THE DEFINITE INTEGRAL OF POISSON REVERING LAGRANGE AS HIS MENTOR - TO BICENTENNIAL AFTER LAGRAGNE. LAGRANGEを師とした POISSONの定積分 - LAGRANGE後 200 年に向けて

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Abstract.

We discuss Poisson's definite integral comming from his revering Lagrange. The aims of this paper are to seek the common points between Lagrange and Poisson as follows :

- 1. Poisson owes his knowledge to Euler, Lagrange and Laplace, and builds up his principle of integral, consulting Lacroix, Legendre, and others. Poisson is not in agreement with Euler's or Laplace' diversion of real to imaginary. (ELP)
- 2. What interested Poisson is the Euler's paper on the origin of the gamma function or the Euler's second law of integral written in 1781. Euler's method for discovering the integral formula is due to the passage of real to transcendent of the problem of seeking a convergent point of a spiral. (ELP)
- 3. The another paper interested Poisson, including the original Laplace transform, is also on the integral method using the passage, and its application to the problem of Euler's spiral. (ELP)
- 4. Against Fourier, Poisson asserts his own expression of trigonometric series following to Lagrange's legacy, however, invents his expressions. (LFPD)
- 5. Lagrange and Laplace study the Kepler problems, Poisson follows them, and corrects Laplace's mistake. (KLLPG)
- 6. Lagrange and Cauchy prove the eternity of exact differential, however, Poisson speculates their proof's defects. (LCP)

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¹Remark. We show each initial name of authors who discuss each topic of its section, which means the historical stream for convenience sake. For example, ELP: theme on the line of Euler-Laplace-Poisson, LFPD: Lagrange-Fourier-Poisson-Dirichlet, KLLPG: Kepler-Lagrange-Laplace-Poisson-Gauss, LCP: Lagrange-Cauchy-Poisson, etc. We mean transcendent: transcendental function, imaginary: imaginary number.

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1. Preliminary

2,3,4,5

Our purpose of this paper is to discuss Poisson revering Lagrange as his mentor of the integral viewing to Euler, Lagrange, Laplace and Fourier. To bicentennial after Lagragne, we would like to rethink about Lagrange and the surrounding works, which we are interesting in, above all, Poisson's integral. All except for Euler have the academic relations before and after of $l'\acute{E}$ cole polytechnique, and Lagrange was teached by Euler.

These materials of papers are mainly in the Table 1, in which, we remark that the appreciation by Poisson are P: positive, N: negative, I: necessary improvement. And the contents are in the Table 2.

We would like to recommend for the reader to refer [42], because there are common and relational topics to this paper, and we cite only the necessary parts at least from it, for example, we omit Fourier's main theory and Dirichlet's part.

²Basically, we treat the exponential / trigonometric / logarithmic / π / et al. / functions as the transcendental functions.

³Translation from Latin/French/German into English mine.

⁴We use the underline to specify the meaning of 'root' in our problems, and the italic words to emphasize our assertion. and use the symbols \S : chapter, \P : article of the original.

 $^{^5\}mathrm{To}$ establish a time line of these contributor, we list for easy reference the year of their birth and death: Daniel Bernoulli(1700-82), Euler(1707-83), d'Alembert(1717-83), Lagrange(1736-1813), Laplace(1749-1827), Fourier(1768-1830), Gauss(1777-1855), Poisson(1781-1840), Bessel(1784-1846), Cauchy(1789-1857), Dirichlet(1805-59), Riemann(1826-66).

TABLE 1. Poisson's appreciations of the papers relating to definite integral by Euler, Lagrange, Laplace and Fourier

no	main theme of the paper	Euler	Lagrange	Laplace	Fourier	Poisson
1	definite integral			(I) [35]:1809		[49]:1811
2	definite integral	(I) [12]:1781				[50]:1813
3	trigonometric series with heat theory (cf.§ 6.1 in our paper)		(P) [26]:1759,[30]:1762 (cf. (I) Riemann [77] :1867)		[14].1899	[54]:1823, [55]:1823, [57]:1823, [58]:1823, [65]:1830, [67]:1835
4	Kepler problem		(P) [31]:1771	(N) [37, p.15]:1878		[48],1809
5	elastic and fluid dynamics (Appendix.) Exact differential (cf.§ 7.1 in our paper)		(N) [32, §19, pp.716-7] :1781			[66, pp.90-1], 1831

 $(\mathit{fig.1})$ Poisson's paper spectrum interferring with Euler, Lagrange, Laplace and Fourier, which we cover in our paper.

Euler \Rightarrow [12]:1781

Lagrange \Rightarrow [26]:1759, [30]:1762, [31]:1771, [32]:1781

Laplace \Rightarrow [35]:1809, [37]:1878

Fourier \Rightarrow (MS:)[22] (ex:)[47] [13] (2nd.v:)[14] (prize.1)[15] (prize.2)[16] [17] [18] [19]

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{Poisson} \Rightarrow [48] \ [49] \ [50] \ [51] \ [52] \ [53] \ [54] \ [55] \ [56] \ [57] \ [58] \ [59] \ [60] \ [61] \ [62] \ [63] \ [64] \ [65] \ [66] \ [67] \\ \end{array}$

[68]

2. Introdiction

In Table 2, we show the main topics on the definite integral which we cover.

TABLE 2. The diversion by Euler and Laplace and Poisson's direct methods of definite integral

no	item	Euler 1781	Laplace 1809	Poisson 1811
1	tools as the selling points	Γ function/Euler's integral of the second kind : $x > 0, \in \mathbb{R}$	Laplace transform	Poisson's transform function : $\phi(p)$, Poisson's bracket : $\int_0^\infty \frac{x^{q-1}}{(1+x)^{\frac{p+q}{n}}} dx = (\frac{q}{p})$
2	primary transform	$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p-1} dx$		$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p-1} dx \equiv \phi(p)$
3	secondary steps	$n = 1, \int \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1 \Rightarrow$ $\int x \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1,$ $\int x^2 \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1 \cdot 2, \dots,$	k = 1	$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p-1} dx \int_0^\infty e^{-y^n} y^{q-1} dy$ $= \iint e^{-x^n - y^n} x^{p-1} y^{q-1} dx dy$ $= \phi p \cdot \phi q$
4	other application	$\Delta = \int x^{n-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x}$	$(1)_L, (2)_L$	$\phi p \cdot \phi q = \phi(p+q) \cdot \left(\frac{q}{p}\right), \ \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$
5	final theorems	(2), (3)	$(3)_L, (4)_L, (5)_L$	$(8)_P, (9)_P, (10)_P$
6	pole of spiral	$AC = CO = a\sqrt{\pi}/2, \S.135$	$x = y = a\sqrt{\pi/2}$	$\int e^{-t^2} dt = \sqrt{\pi/2}$

2.1. Poisson's paradigm of universal truth.

Poisson mentions the universality of integral method as follows:

A défaut de méthodes générales, dont nous manquerons peut-être encore longtemps, il m'a semblé que ce qu'il y avait de mieux à faire, c'état de chercher à intégrer isolément les équations aux différences partiellles les plus importantes par la nature des questions de mécanique et de physique qui y conduisent. C'est la l'objet que je me suis proposé dans ce nouveau mémoire. [52, p.123]

永らく得られなかった普遍的方式の代わりに、私はこれまで取って来た最良の事は偏微分方程式を導出した力学や物理の性質により個別に積分しようと努めた事にあったと思う。これが本論文で私の言いたい目的である。[52, p.123]

Poisson attacks the definite integral by Euler and Laplace, and Fourier's analytical theory of heat, and manages to construct universal truth in the paradigms.

One of the paradigms is made by Euler and Laplace. The formulae (2) and (3) deduced by Euler, are the target of criticism by Poisson. Laplace succeeds to Euler and states the passage from real to imaginary or reciprocal passage between two, which we mention in below.

The other is Fourier's application of De Gua. This diversion from real to transcendental is Fourier's essential tool for the analytical theory of heat.

Dirichlet calls these passages a sort of *singularity of passage* from the finite to the infinite. cf. \S 4. We think that Poisson's strategy is to destruct both paradigms and make his own paradigm to establish the univarsal truth between mathematics and physics. We would like to show it from this point of view in our paper.

- 3. Euler and Laplace as the texts of definite integral and Poisson's criticism. (ELP)
- 3.1. The definite integral of Euler 1781 [12]. Euler solves the definite integral of a spiral 6 on the condition of $rs = a^2$, where, r: radius, s: arc length, a: a constant, using the whatis-called Euler's integral of the second kind or the Γ function in Supplement V to Leonhardi Euleri Opera Omnia Ser.I, XI, Sectio Prima, Caput VIII, [12] in 1781. We cite Euler's English translated paper from Latin as follows.
 - 4) On the definite integral of the interval of variable limit from x=0 to $x=\infty$.
- §124. By the following form, in the interval from x=0 to $x=\infty$, choosing the value in finite, the simplest case is circle: $\int \partial x/(1+x^2)$. This value is $\pi/2$, when the diameter = 1, the circumference is π . Next, by the only method nothing than otherwise,

$$\int \frac{x^{m-1}\partial x}{(1+x)^n} \Big|_{x=\infty}^{x=0} \Big] = \frac{\pi}{n\sin\frac{m\pi}{n}}, \quad \text{namely,} \quad \int_0^\infty \frac{x^{m-1}\partial x}{(1+x)^n} = \frac{\pi}{n\sin\frac{m\pi}{n}}$$

On the other hand, this right method has been useful in general form, not only in algebraic function, but also in any various form.

§125. Getting another form with the same form, containing a transcendental function, we try to seek the solution by the known method. I suppose this curved line in which, let the inverse of the radius to tangent : r be proportional in every where on the curved arc, and similarly, let the arc : s and the radius to tangent r be $rs = a^2$. For the sake of understanding, we show the figure with the free curve. At the initial time, it is at the point A, then, drawing the spiral curve, it approximates limitlessly to the point O which we call is a pole. As you see, my proposition is to investigate the position of the pole by the coordinate values of AC and CO. (cf. Fig.2)

⁶This type of spiral is a sort of hyperbolic spiral: r = a/s, however, Euler's spiral is $r = a^2/s$. [43, pp.282-3]

⁷This paper has been unpublished until now, the reason is unknown for us. It may be for there is a slight defect in §129? cf. [12].

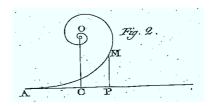


fig.2 A spiral curve

§126. Here, finally, we deduce in accordance with the partial calculation. We suppose a partial AM = s, amplitude $= \phi$, $r = \partial s/\partial \phi = a^2/s$, then $s\partial s = a^2\partial \phi$, from here, $s^2 = 2a^2$ $s = a\sqrt{2\phi} = 2c\sqrt{\phi}$. From here, directly, $\partial s = c\partial\phi/\sqrt{\phi}$ and we take on the positive axis to the angle, AP = x and PM = y, then it turns into $x = c \int (\partial \phi \cos \phi) / \sqrt{\phi}$, $y = c \int (\partial \phi \sin \phi) / \sqrt{\phi}$.

§127. Here, in relation to the pole O, the interval limits from $\phi = 0$ to $\phi = \infty$, we like to show the egralegral formulae. The starting point is arbitrary, these values are given by the approximation, on the production, continuous formulae in both sides: at first, from $\phi = 0$ to $\phi = \pi$, next, from $\phi = \pi$ to $\phi = 2\pi$, and from 2π to 3π , and so on. Certainly, in any modes, it converges promptly. It is clear that this is necessary for the long operation of calculation, we will not want to dare to extend it. Recently, we have gotten another powerful results by our original method, as follows: $\int_0^\infty (\partial \phi \cos \phi)/\sqrt{\phi} = \sqrt{\pi}/2$, $\int_0^\infty (\partial \phi \sin \phi)/\sqrt{\phi} = \sqrt{\pi}/2$. Therefore, the positional value of O, wanted to seek $AC = c\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}}$, $CO = c\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}}$.

§128. Hence, since this method is testified to be amplified, if it bring up for some one to have the interest, it is just luck for mathematician (Geometrician.) And, since by amplifying more widely this formulae, all extensions are expected to be operated, we can deduce all the things from this observation : $\int x^{n-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x}$. 8 For these reasons, it is suitable to investigate the

§129. In addition to, at first, in the case of n=1, this expression, by integration of $\int \partial x e^{-x}$ turns into $1 - e^{-x}$. In this case, it turns into 0 when x = 0, in the other case, when $x = \infty$, it turns into 1. On the other hand, differentiating this expression $x^{\lambda} \cdot e^{-x}$, we get $\lambda x^{\lambda-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x} - x^{\lambda-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x}$, (Integral) inversely, $\int x^{\lambda} \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = \lambda \int x^{\lambda-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x} - x^{\lambda} \cdot e^{-x}$. We put $\lambda > 0$, then the last term of the right hand side evaporates both at x=0 and at $x=\infty$ in the interval of integral. Next, continuously, our integral we mention, $\int x^{\lambda} \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = \lambda x^{\lambda-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x}$.

When $\int \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1$, the following integrals are deduced as follows:

$$\int x \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1, \quad \int x^2 \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1 \cdot 2, \quad \int x^3 \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3, \quad \int x^4 \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4$$

By this, in general speaking, it turns into $\int x^{n-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x} = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots (n-1)$. The value of this product is generated when n is an arbitrary positive integer: when n is a fraction, it is deduced by the algebraically quadratic curve. If the constant : n = 1/2, then the integral value is $\sqrt{\pi}$.

§130. Continuously, we assign Δ the value of this infinite product : $1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots (n-1)$, i.e. $\Delta = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot \cdots (n-1)$. Namely, we assume that the symbol of integral considering now : where, the interval of this integral is from x=0 to $x=\infty$; in particular, from here, all the expressions are deduced. Before we mention finally these expressions, as we must use the unique logic, we intend to pay the extensive attention to that.

 $^{^8(\}Downarrow) \text{ Definition of Gamma function}: \Gamma(x) = \Pi_{n=1}^{\infty} \Big(1 + \frac{1}{n}\Big)^x \Big(1 + \frac{x}{n}\Big)^{-1}. \Rightarrow \text{Euler's inegral of the second kind}: \\ \Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{n-1} e^{-x} dx, \ (x>0, x\in\mathbb{R}). \\ ^9(\Downarrow) \text{ We correct the defect in this line}.$

§133. If we assume $p = f \cos \theta$, $q = f \sin \theta$,

$$(p+q\sqrt{-1})^n = f^n(\cos n\theta + \sqrt{-1}\sin n\theta), \quad (p-q\sqrt{-1})^n = f^n(\cos n\theta - \sqrt{-1}\sin n\theta)$$
 (1)
where, $\theta = \frac{q}{n}$, $f = \sqrt{p^2 + q^2}$, $\Delta = \int x^{n-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-x}$. Here, our method turns into :

$$\frac{\Delta}{p + q\sqrt{-1}} = \frac{\Delta}{f^n(\cos n\theta + \sqrt{-1}\sin n\theta)}$$

§134. At first, adding both hand-sides of the expression (1), and next, subtracting and devideing with $2\sqrt{-1}$, then we get

$$\int y^{n-1} \partial y \cdot e^{-py} \cos qy = \frac{\Delta \cos n\theta}{f^n}, \quad \text{and} \quad \int y^{n-1} \partial y \cdot e^{-py} \sin qy = \frac{\Delta \sin n\theta}{f^n}$$

These integral formulae have been left during the longest period, as the completely arbitrary numbers with respect to p and q, although we have tried it in vain, we have restricted as plus value number with respect to p. Hence, it is worthy to challenge to understand the below paired integral formulae :

We assume $\Delta = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots (n-1)$, $p, q \geq 0$: arbitrary, $\sqrt{(p^2 + q^2)} = f$. The angle made by these values is θ or $\theta = \frac{q}{n}$. The values by remarkable integral are as follows:

Theorem I:
$$\int_0^\infty x^{n-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-px} \cos qx = \frac{\Delta \cos n\theta}{f^n}, \text{ Theorem II: } \int_0^\infty x^{n-1} \partial x \cdot e^{-px} \sin qx = \frac{\Delta \sin n\theta}{f^n} \quad (2)$$

§135. We apply here these integral formulae to the previously mentioned curve. We apply it to $\int (\partial \phi \cos \phi)/\sqrt{\phi}$, $\int (\partial \phi \sin \phi)/\sqrt{\phi}$. Then, $n=1/2, \Delta=\sqrt{\pi}$, Next, we assume p=0, q=1, and f=1, then $\theta=q/p=1/\theta=\infty$, If $\theta=\pi/2$, $\cos n\theta=1/\sqrt{2}=\sin n\theta$. Therefore, $\int_0^\infty (\partial\phi\cos\phi)/\sqrt{\phi}=\sqrt{\pi/2}$ and $\int_0^\infty (\partial\phi\sin\phi)/\sqrt{\phi}=\sqrt{\pi/2}$. §136. It is here worthwhile to make the application, speaking generally, in the case of $n=1/2, \Delta=\sqrt{\pi}$. Putting $\sqrt{(p^2+q^2)}=f$, $q/p=\tan\theta$, then $\sin\theta=q/f$, $\cos\theta=p/f$. From here,

we make the following:

$$\sin \theta/2 = \sqrt{(1-\cos \theta)/2} = \sqrt{(f-p)/2f}, \quad \cos \theta/2 = \sqrt{(1+\cos \theta)/2} = \sqrt{(f+p)/2f}$$

And the integral values are:

$$\Delta \sin(\theta/2)/\sqrt{f} = (\sqrt{\pi}/f) \cdot \sqrt{(f-p)/2}, \quad \Delta \cos(\theta/2)/\sqrt{f} = (\sqrt{\pi}/f) \cdot \sqrt{(f+p)/2}$$

From these, it deduces a pair of integral formulae:

$$\int (\partial x/\sqrt{x}) \cdot e^{-px} \sin qx = (\sqrt{\pi}/f) \cdot \sqrt{(f-p)/2}, \quad \int (\partial x/\sqrt{x}) \cdot e^{-px} \cos qx = (\sqrt{\pi}/f) \cdot \sqrt{(f+p)/2}$$

§138. Now, also for n=0, it is the most noteworthy that just singular technique is used, which we state exactly. As we assume $\Delta = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots (n-1)$, Simirary, $\Delta' = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots n$, $\Delta'' = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots n$ $1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots (n+1)$. It turns clearly, $\Delta = \Delta'/n$, $\Delta' = \Delta''/(n+1)$, From here, $\Delta = \Delta''/n(n+1)$. We suppose ω is infinitesimal, and $n=\omega$, then if $\Delta''=1$, it turns $\Delta=1/\omega$. In this case, it Hence, to the integral formulae above mentioned, $\sin n\theta = \omega \theta$. It is clear turns into infinite. that $\Delta \sin n\theta = \theta$; By the formula of integral, as long as we integrate it from x = 0 to x = 0 ∞ , why does it follow certainly that ? On the contrary to this, the other integral formula :

 $\int \frac{\partial x}{\sqrt{x}} e^{-px} \cos qx$ turns into infinite. We include all these cases, and make one formula. §139. Theorem III. If we assign p and q an arbitrary positive number, then we get the angle : θ . Also, we assume $\tan \theta = q/p$, then we get the following most notable result of integral:

$$\int_0^\infty (\partial x/x) \cdot e^{-px} \sin qx = \theta. \tag{3}$$

¹⁰ The proof of this unbelievable may be able to investigate by the other method such as the approximation. [12, p.337-345]

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-ax} \frac{\sin bx}{x} dx = \arctan \frac{b}{a}, \quad a > 0.$$

 $^{^{10}(\}downarrow)$ Iwanami Mathematical Formulae I [44, p.231] reads about this formula :

We must attention to §129. Euler deduces this formula standing on the supposition that if $\int dx \cdot e^{-x} = 1$, then the followings holds. the left-hand side is transcendent and the right-hand side is real. Poisson points out this contradiction of quality of number. Poisson talks about Euler's integral method as follows:

These formulas owe to Euler, which however, he have discovered by a sort of induction based on diversion from real to imaginary; although the induction is allowed as the discovering method, however, we must verify the result with the direct and strict method. $[50, \P 1, p.219]$ (trans. mine.)

