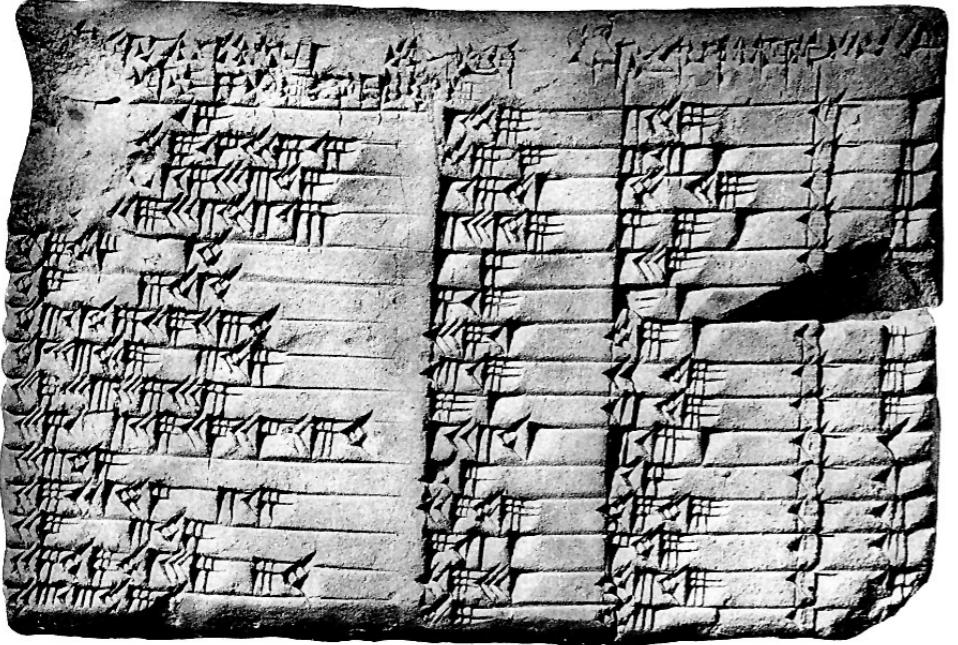


Chapter 2: Ancient Methods





$$26 \rightarrow 31$$

$$13 \rightarrow 62$$

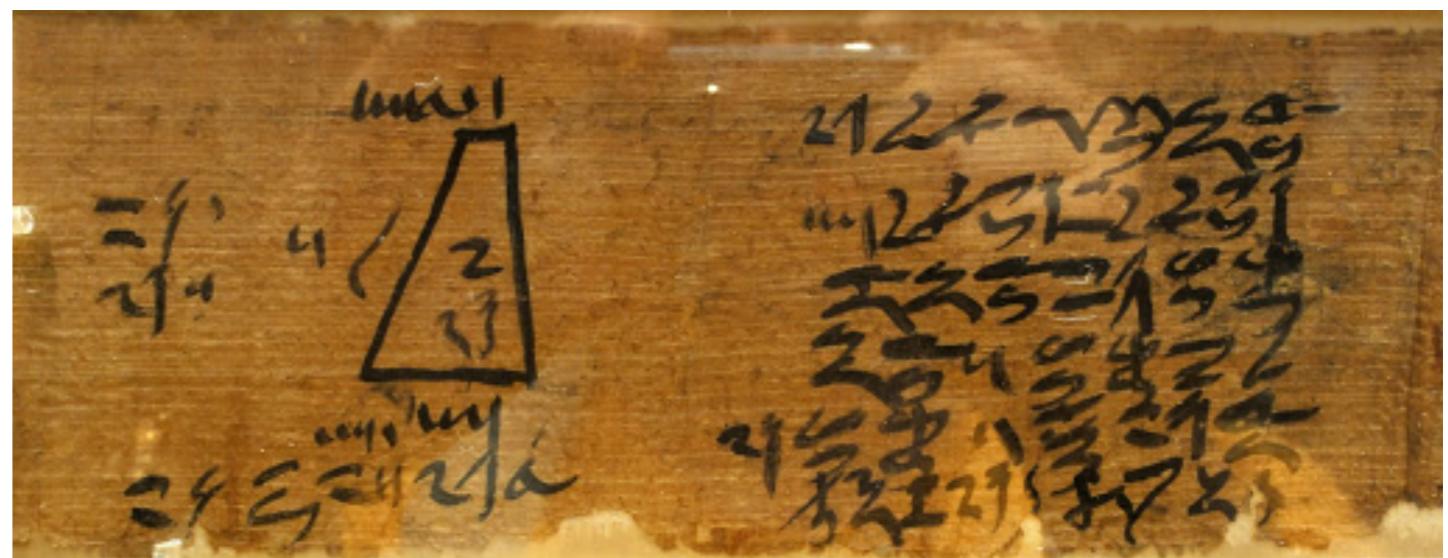
$$6 \rightarrow 124$$

$$3 \rightarrow 248$$

$$1 \rightarrow 496$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 62 \\ + 248 \\ \hline 496 \\ \hline 806 \end{array}$$

Egyptian and Babylonian Mathematics



Ancient Egyptian Mathematics

Egypt



Egypt

VEED.IO

Egypt

VEED.IO

Utilitarian “Theorems”

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- Important example: Constructing right angles.

Think Like A
Math Historian

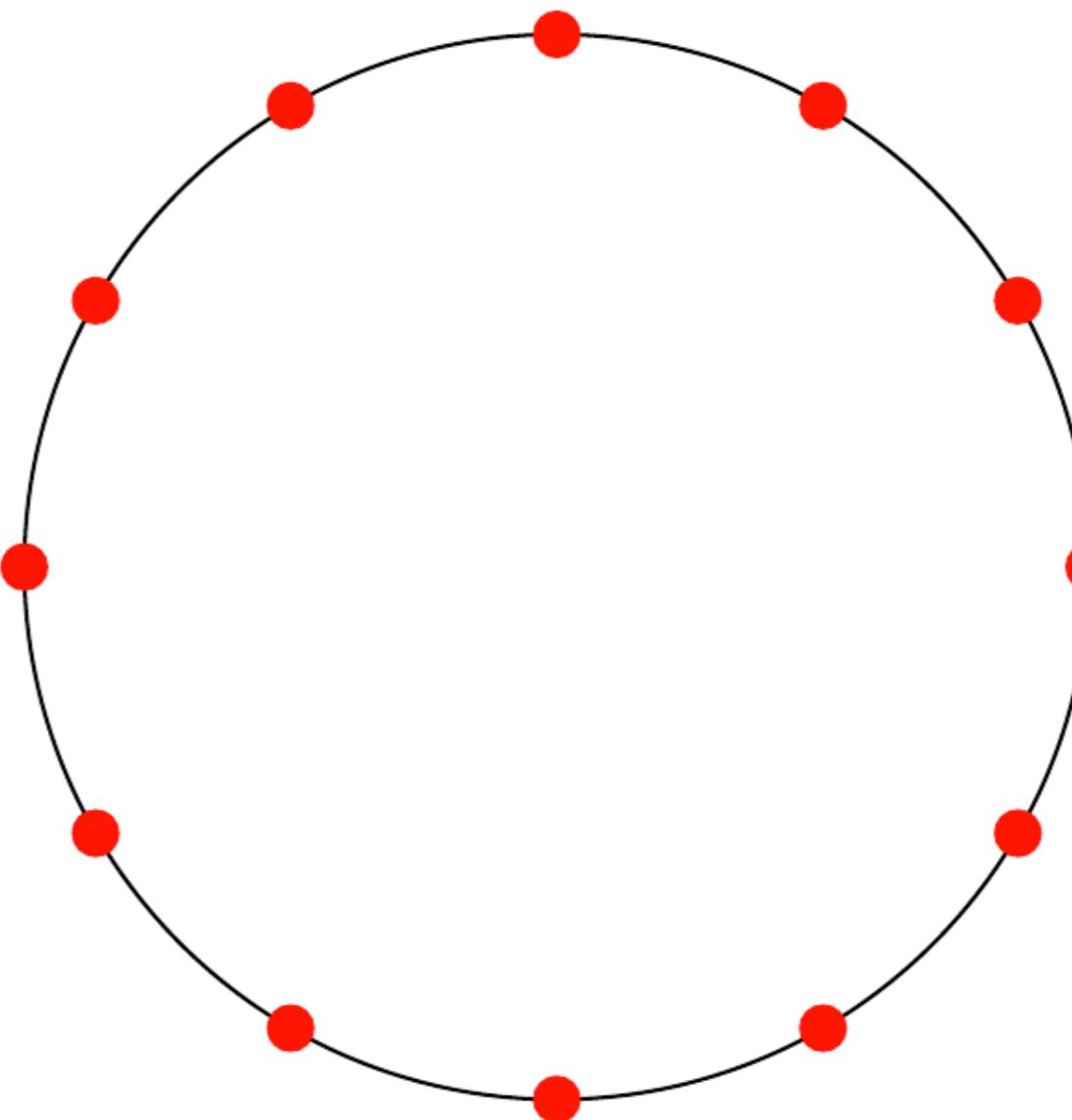
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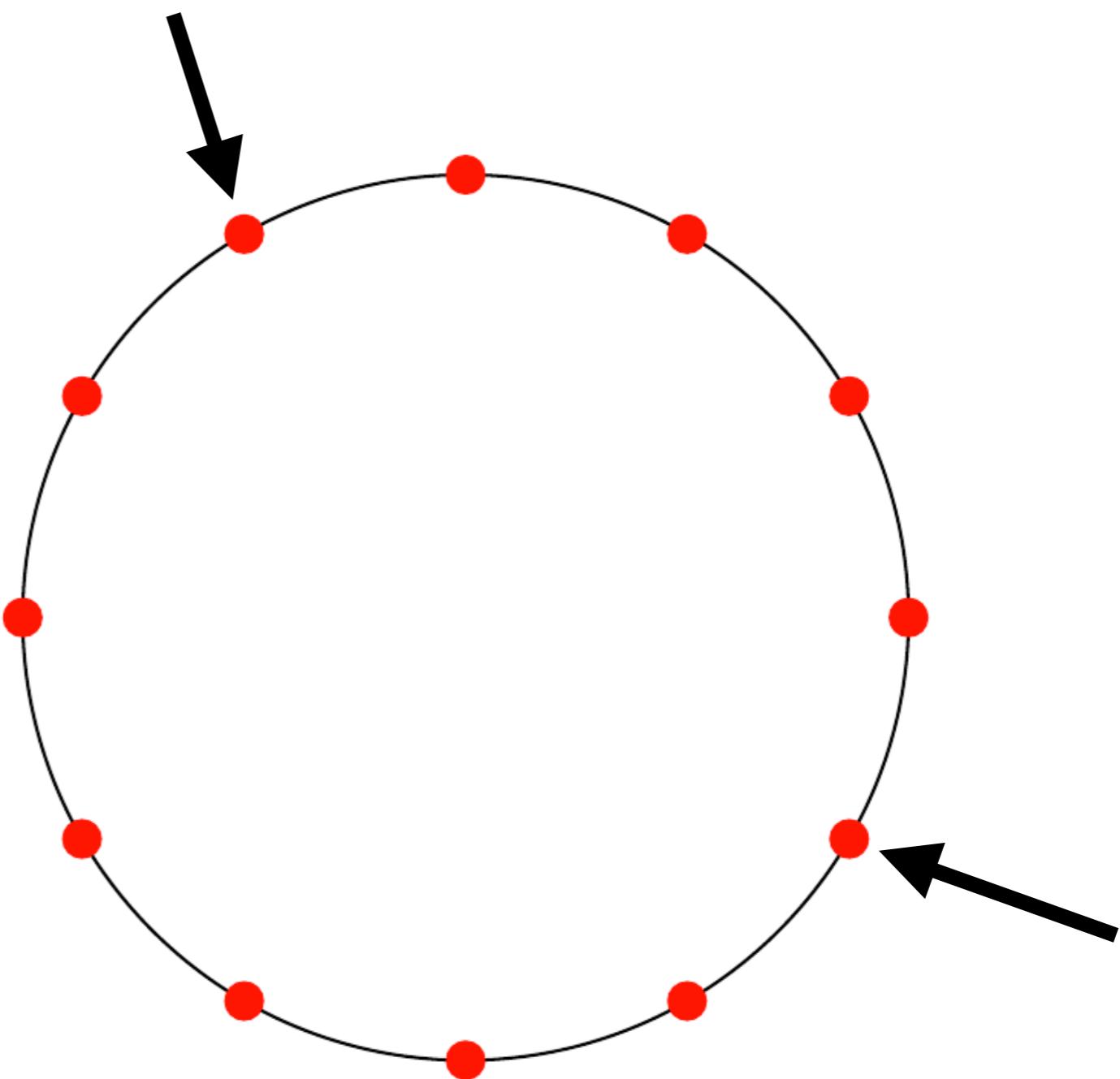
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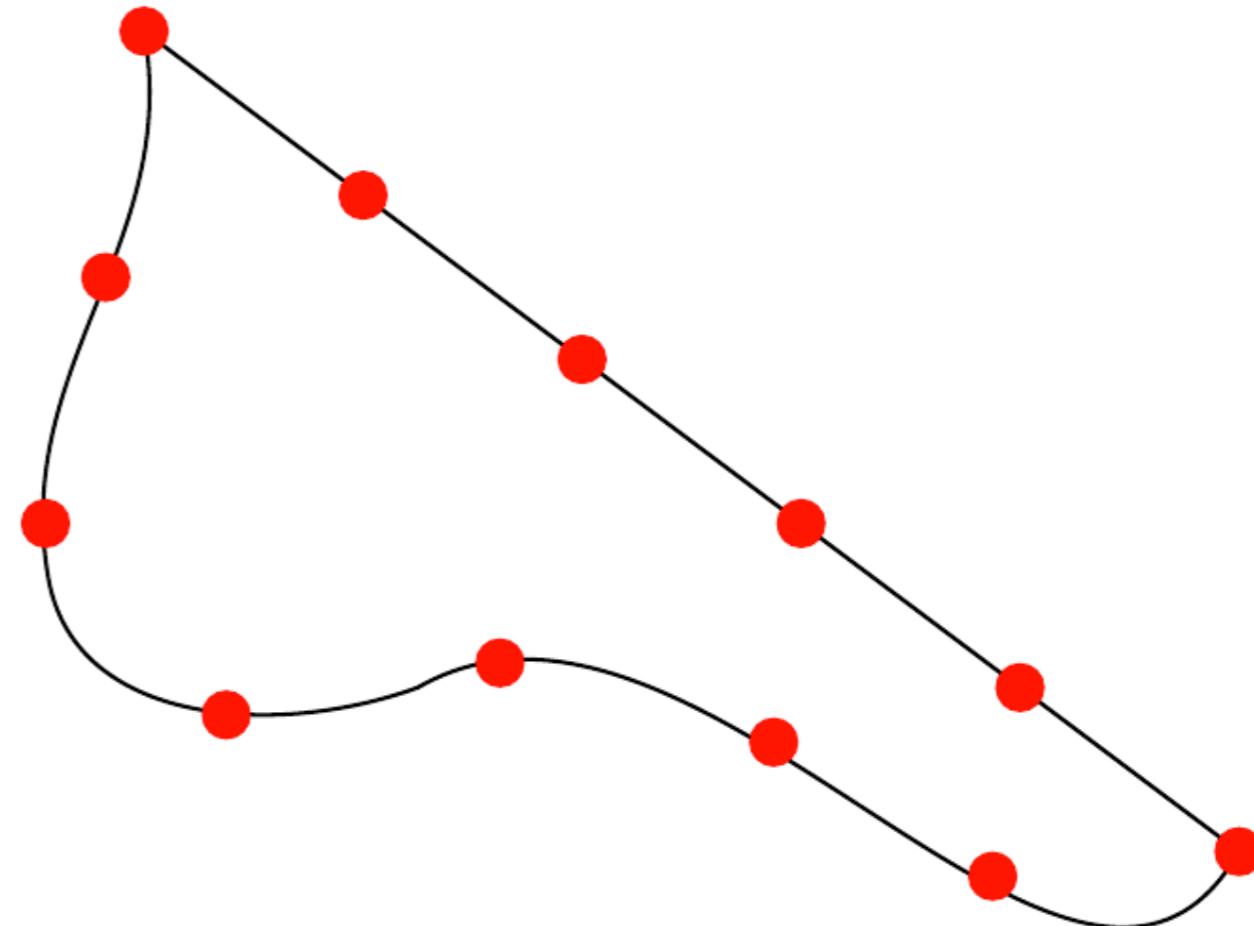
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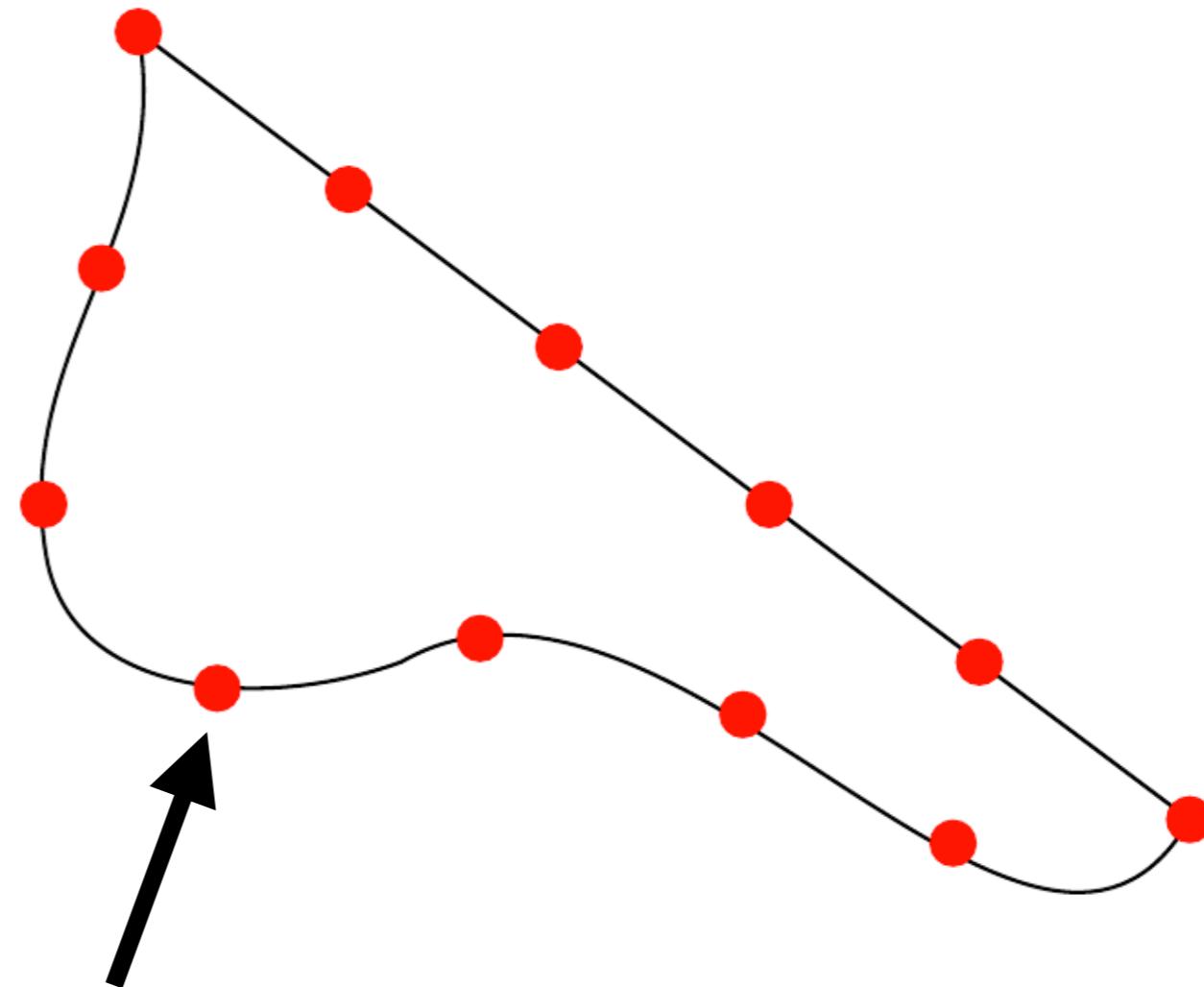
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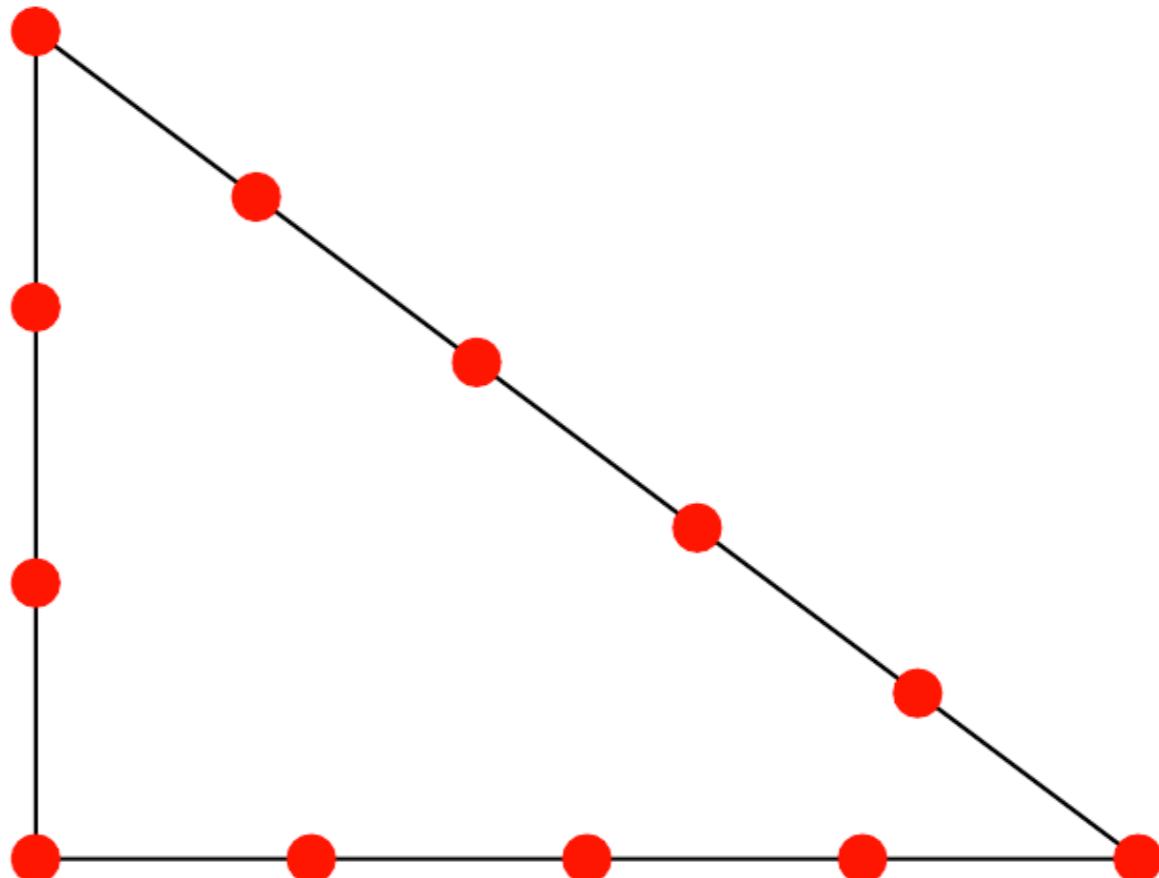
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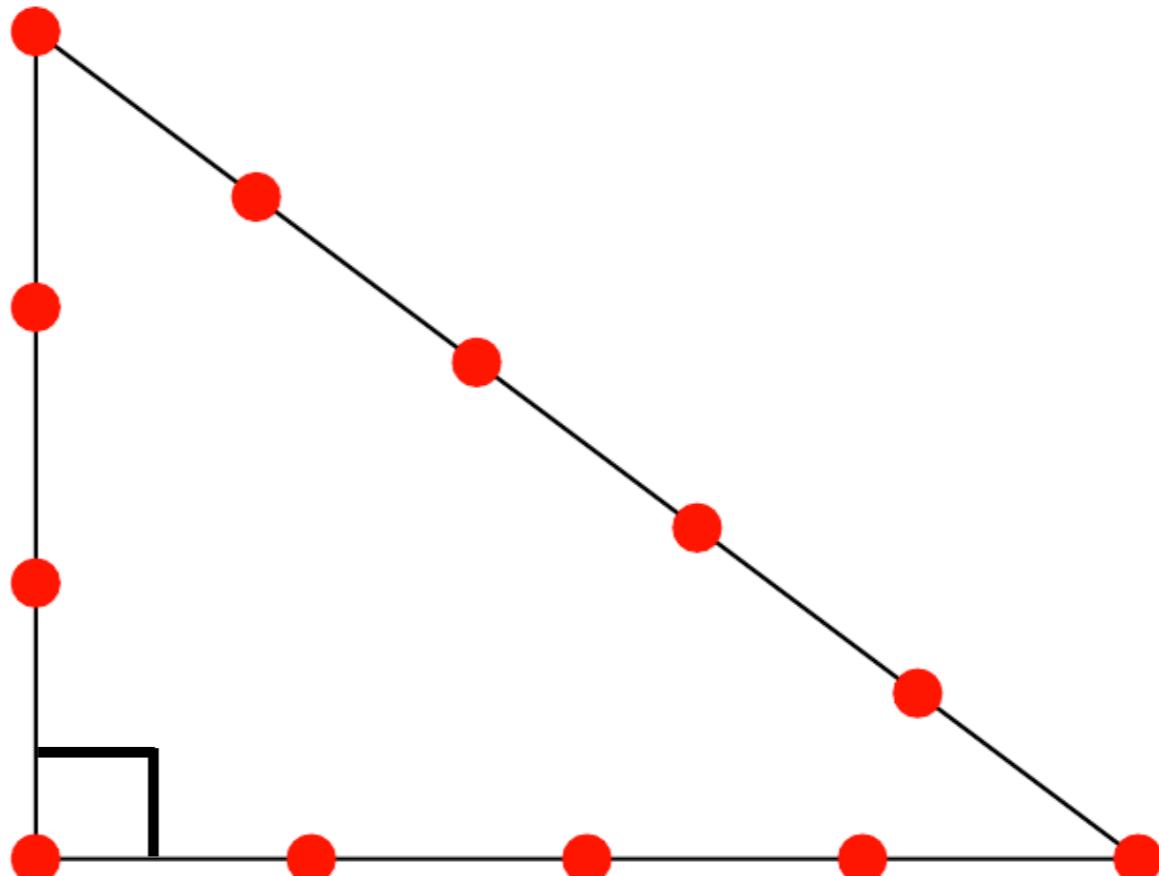
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Egyptian Numerical Methods

