

The wealthy king of a certain country was so impressed by the new game of chess that he offered the wise man who invented it any reward he wished.

The wise man replied: 'My prize is for you to give me 1 grain of wheat for the first square of the chessboard, 2 grains for the second square, 4 grains for the third square, and so on, doubling the number of grains on each successive square until the chessboard is filled.'

A chessboard problem



Total number of grains: $1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 + \ldots + 2^{63}$ $= 2^{64} - 1$

= 18,446,744,073,709,551,615

 enough wheat to form a pile the size of Mount Everest.

Exponential growth

polynom n: 1, 2, n ² : 1, 4, 9 n ³ : 1, 8, 27	nial growth 3, 4, 5, 9, 16, 25, 7, 64, 125,	exponential growth 2 ⁿ : 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 3 ⁿ : 1, 3, 9, 27, 81, 243,			
	<i>n</i> = 10	<i>n</i> = 30	<i>n</i> = 50		
polynomial					
n	0.00001 seconds	0.00003 seconds	0.00005 seconds		
n ²	0.0001 seconds	0.0009 seconds	0.0025 seconds		
n ³	0.001 seconds	0.027 seconds	0.125 seconds		
exponential					
2 ⁿ	0.001 seconds	17.9 minutes	35.7 years		
3 ^{<i>n</i>}	0.059 seconds	6.5 years	2.3 × 10 ¹⁰ years		
	In the long run usually exceed	n, exponential gro	owth owth.		



An interest-ing problem

Jakob Bernoulli asked:

How much is earned when compound interest is calculated yearly? twice a year? ..., every day? *n* times a year? continuously?

Invest £1 at 100% interest per year: twice a year: £1 \rightarrow £(1 + $1/_2$) = £1.50 \rightarrow £(1 + $1/_2$)² = £2.25 *n* times a year: £1 \rightarrow £(1 + $1/_n$) \rightarrow £ (1 + $1/_n$)² \rightarrow ... \rightarrow £ (1 + $1/_n$)ⁿ

period:	year	half-year	quarter-year	two months	month
final amount:	2.00000	2.25000	2.44141	2.52153	2.61304
period:	week	day	hour	minute	second
final amount:	2.69260	2.71417	2.71813	2.71828	2.71828

As *n* increases, these numbers tend to the limiting value of *e*.

Leonhard Euler (1707-1783)



INTRODUCTIO IN ANALYSIN INFINITORUM.

AUCTORE

LEONHARDO EULERO,

Professore Regio BEROLINENSI, & Academia Imperialia Scientiarum PETROPOLITANE Socio.

TOMUS PRIMUS:



Apud MARCUM-MICHAELEM BOUSQUET & Socios-

MDCCXLVIIL

Some properties of e

•
$$e = \lim_{n \to \infty} (1 + 1/n)^n$$

• $e^x = \lim_{n \to \infty} (1 + x/n)^n$

•
$$e = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \dots$$

•
$$e^x = 1 + x/1! + x^2/2! + x^3/3! + \dots$$

• The slope of the curve $y = e^x$ at the value x is $y = e^x$: \rightarrow

dy/dx = y





Exponential growth as predicted by Thomas Malthus (1798)

If N(t), the size of a population at time t, grows at a fixed rate k proportional to its size, then

dN/dt = kN,

which can be solved to give

 $N = N_0 e^{kt},$

where N_0 is the initial population.







Girolamo Cardano (1545)

Divide 10 into two parts whose product is 40.

If the parts are x and 10 - x, then x (10 - x) = 40, or $x^2 - 10x + 40 = 0$, with solutions x = 5 + $\sqrt{-15}$ and x = 5 - $\sqrt{-15}$.

Nevertheless we will operate, putting aside the mental tortures involved . . . So progresses arithmetic subtlety the end of which is as refined as it is useless.

The imaginary number √−1







Augustus De Morgan: We have shown the symbol V-a to be void of meaning, or rather self-contradictory and absurd.

George Airy: I have not the smallest confidence in any result which is essentially obtained by the use of imaginary symbols.

Gottfried Leibniz:

The imaginary numbers are a wonderful flight of God's spirit: they are almost an amphibian between being and not being.

Complex numbers

For many purposes our ordinary numbers are enough. But let's now allow this object called √−1 (or *i*, as Euler named it). We can then calculate as follows:

Addition: (a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)iFor example: (1 + 3i) + (2 + i) = 3 + 4i

Multiplication:

 $(a + bi) \times (c + di) = ac + adi + bci + bdi^{2}$ = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)iFor example: $(1 + 3i) \times (2 + i) = (2 - 3) + (1 + 6)i = -1 + 7i$

The complex plane

[Caspar Wessel (1799), and later, Gauss and Argand]

Represent complex numbers *a* + *bi* by points (*a*, *b*) in the plane:



We can also multiply by *i* or *i*² by rotating through 90° or 180°





William Rowan Hamilton

Define complex numbers as pairs (*a*, *b*) which combine as follows:

$$(a, b) + (c, d) = (a + c, b + d)$$

 $(a, b) \times (c, d) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$



How about three dimensions: a + bi + cj, with $i^2 = j^2 = -1$? (a + bi + cj) + (d + ei + fj) OK $(a + bi + cj) \times (d + ei + fj) = ???$ $[i \times j = ???]$

Every morning on my coming down to breakfast, your brother William Edwin and your yourself used to ask me. 'Well, Papa, can you multiply triplets?' Whereto I was always obliged to reply with a sad shake of the head, 'No, I can only add and subtract them.'