Instead of Euler's method of diversion, Poisson proclaims his direct, double integral using his bracket method. To Laplace also, Poisson points out the same diversion as follows. cf. § 3.2, 3.3 and 3.5.

3.2. The definite integral using transform of Laplace 1809 [35]. Laplace solves the same integral problem with Euler: $\int dx \cdot e^{-x}$ using the what-is-called Laplace transform and applies to spiral problem like Euler's spiral of $rs = a^2$. Laplace enhances his method than Euler, however, assumes also $\int x dx \cdot e^{-x} = 1$, which Poisson attacks.

Dans le 15^e cahier de Journal de l'Ecole polytechnique, M. Laplace donné des intégrales définies formules qui contiennement des sinus et cosinus. Il les a déduites des intégrales des exponentielies, par une sorte d'induction fondée sur le passage des quantités réeles aux imaginaires. Nous nous proposons ici de généraliser ces résultats, et d'y parvenir directement par consideration des intégrales multiples dont M. Laplace s'est déjà servi dans un article de son mémoire sur les Fonctions de grands nombres (Académie des Sciences de Paris, année 1782, page 11);¹¹ et pour réunir sous un même point de vue ce qu'on a trouve de plus général jusqu'à présent sur les intégrales définies, nous commencerons par nous occuper de celles qui renferment des exponentielles. [49, p.243]

We cite Laplace's English translated paper from French entitled: On the reciprocal passage from the results of real to the results of imaginaries, as follows.

When the result is shown by the infinite value, the generality of notation includes all of real and imaginary. It is occupied in analysis at the large part, by this extension, and above all, in the calculation of sine or cosine, as we know, expressed by the imaginary exponential. I have observed in my paper, "The approximation of the expression of function of large number" (MAS,1782), like at the time when the result is showed with the definite quantity, this diversion from real to imaginary can also occur; and by it, we have concluded the values of definite integral, difficult to determine by other means except for it. I like to give the new applications of this special technique. In a general way, we consider $\int \frac{dx}{x^{\alpha}} c^{x\sqrt{-1}}$, $0 < \alpha < 1$. We suppose $x = t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \sqrt{-1}$ then this integral turns into:

$$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} \cdot (-1)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}} \cdot \int dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}$$

 $^{^{11}(\}Downarrow)$ Laplace [34]

¹² Taking the interval: the integral in the left hand side, from x = 0 to $x = \infty$ and it in the right hand side from t = 0 to $t = \infty$. We assign the integral as

$$\int dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}} \equiv k.$$

And perform it in this interval.

$$\int \frac{dx \cdot c^{x\sqrt{-1}}}{x^{\alpha}} = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \cdot (-1)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}} \cdot k$$

is provably expressed by $\cos \phi + \sqrt{-1} \sin \phi$, then (powered by the inverse of $(1-\alpha)/2$)

$$(-1)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}\frac{2}{1-\alpha}} = -1 = \left(\cos\phi + \sqrt{-1}\sin\phi\right)^{\frac{2}{1-\alpha}} = \cos\left(\frac{2}{1-\alpha}\right)\phi + \sqrt{-1}\sin\left(\frac{2}{1-\alpha}\right)\phi$$

This expression $[2/(1-\alpha)] \cdot \phi = (2r+1)\pi$, assuming r the integer of plus or negative, and π the half of circumference; then $\phi = (2r+1)(1-\alpha)\frac{\pi}{2}$. And finally,

$$(-1)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}} = \cos(2r+1)(1-\alpha)\frac{\pi}{2} + \sqrt{-1}\sin(2r+1)(1-\alpha)\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\int \frac{dx \cdot c^{x\sqrt{-1}}}{x^{\alpha}} = \int \frac{dx \cdot \cos x}{x^{\alpha}} + \sqrt{-1} \cdot \int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{x^{\alpha}}$$
$$= \left[\cos(2r+1)(1-\alpha)\frac{\pi}{2} + \sqrt{-1} \cdot \sin(2r+1)(1-\alpha)\frac{\pi}{2} \right] \cdot \frac{k}{1-\alpha}$$

Comparing real parts in both expressions, and imaginary part in both expressions respectively,

$$(1)_L \quad \int \frac{dx \cdot \cos x}{x^{\alpha}} = \frac{k}{1-\alpha} \int \cos(2r+1)(1-\alpha)\frac{\pi}{2}, \quad (2)_L \quad \int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{x^{\alpha}} = \frac{k}{1-\alpha} \int \sin(2r+1)(1-\alpha)\frac{\pi}{2}$$

Taking the limit of integral from x = 0 to $x = \infty$. Now, we rethinking the expressions $(1)_L$ and $(2)_L$, assuming presumably, $\int dt \cdot e^{-t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}} \equiv k$. And powering with the inverse of $1 - \alpha$,

$$\int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{x^{\alpha}} = (2r+1) \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot k,$$

where, this integral becomes $\lim_{\alpha \to 1} k = \int dt \cdot c^{-t^{\infty}}$. If t < 1, then $c^{-t^{\infty}} = 1$. If t > 1, then 0. Therefore, we get k = 1.

Now, the value of integral : $\int dx \frac{\sin x}{x}$ become smaller than in the case of taking the interval of integral from x=0 to $x=\pi$. This last integral becomes also smaller than with same interval, $\int_0^\pi \frac{x dx}{x} (<\pi)$. Nevertheless, here, we must take here, r=0 and k=1, the value turns into $\int dx \cdot \frac{\sin x}{x} = \frac{\pi}{2}$; ¹⁴ The expression $(1)_L$ turns into similarly $\int_0^\pi dx \cdot \frac{\cos x}{x} = \infty$. If we suppose $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$, then $k = \int dt \cdot c^{-t^2}$. The last value, which we have shown in MAS (1782), becomes $(1/2)\sqrt{\pi}$; The expressions $(1)_L$ and $(2)_L$ are therefore,

$$\int \frac{dx \cdot \cos x}{\sqrt{x}} = \sqrt{\pi} \cdot \cos \frac{(2r+1)}{4} \pi, \quad \int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{\sqrt{x}} = \sqrt{\pi} \cdot \cos \frac{(2r+1)}{4} \pi$$

The values of sine and cosine in arcs: $\frac{(2r+1)\pi}{4}$ are positives, and where, we suppose r=0, and multiply with 4, then, we get $\sin\frac{(2r+1)\pi}{4}=\cos\frac{(2r+1)\pi}{4}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. Therefore, $\int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{\sqrt{x}}=\int \frac{dx \cdot \cos x}{\sqrt{$

$$\int dt \cdot c^{t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\sqrt{-1}\sqrt{-1}} \left(t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\sqrt{-1}\right)^{-\alpha} = \int dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}} t^{-\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} \left(\sqrt{-1}\right)^{-\alpha} = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \cdot (-1)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}} \cdot \int dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}} dt \cdot c^{-t^{\frac{1}1-\alpha}}} dt \cdot$$

 $^{^{13}(\}downarrow)$ This is the what-is-called Laplace transform.

¹⁴(\downarrow) We see this supposition of k=1 is the same as Euler's method in §129.

 $\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}}$. From this, we suppose that, in the expressions $(1)_L$ and $(2)_L$, r=0, and their expressions turns into:

$$(3)_L \quad \int \frac{dx \cdot \cos x}{x^{\alpha}} = \frac{k}{1 - \alpha} \sin \frac{\alpha \pi}{2}, \quad (4)_L \quad \int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{x^{\alpha}} = \frac{k}{1 - \alpha} \cos \frac{\alpha \pi}{2},$$

where, from the following equation, we must add the expression $(5)_L$:

$$\int \frac{dx \cdot \cos x}{x^{\alpha}} = \frac{\sin x}{x^{\alpha}} + \alpha \int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{x^{\alpha+1}}, \quad (5)_L \quad \int \frac{dx \cdot \sin x}{x^{\alpha+1}} = \frac{k}{\alpha(1-\alpha)} \sin \frac{\alpha\pi}{2}$$

For we apply this analysis, we consider elastic lame spiraling naturally inside. Considering the situation by the inner edge of lame is fixed, and by the gravity p, the other edge is sustained. In this state, the action by gravity on an element of the lame, placed in the distance s from the edge, let be ps. and the spiral of element must keep it in equilibrium. This spiral is, in the natural state, inverse with respect to the radius to tangent (of curvature) of the lame. Assign r this relative radius on the small part s starting from outer edge ps = g/r, (or, rs = g/p,) where, g is the proper constant depending on the lame. We assign $g/p = a^2$, where, a is the dues to conserve the equality of dimension, hence, the lame in natural state, $s = (g/p) \cdot (1/r) = a^2/r$. Now, in this state, we assume the two orthogonal axis x and y along to the outer edges, then the initial value is calculated by the tangent of lame at the origin : $ds/r = \frac{d(dy/ds)}{\sqrt{(1-(dy^2/ds^2)})}$, $dy/ds = \sin(\int \frac{ds}{r})$

and $dx/ds = \cos(\int \frac{ds}{r})$ substituting s/a^2 to 1/r, then

$$x = \int ds \cdot \cos \frac{s^2}{2a^2}; \quad y = \int ds \cdot \sin \frac{s^2}{2a^2}.$$

Euler has reached in the sophisticate paper on the isopherimeter (p.276) the same expression, however, saying: "this curve from a spiral, as the same as a coil having infinitely long end, if swing at the center point, it is the most difficult to observe the construction of point produced from this." The decision of this point is deduced easily from the preceding analysis. For, we assign $s^2/(2a^2) = \phi$, then $s = a\sqrt{(2\phi)}$, $ds = \frac{a(d\phi)}{\sqrt{(2\phi)}}$, and

$$x = a \int \frac{d\phi}{\sqrt{(2\phi)}} \cdot \cos\phi, \quad y = a \int \frac{d\phi}{\sqrt{(2\phi)}} \cdot \sin\phi$$

The integral interval is to be taken from $\phi = 0$ to $\phi = \infty$. Therefore, from above mentioned, $x = y = \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{\pi}$.

3.3. The definite integral using special bracket of Poisson 1811 [49]. We cite Poisson's English translated paper from French as follows. In this same problem of integral with Euler, he deduces the integral solution directly, using his notation of 'special' bracket, which we call it Poisson's bracket as bellow, being conscious of the Euler's and Laplace's integral methods.

We consider the integral

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p-1} dx,$$

where, e is a hyperbolic logarithm, n and p are the positive and integer (i.e. natural numbers.) We suppose the function $e^{-x^n}x^{p-1}$, where, the both values of limit are positive, lest it be infinite value, and integer, If it is a fraction, then by a very simple transformation, we can avoid zero of the denominator. As we have the object, to compare between them, the values of these transcendents, which respond to a exponent n itself and to various values of p, we consider $\phi = \phi(p)$ as a function, and assign as follows: ¹⁵

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p-1} dx = \phi p$$

¹⁵(\downarrow) Here is the introduction of Poisson's transform. By the then convention, $\phi p = \phi(p)$.

By integral by part,

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p-1} dx = \frac{1}{p} \left[e^{-x^n} x^p \right]_0^\infty + \frac{n}{p} \int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p+n-1} dx,$$

as the both limit values of integral, from x=0 to $x=\infty$, the factor $e^{-x^n}x^p$ evaporates, then shifting the integral term, $\phi p = \frac{n}{p}\phi(p+n)$; the expression shows that the value of $\phi(p+n)$ is deduced at once from the value of ϕp ; Namely, from here, if the exponential p>n, then in sequence, p-n, p-2n, p-3n, \cdots , p-in, where, i is included in p, it turns into inp, the number in is the maxmum of the multiple of n which can take in p. Thus, it is unnecessary to consider the value p greater than n, and many transcendental is distinguished actually, including ϕp , the all which we can give is only n. When p=n, $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^n}x^{n-1}dx=\frac{1}{n}e^{-x^n}$, from above reason for the values of the both limits : x=0 and $x=\infty$, we get $\phi n=1/n$; the thing we should consider here, is the fact that the value of p decrease to n-1, the number of value of p which it is necessary to consider. Instead of p, we substitute another plus integer q. $\int e^{-y^n}x^{q-1}dy=\phi q$. Taking the integral by the both limit values y=0 and $y=\infty$.

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^n} x^{p-1} dx \int_0^\infty e^{-y^n} y^{q-1} dy = \iint e^{-x^n - y^n} x^{p-1} y^{q-1} dx dy = \phi p \cdot \phi q$$

If we replace the variable y with another variable z, then y = xz, and dy = xdz. For, we suppose x the constant in the integral in respect to y; hence,

$$\iint e^{-x^n - y^n} x^{p-1} y^{q-1} dx dy = \iint e^{-x^n (1+z^n)} x^{p+q-1} z^{q-1} dx dz = \phi p \cdot \phi q,$$

the limit value from z=0 to $z=\infty$ corresponds to from y=0 to $y=\infty$, respectively, where, x is regularly the plus. The integral in respect to z, thus, takes the limit value from z=0 to $z=\infty$. Instead of x, we use new variable: t, then $x=t(1+z^n)^{-\frac{1}{n}}$, $dx=dt(1+z^n)^{-\frac{1}{n}}$

$$\iint e^{-x^n(1+z^n)} x^{p+q-1} z^{q-1} dx dz = \iint \frac{e^{-t^n} t^{p+q-1} z^{q-1}}{(1+z)^{\frac{p+q}{n}}} dt dz = \phi p \cdot \phi q$$

the limit value from x = 0 to $x = \infty$ turns into from t = 0 to $t = \infty$. This last double integral is the product of two simple integrals, i.e.

$$\int e^{-t^n} t^{p+q-1} dt \int \frac{z^{q-1}}{(1+z)^{\frac{p+q}{n}}} dz$$

However, by the defined notation, we have $\int e^{-t^n} t^{p+q-1} dt = \phi(p+q)$. From here, we conclude

$$(1)_P \qquad \phi(p+q) \cdot \int \frac{z^{q-1}}{(1+z)^{\frac{p+q}{n}}} dz = \phi p \cdot \phi q$$

Putting $1+z^n=\frac{1}{1-x^n}$, we can give another form in respect to z, where, x is a new variable.

(2)_P
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{z^{q-1}dz}{(1+z)^{\frac{p+q}{n}}} = \int_0^1 \frac{x^{q-1}dx}{(1-x^n)^{\frac{n-p}{n}}}$$

The integral with respect to x, corresponding to from z=0 to $z=\infty$, from x=0 to x=1. This is the definite integral with which Euler was completely occupied. After Euler, we use the same omissible notation, $(\frac{q}{p})$, namely, $\int \frac{x^{q-1}}{(1+x)^{\frac{p+q}{n}}} dx = (\frac{q}{p})$. The expression $(1)_P$ turns into:

$$(3)_P \qquad \phi p \cdot \phi q = \phi(p+q) \cdot \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$$

Thus, considering the transcendental number $(\frac{q}{p})$ as the given number, we can explain the product of two functions ϕp and ϕq , with the similar function $\phi(p+q)$. Similarly, the product $\phi p \cdot \phi q \cdot \phi r$ is expressed by means of the function $\phi(p+q+r)$ and the two similar transcendental

to $(\frac{q}{p})$; And in general, some products are expressed using this form of $(\frac{q}{p})$. For example, in the case of three $\phi p \cdot \phi q \cdot \phi r = \phi(p+q) \cdot \phi r \cdot (\frac{q}{p})$ and $\phi(p+q) \cdot \phi r = \phi(p+q+r) \cdot (\frac{r}{p+q})$. From here,

$$(4)_P \qquad \phi p \cdot \phi q \cdot \phi r = \phi(p+q+r) \cdot \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{r}{p+q}\right).$$

The equation $(3)_P$ shows us the value $(\frac{q}{p})$ is same even by replacement of p and q, ¹⁶ therefore

$$(5)_P \qquad \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$$

The expression $(4)_P$ is also the product $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{r}{p+q}\right)$ conserves the same value, when we replace two of three quantities: p, q, r between them. ¹⁷ For example, replacing q with r,

$$(6)_P \qquad \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{r}{p+q}\right) = \left(\frac{r}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{q}{p+r}\right)$$

This expression is very important on the calculation of $(\frac{q}{p})$, due to Euler, who has deduced from the consideration of product by a infinite of factors. (Le anciens Memoires de Turin, vol. III) This value of quality is known a priori in two special case of p = n and p + q = n. In fact, if p = n,

$$(7)_P \qquad \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \int_0^1 x^{q-1} dx = \frac{1}{q}$$

If p + q = n, from p = n - q, the expression $(2)_P$ turns into

$$\left(\frac{q}{n-q}\right) = \int_0^1 \frac{x^{q-1}dx}{(1-x^n)^{\frac{q}{n}}} = \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{q-1}dz}{1+z^n}$$

Namely, the last expression is rational number, and by the known formula, we can integrate it. And we get it by integrating from z=0 to $z=\infty$. (cf. Le Traite des Differences, de M. Lacroix p.411, "Theory of Difference.") ¹⁸

(8)_P
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{z^{q-1}dz}{1+z^n} = \frac{\pi}{n\sin\frac{q\pi}{n}}, \quad (9)_P \qquad \left(\frac{q}{n-q}\right) = \frac{\pi}{n\sin\frac{q\pi}{n}},$$

where, π is the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. The four expressions $(5)_P$, $(6)_P$, $(7)_P$ and $(9)_P$ contain all the theory of transcendents even if we deduce from the function $(\frac{q}{p})$, by giving the various values to p and to q. These equations contain the method to reduce from them different transcendents of the very smaller number possible, and to explain them mutually, however, we don't go into details, however, refer the paper by Mr. Legendre in the most recent volume of Institute (Bulletin de Societe Philomatique).