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- And both are perishable, but the Egyptian climate preserved many of them well.

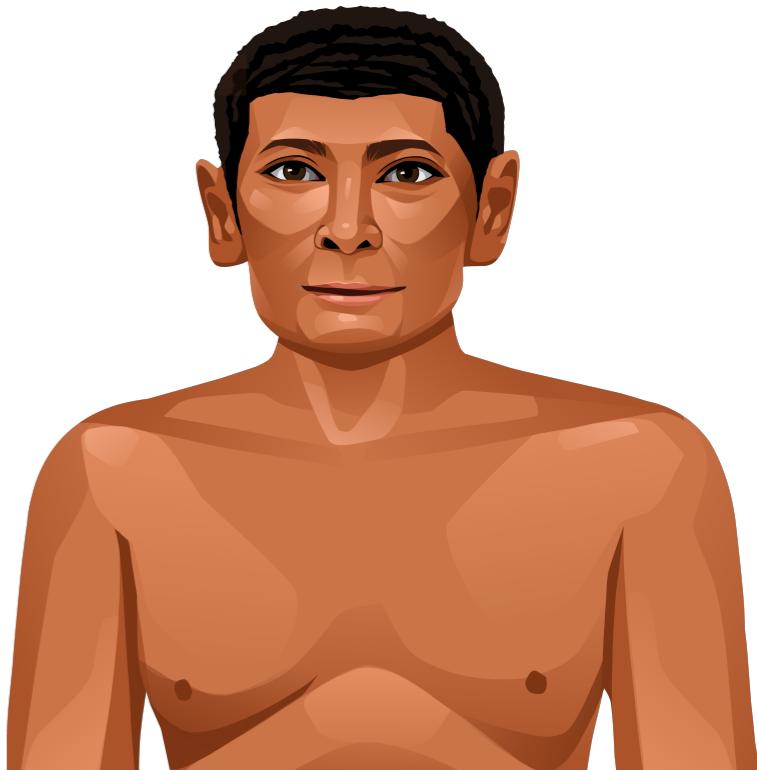
Egyptian Methods



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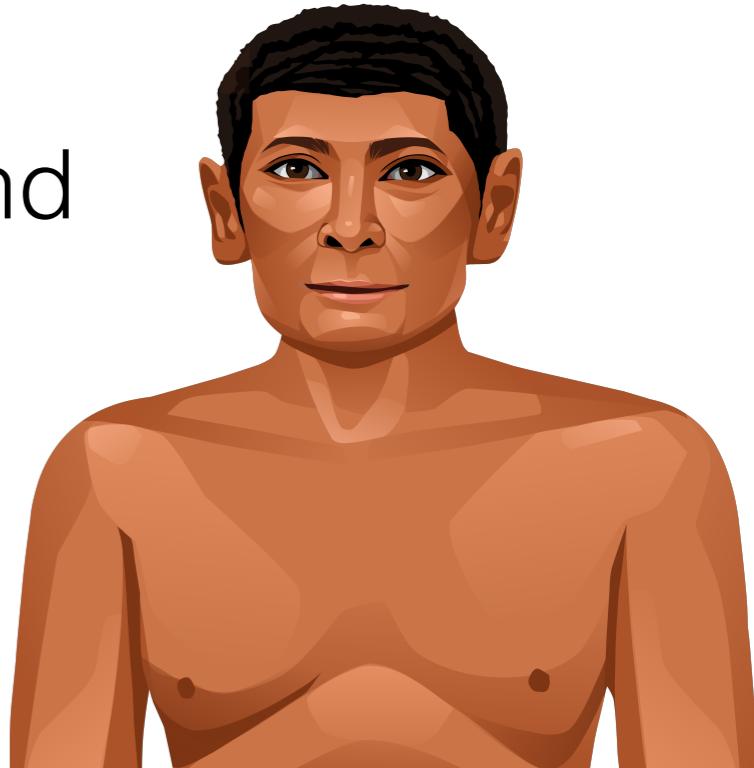


Egyptian Methods



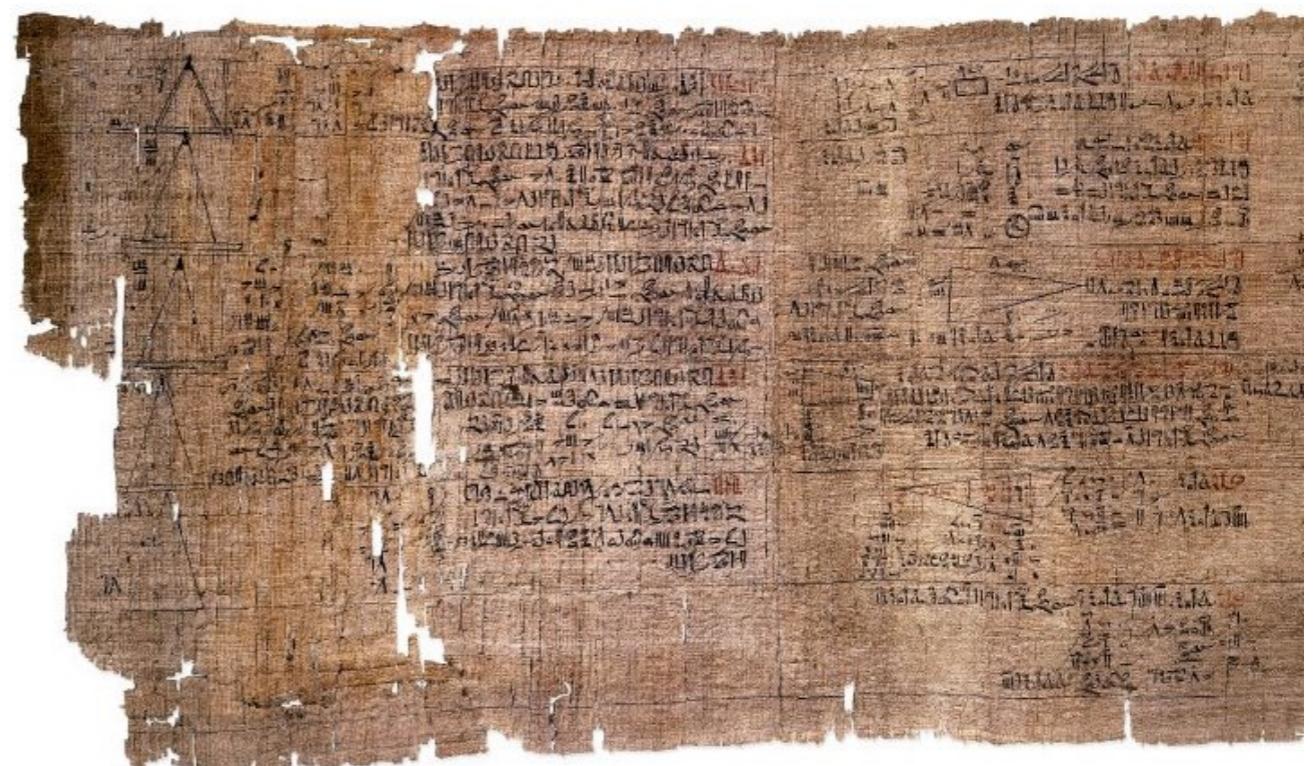
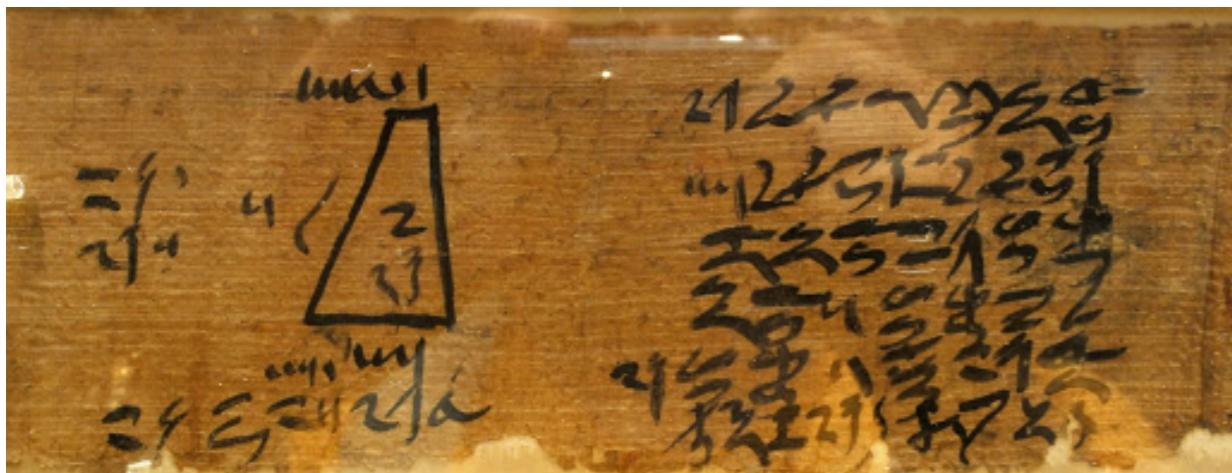
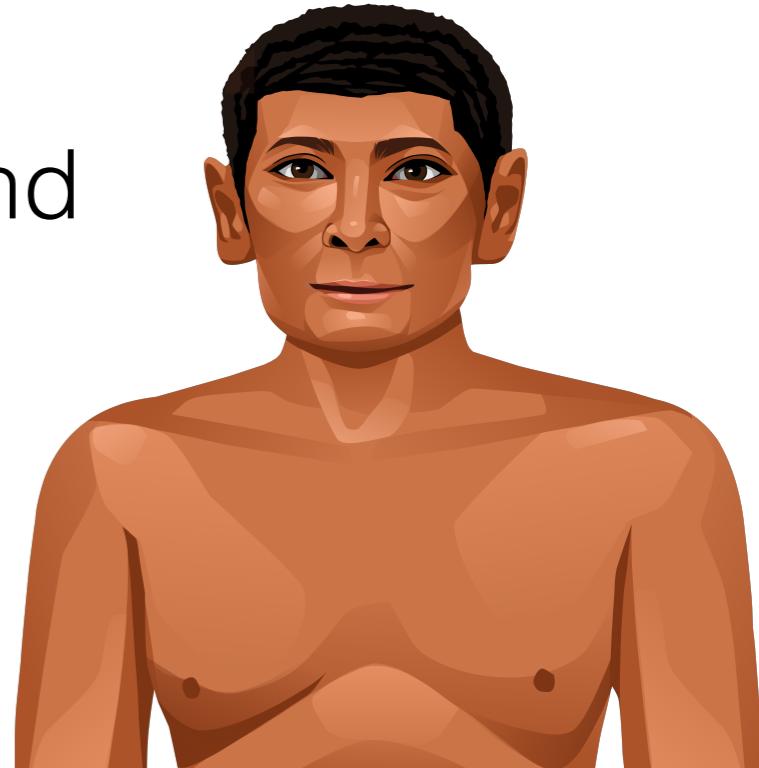
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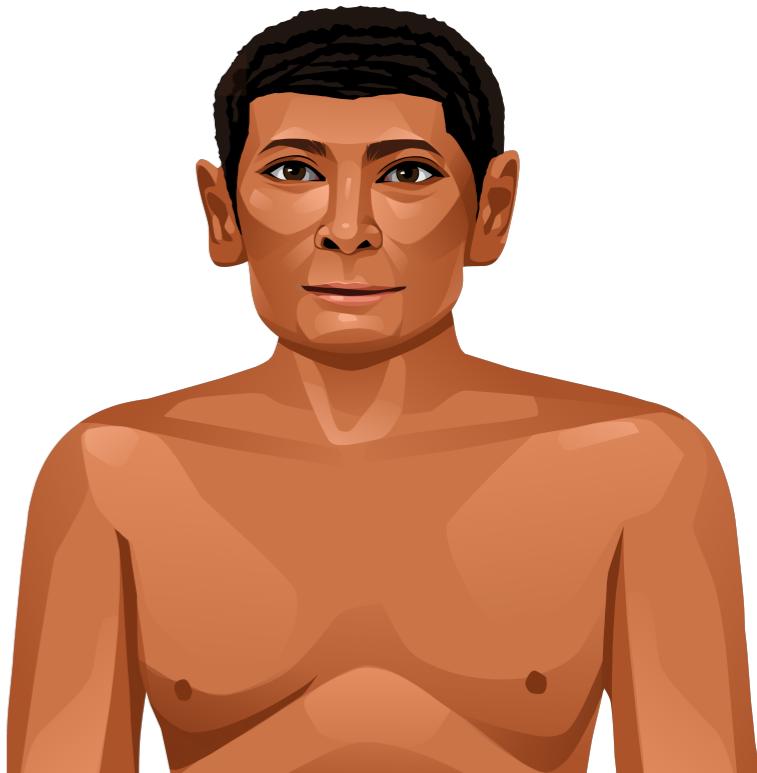


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- Rhind Papyrus (~1650 BC; 18 ft x 13 in) and Moscow Papyrus (~1850 BC; 16 ft x 3 in). Written by a scribe named Ahmes.
- Combined: 85 problems and solutions (all numerical) on arithmetic, algebra and geometry.