Hamilton's quaternions

a + bi + cj + dk,where $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$ and ijk = -1ij = -ji, jk = -kj, ki = -ik,

Here as he walked by

on the 16th of October 1843 Sir William Rowan Hamilton

in a flash of genius discovered

the fundamental formula for quaternion multiplication

 $i^2 = i^2 = k^2 = iik = -1$

& cutit on a stone of this bridge



EIRE 29 $i^{2} = i^{2} = k^{2} = -1$ i = k $ik = i \quad ki = j$ $i^{2} = -k \quad ki = -i$ ternions discovery by Hamilton 1843





 $e^{x} = 1 + x/1! + x^{2}/2! + x^{3}/3! + x^{4}/4! + x^{5}/5! + \dots$ $\cos x = 1 - x^{2}/2! + x^{4}/4! - \dots$ $\sin x = x - x^{3}/3! + x^{5}/5! - \dots$

SO

 $e^{ix} = 1 + ix/1! + (ix)^2/2! + (ix)^3/3! + (ix)^4/4! + (ix)^5/5! + \dots$

 $= (1 - x^2/2! + x^4/4! - ...) + i(x - x^3/3! + x^5/5! - ...)$ $= \cos x + i \sin x$



Euler's identity: $e^{iv} = \cos v + i \sin v$

138. Ponatur denuo in formulis §. 133, Arcus z infinite parvus, & sit n numerus infinite magnus i, ut iz obtineat valorem finitum v. Erit ergo z = v; & $z = \frac{v}{i}$, unde fin. $z = \frac{v}{i}$ & cof. z = 1; his fubfitutis fit cof. $v = \frac{(1 + \frac{v\sqrt{-1}}{i})^{i} + (1 - \frac{v\sqrt{-1}}{i})^{i}}{2}$; atque fin. $v = \frac{(1 + \frac{v\sqrt{-1}}{i})^{i} - (1 - \frac{v\sqrt{-1}}{i})^{i}}{2}$. In Capite autem præcedente vidimus esse $(1 + \frac{z}{i})^i = e^z$, denotante e basin Logarithmorum hyperbolicorum : scripto ergo pro 2 partim $\frac{+v\sqrt{-1}}{e^{+v\sqrt{-1}} + e^{-v\sqrt{-1}}} \frac{v\sqrt{-1}}{e^{+v\sqrt{-1}} - e^{-v\sqrt{-1}}} \frac{e^{+v\sqrt{-1}}}{2\sqrt{-1}} \frac{e^{-v\sqrt{-1}}}{2\sqrt{-1}}$ Ex quibus intelligitur quomodo quantitates exponentiales imaginariæ ad Sinus & Colinus Arcuum realium reducantur. Erit vero $e^{+v\sqrt{-1}} = cof. v + \sqrt{-1}. fin. v & e^{-v\sqrt{-1}} =$ cof. v - V - I. fin. v.

 \rightarrow

Euler's equation:

In Euler's identity, $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$, put $x = \pi$ (= 180°): since $\cos \pi = -1$ and $\sin \pi = 0$, $e^{i\pi} = -1$ (or $e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$).

But $e^x = 1 + x/1! + x^2/2! + x^3/3! + x^4/4! + x^5/5! + \dots$

So
$$e^{i\pi} = 1 + i\pi/1! + (i\pi)^2/2!$$

+ $(i\pi)^3/3! + (i\pi)^4/4! + ...$
= $1 + i\pi - \pi^2/2 - i\pi^3/6 + \pi^4/24$
+ ... = -1





A near-miss by Johann Bernoulli

Bernoulli found the area A of the sector on the right to be $A = (a^2/4i) \times \log \{(x + iy)/(x - iy)\}.$ Euler then put x = 0: $A = (a^2/4i) \times \log (-1) = \pi a^2/4.$ So $\log (-1) = i\pi$



Taking exponentials then gives Euler's equation in the form $e^{i\pi} = -1$

Another near-miss: Roger Cotes

Roger Cotes introduced radian measure for angles, and worked with Newton on the *Principia Mathematica*.

He also investigated the surface area of an ellipsoid, and found two expressions for it involving logarithms and trigonometry, and both involving an angle φ.



Equating these, he found that $\log(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi) = i\varphi$. Taking exponentials then gives Euler's identity

Who discovered 'Euler's equation'?

Bernoulli/Euler: $i\pi = \log(-1)$

Roger Cotes: $\log(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi) = i\varphi$

Euler seems never to have written down $e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$ explicitly – though he surely realised that it follows from his identity, $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$.

We don't know who first stated it explicitly - though there's an early appearance in 1813-14.

Most people attribute it to Euler, to honour this great mathematical pioneer. Who discovered 'Euler's equation'? Bernoulli/Euler: $i\pi = \log(-1)$

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