We go back to ϕp . In the expression $(3)_P$, We assign p+q=n, and observing that $\frac{\phi n=1}{n}$, by the expression $(9)_P$ it turns into

$$(10)_P \qquad \phi p \cdot \phi(n-p) = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{q}{n-q} \right) = \frac{\pi}{n^2 \sin \frac{q\pi}{n}},$$

The value of $\phi(n-p)$ is therefore, expressed by the value of ϕp ; finally, n-1 transcendents given by ϕp , namely, although we give to p, all the values from p=1 to p=n-1, if n-1 is even: (n-1)/2, if n-1 is odd: (n-2)/2. In the second case, the value of ϕp , which corresponds to p=n/2, is given immediately, by the expression $(10)_P$; for, by this supposition, $\phi(n-p)=\phi(n-\frac{n}{2})=\phi p=\phi\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ and $\sin(p\pi/n)=\sin(\pi/2)=1$; from here, $\left[\phi\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\right]^2=\frac{\pi}{n^2}$ or $\phi\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)=\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{n}$ deduced. And, this result is independent of the exponential n, by this means, we

 $^{^{16}}$ (↓) This means the commutativity between p and q.

 $^{^{17}(\}downarrow)$ This means the commutativity of two among p, q, r.

 $^{^{18}(\}downarrow)$ (8)_P is due to Lacroix [25]. Lacroix cites many Euler's integral formulae.

can delete n. $\phi\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) = \int e^{-x^n} x^{\frac{n}{2}-1} dx$. If we assign $x^{(n/2)} = t$ then $\phi\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) = \frac{2}{n} \int e^{-t^2} dt$. As the limit of integral interval are always from t = 0 to $t = \infty$, the two values of $\phi(n/2)$ are equal, deleting the common number n, it turns into $\int e^{-t^2} dt = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sqrt{\pi}$; remarkable result by simplicity, and to here, Euler has reached at the first time.

Now, we consider the next integral formulae containing sine and cosine, if we assign $\int x^{p-1} \cos(a+x^n)dx = \psi p$, where, a is an arbitrary constant, n and p are positive integers, the integral interval are from x = 0 to $x = \infty$. Multiplying this expression by the expression : $\int e^{-y^n} \cdot y^{n-p-1} \cdot dy = \phi(n-p)$,

$$\phi(n-p) \cdot \psi p = \int e^{-y^n} \cdot y^{n-p-1} dy \int x^{p-1} \cos(a+x^n) dx = \iint e^{-y^n} \cdot y^{n-p-1} \cdot x^{p-1} \cos(a+x^n) dy dx$$

As the same as previous, substituting the new variable z with y, and assigning y = xz, then dy = xdz, the last expression turns into:

$$\phi(n-p) \cdot \psi p = \int e^{-x^n z^n} \cdot z^{n-p-1} \cdot x^{n-1} \cos(a+x^n) dz dx$$

In this double integral , we begin with the integral with respect to x, by the integral by part, it turns into :

$$\phi(n-p) \cdot \psi p = \frac{1}{n} e^{-x^n z^n} \cdot \sin(a+x^n) + z^n \int e^{-x^n z^n} \cdot x^{n-1} \sin(a+x^n) dx$$

By these two expressions, we can know the integral of sine and cosine is always the integral of corresponding of exponential. If we want to correspond to the Mr. Laplace's results (JEP., vol. XV, p.210, sic. cf. our source : p. 250), we can it only by assigning xn = z and yp = t. The integral limit of interval are without alternation, always, from z = 0 to $z = \infty$, and from t = 0 to $t = \infty$, and moreover, we assign $1 - (p/n) = \alpha$, then $1 - \alpha = p/n$, it turns into:

$$\int x^{p-1} \cos x^n dx = \frac{1}{n} \int \frac{\cos z}{z^{\alpha}} dz, \quad \int x^{p-1} \sin x^n dx = \frac{1}{n} \int \frac{\sin z}{z^{\alpha}} dz \tag{4}$$

We assign $1 - (p/n) = \alpha$, i.e. $1 - \alpha = p/n$,

$$\int e^{-y^n} \cdot y^{p-1} dy = \frac{1}{p} \int \exp\{-t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\} dt, \quad \cos \frac{p\pi}{2n} = \sin \frac{\alpha\pi}{2}, \quad \sin \frac{p\pi}{2n} = \cos \frac{\alpha\pi}{2}$$

By this, the above equations (4) change as following:

$$\int \frac{\cos z}{z^{\alpha}} dz = \frac{k}{1 - \alpha} \cdot \sin \frac{\alpha \pi}{2}, \quad \frac{\sin z}{z^{\alpha}} dz = \frac{k}{1 - \alpha} \cdot \cos \frac{\alpha \pi}{2},$$

where, for simplicity, we assigned $\int \exp\{-t^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\}dt = \mathbf{k}$. These last expressions are equal to the Mr. Laplace's $(3)_L$ and $(4)_L$, where, except for the variable z we assign (Mr. Laplace assign x.) The ratio of circumference of a circle to its diameter, is a transcendental only in numeric, which we show in the value of definite integral. It contains in another Mr. Laplace has solved, and he proposes the notable that it depends on the two transcendents e and π ; I show it without proving, they are available in the next issue of analysis as follows:¹⁹

$$\int \frac{\cos ax \cdot dx}{1 + x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{e^a}, \quad \int \frac{\sin ax \cdot x dx}{1 + x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{e^a},$$

 $^{^{19}(\}Downarrow)$ Laplace [36, pp.100-1]

where, a is an arbitrary positive quantity, the limit value of integral interval are from x=0to $x = \infty$.

3.4. The definite integral of Poisson 1813 [50]. Poisson issued Mémoire sur les intégrales définies [50] in 1813, in which he called our attention to induce from real to imaginary number, using the following example.

$$\int e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^{n-1} dx = y, \quad \int e^{-bx} \sin ax \ x^{n-1} dx = z \tag{5}$$

Finally, we get as follows:

$$y = \frac{\cos nt}{\left(b^2 + a^2\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}} \int e^{-\theta} \theta^{n-1} d\theta, \quad z = \frac{\sin nt}{\left(b^2 + a^2\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}} \int e^{-\theta} \theta^{n-1} d\theta$$

where, t is the arc of $\tan \frac{a}{b}$, namely $t = \arctan \frac{a}{b}$.

Poisson concludes we should use the direct and vigorous method as the following:

Ces formules sont dues à Euler,²¹ qui les a trouvées par une sorte d'induction fondée sur le passage des quantités réelles aux imaginaires ; induction qu'on peu bien employer comme un moyen de découverte, mais dont les résultats ont besoin d'être confirmés par des méthodes directes et rigoureuses. Les formules que j'ai demontrées par la considération des intégrales doubles, dans le n^o 42 du nouveau Bulletin de la Société philomatique,²² ne sont qu'un cas particulier des précédentes, dont elles se déduisent, en y faisant b = 0. $[50, \P 1, p.219]$

3.5. Mémoire sur les intégrales définies, by Poisson [50], 1813.

Poisson issued Mémoire sur les intégrales définies [50] in 1813, in which he called our attention to induce from real to imaginary number, using the following example.

¶ 1.

$$\int e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^{n-1} dx = y, \quad \int e^{-bx} \sin ax \ x^{n-1} dx = z \tag{6}$$

$$\frac{dy}{da} = -\int e^{-bx} \sin ax \ x^n dx, \quad \frac{dz}{da} = \int e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^n dx \tag{7}$$

$$\begin{cases} \int e^{-bx} \sin ax \ x^n dx = -\frac{1}{b} e^{-bx} \sin ax \ x^n + \frac{a}{b} \int e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^{n-1} dx + \frac{n}{b} \int e^{-bx} \sin ax \ x^{n-1} dx, \\ \int e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^n dx = -\frac{1}{b} e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^n - \frac{a}{b} \int e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^{n-1} dx + \frac{n}{b} \int e^{-bx} \cos ax \ x^{n-1} dx \end{cases}$$

where, we assume b and n positive. This value of A is independent of b, for if $bx = \theta$, then we get

$$A = b^n \int e^{-bx} x^{n-1} dx = \int e^{-\theta} \theta^{n-1} d\theta$$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\cos px dx}{1+x^2} = \frac{\pi}{2} e^{-|p|}, \quad \int_0^\infty \frac{x \sin ax \cdot dx}{1+x^2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot e^{-a}, \quad (a > 0).$$

Cauchy cites thiese formulae as the formulae (données par, given by) Euler and Laplace as follows:

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{r\cos bx dx}{r^2 + x^2} = \int_0^\infty \frac{x\sin bx \cdot dx}{r^2 + x^2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot e^{-br}.$$

 $[4,\,\mathrm{p.577}]$ $^{21}\mathrm{Tome~IV}$ de son Calcul intégral, pages 337 et suivantes. (sic). [12], cf. (2) in \S 3.1.

²²Poisson [49]

 $^{^{20}(\}Downarrow)$ Iwanami Mathematical Dictionary [43, p.1712] reads about these formulae :

Finally, we get as follows:

$$y = \frac{\cos nt}{\left(b^2 + a^2\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}} \int e^{-\theta} \theta^{n-1} d\theta, \quad z = \frac{\sin nt}{\left(b^2 + a^2\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}} \int e^{-\theta} \theta^{n-1} d\theta$$

where, t is the arc of $\tan \frac{a}{b}$, namely $t = \arctan \frac{a}{b}$.

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Ces formules sont dues à Euler, 23 qui les a trouvées par une sorte d'induction fondée sur le passage des quantités réelles aux imaginaires ; induction qu'on peu bien employer comme un moyen de découverte, mais dont les résultats ont besoin d'être confirmés par des méthodes directes et rigoureuses. Les formules que j'ai demontrées par la considération des intégrales doubles, dans le n^o 42 du nouveau Bulletin de la Société philomatique, 24 ne sont qu'un cas particulier des précédentes, dont elles se déduisent, en y faisant b=0. [50, ¶ 1, p.219]

4. Lagrange's integral and Fourier's theoretical contrarieties. (LFD)

Fourier's works are summerized by Dirichlet, a disciple of Fourier, as follows:

- a sort of singularity of passage from the finite to the infinite
- to offer a new example of the *prolificity* of the analytic process

The first is our topics which Fourier and Poisson point this problem in life and the other is, in other words, the sowing seeds to be solved from then on. Dirichlet says in the following contents, Fourier (1768-1830) couldn't solve in life the question in relation to the mathematical theory of heat, in *Solution d'une question relative a le théorie mathématiques de la chaleur* (The solution of a question relative to the mathematical theory of heat) [9]:

La question qui va nous occuper et qui a pour objet de determiner l'états successifs d'une barre primitivement échauffée d'une manière quelconque et dont les deux extrémités sont entretenues à des températures données en fonction de temps, a dèjà été résolue par M. Fourier dans un Mémoire inséré dans le Vol. VIII de la collection de l'Académie Royale des Sciences de Paris. La méthode dont cet illustre géomètre a fait usage dans cette recherche est une espèce singulière de passage du fini a l'infini, et offre un nouvel exemple de la fécondité de ce procédé analytique qui avait déjà conduit l'auteur à tant de résultats remarquables dans son grand ouvrage sur la théorie de la chaleur. J'ai traité la même question par une analyse dont la marche differe beaucoup de celle de Fourier et qui donne lieu à l'emploi de quelques artifices de calcul, qui paraisent pouvoir être utiles dans d'autres recherches. [9, p.161] (Italics mine.)

This is the originality of the method due to the what we called *Dirichlet condition*, which gives the constant boundary condition by any method.

4.1. Lagrange and Fourier on the trigonometric series. Riemann studies the history of research on Fourier series up to then (Geschichte der Frage über die Darstellbarkeit einer willkührlich gegebenen Function durch eine trigonometrische Reihe, [77, pp.4-17].) We cite one paragraph of his interesting description from the view of mathematical history as follows:

Als Fourier in einer seiner ersten Arbeiten über die Wärme, welche er der französischen Akademie vorlegtet ²⁵, (21. Dec. 1807) zuerst den Satz aussprach, daß eine ganz willkührlich (graphisch) gegebene Function sich durch eine trigonometrische Reihe ausdrücken laße, war diese Behauptung dem greisen Lagrange's unerwartet,

²³Tome IV de son Calcul intégral, pages 337 et suivantes. (sic). [12], cf. (2) in § 3.1.

²⁴Poisson [49]

 $^{^{25}}$ sic. Bulletin des sciences p. la soc. philomatique Tome I. p.112

daß er ihr auf das Entschiedenste entgegentrat. Es soll ²⁶ sich hierüber noch ein Schriftstrück in Archiv der Pariser Akademie befinden. Dessenungeachtet verweist ²⁷ Poisson überall, wo er sich der trigonometrischen Reihen zur Darstellung willkürlicher Functionen bedient, auf eine Stelle in Lagrange's Arbeiten über die schwingenden Saiten, wo sich diese Darstellungensweise finden soll. Um diese Bahauptung, die sich nur aus der bekannten Rivalität zwischen Fourier und Poisson erklären laßt ²⁸, zuwiderlegen, sehen wir uns genöthigt, noch einmal auf die Abhandlung Lagrange's zurüchzukommen ; denn über jeden über jenen Vorgang in der Akademie findet sich nichts veröffentlicht. [77, p.10]

Fourier が熱に関する最初の論文 (21, Dec., 1807) を提出した時、ある全く任意のグラフによる具象的な既知関数を三角関数の級数展開で表現させようとするものであり、最初は流石の白髪の Lagrange(当時71歳)もこの論文にかなり当惑したが、きっぱりと拒否した。その論文は今もフランス国立文書館に収納されているという。(注2。Dirichlet 博士の口頭報告による)それがため、Poisson は全体を注意深く熟読し、即座に、Lagrangeの振動する弦に関する論文の一節に、ある任意の関数の記述のために三角関数の級数展開を使用している個所があるが、そこでこの記述方法を発見したに違いないと異議申し立てた。Fourier と Poisson の知られた対抗関係を如実に物語るこの申立ての誤りを論駁するため急いで方向転換して、Lagrange の論文にもう一度立ち返りたい;そうすれば何一つ明らかになっていないアカデミーの中の、こうした出来事に行き着ける。

Riemann cites exactly the French original which we show in (27) as follows:

Man findet inder That an der von Poisson citirten Stelle die Formel:

$$y = 2 \int Y \sin X \pi dX \sin x \pi + 2 \int Y \sin 2X \pi dX \sin 2x \pi + \dots + 2 \int Y \sin nX \pi dX \sin nx \pi, \tag{8}$$

de sort que, lorsque x=X, on aura y=Y,Y étant l'ordonné qui répond à l'abscisse X. Diese Formel sieht nun allerdinga ganz so aus wie die Fourier'sche Reihe ; so daßbei flüchtigerAnsicht eine Verwerwechselung leicht möglich ist ; aber dieser Schein rührt bloss daher, weil Lagrange das Zeichen $\int dX$ anwendte, wo er heute das Zeichen $\sum \Delta X$ angewandt haben würde. Wenn man aber seine Abhandlung durchliest, so sieht man, daßer weit davon entfernt ist zu glauben, eine ganz willkührliche Function laße sich wirklich durch eine unendliche Sinusreihe darstellen. [77, pp.10-11]

事実、Poisson により引用された一節の中の式は(8)である事が分かる。 従って、x=X とすれば、y=Y となり、Y は横軸 X に対応する縦軸である。この形式は確かにフーリエ級数とは全く違う;一見して、ある取り違えの可能性が充分にある;しかし、それは単なる外見でしかない。何故なら Lagrange が積分記法 $\int dX$ を使っている事が(誤解される原因)だ。今日なら $\Sigma\Delta X$ の記法を使っていただろう。彼の論文を通読すると、彼がある全く任意の関数をある無限個の sine による級数展開で任意に記述しようとしたとは信じるにはほど遠い事がわかる。

Lagrange had stated (8) in his paper of the motion of sound in 1762-65. [30, p.553]

4.2. Recherches sur la Nature et la Propagation du Son by Lagrange [26], 1759.

Lagrange explains the motion of sound diffusing along with time t by the trigonometric series of the original sample which the after ages, such as Fourier, Poisson, Dirichlet, et al. refer to it. Here, $\varpi = \pi$.

 $^{^{26}}$ sic. Nach einer mündlichen Mittheilung des Herr Professor Dirichlet.

²⁷sic. Unter Andern in den verbreiteten Traité de mécanique Nro. 323. p. 638.

²⁸sic. Der Bericht in bulletin des sciences über die von Fourier der Akademie vorgelegte Abhandlung ist von Poisson.