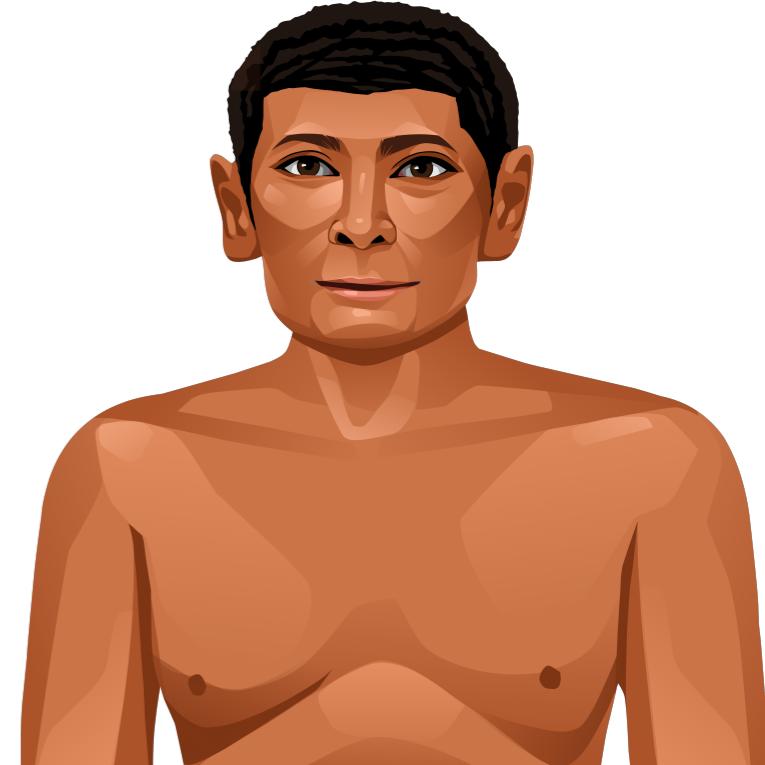
Egyptian Methods



Egyptian Methods

- Rind pictures:

[https://www.britishmuseum.org/
collection/object/Y_EA10058](https://www.britishmuseum.org/collection/object/Y_EA10058)



Think Like A
Math Historian

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The diagram illustrates the Egyptian multiplication of 45 by 21 using a doubling and addition algorithm. On the left, powers of 2 are listed in ovals, each followed by its double: 1 → 21, 2 → 42, 4 → 84, 8 → 168, 16 → 336, and 32 → 672. Lines connect these values to the right side, where they are added together to find the product. The additions are as follows:

$$\begin{array}{r} & 21 \\ & 84 \\ + & 168 \\ & 672 \\ \hline & 945 \end{array}$$

Think Like A Math Historian

Why does it work?

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \rightarrow 21 \\ 2 \rightarrow 42 \\ 4 \rightarrow 84 \\ 8 \rightarrow 168 \\ 16 \rightarrow 336 \\ 32 \rightarrow 672 \end{array} + \begin{array}{r} 21 \\ 84 \\ 168 \\ 672 \\ \hline 945 \end{array}$$

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$$45 \cdot 21 = (32 + 8 + 4 + 1) \cdot 21$$

Think Like A Math Historian

Why does it work?

The diagram illustrates the distributive property of multiplication over addition for the calculation $45 \cdot 21$. It shows the number 45 broken down into its components: 32, 8, 4, and 1, each multiplied by 21. The components are arranged vertically on the left, and their products are shown in ovals above them. Lines connect these ovals to the corresponding terms in the expanded multiplication on the right.

$$\begin{array}{r} 21 \\ 84 \\ + 168 \\ \hline 672 \\ \hline 945 \end{array}$$

1 → 21
2 → 42
4 → 84
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$$\begin{aligned} 45 \cdot 21 &= (32 + 8 + 4 + 1) \cdot 21 \\ &= 32 \cdot 21 + 8 \cdot 21 + 4 \cdot 21 + 1 \cdot 21 \end{aligned}$$

Think Like A Math Historian

Why does it work?

The diagram illustrates the decomposition of 45 into powers of 2 and their multiplication by 21. On the left, six ovals show the mapping from powers of 2 to their multiples by 21: $1 \rightarrow 21$, $2 \rightarrow 42$, $4 \rightarrow 84$, $8 \rightarrow 168$, $16 \rightarrow 336$, and $32 \rightarrow 672$. Lines connect these ovals to the corresponding terms in a vertical addition problem on the right. The addition problem is set up as follows:

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Think Like A Math Historian

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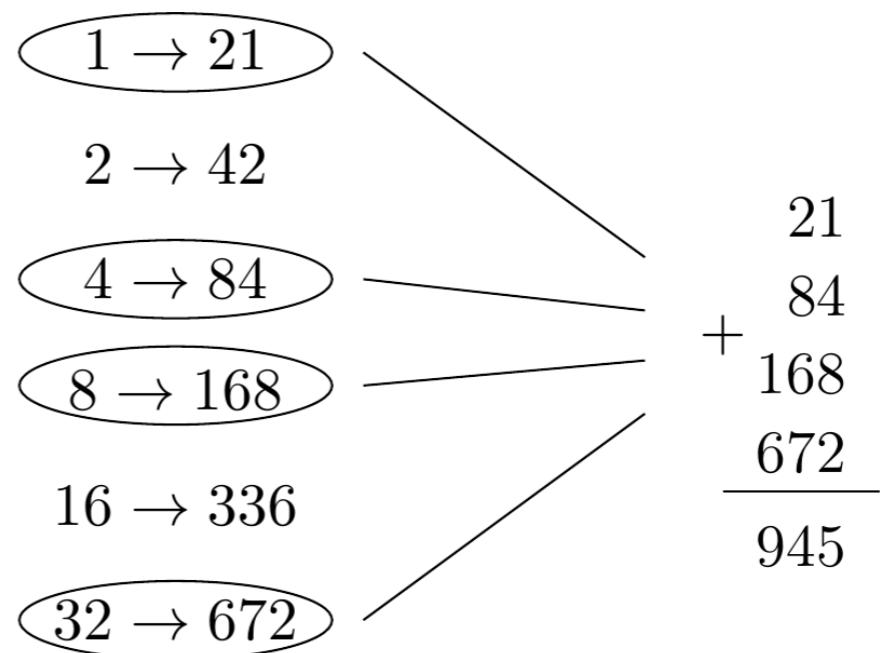
Binary!

$$45 \cdot 21 = (32 + 8 + 4 + 1) \cdot 21$$

$$= 32 \cdot 21 + 8 \cdot 21 + 4 \cdot 21 + 1 \cdot 21$$

$$= 672 + 168 + 84 + 21$$

$$= 945.$$



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Why does it work? You'll tell me on your homework!

Egyptian Fractions (On Board)

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$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n(n+1)}.$$

- Second, arithmetic is tough. Even simply multiplying by 2 can make a fraction unrecognizable.

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1. Find the largest unit fraction less than $\frac{m_1}{n_1}$; suppose it is $\frac{1}{k_1}$.
2. Subtract: $\frac{m_1}{n_1} - \frac{1}{k_1}$, and simplify this to a single new fraction, $\frac{m_2}{n_2}$.
3. Now find the largest unit fraction less than $\frac{m_2}{n_2}$; suppose it is $\frac{1}{k_2}$.
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One can prove that this algorithm at some point terminates, producing a *finite* list sum of unit fractions equaling $\frac{m_1}{n_1}$:

$$\frac{m_1}{n_1} = \frac{1}{k_1} + \frac{1}{k_2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{k_t}.$$

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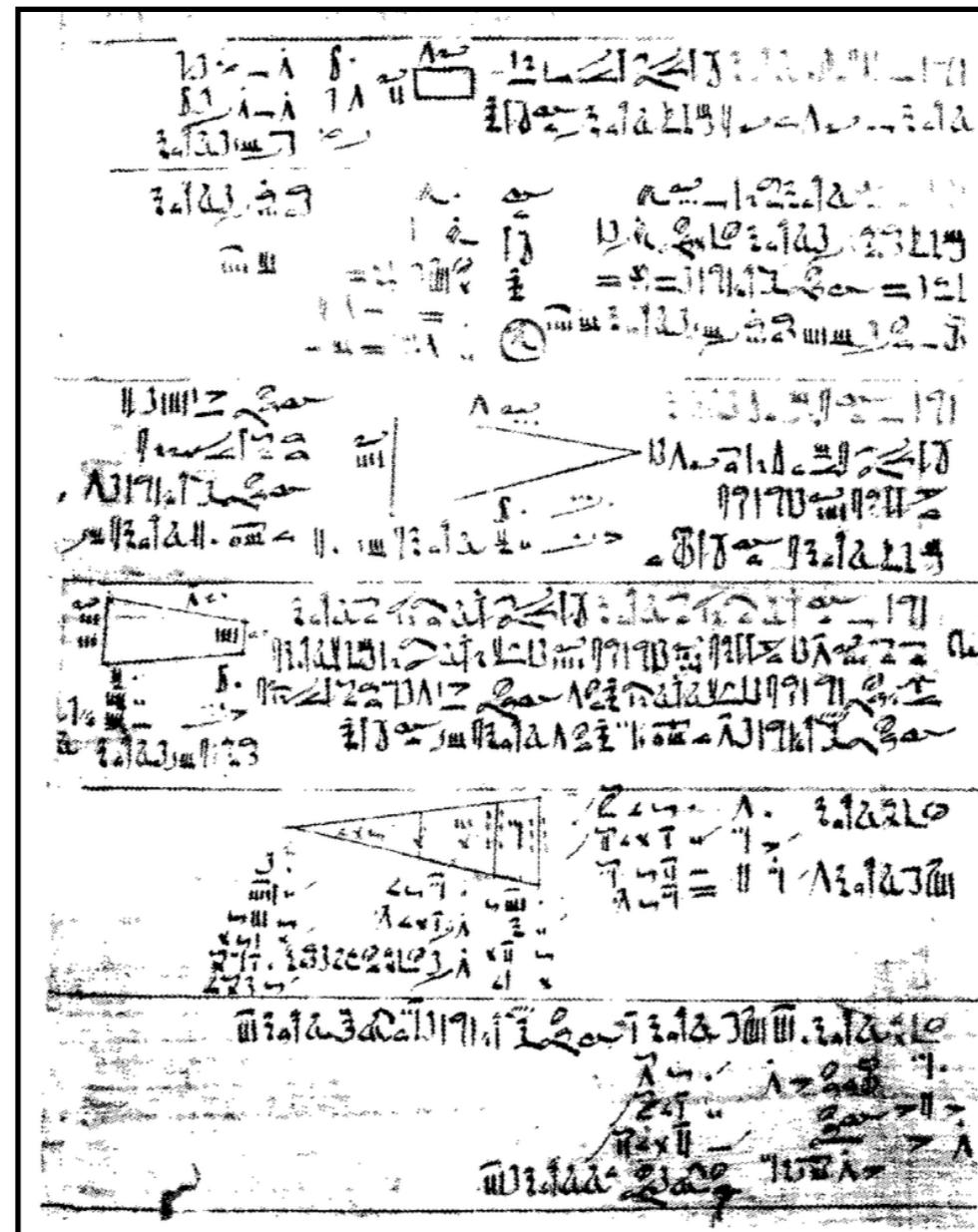
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- Suppose you have, say, 5 cookies and 6 people. How do you cut them to give everyone the same amount?
- Could try to cut a sliver off each cookie and give those slivers to one person, but that wouldn't go well.
- Writing it with Egyptian fractions, $\frac{5}{6} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$. So one way is to give everyone a half and a third!

Geometry

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- This essentially means they were using $\pi = \frac{256}{81} = 3.1604\dots$ Which isn't too bad.

Babylonian Mathematics

Mesopotamia



Mesopotamia



Babylonia



Babylonian Methods

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- Babylonian mathematics was generally more advanced than Ancient Egyptian mathematics.

Think Like A
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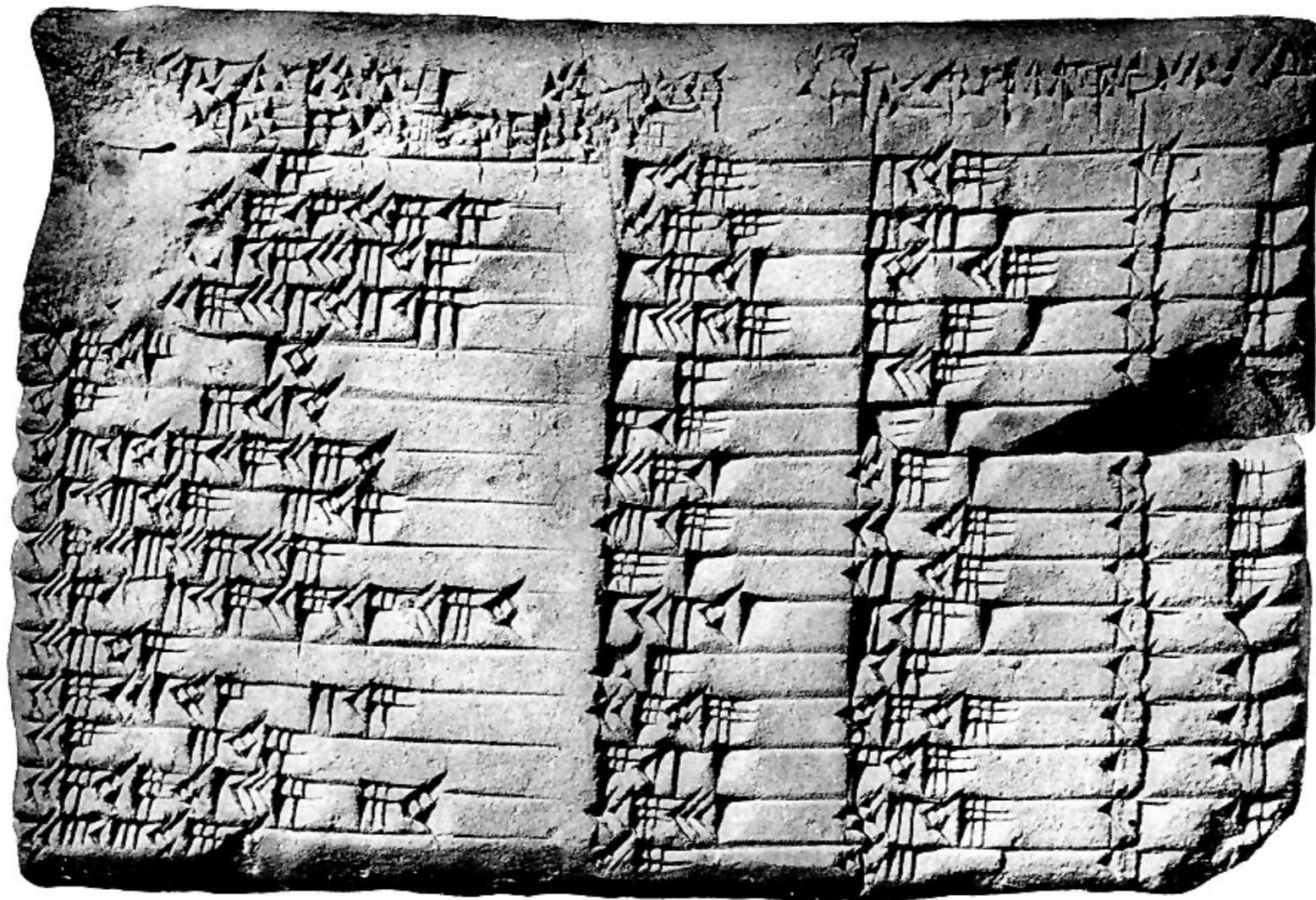
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1; 55 7 41 15 33 45	1 16 41	1 50 49	3
1; 53 10 29 32 52 16	3 31 49	5 9 1	4
1; 48 54 1 40	1 5	1 37	5
1; 47 6 41 40	5 19	8 1	6
1; 43 11 56 28 26 40	38 11	59 1	7
1; 41 33 45 14 3 45	13 19	20 49	8
1; 38 33 36 36	8 1*	12 49 9	9
1; 35 10 2 28 27 24 26 40	1 22 41	2 16 1	10
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$$3 \cdot 60^2 + 31 \cdot 60 + 49$$

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$$3 \cdot 60^2 + 31 \cdot 60 + 49 = 12,709$$

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Ratio	Width	Diagonal	Row number
$\frac{28,561}{14,400}$	119	169	1
$\frac{23,280,625}{11,943,936}$	3,367	4,825	2
$\frac{44,209,201}{23,040,000}$	4,601	6,649	3
$\frac{343,768,681}{182,250,000}$	12,709	18,541	4
$\frac{9,409}{5,184}$	65	97	5
$\frac{231,361}{129,600}$	319	481	6
$\frac{12,538,681}{7,290,000}$	2,291	3,541	7
$\frac{1,560,001}{921,600}$	799	1,249	8
$\frac{591,361}{360,000}$	481	46,149	9
$\frac{66,601,921}{41,990,400}$	4,961	8,161	10
$\frac{25}{16}$	45	75	11
$\frac{8,579,041}{5,760,000}$	1,679	2,929	12
$\frac{5,034,241}{34,560,00}$	161	289	13
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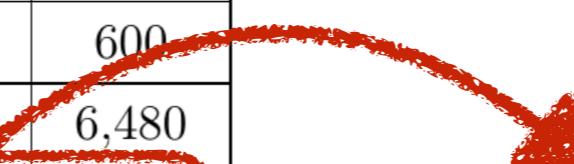
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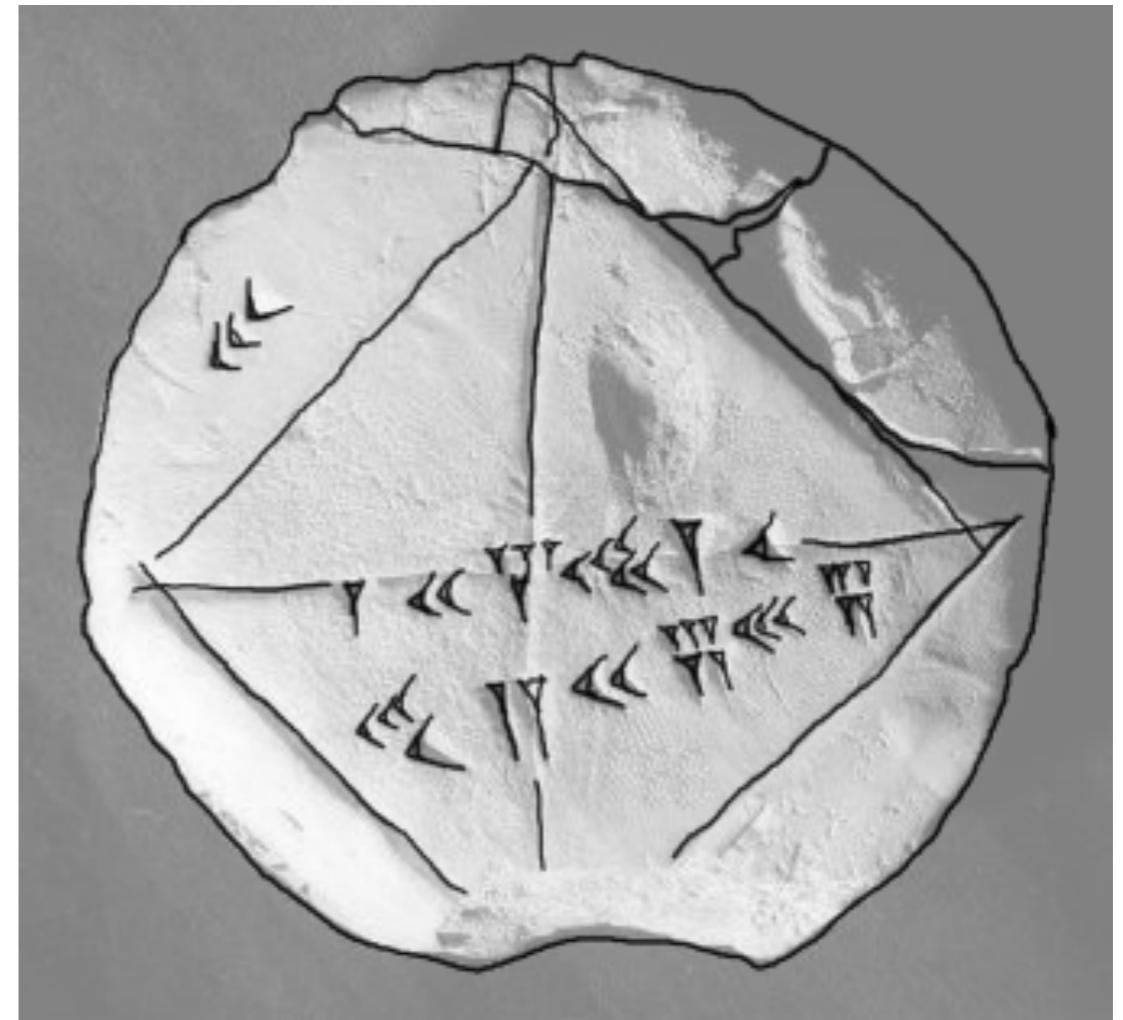
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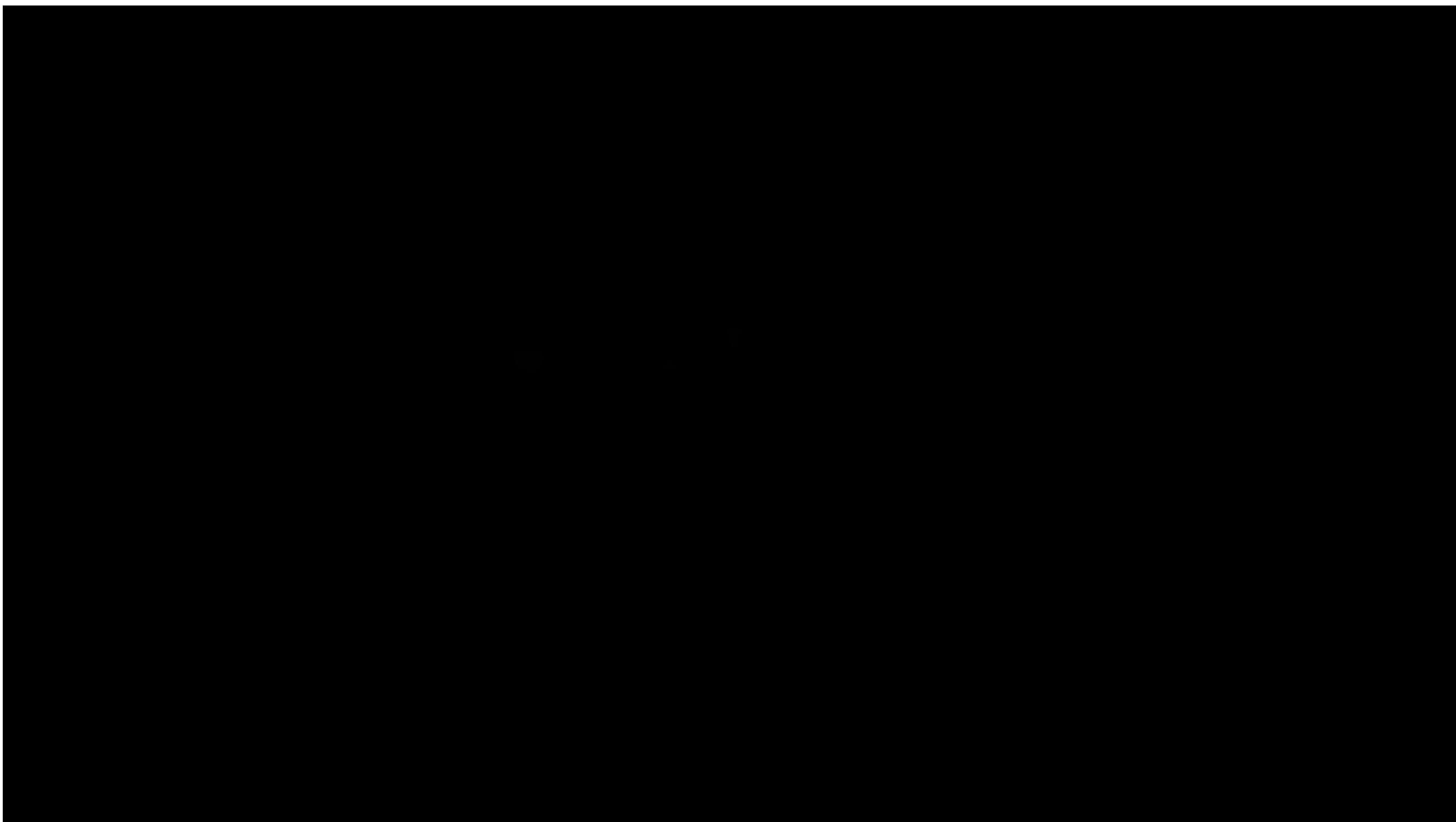
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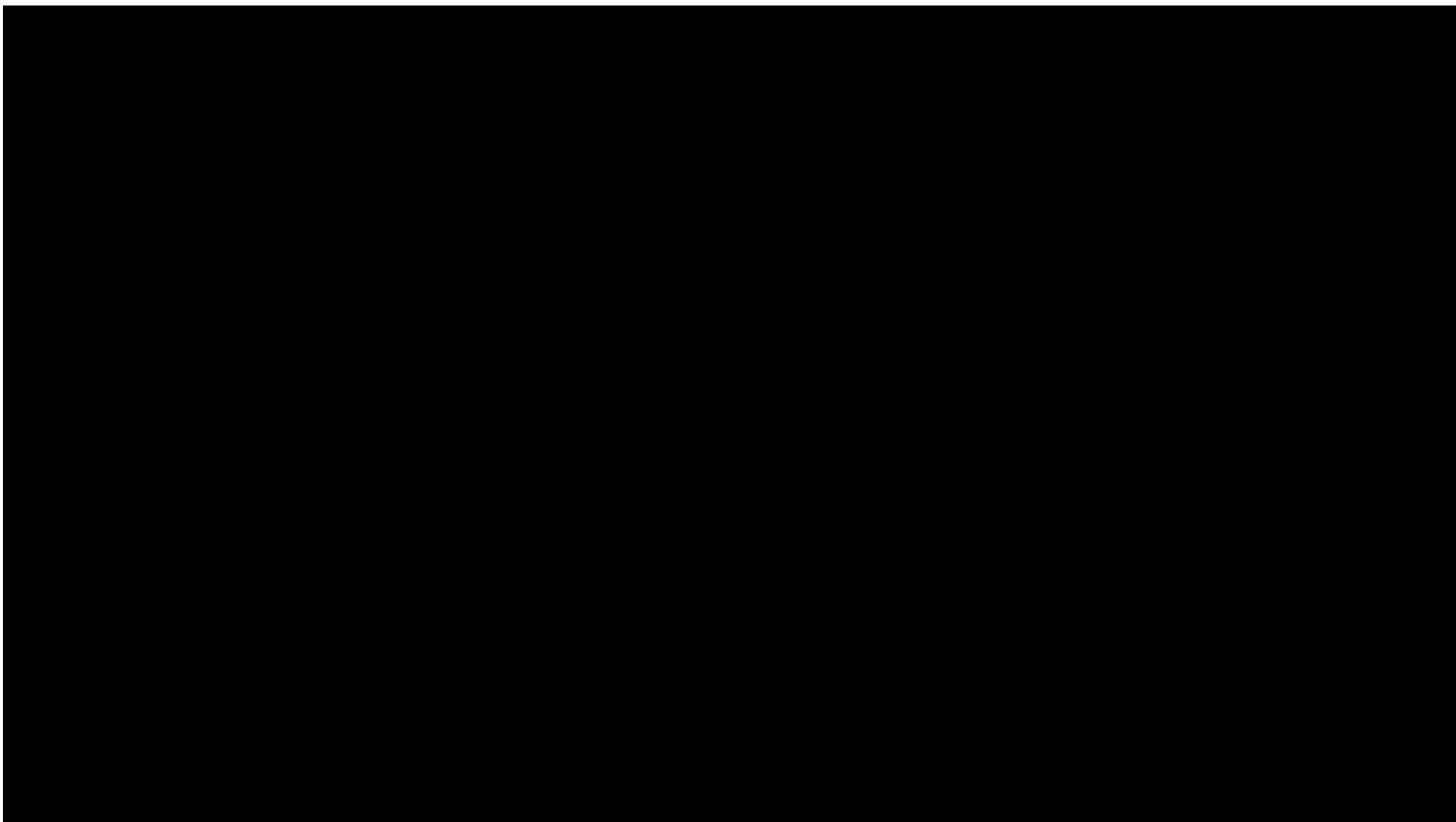
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Vending Machine



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Ancient Chinese Mathematics



Chinese History



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1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
20	30	40	50	60	100	200	300	400	500		
?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
1000	2000	3000	4000	5000	5555	2000000000	5555	2000000000	5555	2000000000	5555



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- Qin joined remote stretches of wall into The Great Wall of China. Required many math techniques for materials/manpower needed, and its design.