¶ 23. (pp.79-81).

$$P_{\nu} \equiv Y_1 \sin \frac{\varpi}{2m} + Y_2 \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + Y_3 \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + \dots + Y_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m}$$

$$Q_{\nu} \equiv V_1 \sin \frac{\varpi}{2m} + V_2 \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + V_3 \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + \dots + V_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m}$$

$$y_1 \sin \frac{\varpi}{2m} + y_2 \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + y_3 \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + \dots + y_n \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m}$$
$$= P_{\nu} \cos \left(2t\sqrt{e}\sin \frac{\nu\varpi}{4m}\right) + \frac{Q_{\nu} \sin \left(2t\sqrt{e}\sin \frac{\nu\varpi}{4m}\right)}{2\sqrt{e}\frac{\nu\varpi}{4m}} \equiv S_{\nu}$$

4.2. Transfer array by Lagrange.

$$y_{1} \sin \frac{\varpi}{2m} + y_{2} \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + y_{3} \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + \dots + y_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} = S_{1}$$

$$y_{1} \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + y_{2} \sin \frac{4\varpi}{2m} + y_{3} \sin \frac{6\varpi}{2m} + \dots + y_{m-1} \sin \frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} = S_{2}$$

$$y_{1} \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + y_{2} \sin \frac{6\varpi}{2m} + y_{3} \sin \frac{9\varpi}{2m} + \dots + y_{m-1} \sin \frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} = S_{3}$$

$$\dots \dots \dots \dots$$

$$y_{1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} + y_{2} \sin \frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} + y_{3} \sin \frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} + \dots + y_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)^{2}\varpi}{2m} = S_{m-1}$$

Here, we can show with a today's style of $(m-1) \times (m-1)$ transform matrix :²⁹

$$\begin{bmatrix} S_1 \\ S_2 \\ S_3 \\ \vdots \\ S_{m-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sin\frac{\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{2\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{3\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & \sin\frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \\ \sin\frac{2\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{4\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{6\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & \sin\frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \\ \sin\frac{3\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{6\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{9\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & \sin\frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \\ \cdots & & & & \vdots \\ \sin\frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} & \sin\frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & \sin\frac{(m-1)^2\varpi}{2m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_{m-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(9)

Lagrange continues as follows: It must now, by the ordinary rules, substitute the values of unknown with an equation in the other successively, to reach to one which contains no more than only one of these variables; however, it is clear to see if we take this manner, we will fail in the unpractical calculus by reason of undetermined number of equation and unknowns; it is necessary, therefore, to take another route: this is one which seems to us to be the best. We show the Lagrange's bibliography [26] adding our comments to understand easily as possible, with \P : the article number and pages of it, in the following:

²⁹Lagrange didn't use the transform-matrix symbol, but mine. cf. Poisson's expression (31).

¶ 24. (pp.81-82).

We assume $D_1 = 1$

$$y_{1} \left[D_{1} \sin \frac{\varpi}{2m} + D_{2} \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + D_{3} \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \right]$$

$$+ y_{2} \left[D_{1} \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + D_{2} \sin \frac{4\varpi}{2m} + D_{3} \sin \frac{6\varpi}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \right]$$

$$+ y_{3} \left[D_{1} \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + D_{2} \sin \frac{6\varpi}{2m} + D_{3} \sin \frac{9\varpi}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \right]$$

$$+ \dots \dots \dots$$

$$+ y_{m-1} \left[D_{1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} + D_{2} \sin \frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} + D_{3} \sin \frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)^{2}\varpi}{2m} \right]$$

$$= D_{1}S_{1} + D_{2}S_{2} + D_{3}S_{3} + \dots + D_{m-1}S_{m-1}$$

That is,

$$\begin{bmatrix}
D_1 D_2 D_3 \cdots D_{m-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
S_1 \\
S_2 \\
S_3 \\
\vdots \\
S_{m-1}
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix}
D_1 \sin \frac{\varpi}{2m} & D_2 \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} & D_3 \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \\
D_1 \sin \frac{2\varpi}{2m} & D_2 \sin \frac{4\varpi}{2m} & D_3 \sin \frac{6\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & D_{m-1} \sin \frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \\
D_1 \sin \frac{3\varpi}{2m} & D_2 \sin \frac{6\varpi}{2m} & D_3 \sin \frac{9\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & D_{m-1} \sin \frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} \\
\vdots \\
D_1 \sin \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} D_2 \sin \frac{2(m-1)\varpi}{2m} D_3 \sin \frac{3(m-1)\varpi}{2m} & \cdots & D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)^2\varpi}{2m}
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
y_1 \\
y_2 \\
y_3 \\
\vdots \\
y_{m-1}
\end{bmatrix} (10)$$

In general, we may state as follows: ³⁰

$$y_{\mu} \left[D_{1} \sin \frac{\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + D_{2} \sin \frac{2\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + D_{3} \sin \frac{3\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} \right]$$

$$= D_{1} S_{1} + D_{2} S_{2} + D_{3} S_{3} + \dots + D_{m-1} S_{m-1}, \tag{11}$$

Generally speaking,

$$D_1 \sin \frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2m} + D_2 \sin \frac{2\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2m} + D_3 \sin \frac{3\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2m} = 0,$$

where, for $0 \le \lambda \le m-1$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}$.

¶ 25. (p.82).

To deduce the values of the quantities D from this equation, I remark at first all sins of a multiple angle reduces to a series of integer power and positives of cosine of simple angle, which the largest exponential is equal to the number which I denote the multiple decreasing by 1, all the series being still multiplied by the sin of the simple angles. Therefore,

- if we develop from this manner, all the sins of multiple angle of $\frac{\lambda \varpi}{2m}$ and
 - which we divide the equation with $\sin \frac{\lambda \omega}{2m}$

then we reach another equation, which will contain only the power of $\cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}$, and which will be m-2 in degree; from here, it follows that by regarding $\cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}$ as the unknown of this equation, these roots are

$$\cos \frac{\varpi}{2m}, \quad \cos \frac{2\varpi}{2m}, \quad \cos \frac{3\varpi}{2m}, \quad \cdots, \quad \cos \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m}$$

³⁰Dirichlet also uses the same style of expression with (11). cf. [42, p.249 (90)].

except for $\cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m}$.

As the result, all the equations are only the continue products of factors :

$$A - \cos\frac{\varpi}{2m}$$
, $A - \cos\frac{2\varpi}{2m}$, $A - \cos\frac{3\varpi}{2m}$, \cdots , $A - \cos\frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m}$

where, $A \equiv \cos \frac{\lambda \omega}{2m}$, and omitting the middle term : $A - \cos \frac{\mu \omega}{2m}$. Hence, if L is a constant, then

$$\sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}\Big[D_1\sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m} + D_2\sin\frac{2\lambda\varpi}{2m} + D_3\sin\frac{3\lambda\varpi}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1}\sin\frac{(m-1)\lambda\varpi}{2m}\Big]$$

$$= L\Big(A - \cos\frac{\varpi}{2m}\Big)\Big(A - \cos\frac{2\varpi}{2m}\Big)\Big(A - \cos\frac{3\varpi}{2m}\Big) \dots \Big(A - \cos\frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m}\Big)$$
(12)

¶ 25. (p.83.) (This step corresponds to S6 in the Table 3.)

According to the theorem, cited by R.Cotes, we consider the followings: ³¹

$$p^{2m} - q^{2m} = (p^2 - q^2) \left(p^2 - 2pq \cos \frac{\varpi}{2m} + q^2 \right) \left(p^2 - 2pq \cos \frac{2\varpi}{2m} + q^2 \right) \left(p^2 - 2pq \cos \frac{3\varpi}{2m} + q^2 \right) \cdots \left(p^2 - 2pq \cos \frac{(m-1)\varpi}{2m} + q^2 \right)$$
(13)

$$p^2 + q^2 \equiv \cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}, \quad 2pq \equiv 1,$$
 (14)

$$p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1 + \cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m} = 2\cos^2\frac{\lambda\varpi}{4m}, \quad p^2 - 2pq + q^2 = \cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m} - 1 = -2\sin^2\frac{\lambda\varpi}{4m}$$

$$p+q = \pm\sqrt{2}\Big(\cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}\Big), \quad p-q = \pm\sqrt{2}\Big(\sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}\Big)\sqrt{-1}$$

$$p = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} + \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} \sqrt{-1} \right), \quad q = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} - \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} \sqrt{-1} \right)$$

$$p^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{4m} + \sin \frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{4m} \sqrt{-1} \right)^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2m} + \sin \frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2m} \sqrt{-1} \right)$$
 (15)

$$q^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} - \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} \sqrt{-1} \right)^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2m} - \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2m} \sqrt{-1} \right)$$
 (16)

(15)-(16):

$$p^2 - q^2 = \sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}\sqrt{-1}$$

Similarly,

$$p^{2m} = 2^{-m} \left(\cos\frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{4m} + \sin\frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{4m} \sqrt{-1}\right)^{2m} = 2^{-m} \left(\cos\frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2} + \sin\frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2} \sqrt{-1}\right)$$
(17)

$$q^{2m} = 2^{-m} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} - \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{4m} \sqrt{-1} \right)^{2m} = 2^{-m} \left(\cos \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2} - \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2} \sqrt{-1} \right)$$
 (18)

(17)-(18):

$$p^{2m} - q^{2m} = 2^{1-m} \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2} \sqrt{-1} \tag{19}$$

Using (14) and dividing (19) with $(p^2-q^2)\left(p^2-2pq\cos\frac{\mu\omega}{2m}+q^2\right)$, then we get the right hand-side of (13) except for the first and middle μ -th factor :

$$\frac{\sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2}}{2^{m-1}\sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}\left(\cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m} - \cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m}\right)}$$

 $^{^{31}(\}Downarrow)$ (1682-1716).

Namely,

$$D_1 \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2m} + D_2 \sin \frac{2\lambda \varpi}{2m} + D_3 \sin \frac{3\lambda \varpi}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\lambda \varpi}{2m} = \frac{L}{2^{m-1}} \frac{\sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2}}{\left(\cos \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2m} - \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m}\right)}$$
(20)

¶ 25. (pp.84-85).

- we multiply all the equation by cos λω/2m cos μω/2m, and
 after having reduced the products of sins by cosines with simple sins, we compare with

then, we will get the values to seek of the undetermined quantities: D. To make this operation more easily, we should begin with to multiply the sequence that forms the left hand-side of the equation connected by $2\cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}$;

- by developing every individual product, and
- by ordering the terms,

then, it turns into:

$$D_2 \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2m} + (D_3 - D_1) \sin \frac{2\lambda \varpi}{2m} + (D_4 - D_2) \sin \frac{3\lambda \varpi}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\lambda \varpi}{2m} + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2}$$
(21)
Next, if

- we multiplying the same series (20) with $2\cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m}$, and
- we subtract this series of product from (21)

then we get:

$$\left(D_2 - 2D_1 \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m}\right) \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2m} + \left(D_3 - 2D_2 \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + D_1\right) \sin \frac{2\lambda \varpi}{2m} + \left(D_4 - 2D_3 \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + D_2\right) \sin \frac{3\lambda \varpi}{2m} + \dots + \left(-2D_{m-1} \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + D_{m-2}\right) \sin \frac{(m-1)\lambda \varpi}{2m} + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2} = \frac{L}{2^{m-1}} \sin \frac{\lambda \varpi}{2}$$

$$D_2 - 2D_1 \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} = 0$$
, $D_3 - 2D_2 \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + D_1 = 0$, $D_4 - 2D_3 \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + D_2 = 0$, \cdots , $-2D_{m-1} \cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + D_{m-2} = 0$, $D_{m-1} = \frac{L}{2^{m-1}}$.

From here, we have to get the value of D.

¶ 25. (pp.85-86).

It is clear that the quantity D constitute a recursive progression, which begins with the bottom, it is as follows:

$$D_m = 0$$
, $D_{m-1} = \frac{L}{2^{m-1}}$, $D_{m-2} = 2D_{m-1}\cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m} - D_m$, $D_{m-3} = 2D_{m-2}\cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m} - D_{m-1}$, ...
$$D_{m-n} = Aa^n + Bb^n$$

where, a and b are the roots of the quadratic :

$$z^2 - 2z\cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m} + 1 = 0$$

To solve the coefficients A and B, we assume n = 0, m = 1.

$$A + B = 0, \quad Aa + Bb = \frac{L}{2^{m-2}}$$

$$B = -A, \quad A = \frac{L}{2^{m-2}(a-b)}, \quad B = -\frac{L}{2^{m-2}(a-b)}$$

$$D_{m-n} = \frac{L}{2^{m-2}} \frac{a^n - b^n}{a - b}$$

$$\frac{a^n - b^n}{a - b} = \frac{2^{m-2}}{L} D_{m-n} = \frac{\sin \frac{n\mu\varpi}{2m}}{\sin \frac{\mu\varpi}{2m}}$$

¶ 25. (p.87).

From here,

$$D_{m-n} = L2^{2-m} \frac{\sin \frac{n\mu\varpi}{2m}}{\sin \frac{\mu\varpi}{2m}}$$

For convenience sake, we assume m - n = s, then

$$D_s = \frac{L}{2^{m-2}} \sin \frac{(m-s)\mu \varpi}{2m} / \sin \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m}$$

However,

$$\sin(m-s)\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m} = \sin\left(\frac{\mu\varpi}{2} - \frac{s\mu\varpi}{2m}\right) = \pm\sin\frac{s\mu\varpi}{2m}, \quad m, s, \mu \in \mathbb{Z}$$

where,

$$\begin{cases} + \mod(\mu, 2) = 1, \\ - \mod(\mu, 2) = 0 \end{cases}$$

Assuming L: const, then

$$D_s = \pm \left(\frac{L}{2^{m-2}}\right) \sin \frac{s\mu\varpi}{\sin} / \sin \frac{\mu\varpi}{2m}$$

¶ 26. (p.87)

$$y_{\mu} \left[D_1 \sin \frac{\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + D_2 \sin \frac{2\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + D_3 \sin \frac{3\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + \dots + D_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} \right]$$

$$= \pm \frac{L}{2^{m-2} \sin \frac{\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m}} \left[S_1 \sin \frac{\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + S_2 \sin \frac{2\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + S_3 \sin \frac{3\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} + \dots + S_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m} \right]$$
(22)

We put the value of the bracket in the left hand-side of (22) by Y. From the observation in \P 25, Y turns into :

$$Y = \frac{L}{2^{m-1}} \frac{\sin \frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2}}{\cos \frac{\lambda \overline{\omega}}{2m} - \cos \frac{\mu \overline{\omega}}{2m}}$$

¶ 26. (pp.88-89.)

Here, if we assume $\lambda = \mu$, then

$$Y = \frac{L}{2^{m-1}} \frac{\sin\frac{\mu\varpi}{2}}{\cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m} - \cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m}}$$
 (23)

By $\sin \frac{\mu \varpi}{2} = 0$, Y turns into $\frac{L}{2^{m-1}} \frac{0}{0}$. To seek this exact value of the last factor, we differentiate the last factor of (23):

$$\frac{\sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2}}{\cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m} - \cos\frac{\mu\varpi}{2m}}$$

then

$$\frac{m\cos\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2}}{-\sin\frac{\lambda\varpi}{2m}}$$

Considering $\mu \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\cos \frac{\mu \varpi}{2} = \pm 1$, where,

$$\begin{cases} + \mod(\mu, 2) = 0, \\ - \mod(\mu, 2) = 1 \end{cases}$$

Table 3. The expressions of deductive steps into trigonometric series in our paper

no	steps	Lagrange	Fourier manuscript	Poisson extract	Fourier prize paper	Fourier 2nd edition	Poisson	Dirichlet	Riemann
1	bibliography year	[26]1759, [30]1762-65	[22]1807	[47]1808	[22]1811	[6]1822	[54]1823	[10]1837	[77]1867
2	arbitrary function by trigonometric series : $f(x) =$	(25)				cf.[42]	(30)		cf.[42]
3	transfer array	§ 4.2				cf.[42]	§ 5.1.1	cf.[42]	
4	transfer matrix(mine)	(9)				cf.[42]	(31)	cf.[42]	
5	$\frac{1}{2}$ multiply $\frac{1}{2}$ sin * and sum	(12)					(32)	cf.[42]	
6	difference of term by term	¶25-26, pp.83-89					(33)-(34)	cf.[42]	
7	general coefficient expression 1	(11)						cf.[42]	
8	general coefficient expression 2	(24)				cf.[42]	(35)	cf.[42]	
9	coefficient a_n , b_n by integral	(26)				cf.[42]	(36)	cf.[42]	
10	expression by integral	(27)=(8)				cf.[42]			
11	expression by sum	cf.[42] by Freeman	cf.[42]						
12	final expression	(27)=(8)	cf.[42]			cf.[42]	(36)	cf.[42]	

then

$$Y = \frac{L}{2^{m-1}} \, \frac{m}{\sin \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m}}$$

Hence, (13) turns into:

$$\pm y_{\mu} \frac{Lm}{2^{m-1}} = \pm \frac{L}{2^{m-2}} \left[S_1 \sin \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + S_2 \sin \frac{2\mu \varpi}{2m} + S_3 \sin \frac{3\mu \varpi}{2m} + \dots + S_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\mu \varpi}{2m} \right]$$

Finally, Lagrange gets the coefficient y_{μ} :

$$y_{\mu} = \frac{2}{m} \left[S_1 \sin \frac{\mu \varpi}{2m} + S_2 \sin \frac{2\mu \varpi}{2m} + S_3 \sin \frac{3\mu \varpi}{2m} + \dots + S_{m-1} \sin \frac{(m-1)\mu \varpi}{2m} \right]$$
(24)

[26, ¶23-26, pp.79-89]

The above mentioned Lagrange's long steps ($\P25-26$, pp.79-89) correspond to Poisson's only few steps: (32)-(33)-(34) or Dirichlet's one. 32

Lagrange states the next steps of deduction of integral in the next section 4.3.

4.3. Solution de différents problèmes de calcul intégral. Des vibrations d'une corde tendue et changée d'un nombre quelconque de poids by Lagrange [30], 1762-65.

We can see *Miscellanea Taurinensia*, *III*, which Poisson and Riemann cite as the alledged 'original' trigonometric series (8), that is, (27).

 \P 40. (The *n*-body model of the sonic cord.)

Supposons présentement que le nombre n des corps soit très grand, et que, par conséquent, la distance a d'un corps à l'autre soit très-petit, la longeur de toute

 $^{^{32}}$ cf Dirichlet's (90)-(91) in [42], which seems Dirichlet obeyed Poisson's mathematical sense. [42, p.249]

la corde étant égale à 1 ; il est clair que les différences $\Delta^2 Y$, $\Delta^4 Y$, \cdots deviendront très-petite du second ordre, du quatrième, \cdots ; donc, puisque $k=\sqrt{\frac{nc^2}{a}}=\frac{c}{a}$, à cause de $n=\frac{1}{a}$, les quantités $k\Delta^2 Y$, $k\Delta^4 Y$, $k^2\Delta^6 Y$, \cdots seront très-petite du second ordre, du quatrième, \cdots ; et par conséquent les quantités P et Q pourront être regardées et traitées comme nulles sans erreur sensible.

Ainsi, dans cette hypothèse, on aura à très-peu près le mouvement de la corde, en faisant passer par les sommets des ordonnées très-proches Y', Y'', Y''', \cdots , lesquelles représentent la figure initial du polygone vibrant, une courbe dont l'équation sont

$$y = \alpha \sin \pi x + \beta \sin 2\pi x + \gamma \sin 3\pi x + \dots + \omega \sin n\pi x, \tag{25}$$

et que j'appellerai $g\acute{e}n\acute{e}ratrice$, et prenant ensuit pour l'ordonnée du polygone vibrant, qui répond à une abscisse quelconque $\frac{s}{n+1}=x$, la demi-somme de deux ordonnées de cette courbe, desquelle l'une réponde à l'abscisse $\frac{s+kt}{n+1}=x+ct$, et l'autrer éponde à l'abscisse $\frac{s-kt}{n+1}=x-ct$; et cette détermination sera toujours d'autant plus exacte que le nombre n sera plus grand. Or il est évident que plus le nombre des poids est grand, plus le polygone initial doit s'approcher de la courbe circonscrite ; d'où il s'ensuit qu'en supposant le nombre des poids infini, ce qui est le cas de la corde vibrante, on pourra regarder la figure initiale même de la corde comme une branche de la courbe génératrice, et qu'ainsi pour avoir cette courbe il n'y aura qu'à transporter la coubre initial alternativement au-desus et au-dessus de l'axe à l'infini (numéro précédent). [30, ¶ 40, p.551-2]

¶ 41. (Deduction of trigonometric series and its coefficients.)

Pour confirmer ce que je viens de dire, je vais faire voir comment on peut trouver une infinité de telles courbes, qui coincident avec une courbe donnée en un nombre quelconque de poids aussi près les uns des autres qu'on voudra. Pour cela je prends l'équation

$$y = \frac{2Y_1}{n+1}\sin x\pi + \frac{2Y_2}{n+1}\sin 2x\pi + \frac{2Y_3}{n+1}\sin 3x\pi + \dots + \frac{2Y_n}{n+1}\sin nx\pi$$

et, par ce que j'ai démontré dans le nº 39, j'aurai, lorsque $x = \frac{s}{n+1}$, $y = Y^{(')}$. Soient maintenant $n+1 = \frac{1}{dX}$, $\frac{s}{n+1} = X$, on aura

$$y_m = \int Y \sin mX\pi = (n+1) \int Y \sin mX\pi dX, \tag{26}$$

cette intégral étant prise depuis X=0 jusqu'à X=1 ; par conséquent

$$y = 2 \int Y \sin X \pi dX \sin x \pi + 2 \int Y \sin 2X \pi dX \sin 2x \pi + 2 \int Y \sin 3x \pi \sin 3x \pi + \cdots$$
$$+ 2 \int Y \sin nX \pi dX \sin nx \pi$$
(27)

de sorte que, lorsque x=X, on aura y=Y, Y étant l'ordonné qui réspond à l'sbscisse X.

 $[30, \P 41, p.553]$ Lagrange's (9), (24) and (27) corresponds with Poisson's (31), (35) respectively.

About the trigonometric series, Poisson doesn't talk proudly a little about his conciseness and superiority to Lagrange, but appreciates as the first study of this sort. Comparing Euler, Laplace and Fourier with Lagrange, we must consider the Poisson's pure respect for Lagrange or mentorship. We dare to comment that this is the 20 years difference of career between the

Table 4. The bibliographies relating to Poisson's integral theories. Remark. \Rightarrow means the author, to whom Poisson refers, refers to anyone.

no	bibliography, date published	contents, series no	Euler	Lagrange	Laplace	Legendre	Lacroix	Fourier
1	[45], Mémoire sur les solutions particulières des équations différentielles et des équations aux différences, 1806	solution of differential equations and differences equations	p.61	Vol. V (12 cahier, p.202) etc.	1772	1790		
2	[46], Mémoire sur les Équations aux Différences mêlées, 1806	mixed differences equations	1764		1773, 1779	1787	[25], 1800	
3	[49], Sur les intégrales définies, 1811	definite integral	p.249		[?], 1782 ⇒[12]			
4	[50], Mémoire sur les intégrales définies, 1813	definite integral No.1	p.215 [12] 1781		[35],1809 $\Rightarrow [46]$	[38], 1811	[25], 1800	
5	[51], Suite du Mémoire sur les intégrales définies, imprimé dans le volume précédent de ce Journal, 1815	definite integral No.2						
6	[52], Mémoire sur l'intégration de quelques équations linéaires aux différences partielles, et particulièrement de l'équation générale du mouvement des fluides élastiques, 1818	integral of PDE	Turin II		1779	1818		
7	[53], Suite du Mémoire sur les Intégrales définies, Inséré dans les duex précédens volumes de ce Journal, 1820	definite integral No.3						
8	[58], Suite du Mémoire sur les Intégrales définies et sur la Sommation des Séries, 1823	definite integral No.4 and trigonometric series		p.448 [28],1761-2, [30],1763-5				p.448,[47] p.455,[18], [14, p.466], $1822 \Rightarrow [45]$
9	[75], Note sur l'integration des Équations linéaires Différ- entielles partielles, 1838	integral of PDE add. to 1818						

pioneering study by Lagrange at the age of 23 years old in 1759^{33} and the work at Poisson's 43 years old in 1823. Fourier issues the manuscript of his main work at the age of 39 years in 1807. So, we think such a comparison is a meaningless argument. To Lagrange's works of trigonometric series, we need to pay more attention, as Poisson, Liouville, et al. do it.

We can observe each sequential steps to deduce the trigonometric series by the Table 3, which tells each meticulousness. cf. more completely, [42, p.205].

5. Poisson's integral theories and preceding works. (LFPD)

Poisson issues the two papers [45] and [46] on the solution of differential or difference equation or its mixed-differences equations. Following these, he discusses the integral define in series of [49], [50], [51], [53] and [58]. Poisson uses Euler and Laplace as the precedings for his study. On the other hand, we think, Lagrange's works are explained as the 'precice' and 'complete' works, except for on the proof of coversion in the trigonometric series. We discuss these problem in our paper, § 6.1 and about the exact differential in our paper, § 7.1. cf. Table 1.

 $^{^{33}\}mathrm{Grattan\text{-}Guinness}$ puts Lagrange's year as 24 years old. cf. [22, p.247].

Table 5. Poisson's viewpoint of the preceding studies of integral problems.

no	title, published year	Euler	Laplace
	[45], Mémoire sur les		
	solutions particulières		
1	des équations différen-	p.61	1772
	tielles et des équations		
	aux différences, 1806		
2	[46], Mémoire sur les É quations aux Différences mêlées, 1806	Parmi tous les problémes de géometrie que l'on a résolus par des considérations particulières, et qui étant mis directment en équation, conduisent aux différences mêlées, nous avons choisi le suivant, dont <i>Euler</i> a donné une solution différente de la nôtre, mais qui conduit au même résultat. (<i>Voyes</i> les Mémoires de Pétersbourg, année 1764, page 135.) [46, p.146]	M. Laplace a aussi traité quelques équations (Mémoires de l'Academie, année 1779, page 302), dans lesquelles les différentielles et les différences se rapportent à de variables différentes; mais personne encore n'a donné l'intégrale complète d'une équation aux différences mêlées proprement dite, dans le cas où les différentielles et les diffénces se raportent à la même variable. [46, p.126]
3	[49], Sur les intégrales définies, 1811	p.249	Dans le 15 ^e cahier du Journal de l'Ecole polytechnique, M. Laplace donné des intégrales définies de différentiets formules qui continnent des sinus et cosinus. Il les a déduites des intégrales des exponentielles, par une sorte d'induction fondée sur le passage des quantités reélles aux imaginairais. Nous nous proposons ici de généraliser ces résultats, et d'y parvenir directment par la considération des intégrales multiples dont M. Laplace s'est déja servi dans une article de son mémoire sur les Fonctions de grandes nombres (Académie des Sciences de Paris, année 1782, page 11); et pour réunir sous un même point de vue ce qu'on a trouvé de plus général jusqu'a présent sur les intégrales définies, nous commenceons par nous occuper de celles qui rénferment des exponentielles. [49, pp.243-4]
4	[50], Mémoire sur les intégrales définies, 1813	Lorsqu'une intégrale, prise entre des limites données, renferme une constante qui n'a pas reçu une valeur déterminée, on peut, en differentiant sous la signe ∫ par rapport à cette constante, éliminer l'integrale, et parvenir à une équation différentielle qui ne contient plus. Si cette équation est intégrable par les méthodes connues, elle peut servir de à déterminer la valeur de intégrale définie ; si au contraire, elle ne l'est pas, c'est alors l'intégrale définie qui sert à représenter l'intégrale de cette équation. Euler a donné, dans la Calcul Integral, plusieur examples du second de ces deux cas ; mais il n'a pas considéré nulle part le premier, qui parait cependent d'une plus grande importance. Nous en avons fait l'objet supecial, de ce mémoire, dans lequel nous allons traites différentes espèces d'intégrale définies qui conduisent à des équations différentielles intégrables. [50, p.215] [12], 1781	[35],1809 ⇒ $[46]$

Table 6. The citations in the bibliographies of Poisson's integral and PDE theories.

no	bibliography, date published	contents, series no	Euler	Lagrange	Laplace	Legendre	Lacroix	Fourier	et al.
1	[45], Mémoire sur les solutions particulières des équations différentielles et des équations aux différences, 1806	solution of differential equations and differences equations	2	5	4	1			
2	[46], Mémoire sur les Équations aux Différences mêlées, 1806	mixed differences equations	1		3				
3	[49], Sur les intégrales définies, 1811	definite integral	1		1				
4	[50], Mémoire sur les intégrales définies, 1813	definite integral No.1	7		2	1	1		
5	[51], Suite du Mémoire sur les intégrales définies, imprimé dans le volume précédent de ce Journal, 1815	definite integral No.2	1			1			
6	[52], Mémoire sur l'intégration de quelques équations linéaires aux différences partielles, et particulièrement de l'équation générale du mouvement des fluides élastiques, 1818	integral of PDE	1	1	3	1	1	1	Parseval(1) Cauchy(1) Brisson(1)
7	[53], Suite du Mémoire sur les Intégrales définies, Inséré dans les duex précédens volumes de ce Journal, 1820	definite integral No.3	6	1		1	1		
8	[58], Suite du Mémoire sur les Intégrales définies et sur la Sommation des Séries, 1823	definite integral No.4 and trigonometric series	7	5	4	4		2	Cauchy(1)
9	[54], Mémoire sur la Distribution de la Chaleur dans les Corps solides, 1823	heat theory No.1		1	4				
10	[?], Nouvelle théorie de l'action capillaire, 1831	integral in capillary action	1		19				
	[75], Note sur l'integration des Équations linéaires Différ- entielles partielles, 1838	integral of PDE add. to 1818							
12	total of citation		27	13	40	9	3	3	

5.1. Suite du Mémoire sur les intégrales définies et sur la sommation des séries, by Poisson [58], 1823.

Poisson has observed the problems on the definite integral during 12 years of 1811-23 in the series: [49], [50], [51], [53], and finally, [58].

5.1.1. Expression des Fonctions par des Séries de Quantités périodiques. ¶58. (pp.435-8).

$$(b)_{P} \quad fx = \frac{1}{2l} \int_{-l}^{l} fx' \, dx' + \frac{1}{l} \int_{-l}^{l} \left[\sum_{l} \cos \frac{n\pi(x - x')}{l} \right] fx' \, dx'$$

$$(f)_P \quad fx = \frac{1}{l} \int_0^l fx' \, dx' + \frac{2}{l} \int_0^l \left[\sum_{2\pi} \cos \frac{n\pi x}{l} \cos \frac{n\pi x'}{l} \right] fx' \, dx'$$

$$(g)_{P} fx = \frac{2}{l} \int_{0}^{l} \left[\sum \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} \sin \frac{n\pi x'}{l} \right] fx' dx'$$

$$fx = \frac{1}{4l} \int_{-l}^{l} fx' dx' + \frac{1}{2l} \int_{-l}^{l} \left[\sum \cos \frac{n\pi (x - x')}{2l} \right] fx' dx'$$
(28)

We divide the second term of the right-hand side of (28) into even and odd part, then

$$fx = \frac{1}{4l} \int_{-l}^{l} fx' \ dx' + \frac{1}{2l} \int_{-l}^{l} \left[\sum \cos \frac{n\pi(x-x')}{l} \right] fx' \ dx' + \frac{1}{2l} \int_{-l}^{l} \left[\sum \cos \frac{(2n-1)\pi(x-x')}{2l} \right] fx' \ dx' \ (29)$$

Multiplying (29) with 2 and subtract with $(b)_P$, then

$$fx = \frac{1}{l} \int_{-l}^{l} \left[\sum \cos \frac{(2n-1)\pi(x-x')}{2l} \right] fx' \ dx'$$

¶62. (pp.444-9). The integral known facts reduced to Lagrange's.

We suppose $n > 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$, $f(\frac{m}{n+1}) = y_m$, $m = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$. We state n equations:

$$(i)_P \quad y = Y_1 \sin \pi x + Y_2 \sin 2\pi x + Y_3 \sin 3\pi x + \dots + Y_n \sin n\pi x$$
 (30)

5.1.1. Transfer array by Poisson.

ransfer array by Poisson.
$$y_1 = Y_1 \sin \frac{\pi}{n+1} + Y_2 \sin \frac{2\pi}{n+1} + Y_3 \sin \frac{3\pi}{n+1} + \dots + Y_n \sin \frac{\pi n}{n+1}$$

$$y_2 = Y_1 \sin \frac{2\pi}{n+1} + Y_2 \sin \frac{4\pi}{n+1} + Y_3 \sin \frac{6\pi}{n+1} + \dots + Y_n \sin \frac{2\pi n}{n+1}$$

$$y_3 = Y_1 \sin \frac{3\pi}{n+1} + Y_2 \sin \frac{6\pi}{n+1} + Y_3 \sin \frac{9\pi}{n+1} + \dots + Y_n \sin \frac{3\pi n}{n+1}$$

$$\dots \dots \dots$$

$$y_n = Y_1 \sin \frac{\pi n}{n+1} + Y_2 \sin \frac{2\pi n}{n+1} + Y_3 \sin \frac{3\pi n}{n+1} + \dots + Y_n \sin \frac{\pi n^2}{n+1}$$

Now, we can show with a today's style of $(n \times n)$ transform matrix :34

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sin\frac{\pi}{n+1} & \sin\frac{2\pi}{n+1} & \sin\frac{3\pi}{n+1} & \cdots & \sin\frac{\pi n}{n+1} \\ \sin\frac{2\pi}{n+1} & \sin\frac{4\pi}{n+1} & \sin\frac{6\pi}{n+1} & \cdots & \sin\frac{2\pi n}{n+1} \\ \sin\frac{3\pi}{n+1} & \sin\frac{6\pi}{n+1} & \sin\frac{9\pi}{n+1} & \cdots & \sin\frac{3\pi n}{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ Y_3 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}$$
(31)

Multiplying with $2\sin\frac{\pi m}{n+1}$, $2\sin\frac{2\pi m}{n+1}$, $2\sin\frac{3\pi m}{n+1}$, \cdots , $2\sin\frac{n\pi m}{n+1}$, then the coefficient $Y_{m'}$, where $m'\neq m$, is as follows:

$$2\sin\frac{\pi m'}{n+1}\sin\frac{\pi m}{n+1} + 2\sin\frac{2\pi m'}{n+1}\sin\frac{2\pi m}{n+1} + 2\sin\frac{3\pi m'}{n+1}\sin\frac{3\pi m}{n+1} + \dots + 2\sin\frac{n\pi m'}{n+1}\sin\frac{n\pi m}{n+1}, (32)$$

This is the difference in term by term of two sums (33) and (34):

$$1 + \cos\frac{\pi(m'-m)}{n+1} + \cos\frac{2\pi(m'-m)}{n+1} + \cos\frac{3\pi(m'-m)}{n+1} + \cdots + \cos\frac{n\pi(m'-m)}{n+1},$$
 (33)

$$1 + \cos\frac{\pi(m'+m)}{n+1} + \cos\frac{2\pi(m'+m)}{n+1} + \cos\frac{3\pi(m'+m)}{n+1} + \cdots + \cos\frac{n\pi(m'+m)}{n+1},$$
 (34)

³⁴Poisson doesn't use the transform-matrix symbol, but mine.

$$\begin{cases} (33) = \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos(m' - m)\pi] = 1, & (34) = \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos(m' + m)\pi] = 1, & m' \neq m, & m', \ m \in \mathbb{Z}, \\ (33) = n + 1, & (34) = \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos\ 2m\pi] = 0, & m' = m, & m', \ m \in \mathbb{Z} \end{cases}$$

If $m' \neq m$, the difference is zero, if m' = m, (33) - (34) = n + 1. Then we must divide Y_m by n + 1:

$$Y_m = \frac{2}{n+1} \left(y_1 \sin \frac{\pi m}{n+1} + y_2 \sin \frac{2\pi m}{n+1} + y_3 \sin \frac{3\pi m}{n+1} + \dots + y_n \sin \frac{n\pi m}{n+1} \right)$$
(35)

that is

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ Y_3 \\ \vdots \\ Y_m \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\frac{2}{n+1}}_{n+1} \begin{bmatrix} \sin \frac{\pi}{n+1} & \sin \frac{2\pi}{n+1} & \sin \frac{3\pi}{n+1} & \cdots & \sin \frac{\pi n}{n+1} \\ \sin \frac{2\pi}{n+1} & \sin \frac{4\pi}{n+1} & \sin \frac{6\pi}{n+1} & \cdots & \sin \frac{2\pi n}{n+1} \\ \sin \frac{3\pi}{n+1} & \sin \frac{6\pi}{n+1} & \sin \frac{9\pi}{n+1} & \cdots & \sin \frac{3\pi n}{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ \sin \frac{\pi n}{n+1} & \sin \frac{2\pi n}{n+1} & \sin \frac{3\pi n}{n+1} & \cdots & \sin \frac{n\pi m}{n+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Here, Poisson explains the exchange the sum of Y_m with the integral \int_0^1 by a special technique of interpolation.