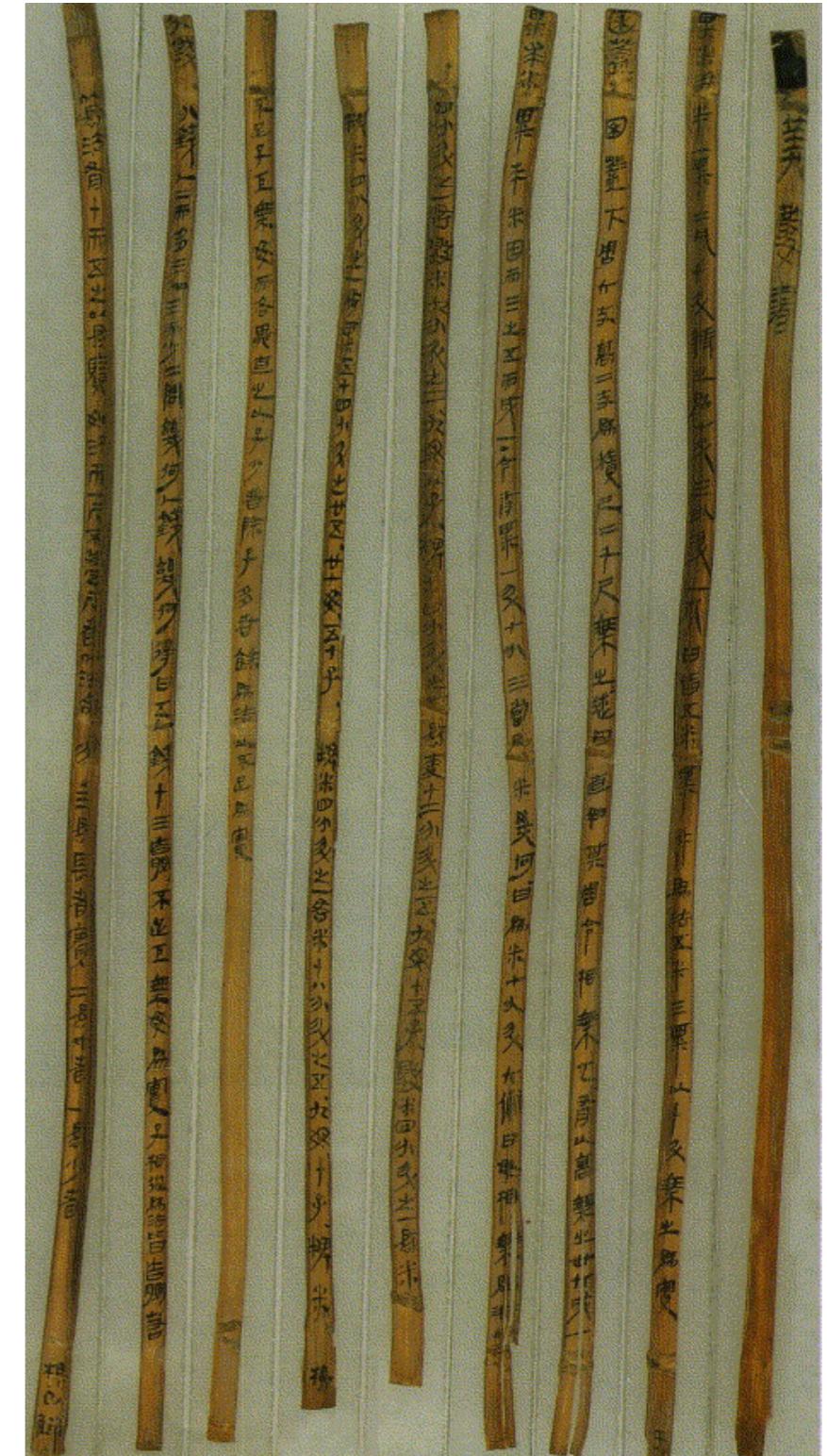
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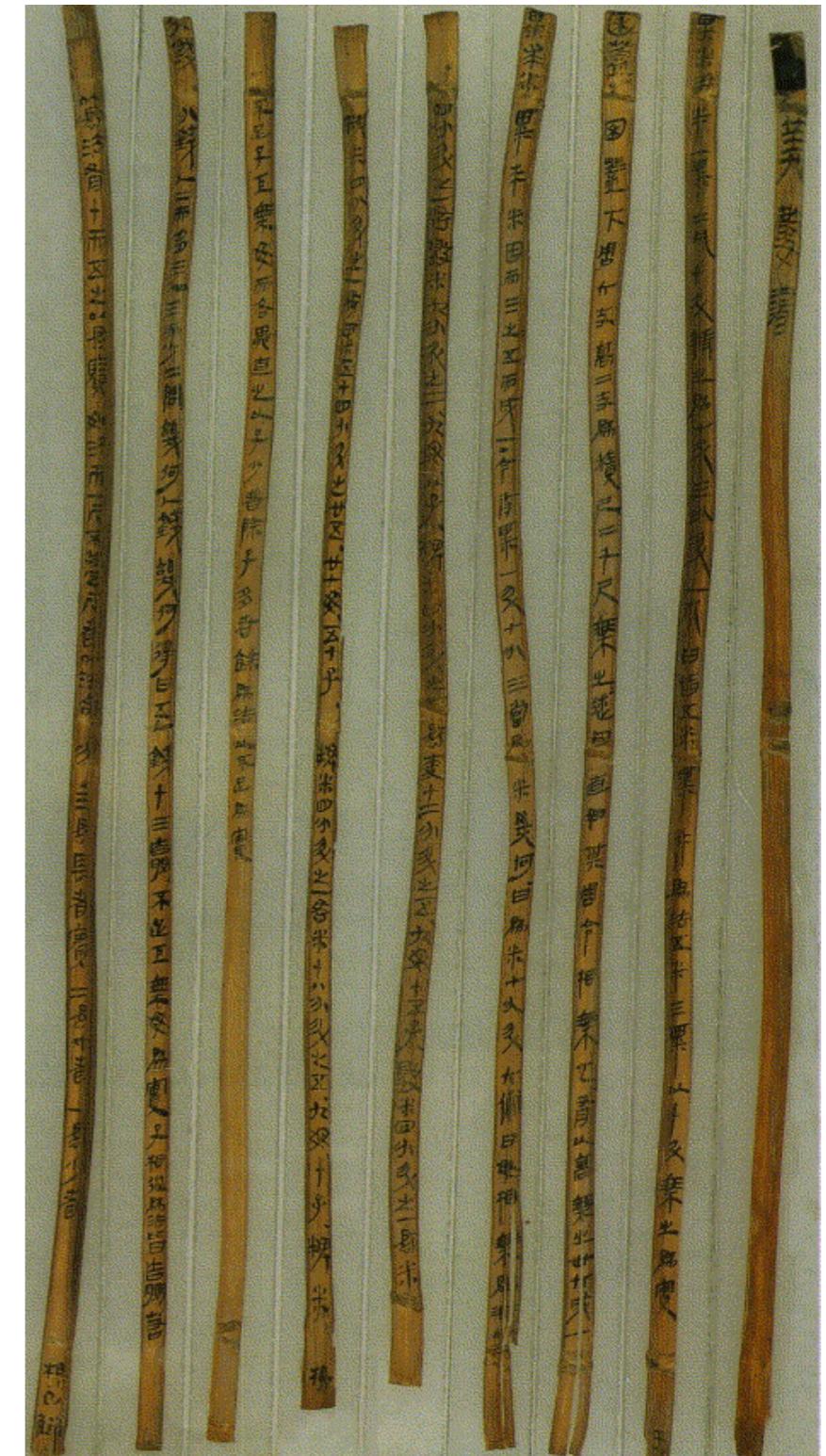
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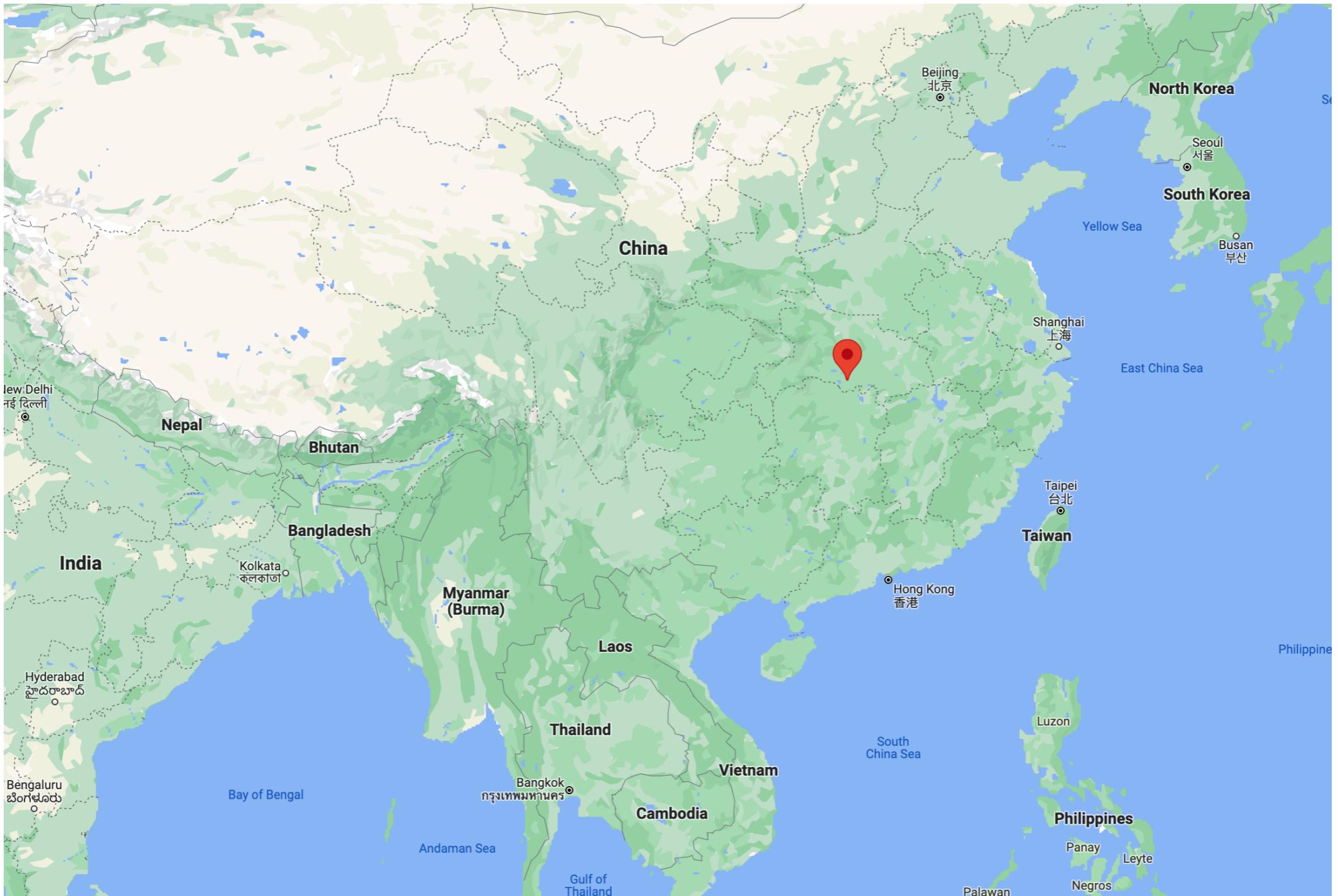
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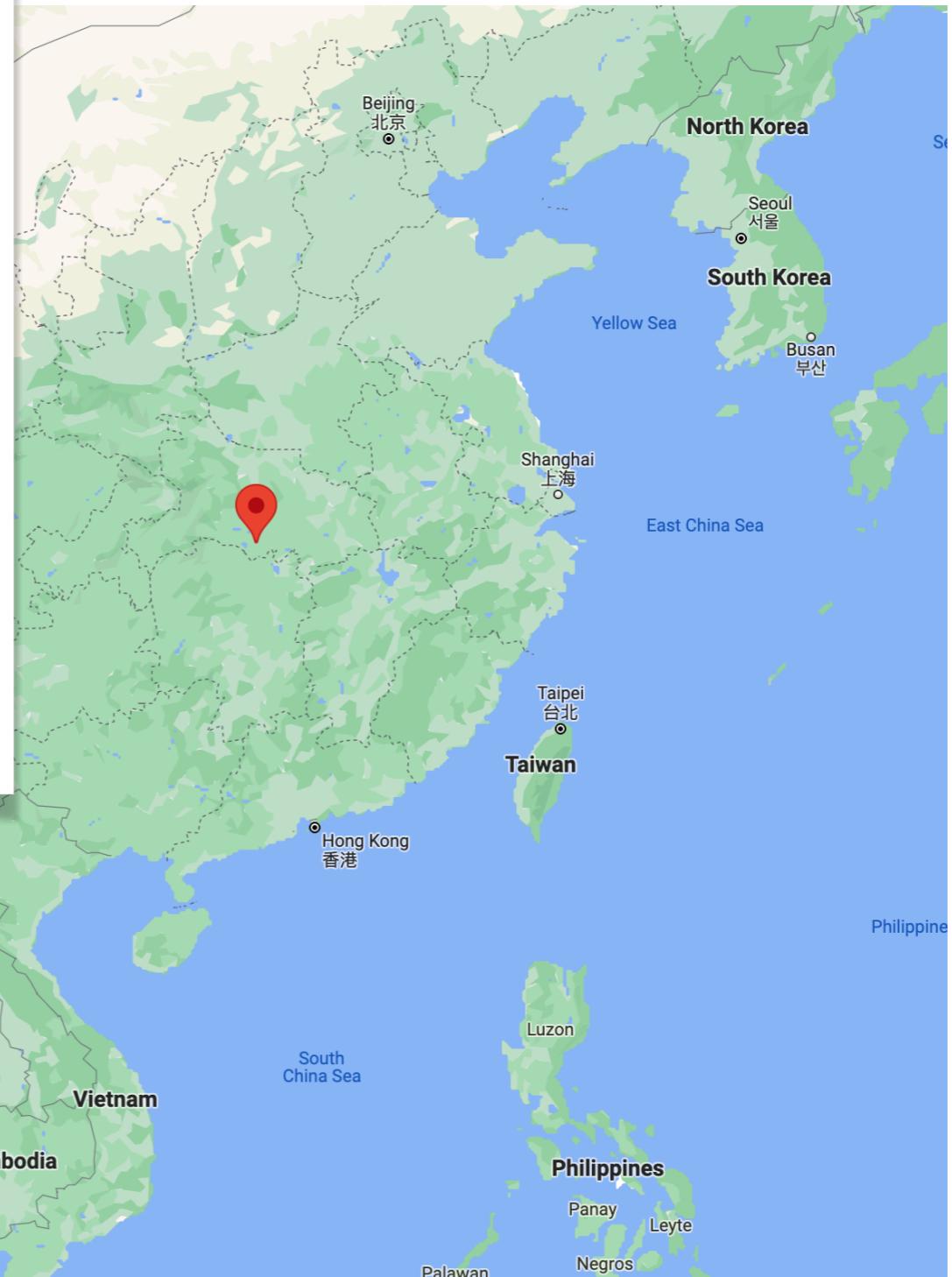


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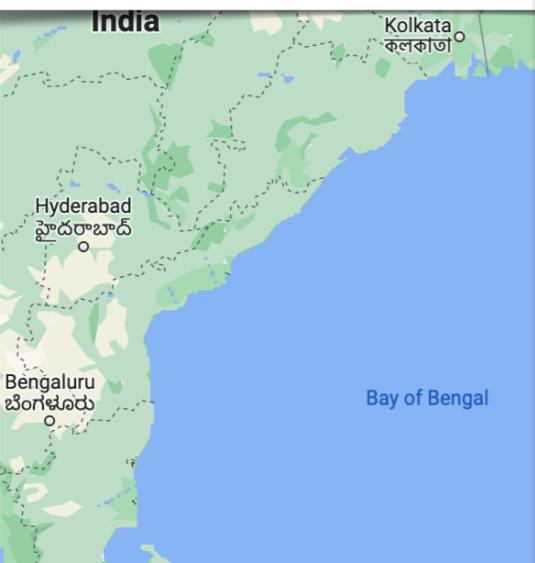
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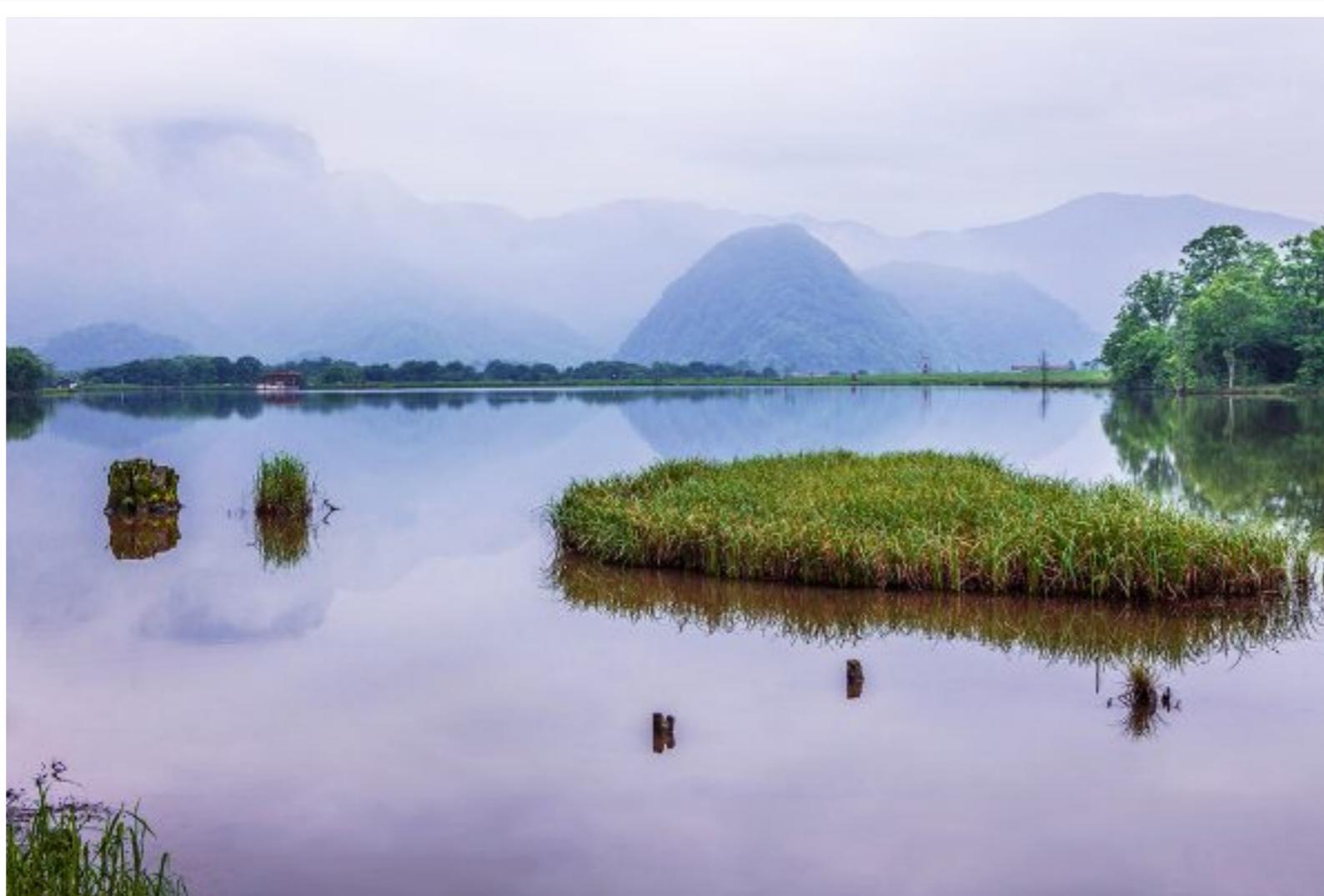
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In dividing coins, if each person receives 2, there is a surplus of 3; if each person receives 3, there is a shortage of 2. It is asked how many persons and coins are there? The answer: 5 persons and 13 coins. Excess and deficit: cross multiply the denominators to become the dividend; the numerators are added to become the divisor. Both excess or deficit: the numerators are cross multiplied by the denominators and each is set aside.

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Think Like A
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- This is the first example in history of an important area of math. What area of math is it?

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- In their particular example, $c - a = 1$. So if their example was supposed to only represent those cases, it was correct. Otherwise it had an error.

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- If you guess the number of people and coins, and once you are too high and once you are too low, here is a procedure to tell you how to combine your wrong guesses into a correct solution.

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- Modern notation: $x + \frac{1}{4}x = 15$. Solve for x . They give a method to solve this problem.

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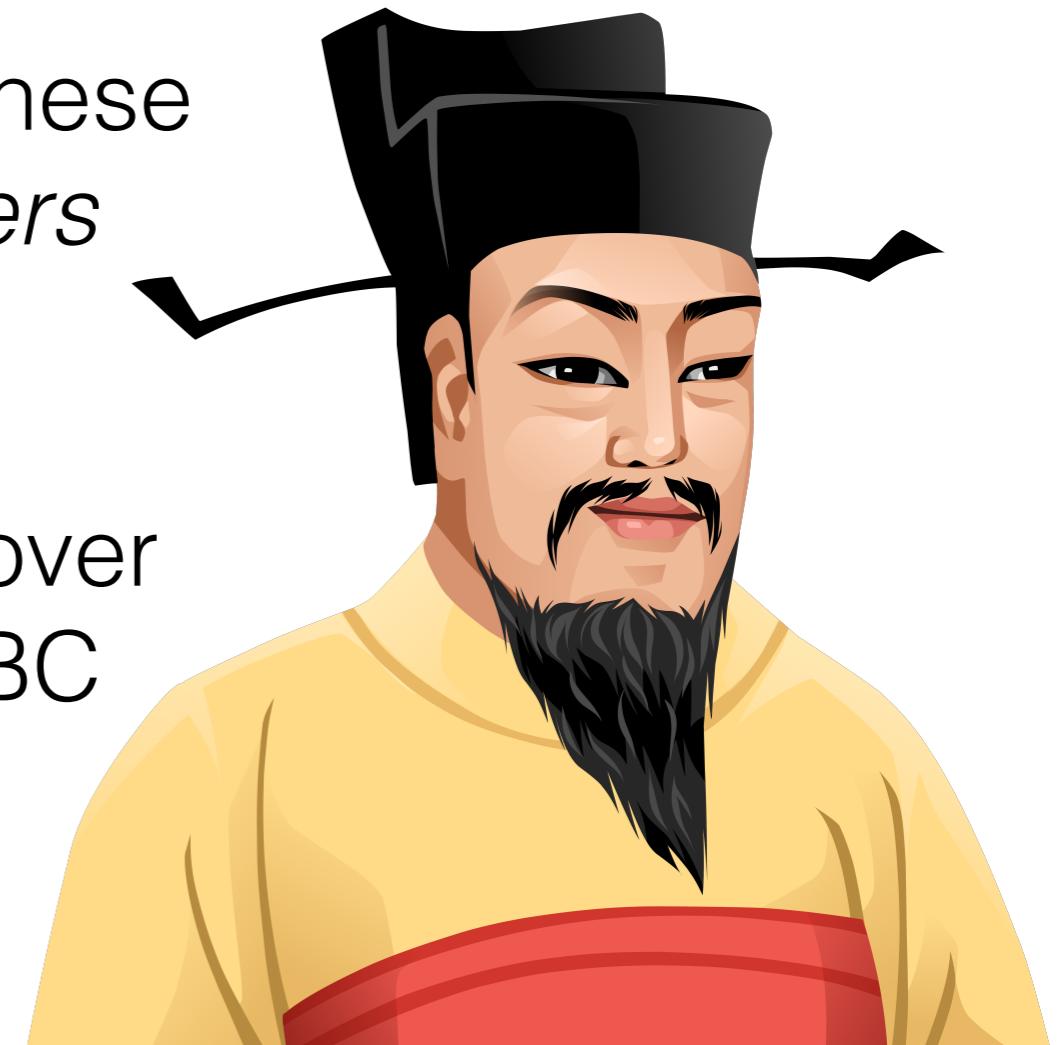
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- It is organized like the *Book on Numbers and Computation*. That is, a problem is stated, an answer is given, and a procedure is presented for how to solve the problem and similar problems.



Show a copy of
Nine Chapters

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- *Fang cheng* is essentially Gaussian elimination (discovered 2,000 years before Gauss!)

Chinese Mathematics

- First example on *fang cheng* in the *Nine Chapters*:

Given 3 bundles of top grade paddy, 2 bundles of medium grade paddy, and 1 bundle of low grade paddy, together they yield 39 *dou* of grain. Given 2 bundles of top grade paddy, 3 bundles of medium grade paddy, and 1 bundle of low grade paddy, together they yield 34 *dou* of grain. Given 1 bundle of top grade paddy, 2 bundles of medium grade paddy, and 3 bundles of low grade paddy, together they yield 26 *dou* of grain. Problem: how much grain does one bundle of high, medium and low grade paddy together yield? Answer: Top grade paddy yields $9\frac{1}{4}$ *dou* per bundle; medium grade paddy yields $4\frac{1}{4}$ *dou* per bundle; low grade paddy yields $2\frac{3}{4}$ *dou* per bundle.

Chinese Mathematics

Odd place numerals
(for tens, thousands, etc.)



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- Solving on a counting board.