Les coefficiens $Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, \cdots, Y_n$, étant ainsi déterminés, la formule $(i)_P$ coïncidera avec la fonction fx,

- pour toutes les valeurs de x contenues depuis x=0 jusqu'à x=1, et qui sont des multiples exacts de la fraction $\frac{1}{n+1}$;
- ullet et pour les autres valeurs de x comprises dans le même intervalle, on devra la regarder comme une formule d'interpolation d'une espèce particulière, qui pourra servir à calculer les valeurs approchées de fx, quand la forme de cette fonction ne sera pas connus. Si l'on construit deux coubres qui aient x et y pour coordonées, dont
 - l'une ait y = fx pour équation,
 - et l'autre l'équation $(i)_P$,

ces deux coubres couperont l'axe des abscisses x aux deux points correspondans à x=0 et x=1; et dans l'intervalle compris entre ces deux points, elles auront un nombre n de points communs, dont les projections sur l'axe des x seront équidistantes. Ce resultat subsistera, quelque grand qu'on suppose le nombres n; à mesure que ce nombre augmentera, les points communs aux deux coubres se rapprocheront ; et à la limite $n=\infty$, ces deux coubres coëncideront parfaitement dans toute la portion comprise depuis x=0 jusqu'à x=1. Or, à cette limite, la somme qui exprime la valeur de Y_m se changera en une integrale définie ; [58, pp.446-7]

If we suppose $\frac{m'}{n+1} = x'$, $\frac{1}{n+1} = dx'$, and $y_{m'} = fx'$, then ³⁶

$$Y_m = 2 \int_0^1 \sin m\pi x' \cdot fx' dx', \quad m > 0, \in \mathbb{Z}$$

We extend $(i)_P$ to the infinite and replace y with fx, then

$$fx = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} Y_m \sin m\pi x = 2\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left(\int_0^1 \sin m\pi x' \cdot fx' dx' \right) \sin m\pi x, \quad m > 0, \in \mathbb{Z}$$
 (36)

This statement corresponds with $(g)_P$, by assuming l=1 and replacing the order of simbol of sum \int and Σ . Therefore, this statement means the Lagrange's statement of trigonometric series, which we cite with the equation (27).

 $^{^{35}}n + 1$ comes from $1 + n \times 1$ of (33).

 $^{^{36}}fx$, fx', φx , ψx , etc. mean the then usage of f(x), f(x'), $\varphi(x)$, $\psi(x)$, etc.

La même méthod pourrait servir à démontrer directment toutes les autres formules de la même espèce ; il y a donc deux moyans de parvenir à ces formules ; celui que j'ai employé, et qui consiste à regarder la série périodique que chacune de ces expressions renferme, comme la limite d'une série convergente dont on peut avoir la somme ; et celui qui je viens d'exposer, d'après *Lagrange*, et dans lequel on coinsidère chacune de ces expressions comme la limite d'une formule d'interpolation. Les recherches de M. *Fourier* sur la distribution de la chaleur dans les corps solides, et mon premier Mémoire sur le même sujet, contiennent différents formules de cette espèce. [58, pp.447-8]

¶64. (pp.452-4). We assume $\frac{n\pi}{l} = a$, $\frac{\pi}{l} = da$, we get

$$(k)_P$$
 $fx = \frac{1}{\pi} \iint \cos a(x - x') fx' da dx' \equiv P$

$$\int_0^\infty \cos a(x - x') \ da = \int_0^\infty e^{-ka^2} \cos a(x - x') \ da = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{k}} e^{\frac{(x - x')^2}{4k}}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{k\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ka^2} fx' dx'$$

We assume x' = x + z, then

$$P = \frac{fx}{2\sqrt{k\pi}} \int e^{-ka^2} dz \quad \Rightarrow \quad P = \frac{fx}{2\sqrt{k\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ka^2} dz = fz$$

Another method:

$$\int \cos a(x-x') \ da = \frac{\sin a(x-x')}{x-x'} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin a(x-x')}{x-x'} \ fx' \ dx'$$

We assume $x' = x + \frac{z}{a}$, then

$$P = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin z}{z} f(x + \frac{z}{a}) dz \quad \Rightarrow_{a \to \infty} \quad P = \frac{1}{\pi} fx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin z}{z} dz = fx$$

¶65. (pp.454-6). We assume φx , ψx are two functions of x, such as $\varphi x = \varphi(-x)$, $\psi x = -\psi(-x)$, namely implicit and explicit functions.

$$fx = \frac{1}{\pi} \iint \cos ax \cos ax' \ fx' \ dx' + \iint \frac{1}{\pi} \sin ax \sin ax' \ fx' \ dx'$$
 (37)

$$\varphi x = \frac{1}{\pi} \iint \cos ax \cos ax' \ \varphi x' \ dx', \quad \psi x = \frac{1}{\pi} \iint \sin ax \ \sin ax' \ \psi x' \ dx'$$
 (38)

On pourra, si l'on veut, n'étandre l'equation relatives à x', que depuis x'=0 jusqu'à $x'=\infty$, et doubler le facteur $\frac{1}{\pi}$; ces formules coincideront alors avec celle que M. Fourier a données dans son premier Mémoire sur la chaleur. ³⁷ [58, p.455]

The equation $(k)_P$ is reciprocally deduced from (38), by conserving $x' = \pm \infty$, then

$$0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \iint \cos ax \cos ax' \ \psi x' \ dx', \quad 0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \iint \sin ax \sin ax' \ \varphi x' \ dx'$$
 (39)

³⁷sic. Annales de physique et de chimie, tome III,p.361.

Adding (38) and (39), we get $(k)_P$.

$$\varphi x + \psi x = \frac{1}{\pi} \iint \left(\cos ax \cos ax' \ \varphi x' \ dx' + \sin ax \sin ax' \ \varphi x' \ dx' \right)$$

$$+ \left(\sin ax \sin ax' \ \psi x' \ dx' + \cos ax \cos ax' \ \psi x' \ dx' \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \iint (\varphi x' + \psi x') \cos a(x - x') \ da \ dx' = fx$$

$$fx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \cos ax \, \cos ax' \, fx' \, dx', \quad fx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \sin ax \, \sin ax' \, fx' \, dx'$$

We can see the slite difference of conclusions between [58, §62, p.449] and [68, §101, p.204], which had brought during 12 years of study after [58].

Additionally, independently with the formulae which we have talked up to now, and which include the series of ordered sequence of the sins or cosines of multiplied of variable, it is deduced frequently, in the problems of physic or mechanics, into other expression of the same nature, containing the series of sins or cosines, where, the variable angle, multiplied by the roots of one of the transcendental equations which the form doesn't depend on the every particular question. But, two Memoire on the heat include many these formulae, which are given as the results necessary for the rigorous solutions of various problems which I am occupied; however, I don't know any method to perform directly these expressions, to which, the method of this no. (of article) and that of no, and that of no. 57 aren't applicable. [58, §62, p.449]

Additionally, the formulae preceding and all of we have got in this chapter, are included in the equation (22) of no. 86; however, this equation contains a great number of other formulae of the same nature, which we must admit as the certain result from the general solution of every problem, and it will desire that it deduces to prove from a more direct method. Unfortunately, the mode of proof by Lagrange and that of no. 93 seem not to be able to apply to that of other formulae, in which an arbitrary function is not explained by the series of sins or cosines of multiplied by 1, 2, 3, 4, \cdots , or, 1, 3, 5, 7, \cdots , of the variable, as in all the preceding formulae. [68, §101, p.204]

In the former, Poisson avoids to name Lagrange's fault and cites implicitely it, however, the latter cites explicitly Lagrange's difficulty. In both paper or book, Poisson recognizes the defect to apply to other formulae of his own method.

6. Poisson's mathematical theory in rivalry to Fourier. (FP)

 38 There were the strifes between Poisson and Fourier to struggle for the truth on mathematics or mathematical physics for the 23 years since 1807. Poisson [62, p.367] asserts that .

- It is not able to apply the rules served the algebra to assure that an equation hasn't imaginary, to the tr!anscendental equation.
- Algebraic theorems are unsuitable to apply to transcendental equations.
- Generally speaking, it is not allowed to divert the theorems or methods from real to transcendental, without careful and strict handling.

On the other hand, Fourier [18, p.617] refutes Poisson:

• Algebraic equations place no restriction on analytic theorems of determinant; It is applicable to all transcendental, what we are considering, in above all, heat theory.

³⁸We have submitted [40], [41] and [42], in which we cites more bibliographies about this topics.

- It is sufficient to consider the convergence of the series, or the figure of curve, which the limits of these series represent them in order.
- Generally speaking, it is able to apply the algebraic theorems or methods to the transcendental or all the determined equations.

6.1. Mémoire sur la Distribution de la Chaleur dans les Corps solides, [54], 1823.

Poisson [54] traces Fourier's work of heat theory, from the another point of view. Poisson emphasizes, in the head paragraph of his paper, that although he totally takes the different approaches to formulate the heat differential equations or to solove the various problems or to deduce the solutions from them, the results by Poisson are coincident with Fourier's.

La question que je me propose de traiter a été le sujet d'un prix proposé par première class de l'Institut, et remporté par M. Fourier au commencement de 1812. La pièce couronnée est restée au secrétariat, où il m'a été permis d'en prendre connaissance : j'aurai soin, dans le courant de ce Mémoire, citer les principaux résultats que M. Fourier a obtenus avant moi ; et je dois dire d'avance que, dans tous les problèmes particuliers que nous avons pris l'un et l'autre pour exemples, et qui étaient naturellement indiqués dans cette matière, les formules de mon Mémoire coïncident avec celles que cette pièce renferme. Mais c'est tout ce qu'il y a de commun entre nous deux ouvrages ; car,

- soit pour former les équations différentielles du mouvement de la chaleur,
- soit pour les résoudre et en déduire la solution définitive de chaque probléme, j'ai employé de méthodes entièrement différentes de celles que M. Fourier a suivies. [54, pp.1-2] (Italic mine.)

私が展開しようとする問題は、最初は 1812 年に Fourier 氏に授けられた学士院の第一位の懸賞の懸かった主題であった。懸賞論文は書記局に保管され私も閲覧出来る: 私はこの論文を通して私より前に得た基本的な諸結果を指摘するのに細心の注意を払った; 私は初めに次の事を言いたい。例として挙げた全ての特殊問題に関しては、私の本論文中の各式は Fourier 氏が出したものと全く一致する。しかし、二つの論文で共通なのはそれだけだ。何故なら、

- 熱の微分方程式を定式化するため、
- それらを解決したり個々の問題の解を得るため、

Fourier氏とは全面的に異なる方法を取ったからだ。

La solution de ce problème général se diverse naturallement en deux parties :

- la première a pour objet la recherche des équations différentielles du mouvement de la chaleur dans l'intérieur et près de la surface du corps ;
- le seconde, qui n'est plus qu'une question de pure analyse, comprend l'intégration de ces équations et la détermination des fonctions arbitraires contenues dans leurs intégrales, d'après l'état initial du corps et les conditions relatives à sa surface.

Il semble, au premier coup d'œil, que la première partie de notre problème ne doit présenter aucune difficulté, et qu'il ne s'agit que d'appliquer immédiatement les principes de physique que nous venons de rappeler. [54, p.4]

Poisson points out the various difficulties of Fourier's applying to the physical problems:

En adoptant celle qui réduit la sphère d'activité de ce rayonnement à une étendue insensible, j'ai formé l'équation différentielle du mouvement de la chaleur dans l'intérieur d'un corps hétérogène, pour lequel la chaleur spécifique et la conductibilité varient d'une manière quelque d'un point à un autre. Dans le cas particulier de l'homogénéité, cette équation coïncide avec celle de M. Fourier a donnée la premier dans le mémoire cité, en la déduissant de l'action des élémens contigus du corps, ce qui n'a pas paru exempt de difficulté. Outre cette équation, comme à tous les points du corps, il en existe une autre qui n'appartient qu'aux

points de la surface supposée rayonnante, et que M. Fourier a également donnée. [54, p.6] (Italics mine.)

Poisson [54] considers the proving on the convergence of series of periodic quantities by Lagrange and Fourier as the manner lacking the exactitude and vigorousness, and wants to make up to it.

Dans le mémoire cité dans ce no., j'ai considéré directment les formules de cette espèce qui ont pour objet d'exprimer des portions de fonctions, en séries de quantités périodiques, dont tous les termes satisfont à des conditions données, relatives aux limites de ces fonctions. Lagrange, dans les anciens Mémoires de Turin, et M. Fourier, dans ses Recherches sur la théorie de la chaleur, avaient déjà fait usage de sembles expressions ; mais il m'a semblé qu'elles n'avaient point encore été démonstrées d'une manière précise et rigoureuse ; et c'est à quoi j'ai tâché de suppléer dans ce Mémoire, par rapport à celles de ces formules qui se présentent le plus souvent dans les applications. [54, $\S 2$, $\P 28$, p.46] (Italics mine.)

この項で引用する論文の中で私が直截に周期的な量の級数によって関数の一部を説明する事が目的であるこの手の公式、即ち、全ての項はこれらの関数の極限において所与の条件を満足するものを考察した。Lagrange は Turin の昔の論文で、³⁹一方、Fourier 氏は熱の理論に関する研究書の中で既に同じ式を使っている; しかし、それらは未だ正確で厳密な方法で証明していない。; また、応用の点で最も頻繁に現れるこの公式のそれ (正確で厳密な証明) に関連してこの論文で提示すべき任務としたのはまさにそこだ。

This is our porpose to see that Poisson's opinion is: while both Lagrange and Fourier propose the same type of expressins of trigonometric series, both couldn't explain the proof of conversion of it, so he challenges to solve this difficult problem. From here, we call this the second challenge to make Poisson's paradigm to seek the new solution. The first challenge of the definite integral is to go beyond Euler and Laplace. Here, to go beyond Lagrange and Fourier.

Poisson proposes the different and complex type of heat equation with Fourier's $(a)_P$. For example, we assume that interior ray extends to sensible distance, which forces of heat may affect the phenomina, the terms of series between before and after should be differente.

6.2. Second Mémoire sur la Distribution de la Chaleur dans les Corps solides [57], 1823.

Poisson deduces a transcendental equation naming (d) to which he refers $\P 68$: To get the root of this equation, Poisson introduces two methods to distinguish the root of a transcendental equation:

 $\P 68.$

Euler a démontré que les équations $\sin x = 0$, $\cos x = 0$, n'ont pas de racines imaginaires : d'ailleurs on s'assurer aisément, à l'égard de ces équations fort simples, que l'on n'y peut pas satisfaire en prenant $x = p + q\sqrt{-1}$, à moins qu'on n'ait q = 0; mais il n'en est pas de même ; dès qu'il s'agit d'une équation transcendante un peu compliquée ; et d'un autre côté, les rèegles que les géomètres ont trouvées pour s'assurer, à priori, de la réalité de toutes les racines d'une équation

 $^{^{39}(\}downarrow)$ Le anciens Memoires de Turin, vol. III. cf. \S 3.3 in our paper.

donnée, ne conviennent qu'aux équations algébriques, et ne sont point applicables en général aux équation transcendantes. En effet, ces régles se réduissent à deux :

- l'une est celle que *Lagrange* a donnée, d'après la consideration de l'équation aux carrés des différences ; équation que l'on peut regarder comme impossible à former, dans le cas des équations transcendantes :
- l'autre règle se déduit de l'ancienne méthode proposée pour la résolution des équations numériques, et connue sous le nom de *méthode des cascades*; en voice l'énoncé le plus général. [57, pp.381-2]

Poisson explains the $m\acute{e}thode$ des cascades as follows :

Soit X=0 un équation quelconque dont l'inconnue est x; désignons, pour abréger, par X', X'', \cdots , les coefficients différentiels successifs de X, parrapport à x: si le produit $X \cdot X''$ est négatif en même temps que X'=0, que le produit $X' \cdot X'''$ soit négatif en même temps que X''=0, que $X'' \cdot X^{(4)}$ soit négatif en même temps que X'''=0, et ainsi de suite jusqu'à ce qu'on parvienne à une équation $X^{(i)}=0$, dont on soit assuré que toutes les racines sont réelles, et qui soit telle que la condition $X^{(i-1)} \cdot X^{(i+1)}$ négatif pour toutes ses racines soit aussi remplie, il sera certain que l'équation proposée X=0 n'a de même que des racines réelles ; et réciproquement, si l'on parvenient à une équation $X^{(i)}=0$, qui ait des racines imaginaires, ou pour laquelle le produit $X^{(i-1)} \cdot X^{(i+1)}$ soit positif, l'équation X=0 aura aussi des racines imaginaires.

Or, lorsque X=0 est une équation algébrique du degré quelconque n, on est toujours certain de parvenir après n-1 différenciations à une équation $X^{(n-1)}=0$ qui n'a que des racines réelles, puisqu'elle est du premier degré : c'est cette circonstance qui rend la règle précédente applicable aux équations algébriques. Mais X=0 est une équation transcendante, les équations $X'=0,\ X''=0,\cdots$, seron toutes des équations de cette nature ; et la règle ne pourra plus s'appliquer, à moins que, dans des cas très-particuliers, la série de ces équations n'en comprenne une, telle que sin x=0, ou cos x=0, dont on sache que toutes les racines sont réelles.

Il est à remarquer que lors même qu'on aurait prouvé, d'après, la forme ou quelque propriété d'une équation transcendante X=0, que l'on a $X\cdot X''$ négatif pour $X'=0, X'\cdot X'''$ négatif pour $X''=0, X''\cdot X^{(4)}$ négatif pour X'''=0, et ainsi de suite jusqu'à l'infini, on n'en pourrait pas conclure que cette équation X=0 n'ait pas de racines imaginaires. [57, pp.382-3] 40

Here, Poisson puts a very simple example of transcendental equation and iterates the differential \cdot

$$X = e^x + be^{ax} = 0 (40)$$

where, we assume a > 0 and b: an arbitrary, given quantities. The equation of an arbitrary degree with respect to i is also

$$X^{(i)} = e^x + be^{ax} = 0$$
, $X^{(i-1)} = ba^{i-1} \cdot e^{ax}(1-a) = 0$, $X^{(i+1)} = ba^i \cdot e^{ax}(a-1) = 0$,

then

$$X^{(i-1)} \cdot X^{(i+1)} = -b^2 a^{2i-1} \cdot e^{2ax} (1-a)^2 = 0$$
(41)

⁴¹ Finally, Poisson concludes: the transcendental equation of example (40) has numberless imaginaries: if b < 0, (40) has only real root, and if b > 0 no root. [57, p.383]. G.Darboux

 $^{^{40}(\}Downarrow)$ Poisson conjectures the defect of proof in the case of series consisted of exact differential. cf. In this paper, § 7.1.

 $^{^{41}(\}downarrow)$ This equation (41) is the same as (42).

comments if $b \le 0$, (40) has only real root, it is true, however, Poisson doesn't put the case of b = 0. cf. § 6.3, Table 7.

6.3. Note sur les racines des équations transcendantes, [65], 1830.

Poisson issued *Note sur les racines des équations transcendantes*, [65] in 1830, in which he points out Fourier's defect of description of the roots of transcendental equations in *Théorie analytique de la chaleur*, [6, p.335] issued in 1822. Fourier may be felt hurt by this problem with Poisson, and moreover, it seems that such collisions in opinion disturb to evaluate Poisson of today.

Selon M. Fourier, les règles que les géométres ont trouvées pour reconnaître l'existence des racines réelles des équations algébriques, s'appliquent également aux équations transcendantes. Ainsi le théorème de De Gua, fondé sur l'ancienne méthode des cascades, et d'après lequel on peut s'assurer que toutes les racines d'une équation algébrique d'un degrè quelconque sont réelles, conserverait le même avantage, dans le cas d'une equation transcendante. Dans mon second Mémoire sur la distribution de la chaleur, j'ai émis une opinion contraire, que j'ai appuyée d'un exemple propre à mettre ce théorème en défaut.

M. Fourier répond à cette difficulté, que je n'ai pas convenablement énoncé la proposition⁴²; c'est pourquoi je vais tout à l'heure rappeler l'énoncé même de M. Fourier, et en faire litteralement l'application à l'exemple que j'avais choisi. Mais auparavant, qu'il me soit permis d'observer que je n'ai avancé nulle part et que je n'ai aucunne connaissance qu'on ait soutenu pendant plusieurs années, ni cherché à prouver de différentes manières que les équations transcendantes relatives à la distribution de la chaleur ont des racines imaginaires. ⁴³ [65, pp.90-1] (Italic mine.)

Poisson's description is mismatches with Fourier. In 1830, Fourier remarked, taking 'another principles' and devoting himself entirely 'several years' to improve further the method of De Gua and Roll as follows:

Quant aux principes que j'ai suivis pour résoudre les équations algébriques, ils sont très-differents de ceux qui servent de fondement aux recherches de de Gua ou à la méthode des cascades de Rolle. L'un et l'autre auteur ont cultivé l'analyse des équations ; mais ils n'ont point résolu la difficulté principale, qui consiste à distinguer les racines imaginaires. Lagrange et Waring ont donné les premiers une solution théorique de cette question singulière, et la solution ne laisserrait rien à désirer si elle était aussi practicable qu'elle est évidente. J'ai traité la même question par d'autres principles, dont l'auteur de objection parait n'avoir point pris connaissance. J'ai publiés, il y a plusieurs années, dans un Mémoire spécial (Bulletin des Sciences, Société Philomatique, années 1818, page 61, et 1820, page 156.) [19, p.127] (Italic mine.)

Poisson [65] states this contradiction in the case of transcendental equations as follows: we assume a, b given constants, $x \in \mathbb{R}$. We remark that, in this paper, he omits to state the detail condition of a and b. It seems to that he reconsiders it from the other analysis. (cf. [57, p.383] and Table 7. ⁴⁴) Anyway, we get the following (42), according to the same process as (41).

$$\frac{d^n X}{dx^n} \cdot \frac{d^{n+2} X}{dx^{n+2}} = -b^2 (1-a)^2 a^{2n+1} e^{2ax}$$
(42)

⁴²Mémoire de l'Académie, tome VIII, p.616. [18], cf. § 6.3.

 $^{^{43}}$ cf. Fourier [18, p.615, footnote(1)].

⁴⁴This Table 7 is updated from [42].

This is negative for all real values of $x \in \mathbb{R}$. From X = 0, we get $\frac{d^n X}{dx^n} = e^x - ba^n e^{ax} = 0 \implies x = \frac{\log ba^n}{1-a}$. Finally he deduces an imaginary root of the real part : $x = \frac{\log ba^n}{1-a}$ and the infinite imaginary part : $x = \frac{2m\pi}{1-a}i$, $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ or 0, $i = \sqrt{-1}$.

Donc toute racine réelle de l'équation intermédiaire $\frac{d^{n+1}X}{dx^{n+1}}=0$, étant substituée dans les deux équations adjacentes $\frac{d^nX}{dx^n}=0$ et $\frac{d^{n+2}X}{dx^{n+2}}=0$, donnera des results de signe contraire; donc d'aprè la règle de M. Fourier, l'équation $e^x-be^{ax}=0$, et toutes celles qui s'en déduisent par différentiation, devraient avoir toutes leures racines réelles; et, au contraire, chacune de ce équations a une seule racines réelle et une infinité de racines imaginaires, comprises sous la forme :

$$x = \frac{\log ba^n + 2i\pi\sqrt{-1}}{1 - a}$$

 π désignant le rapport de la circonférence au diamètre, et i étant une nombre entier ou zéro. [65, pp.92-5]

cf. Table 7.

7. The proof on eternity of exact differential. (LCP)

7.1. Poisson's conjecture on the non-eternity of exact differential.

After Poisson [64],⁴⁵ continuously, Poisson appends his opinion about proof of exact differential in the last pages of [66, pp.173-4]. His conjecture is based on the preceding analysis in [57, pp.382-3]. cf. § 6.2.

The proof of the conservation in time and space of an exact differential was discussed by Lagrange, Cauchy, Stokes, and others. The herein-called "Poisson conjecture" in 1831, cited in the Introduction as one of our main motivations for this study, It had its beginnings with the incomplete proof by Lagrange [33]. However, thereafter, Cauchy [5] had presented a proof as early as 1815, while Power [76] and Stokes [81] had tried by other methods.

To date Cauchy's proof is still considered to be the best. Poisson concludes the proof is defect, and even the equation made of tenscendentals satisfy with exact differential at the original time of movement, the equations satisfy no more with it during all the time:

Je terminerai ce mémoire par une remarque propre à rectifier, sur un point important, une proposition admise, jusqu'ici, <u>sans restriction</u>.

Les équations différentielles du mouvement des fluides deviennent plus simples, comme on sait, lorsque la formule udx+vdy+wdz est la différentielle exacte d'une fonction des trois variables indépendantes $x,\ y,\ z,$ qui peut, en outre, contenir le temps t. Or, on admet que cette condition sera remplie pendent toute la durée du mouvement, si elle se vérifie à un instant déterminé, par exemple, à l'origine du mouvement.

Mais la démonstration qu' on donne de cette proposition suppose que les values de u, v, w, doivent satisfaire non seulement aux équations différentielles du mouvement, mais encore à toutes celles qui s'en déduisent en les différentiant par rapport à t; ce qui n'a pas toujours lieu à l'égard des expressions de u, v, w, en séries d'exponentielles et de sinus ou cosinus dont les exposans et les arcs sont proportionnelles au temps ; et la démonstration étant alors en défaut, il peut arriver que la formule udx + vdy + wdz soit une différentielle exacte à l'origine du mouvement, et qu'elle ne soit plus à toutes autre époque. Nous en donnerons des exemples et nous développerons davantage cette remarque dans la applications que nous ferons par la suite, des fomules de ce mémoire à différentes questions. Les expressions de u, v, w, dont il s'agit, satisfont aux équations différentielles relatives à l'intérieur et la surface du fluide en mouvement; et y

 $^{^{45}}$ This note's accepted date is signed as Lu : 2/mars/1829.

TABLE 7. Usage applying the De Gua's theorem to the transcendental equation and its results

no	name/bibliography	Applying to transcendental equation	result
1	Fourier [6, ¶ 308, p.335-7], 1822	$\begin{aligned} y &= 0, \ \frac{dy}{d\theta} = 0, \ \frac{d^2y}{d\theta^2} = 0, \cdots \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{d^iy}{d\theta^i} + (i+1)\frac{d^{i+1}y}{d\theta^{i+1}} + \theta\frac{d^{i+2}y}{d\theta^{i+2}} = 0, \ i > 0. \end{aligned}$ if $\theta > 0$, s.t. θ makes $\frac{d^{i+1}y}{d\theta^{i+1}} = 0$, then $\frac{d^iy}{d\theta^i} \cdot \theta\frac{d^{i+2}y}{d\theta^{i+2}} \leq 0$ (i.e. both signs have to be different.) if $\theta < 0$, then we get no root.	y = 0 has only real and positive roots.
2	Poisson [57, ¶68,pp.381-3] ,1823	$X = e^{x} + be^{ax} = 0,$ $a > 0$, const. $\neq 1$, b: arbitrary $\Rightarrow X^{(i-1)}X^{(i+1)}$ $= -b^{2}(1-a)^{2}a^{2i-1}e^{2ax} < 0$	\Rightarrow on aura donc par conséquence quantité qui sera toujours négative, quel que soit le nombre entier i ; et cependent l'équation proposée $X = e^x + be^{ax} = 0$ a infinité de racines imaginaires. $b > 0$: no root, $b \le 0$: unique real root
3	Poisson [65, p.92-3],1830	$X = e^{x} - be^{ax} = 0,$ a > 0, b > 0, const. $\Rightarrow \frac{d^{n}X}{dX^{n}} \cdot \frac{d^{n+2}X}{dX^{n+2}} = -b^{2}(1-a)^{2}a^{2n+1}e^{2ax}$	Chacunne de ces équations a une seule racine réelle et une infinité de racines imaginaires, comprises sous la forme : $x = \frac{\log ba^n + 2i\pi\sqrt{-1}}{1-a}, i \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ or } 0$
4	Fourier [19, p.123],1831	$y = e^{x} - be^{ax} = 0$ (For example,) $a = 2$, $b = 1$ $\Rightarrow \frac{d^{n}X}{dX^{n}} = 2^{n}e^{2x}, \frac{d^{n+1}X}{dX^{n+1}} = -2^{n+1}e^{2x}$ $\Rightarrow \frac{d^{n}X}{dX^{n}} \cdot \frac{d^{n+2}X}{dX^{n+2}} = -2^{2n+1}e^{4x} = 0$	(example) $a = 2, b = 1 \Rightarrow -2^{2n+1}e^{4x} = 0$ \Rightarrow unique real root : $\frac{d^{n+1}X}{dX^{n+1}} = e^x(1 - 2^{n+1}e^x) = 0, e^x \neq 0$ \Rightarrow real root of $1 - 2^{n+1}e^x = 0$
5	Gaston Darboux [6, ¶ 308, p.336] footnote, 1888, (Maybe, refers Poisson[57]) (cf. no.2 in this table.)	(α) $y=e^x+be^{ax}=0,\ a>0,\ {\rm const.}\neq 1,$ La fonction y est une solution particulière de l'équation diffèrentielle : $(\beta) \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}-(a+1)\frac{dy}{dx}+ay=0$ à laquelle on peut appliquer littèralement tous les raisonnements de Fourier. $((\beta)$ is applicable to all the reasonings by Fourier.)	$b>0$: no root, $b\leq 0$: unique real root \Rightarrow dans les deux cas, elle a une infinité de racines imaginaires. Cela suffit, semble-t-il, à décider la question. (Between these two cases, it has numberless imaginary numbers. This is sufficient to decide the question.)

déterminant convenablement les coefficiens des exponentielles et des sinus ou consinus, elles représentent l'état initial et donné de toutes ses molécules; et les séries qui en résultent étant d'ailleurs convergentes, cela suffit pour qu'elles renferment la solution du problème, quoiqu'un de leurs caractères particuliers soit de ne pas toujours satisfaire aux équations qui se déduisent de celles du problème par de nouvelles différentiations. $[66, \P73. \text{ pp.}173-4]$ (Italic mine.)

8. Application of integral to the Kepler problem. (KLLPG)

About the describability of the trigonometric series of an arbitrary function, Lagrange calculates the Kepler problem in 1770, and Gauss applies it in a case study of a planet in 1818. Gauss and Bessel devote in the planetary movement as well as Lagrange and Legendre.

8.1. Lagrange's solution of a Kepler problem.

Lagrange introduces three types of studies of the Kepler problems.

Table 8. Papers of the Kepler problems

no	name/papers	lifetime	The first rule	The second rule	The third rule
1	r - [-]	1571-1630		*	*
2	Lagrange [31]:1770	1736-1813	*		
3	Laplace [31]:1770, [28]:1760, [29]:1760	1736-1813	*	*	*
		1781-1840	*	*	*
5	Gauss [21]:1818	1777-1855		*	
6	Bessel [1]:1820	1784-1846			

Ce Problème consiste, comme on sait, à couper l'aire elliptique en raison donnée, et sert principlement à déterminer l'anomalie vraie des planètes par leur anomalie moyenne. Depuis Képler, qui a le premier essayé de le résoudre, plusiers savants Gèomètres s'y sont appliqués et en ont donné différents solutions qu'on peu ranger dans trois classes.

- Les unes sont simplement arithmétiques et sont fondées sur la règle de fausse possition : ce sont celles dont les Astronomes se servent ordinairement dans le calcul des éléments des planètes ;
- les autres sont géométriques ou mécaniques, et dépendent de l'intersection des courbres : celles-ci son plutôt de simple curiosité que d'usage dans l'Astoronomie ;
- le troisième classe enfin comprend les solutions algébriques, qui donnent l'expression analytique de l'anomalie vraire par l'anomalie moyanne, aussi bien que celle du rayon vecteur de l'orbite, expressions qui sont d'usage continuel et indispensabledans la théorie des perturbations des corps célestes. [31, p.113]

Lagrange's motivation on this paper is as follows:

J'ai donné, dans un Mémoire imprimé dans le volume de l'année 1768 ⁴⁶, une méthode particulière pour résoudre, par le moyen des series, toutes les équations, soit algébriques ou transcendentes ; comme cette méthode joint à l'avantage de la facilité et de la simplicité du calcul celui de donner toujours des séries régulières et dont le terme général soit connu, j'ai cru qu'il ne serait pas innutile d'en faire l'application au fameux Problème de Képler, et de fournir par là aux Astronomes des formules plus générales que celles qu'ils ont eues jusqu'à présent pour la solution de ce Problème : c'est là l'objet du présent Mémoire. [31, p.113]

We show the notation of the Kepler's orbital elements by Lagrange corresponding to MSJ [43, p.1022-4]. 47

- n: eccentricity; (e) of MSJ.
- x: eccentric anomaly; (u)
- t: mean anomaly; (l)
- u: true anomaly; (f)
- r: radius vector;
- \bullet a: radius of circle

$\P 1.$

 $\stackrel{\circ}{AD}=2a, \quad CB=ma, \quad CF=na=a\sqrt{1-m^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad n=\sqrt{1-m^2}, \quad FL=ar.$ The angle of true anomaly $\angle DFL=u.$

The demi-circle: AED, and with L, the strait line NLM is perpendicular on AD, and cut at N by the strait lines NF and NC. We consider the ratio of the area of DFL to DFN equals

 $^{^{46}}$ sic. Œ $vres\ de\ Lagrange$, t.III,p.5.