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Chinese Mathematics

Example

Solve:

$$3x + y + 2z = 33$$

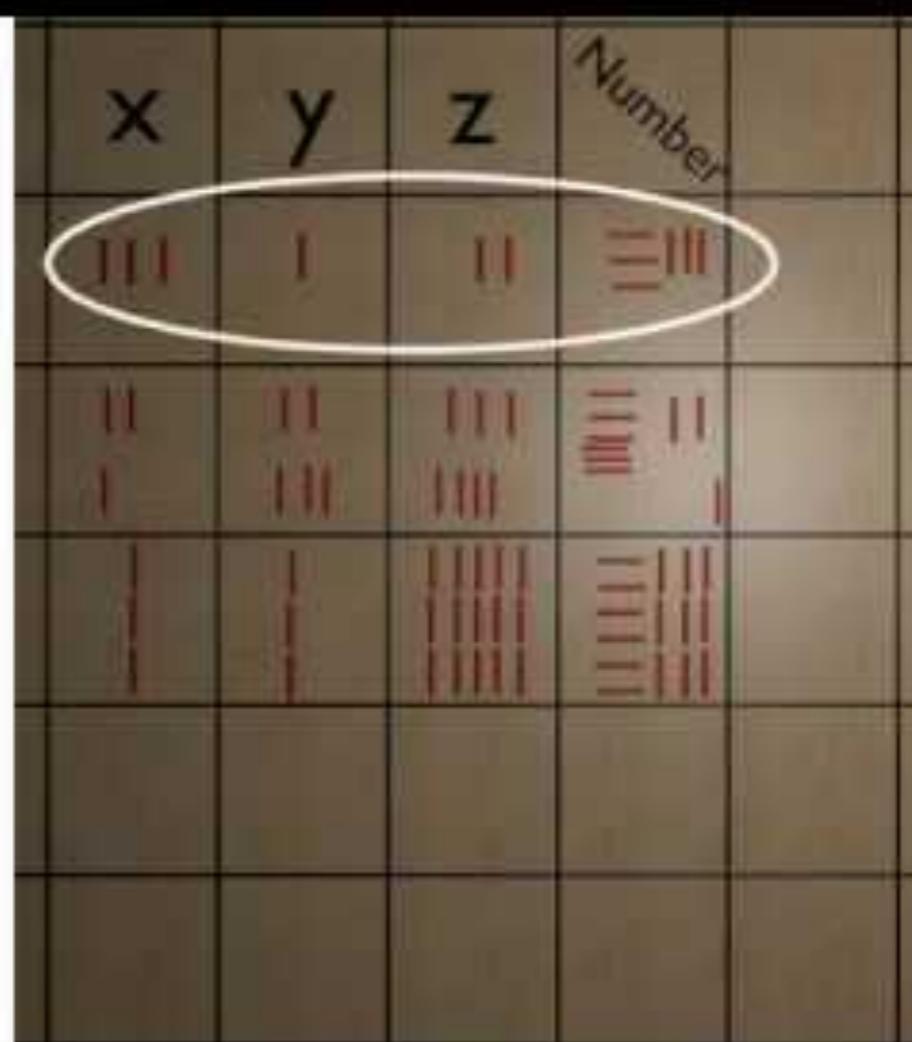
$$2x + 2y + 3z = 32$$

$$x + y + 5z = 23$$

$\begin{array}{ c c c c } \hline 3 & 1 & 2 & 33 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 3 & 37 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 5 & 23 \\ \hline \end{array}$	\rightarrow	$\begin{array}{ c c c c } \hline 3 & 1 & 2 & 33 \\ \hline 6 & 6 & 9 & 96 \\ \hline 3 & 3 & 15 & 69 \\ \hline \end{array}$	\rightarrow	$\begin{array}{ c c c c } \hline 3 & 1 & 2 & 33 \\ \hline 0 & 4 & 5 & 30 \\ \hline 3 & 3 & 15 & 69 \\ \hline \end{array}$
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which gives us solution

$$x = 8, y = 5, z = 2$$



Chinese Mathematics

- The *feng cheng* procedure

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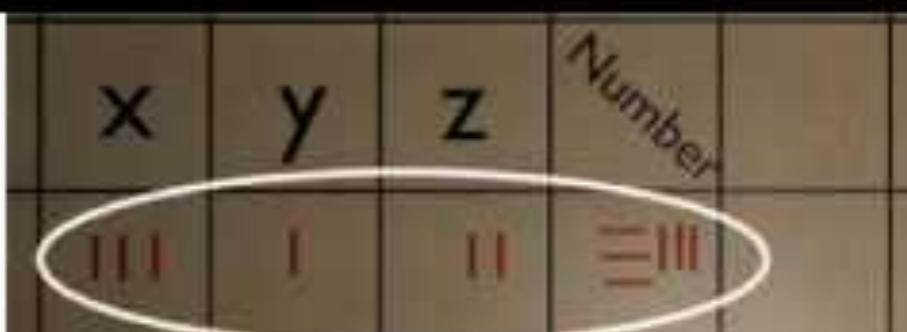
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A grid diagram illustrating the Chinese Remainder Theorem. The columns are labeled X, Y, Z, and Number. The X column contains remainders 3, 1, 2. The Y column contains remainders 1, 2, 3. The Z column contains remainders 5, 4, 3. The Number column contains remainders 33, 32, 23. A red oval highlights the first row of the X, Y, and Z columns.

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- Gaussian elimination is happy to introduce fractions as soon as back-substitution begins.

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Chapter 9: Problems using the Pythagorean theorem.

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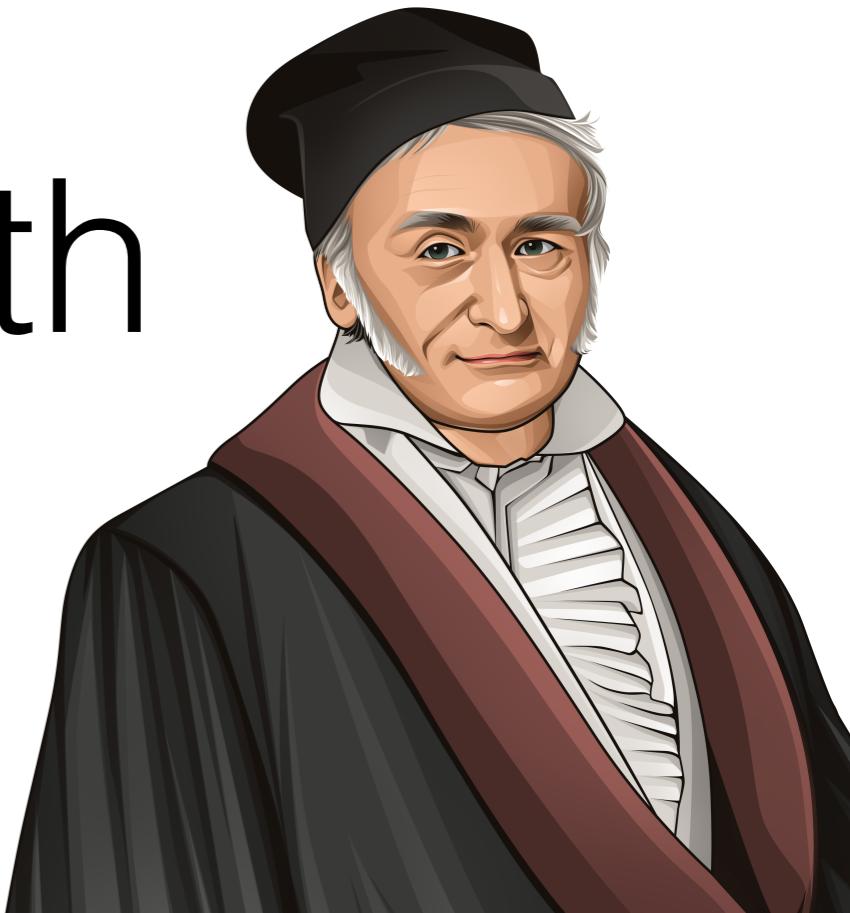
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“And you are to know, that by each Æquation one unknown Quantity may be taken away, and consequently, when there are as many Æquations and unknown Quantities, all at length may be reduc’d into one, in which there shall be only one Quantity unknown.”

The Aftermath



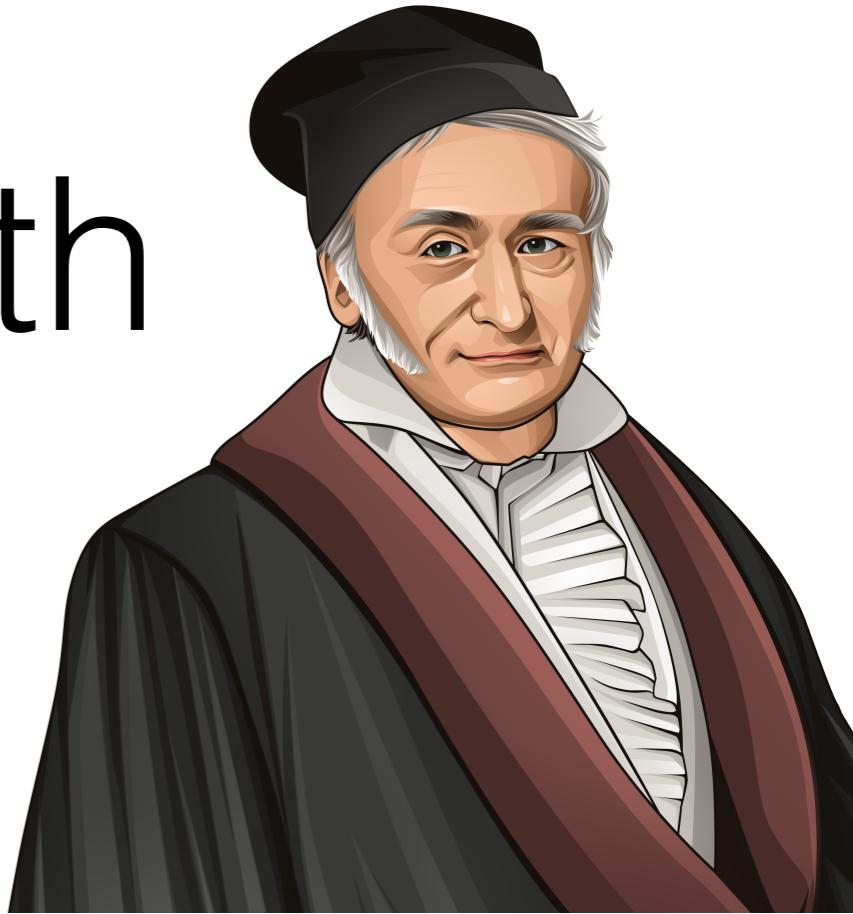
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- Gauss wrote about the procedure, worked on a related problem (least squares), and invented some related notation, but played no role in creating the algorithm itself.
- Calling it Gaussian elimination started in the 1950s based on a misreading of history.



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- Before universal education, it was really important to clearly communicate how to do arithmetic.
- One pioneer in this was Wang Zhenyi, from 18th century China. She wrote a five-volume text doing so.



People's History

People's History of Trigonometry

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People's History of Trigonometry

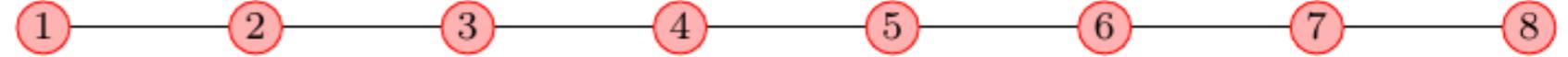
- The Egyptian architect method of creating a right angle is a good bit of people's history.
- The Mayans had a similar method.

Utilitarian “Theorems”

- Mayan method:

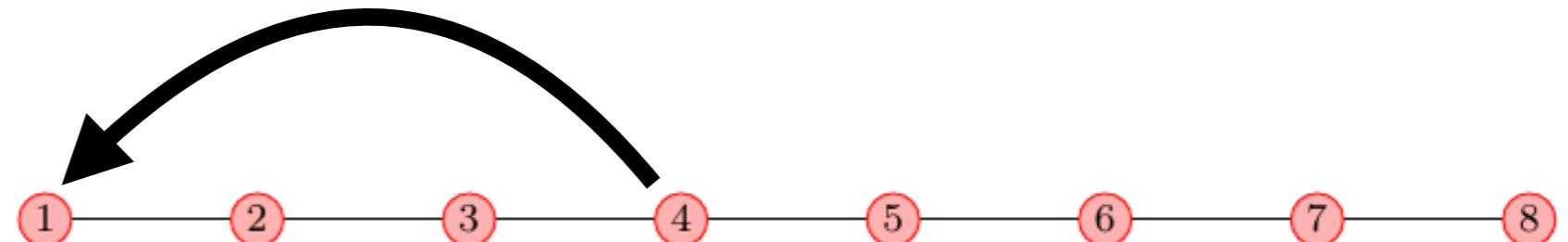
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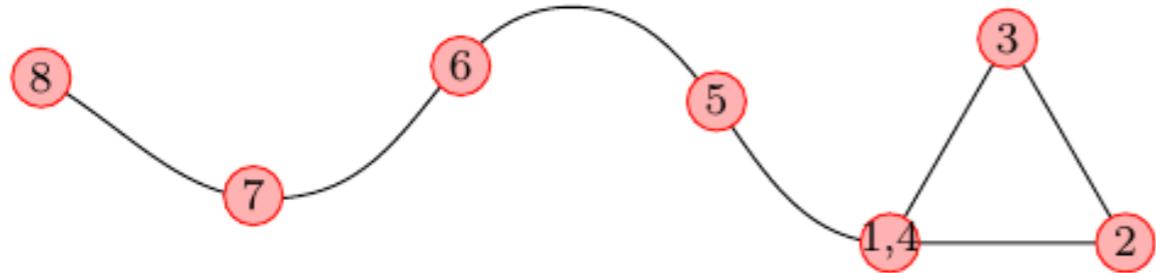
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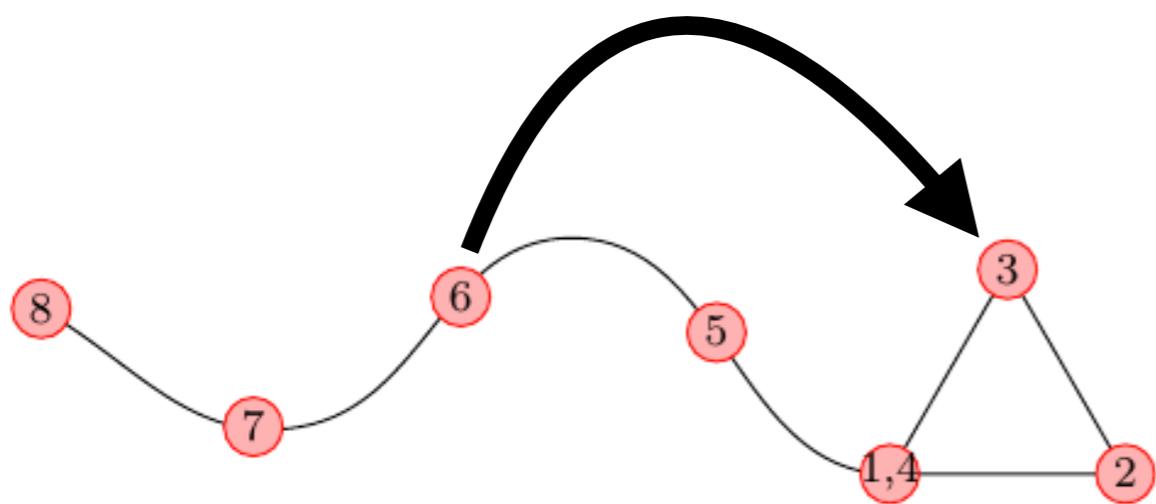
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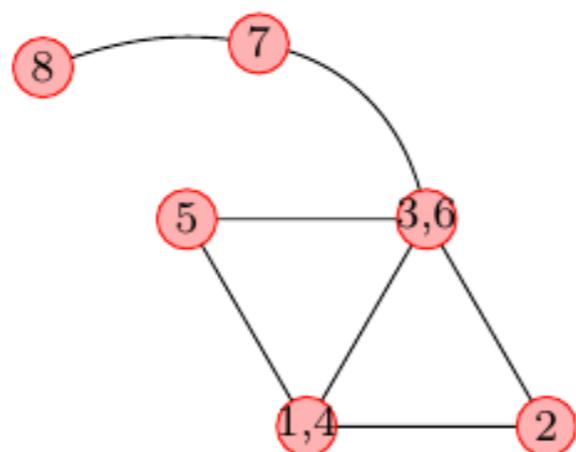
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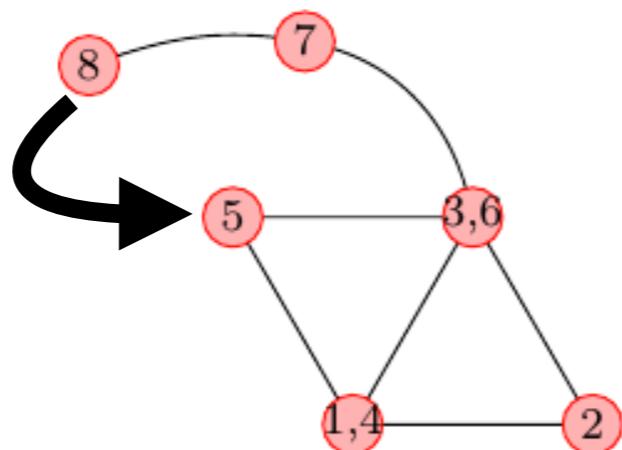
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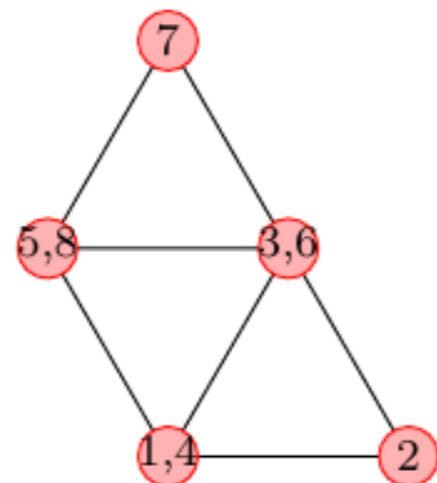
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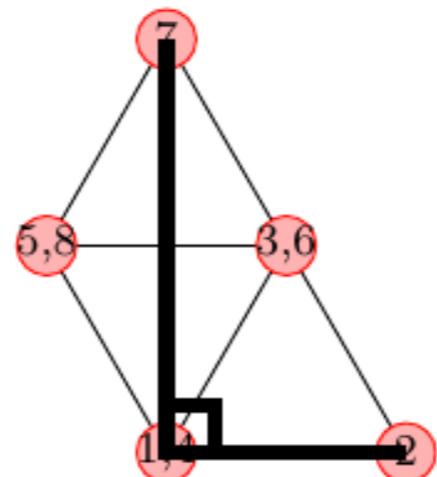
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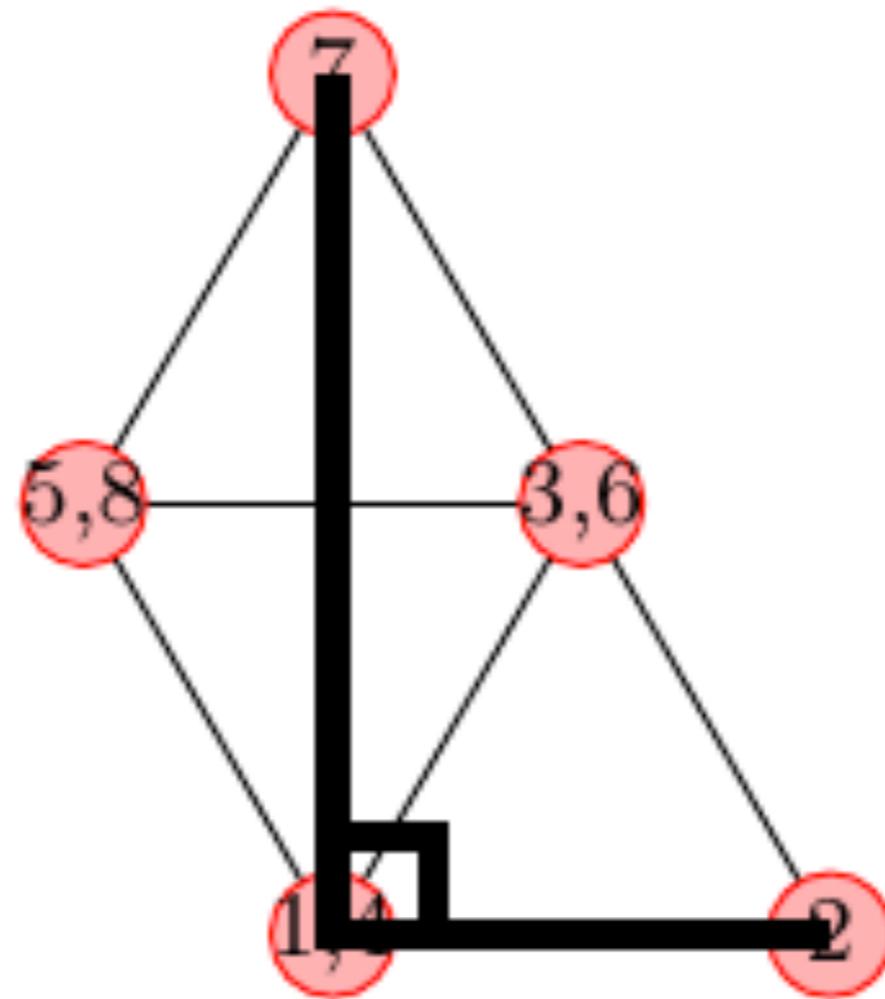
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People's History of Trigonometry

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People's History of Trigonometry

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- Roman architect Vitruvius recorded a clever approach using the Sun.

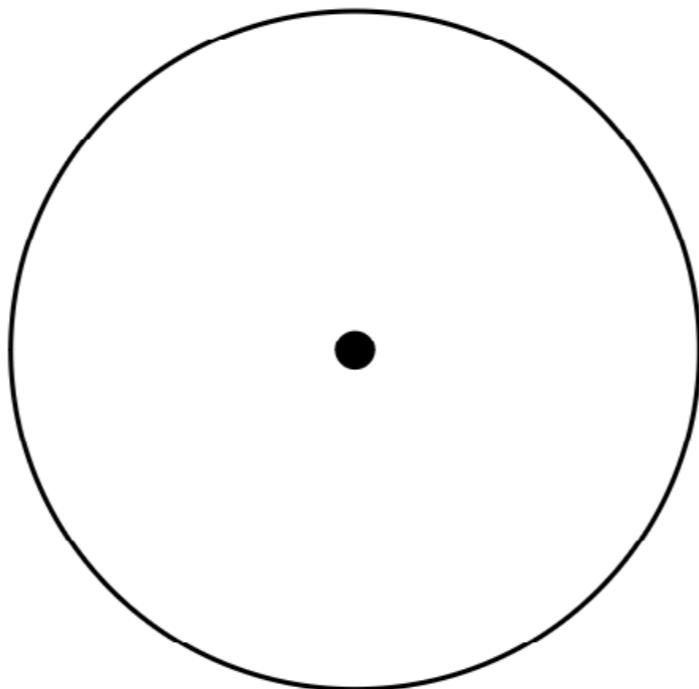
People's History of Trigonometry

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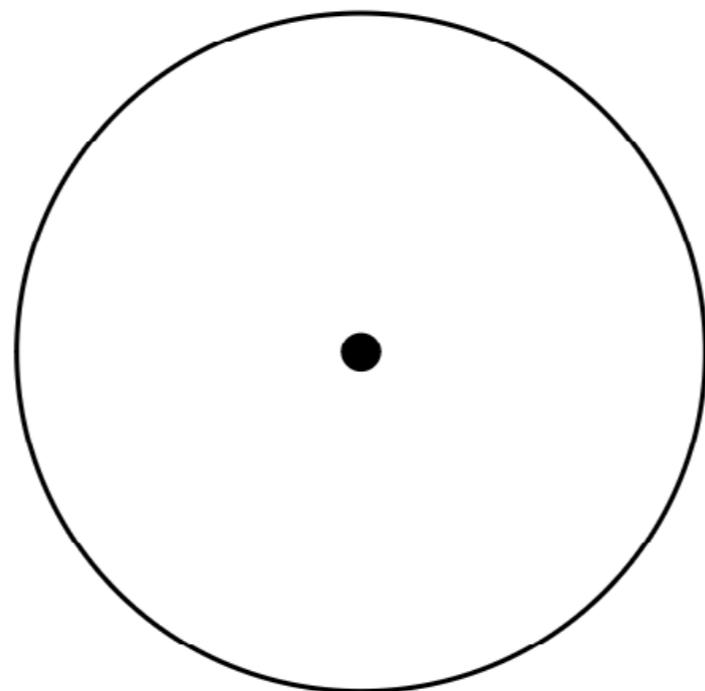
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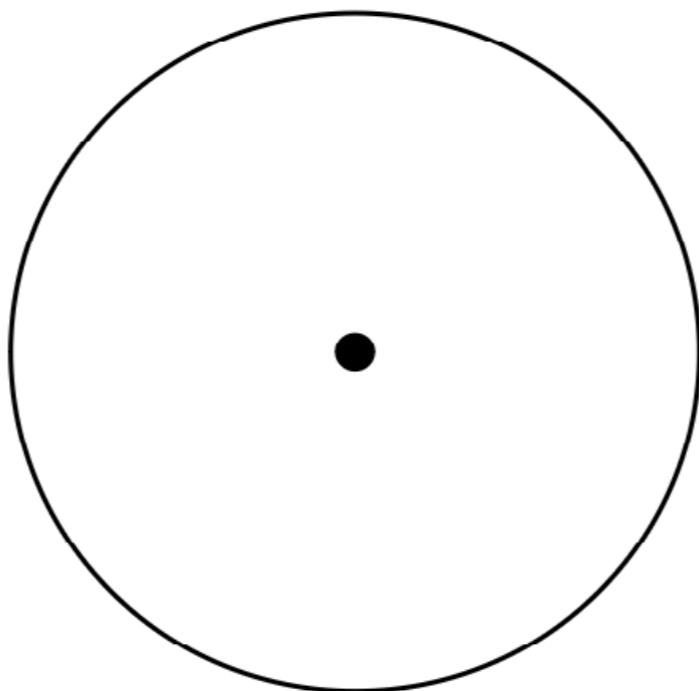


People's History of Trigonometry



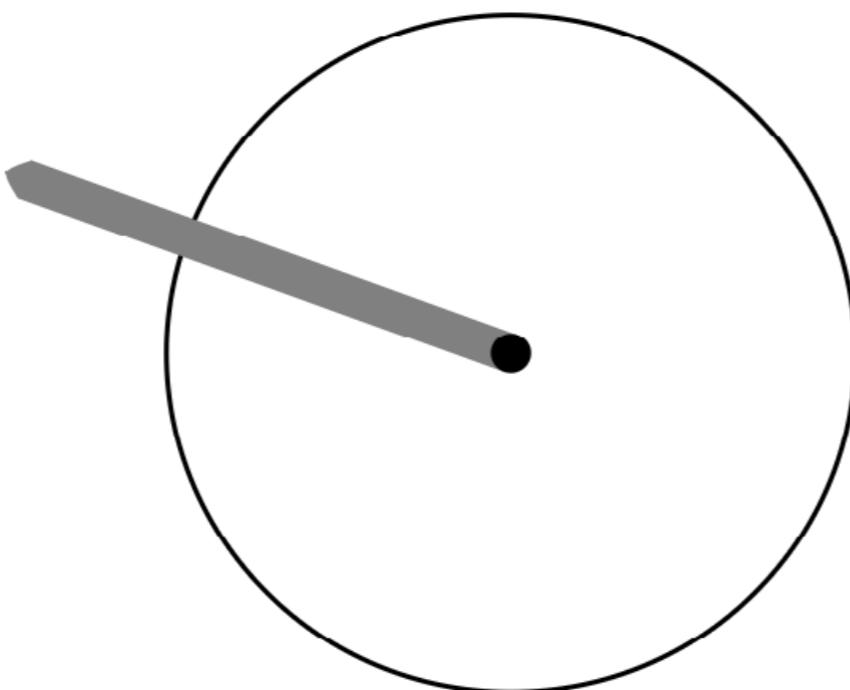
People's History of Trigonometry

- Step 2: At the start of the day, the shadow cast by the stick will be outside the circle.



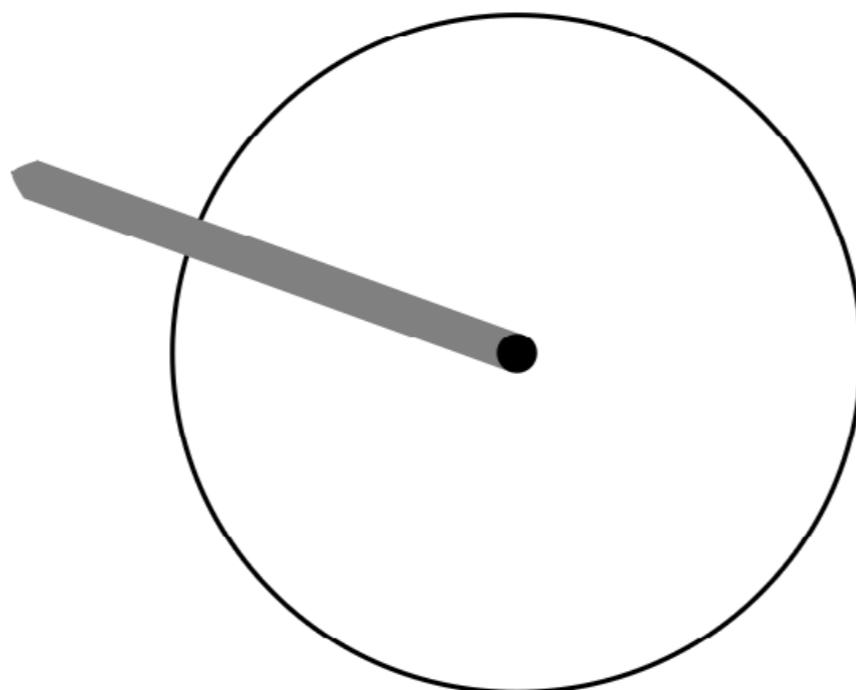
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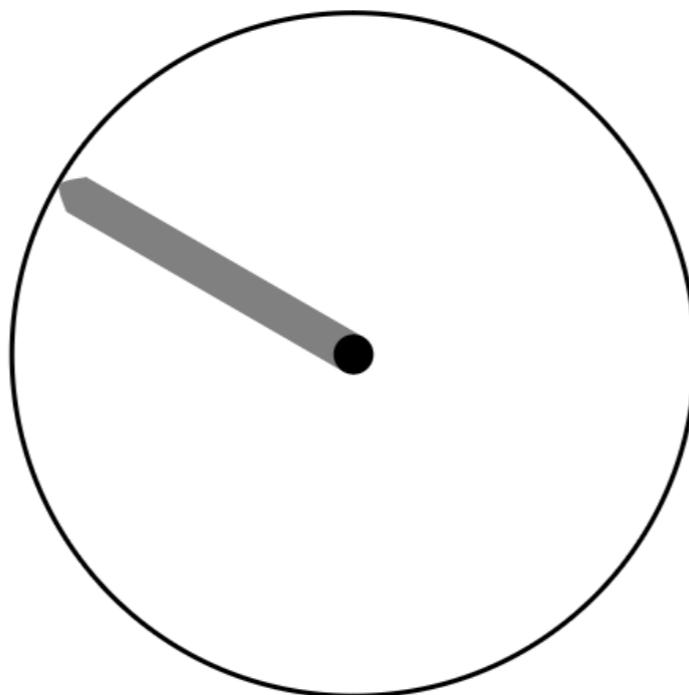
People's History of Trigonometry

- Step 2: At the start of the day, the shadow cast by the stick will be outside the circle.
Wait until the shadow crosses the circle.



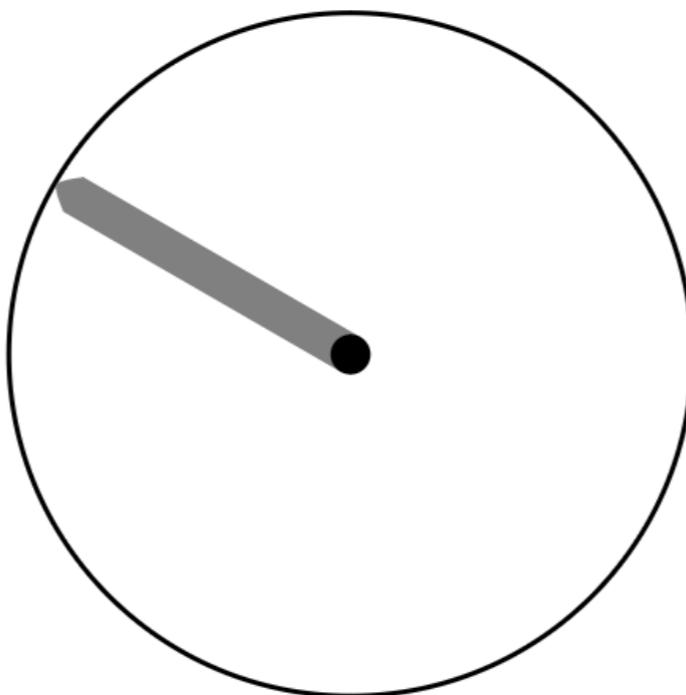
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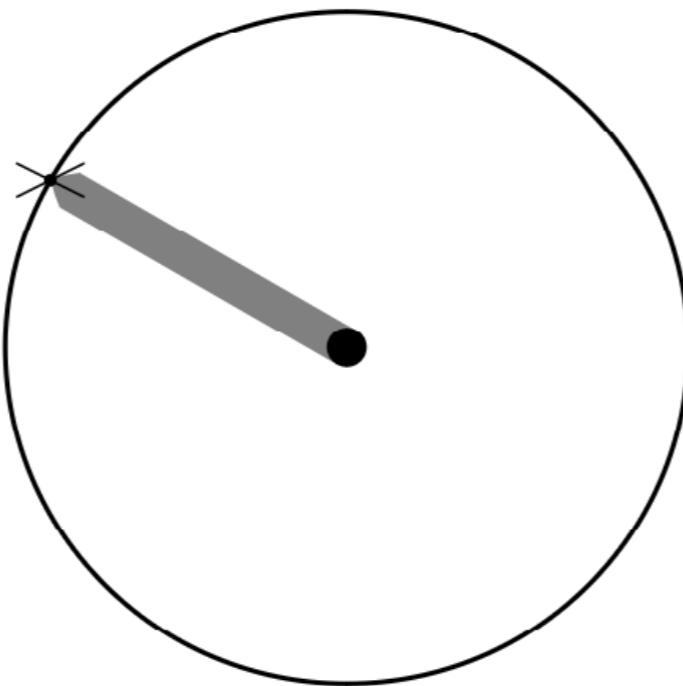
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Mark this spot.

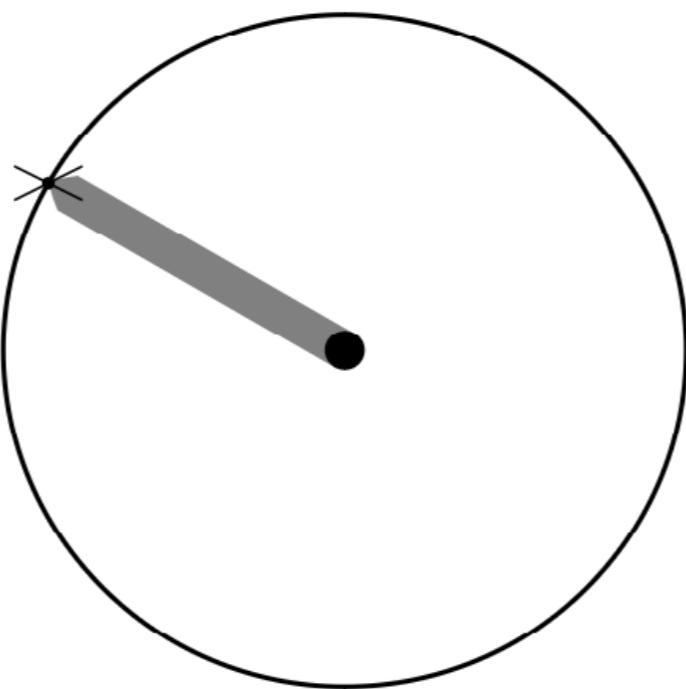


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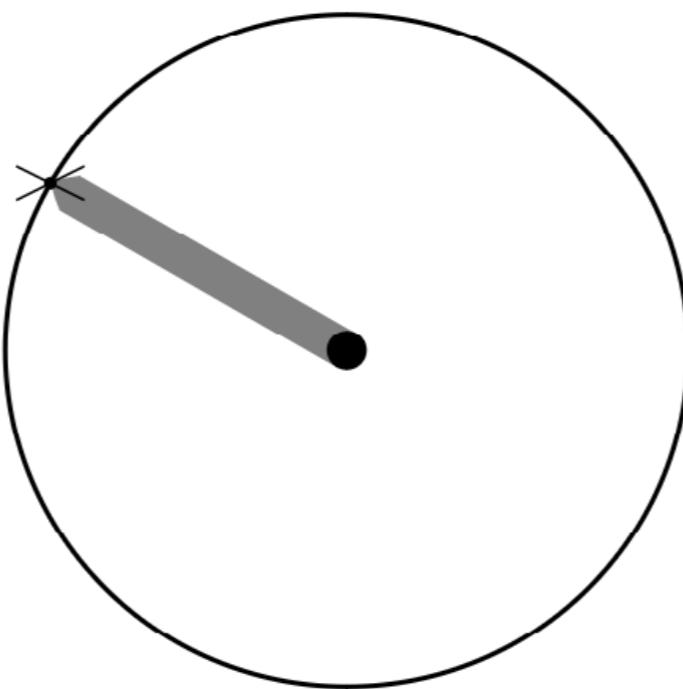


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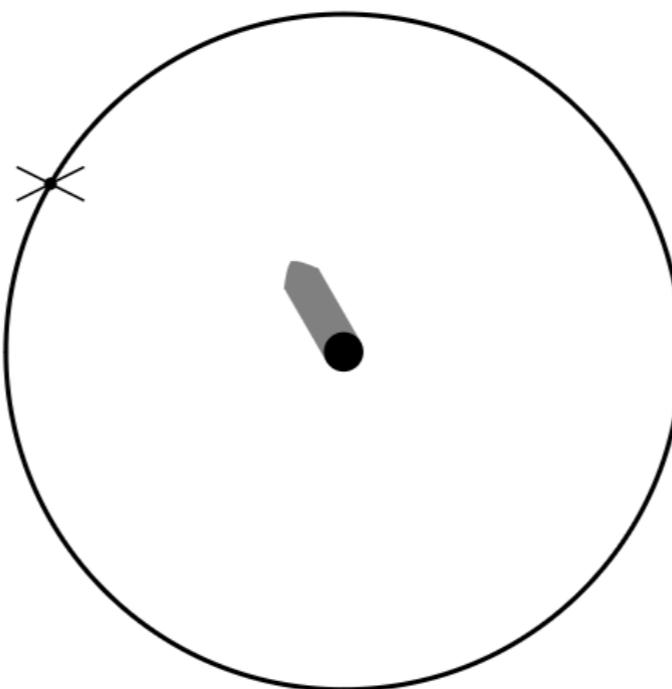
People's History of Trigonometry

- Step 3: Wait until the shadow crosses the circle again. Mark this spot.



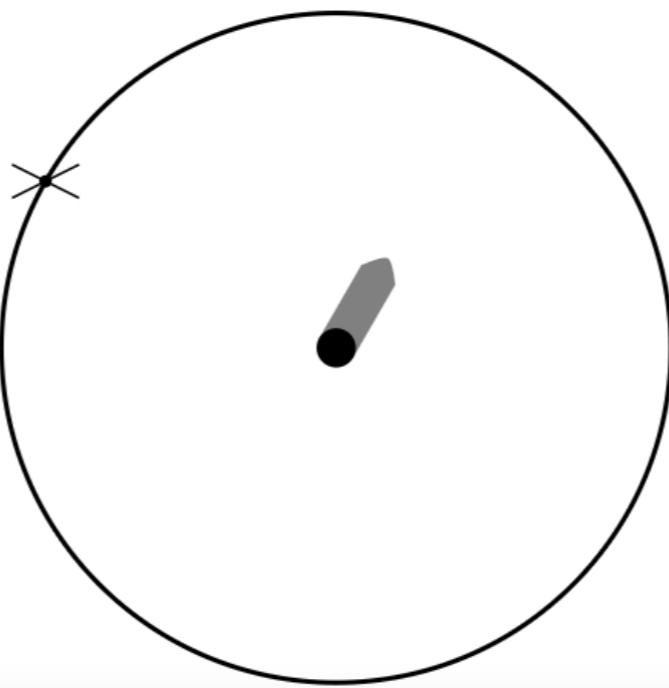
People's History of Trigonometry

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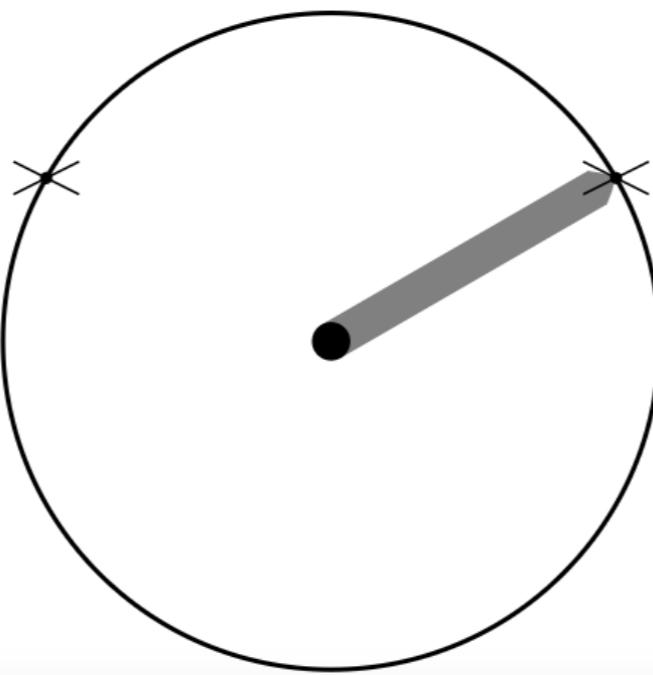
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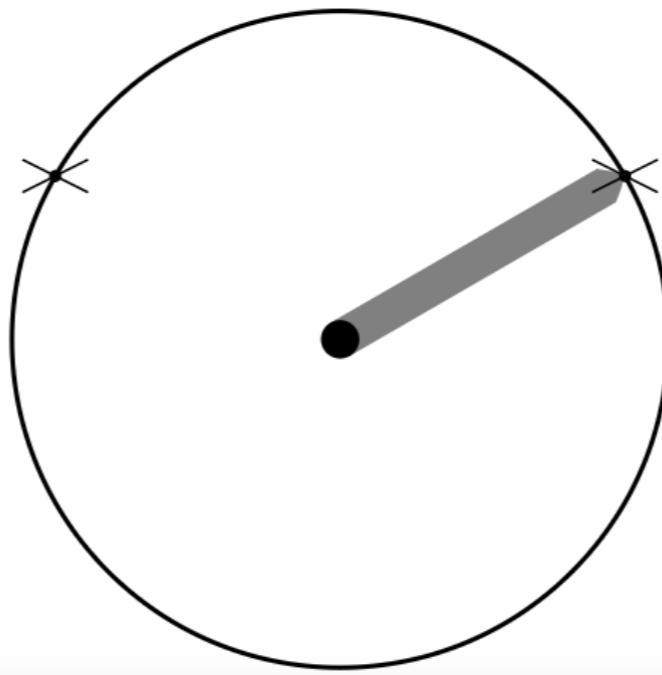


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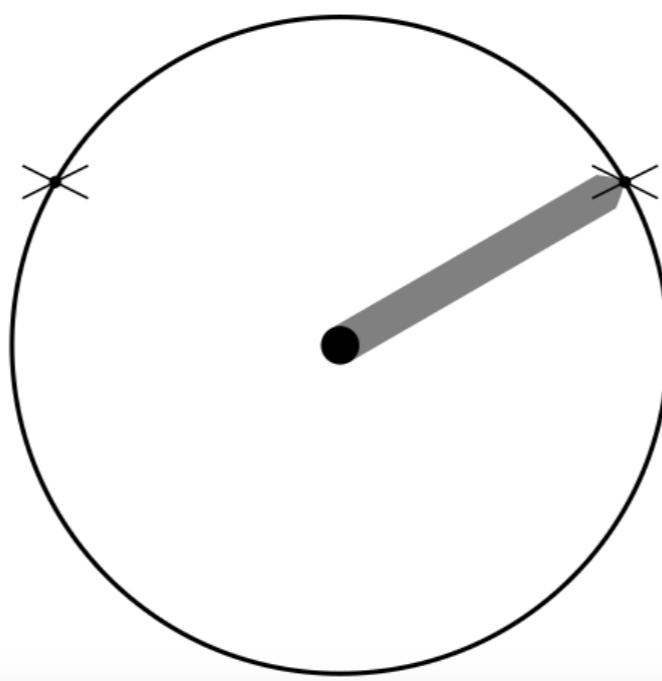


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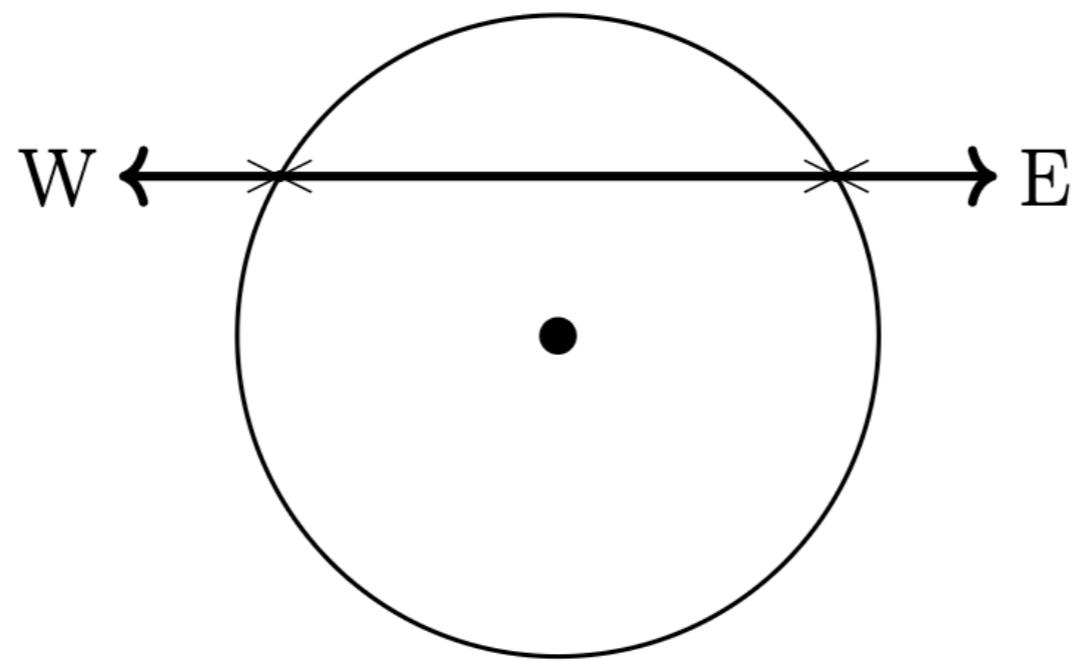
People's History of Trigonometry

- Step 4: Connect the marks.



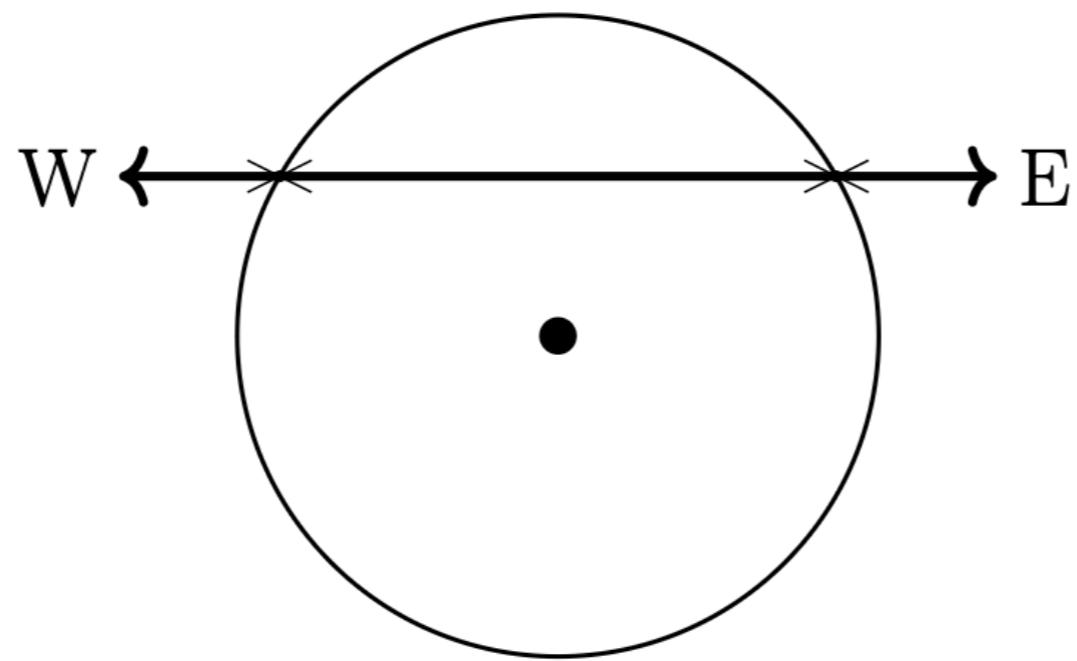
People's History of Trigonometry

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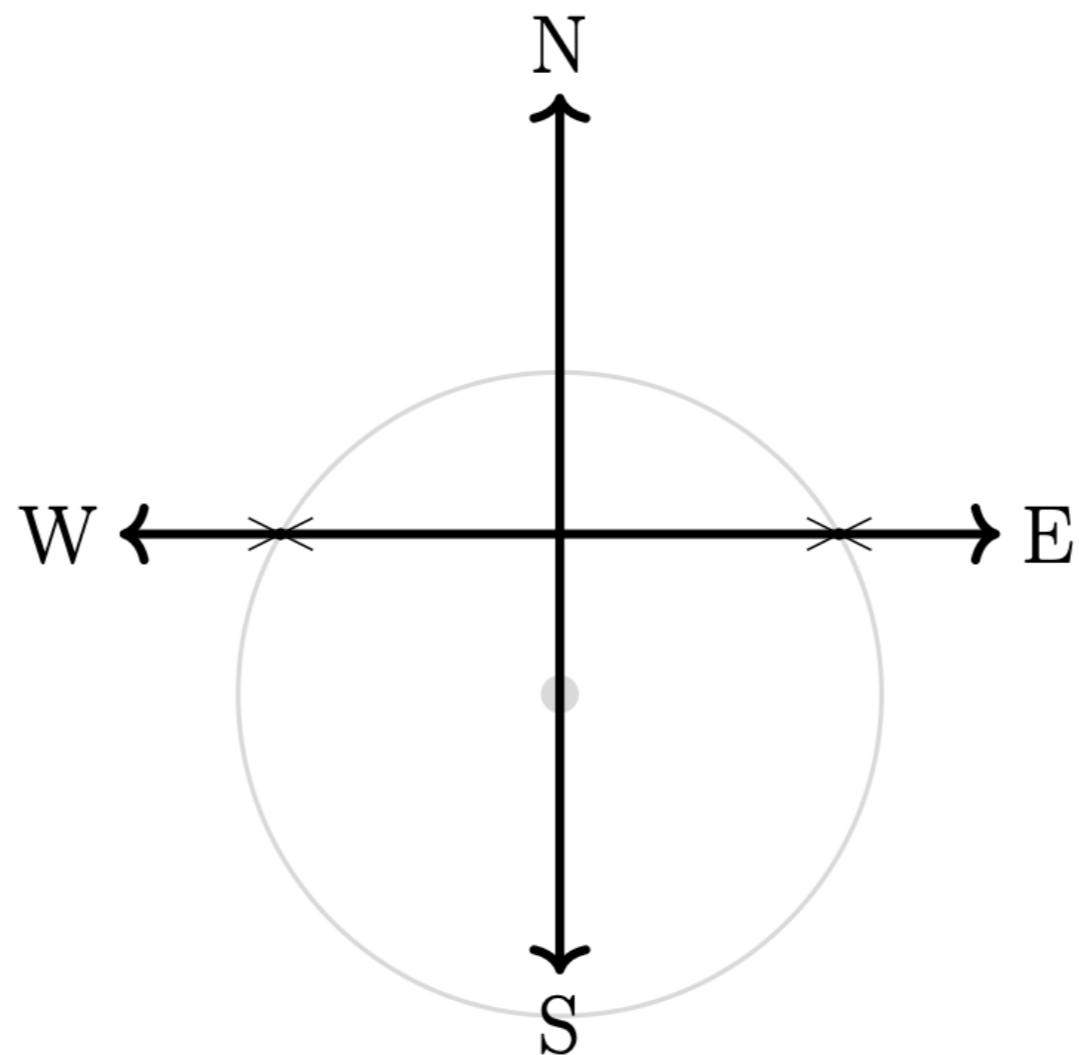
People's History of Trigonometry

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People's History of Trigonometry

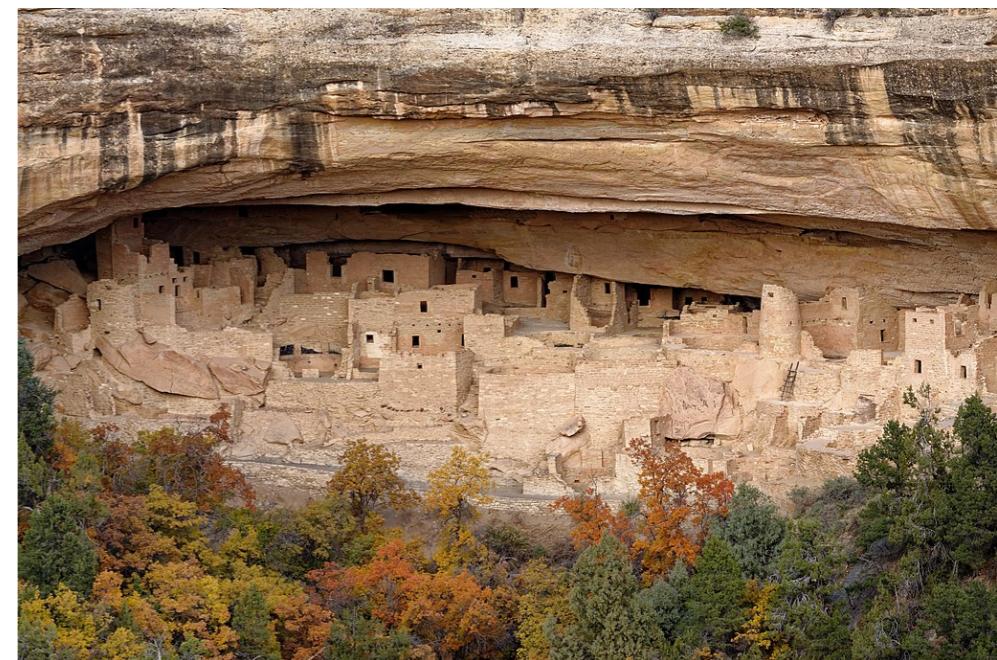
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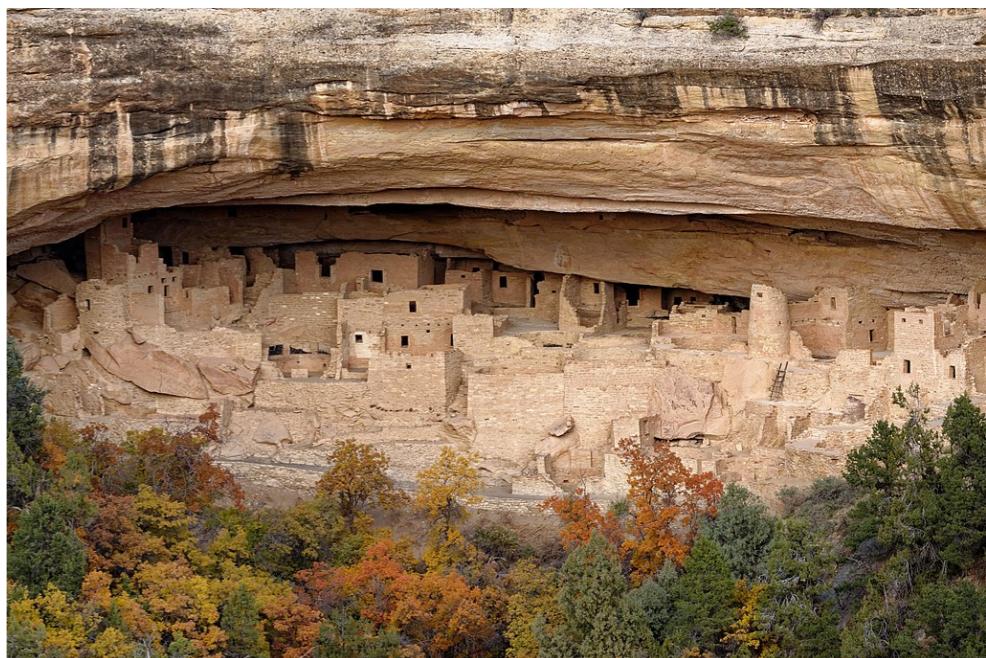
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People's History of Trigonometry

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People's History of Trigonometry

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- They constructed elaborate buildings that could be used to identify the solstices and the 18.6-year lunar cycle.
- But they left no records, so some speculation is required.