⁴⁷Item number 322.「天体力学」.

to the ratio of the area of the whole of elliptic to the area of the whole of circle, which is $\frac{a^2 \varpi}{2}$, namely

$$\varpi: t = \frac{a^2 \varpi}{2} : DFN, \quad \Rightarrow \quad t = \frac{2DFN}{a^2}$$
(43)

We denote $\angle DCN \equiv x$: the eccentric anomaly due to Kepler, then

$$CM = a\cos x$$
, $MN = a\sin x$, $ML = ma\sin x$

$$DFN = DCN + FCN = DCN + \frac{FC \cdot MN}{2} = \frac{a^2x}{2} + \frac{na^2 \sin x}{2}$$

Hence, from (43),

$$t = \frac{2DFN}{a^2} = x + n\sin x\tag{44}$$

$$FL = ar = \sqrt{\overline{FM}^2 + \overline{ML}^2} = a\sqrt{(n + \cos x)^2 + m^2 \sin^2 x}$$
by $m^2 = 1 - n^2$, $ar = a\sqrt{1 + 2n\cos x + n^2\cos^2 x} = a(1 + n\cos x) \Rightarrow r = 1 + n\cos x$

$$\sin u = \frac{ML}{LF} = \frac{m\sin x}{1 + n\cos x}, \quad \cos u = \frac{FM}{LF} = \frac{n + \cos x}{1 + n\cos x}$$

$$\frac{\sin u}{1 + \cos u} = \frac{m}{1 + n} \cdot \frac{\sin x}{1 + \cos x}, \quad \tan \frac{u}{2} = \frac{m}{1 + n} \cdot \tan \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\frac{du}{\cos^2 \frac{u}{2}} = \frac{m}{1 + n} \cdot \frac{dx}{\cos^2 \frac{x}{2}}, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{du}{1 + \cos u} = \frac{m}{1 + n} \cdot \frac{dx}{1 + \cos x}$$

Substituting to $1 + \cos u$ the value $(1+n)\frac{1+\cos x}{1+n\cos x}$, then

$$du = \frac{mdx}{1 + n\cos x}$$

$\P 2.$

Lagrange's aim of this paper is as follow:

It must begin with to solve x of the equation (44), which is not able only by the approximation. Or, all the approximate methods known, I think, the most simplest and most general is one I have proposed in my $M\'{e}moire$ on the solution of this equation. I have proved in this $M\'{e}moire$ ⁴⁸ that if we have a equation such that

$$\alpha - x + \varphi(x) = 0$$

The serie:

$$\psi(x) + \varphi(x)\psi'(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d[\varphi(x)]^2\psi'(x)}{dx} - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^2[\varphi(x)]^3\psi'(x)}{dx^2} + \cdots$$

explains the function to seek

 $^{^{48}(\}Downarrow)$ Lagrange doesn't identify this paper, however, it may be one of his several papers on these thema. In this expression, α isn't used in the followings.

If $t = x + \varphi(x)$, then

$$\psi(x) = \psi(t) - \varphi(t)\psi'(t) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d[\varphi(t)]^2 \psi'(t)}{dt} - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^2 [\varphi(t)]^3 \psi'(t)}{dt^2} + \cdots$$

Hence, our equation (44) turns into

$$\psi(x) = \psi(t) - n\sin t \ \psi'(t) + \frac{n^2}{2} \cdot \frac{d\sin^2 t \ \psi'(t)}{dt} - \frac{n^3}{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^2\sin^3 t \ \psi'(t)}{dt^2} + \cdots$$
 (45)

¶ 3.

We suppose $\psi(x) = x$ to get the value of x by t, then we get $\psi(t) = t$, $\psi'(t) = 1$, and then

$$x = t - n\sin t + \frac{n^2}{2} \cdot \frac{d\sin^2 t}{dt} - \frac{n^3}{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^2\sin^3 t}{dt^2} + \cdots$$

where,

$$2\sin^{2} t = \frac{2}{2} - \cos 2t,$$

$$4\sin^{3} t = 3\sin t - \sin 3t,$$

$$8\sin^{4} t = \frac{4 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 2} - 4\cos 2t + \cos 4t,$$

$$16\sin^{5} t = \frac{5 \cdot 4}{2}\sin t - 5\sin 3t + \sin 5t,$$

$$32\sin^{6} t = \frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4}{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} - \frac{6 \cdot 5}{2}\cos 2t + 6\cos 4t - \cos 6t,$$

 $x = t - n \sin t$ $+ \frac{n^2}{2 \cdot 2} 2 \sin 2t$ $+ \frac{n^3}{4 \cdot 3!} \left(3 \sin t - 3^2 \sin 3t \right)$ $- \frac{n^4}{8 \cdot 4!} \left(4 \cdot 2^3 \sin 2t - 4^3 \sin 4t \right)$ $- \frac{n^5}{16 \cdot 5!} \left(\frac{5 \cdot 4}{2} \sin t - 5 \cdot 3^4 \cdot \sin 3t + 5^4 \sin 5t \right)$ $+ \frac{n^6}{32 \cdot 6!} \left(\frac{6 \cdot 5}{2} 2^5 \sin 2t - 6 \cdot 4^5 \sin 4t + 6^5 \sin 6t \right)$ $+ \frac{n^7}{64 \cdot 7!} \left(\frac{7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5}{2 \cdot 3} \sin t - \frac{7 \cdot 6}{2} 3^6 \sin 3t + 7 \cdot 5^6 \sin 5t - 7^6 \sin 7t \right)$

In this way, we get the eccentric anomaly x by the mean anomaly t. Next, we will get the radius vector r and the true anomaly u.

$$r = 1 + n\cos x$$
, $\tan\frac{u}{2} = \frac{m}{1+n}\tan\frac{x}{2}$

\P 4. (The radius vector r.)

It is clear that to get the value $r + n \cos x$, we have to make the general formula in the art.2 $\psi(x) = n \cos x$, which donate $\psi(t) = n \cos t$, $\psi'(t) = -n \sin t$, so that, by (45), we have the following:

$$r = 1 + n\cos t + n^2\sin^2 t - \frac{n^3}{2} \cdot \frac{d\sin^3 t}{dt} + \frac{n^4}{2\cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^2\sin^4 t}{dt^2} - \dots$$

Replacing \sin^2 , \sin^3 , ..., with cos in respect to t, and definitely differentiating, then we get:

$$r = 1 + n\cos t$$

$$- \frac{n^2}{2}(-1 + \cos 2t)$$

$$- \frac{n^3}{4 \cdot 2} \left(3\cos t - 3\cos 3t\right)$$

$$+ \frac{n^4}{8 \cdot 3!} \left(4 \cdot 2^2\cos 2t - 4^2\cos 4t\right)$$

$$+ \frac{n^5}{16 \cdot 4!} \left(\frac{5 \cdot 4}{2}\cos t - 5 \cdot 3^3 \cdot \cos 3t + 5^3\cos 5t\right)$$

$$- \frac{n^6}{32 \cdot 5!} \left(\frac{6 \cdot 5}{2} 2^4\cos 2t - 6 \cdot 4^4\cos 4t + 6^4\cos 6t\right)$$

$$- \frac{n^7}{64 \cdot 6!} \left(\frac{7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5}{2 \cdot 3}\cos t - \frac{7 \cdot 6}{2} 3^5\cos 3t + 7 \cdot 5^5\cos 5t - 7^5\cos 7t\right)$$

⁴⁹ ¶ 5. (The value of $\tan \frac{u}{2}$.)

$$\psi(x) = \frac{m}{1+n} \tan \frac{x}{2} = \tan \frac{u}{2}, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi(t) = \frac{m}{1+n} \tan \frac{t}{2}$$

$$\psi'(t) = \frac{m}{1+n} \left(\frac{1}{2\cos^2 \frac{t}{2}}\right) = \frac{m}{1+n} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos t} = \frac{m}{1+n} \cdot \frac{1-\cos t}{\sin^2}$$

$$\tan \frac{u}{2} = \frac{m}{1+n} \left[\tan \frac{t}{2} - n \frac{1-\cos t}{\sin t} + \frac{n^2}{2} \cdot \frac{d(1-\cos t)}{dt} - \frac{n^3}{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^2(1-\cos t)\sin t}{dt^2} + \frac{n^4}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} \cdot \frac{d^3(1-\cos t)\sin^2 t}{dt^3} - \frac{n^5}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \cdot \frac{d^4(1-\cos t)\sin^3 t}{dt^4} + \cdots \right]$$

where, using the following:

$$\frac{1-\cos t}{\sin t} = \tan \frac{t}{2}, \quad \sin t \cos t = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d \sin^2 t}{dt}, \quad \sin^2 t \cos t = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{d \sin^3 t}{dt}$$

then,

$$\tan \frac{u}{2} = \frac{m}{1+n} \left[(1-n) \tan \frac{t}{2} - \left(\frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{n^3}{2 \cdot 3} \right) \cdot \frac{d^2 \sin t}{dt^2} + \left(\frac{n^3}{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{n^4}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} \right) \cdot \frac{d^3 \sin^2 t}{dt^3} - \left(\frac{n^4}{3 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \frac{n^5}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \right) \cdot \frac{d^4 \sin^3 t}{dt^4} + \cdots \right]$$

Finally,

$$\tan \frac{u}{2} = \frac{m}{1+n} \left[(1-n)\tan\frac{t}{2} + \frac{n^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{n}{3} \right) \sin t - \frac{n^2}{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{n}{4} \right) 2^3 \sin 2t \right]$$

$$- \frac{n^4}{4 \cdot 4!} \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{n}{5} \right) \left(3\sin t - 3^4 \sin 3t \right) + \frac{n^5}{8 \cdot 5!} \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{n}{6} \right) \left(4 \cdot 2^5 \sin 2t - 4^5 \sin 4t \right)$$

$$+ \frac{n^6}{16 \cdot 6!} \left(\frac{1}{5} + \frac{n}{7} \right) \left(\frac{5 \cdot 4}{2} \sin t - 5 \cdot 3^6 \sin 3t - 5^6 \sin 5t \right) \cdots \right]$$

 \P 6. (True anomaly u.)

If we get the value of the same angle u, we must base on the equation :

$$\psi(x) = m \int \frac{dx}{1 + n \cos x} = u$$

⁴⁹(\Downarrow) We correct Lagrange's expression of $-\frac{n^7}{64\cdot 7!}$ to $-\frac{n^7}{64\cdot 6!}$. [31, p.119]

where,

$$\psi(t) = m \int \frac{dt}{1 + n\cos t}, \quad \psi'(t) = \frac{m}{1 + n\cos t}$$

or,

$$\frac{1}{1 + n\cos t} = 1 - n\cos t + n^2\cos^2 t - n^3\cos^3 t + n^4\cos^4 t - \cdots$$

Substituting this value in the formula in the art 2, and ordering the terms with respect to n, then

$$u = m \left[t - n \left(\int \cos t dt + \sin t \right) \right]$$

$$+ n^{2} \left(\int \cos^{2} t dt + \cos t \sin t + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d \sin^{2} t}{dt} \right)$$

$$- n^{3} \left\{ \int \cos^{3} t dt + \cos^{2} t \sin t + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d (\cos t \sin^{2} t)}{dt} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^{2} \sin^{3} t}{dt^{2}} \right\}$$

$$+ n^{4} \left\{ \int \cos^{4} t dt + \cos^{3} t \sin t + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d (\cos^{2} t \sin^{2} t)}{dt} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{d^{2} \cos t \sin^{3} t}{dt^{2}} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} \cdot \frac{d^{3} \sin^{4} t}{dt^{3}} \right\} + \cdots \right]$$

8.2. Laplace's perturbative calculus on the third Kepler's law.

Laplace produces the formulae of inegality of the planetary depending on the square and greater power of the eccetricities and inclination of the orbit.

§1. Formules des inégalités planétaires dépendantes des carrés et des puissances supérieures des excentricités et des inclinations des orbites.

We show the notation of the Kepler's orbital elements by Laplace corresponding to MSJ [43, p.1022-4].

• e: eccentricity; (e)

• n: mean motion; $(n = 2\pi/T)$

• a: long radius; (a)

Consider next the term

$$\frac{3dt^2 \int \delta dR}{r^2 dr} \tag{46}$$

of the same formula (T). ⁵⁰ If we regard it only with respect to the secular quantities, the squares and products of the eccentricities and the inclinations of orbits, depend, it will turn by the following numerical analysis,

Laplace calculates this numerical analysis. and as the result, he concludes as follows.

Recalling the preceding expression of δR , we will observe that the function

$$\frac{m'}{8}aa'B^{(1)}[(p-p')^2+(q-q')^2]+\cdots$$

equals to a constant independent of time t, because its differential is null by the equation C of no.50 in vol. II; If we don't consider only two planets: m and m', like we will make it in that comes next, $(p-p')^2 + (q-q')^2$ is with the same equation, a quantity independent of time; the preceding function can not produce, in

$$\frac{2ndt \ a^2 \cdot \frac{\partial \delta R}{\partial a}}{\sqrt{1 - e^2}}$$

 $^{^{50}(\}Downarrow)$ This is due to the Newtonian dynamics. Gauss also calculates the perturbation of the planets with the Newtonian dynamics. cf. (47)

, only a quantity, in same way, independent of time, and can neglect hence, because it is able to be supposed probably to confound with the value of ndt. [37, p.15]

Poisson [48] discusses this part as defect.

8.3. Poisson's perturbative calculus on the third Kepler's law.

We show the notation of the Kepler's orbital elements by Poisson corresponding to MSJ [43, p.1022-4]. Else notations are coincident with Laplace for sake of discussion.

```
e: eccentricity; (e)
n: mean motion; (n = 2π/T)
ρ: (integrated) mean motion;
a: long radius; (a)
```

Poisson [48] summarizes the Kepler's third low as follows:

L'action réciproque des planètes produit, dans leurs mouvemens, des inégalités que l'on distingue en deux espéce :

- les unes sont périodiques et leurs périodes dépendent de la configuration des planètes entre elles ; de sorte qu'elles reprennent les mêmes valeurs toutes les fois que les planètes reviennent à la même position :
- les autres sont encore périodiques ; mais leurs périodes sont incomparablement plus longues que celles des premières, et elles sont indépendentes de la position relative des planètes.

On nomme ces inégalités à longues périodes, inégalités séculaires; et, vu la lenteur avec laquelle elles croissent, on peut les considérer pendent plusieur siècles, comme propotionnelles au temps. Elles sont à-la-fois les plus difficiles et les plus importantes à déterminer. Ce sont elles qui font varier de siècle en siècle et par l'espace. On sait en effet qu'elles affectent les eccentricités, les inclinations, les longitudes des nœuds et des périhélies de ces orbites; mais tandis que ces élémens varient, les grands axes restent constans, ainsi que les moyens mouvemens qui s'en déduisent par la troisième loi de Képler. [48, p.2]

According to the definitions of today's astoromy, the mean motion, which means average angle velocity, $n=\frac{2\pi}{T}$, where T: the revolution or revolutionary period of a planet. The Kepler's third low says: $n^2a^3=\mu$, where a is the long radius of axis of the planet, and μ is a constant. He introduces the stability of planetary system:

La stabilité du système planétaire tient à deux cause :

- à l'invariabilité des grands axes
- et à ce que les inégalités des eccentricites et des inclinations des orbites sont toujours renfernées dans des limites fort étroites ;

de manière que ces orbites resteront dans tous les temps à-peu-près circulaires et peu inclinées les unes aux autres, comme elles le sont maintenant. Cette belle proposition a lieu quel que soit le nombre de planètes que l'on considère, pourve qu'elles tournent toutes dans le même sens autour du Soleil. [48, p.5]

M. Laplace est parvenu à la démontre (*Mémoires de Paris*, année 1784) en faisant usage du principe de la conservation des aires, et en supposant l'invariabilité des grands axes, qui n'était prouvée jusqu'ici que relativement aux premières puissances des masses. Nous avons repris cette démonstration à la fin de notre Mémoire, et nous avons fait voir que la stabilité du système planétaire n'est pas altérée, lorsqu'on a égard aux carrés des masses et à toutes les puissances des *eccentricités* et des *inclinaisons*. [48, p.5]

Mr. Laplace have reached to show in the *Mémoires de Paris* in 1784, by using the principle of the conservation of area and supposing the invariability of long axes of planets, which hasn't been proved until now with respect to the first power of masses. We have retried this proof in the last of our paper and show that the stability of planetary system is not changed, when we have regard for the square of masses, and for the total power of excetricities and inclinations. (Italic mine.)

Poisson examines the variations of mean movement of a planet :

Avant de nous occuper de l'objet principal de ce Mémoire dans lequel nous proposons d'examiner les variations du moyen mouvment, il eat necessaire de rappeler les formules d'où dépendent les variations de tous les élémens elliptiques. [48, p.6]

$$(m)_{P} \begin{cases} \frac{d^{2}x}{dt^{2}} + \frac{\mu x}{r^{3}} + \frac{dR}{dx} = 0, \\ \frac{d^{2}y}{dt^{2}} + \frac{\mu y}{r^{3}} + \frac{dR}{dy} = 0, \\ \frac{d^{2}z}{dt^{2}} + \frac{\mu z}{r^{3}} + \frac{dR}{dz} = 0, \end{cases}$$

where,

$$\mu = M + m, \quad r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

and

- M: the mass of the sun,
- m, m', m'', \cdots : masses of planets.
- $x, y, z, x', y', z', \cdots$: the coordinates of m, m', m'', \cdots at the origin of the sun.

$$(C)_{P} \begin{cases} Mm\frac{xdy-ydx}{dt} + Mm'\frac{x'dy'-y'dx'}{dt} + mm'\Big(\frac{(x-x')(dy-dy')-(y-y')(dx-dx')}{dt}\Big) = C, \\ Mm\frac{xdz-zdx}{dt} + Mm'\frac{x'dz'-z'dx'}{dt} + mm'\Big(\frac{(x-x')(dz-dz')-(z-z')(dx-dx')}{dt}\Big) = C', \\ Mm\frac{ydz-zdy}{dt} + Mm'\frac{y'dz'-z'dy'}{dt} + mm'\Big(\frac{(y-y')(dz-dz')-(z-z')(dy-dy')}{dt}\Big) = C'', \\ Mm\frac{dx^2+dy^2+dz^2}{dt^2} + Mm'\frac{d(x')^2+d(y')^2+d(z')^2}{dt^2} + mm'\Big(\frac{(dx-dx')^2+(dy-dy')^2+(dz-dz')^2}{dt^2}\Big) \\ +mm'\Big(\frac{(dx-dx')^2+(dy-dy')^2+(dz-dz')^2}{dt^2}\Big) \\ -2(M+m+m')\Big(\frac{Mm}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2+z^2}} + \frac{Mm'}{\sqrt{(x')^2+(y')^2+(z')^2}} + \frac{mm'}{\sqrt{(x-x')^2+(y-y')^2+(z-z')^2}}\Big) = A'' \end{cases}$$

where, C, C', C'', A: arbitrary constants. ⁵¹

§1. Variations des Élémens elliptiques.

¶1. We have three resemble equations for arbitrary planets m, m', m''; This is the form of a system of the same differential equations of the second order which we have the coordinates x, y, z; x', y', z'; etc., to determine as the functions of time.

$$R = m' \left(\frac{xx' + yy' + zz'}{\sqrt{x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2}} \right) - \frac{m'}{\sqrt{(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2 + (z - z')^2}}$$

$$+ m'' \left(\frac{xx'' + yy'' + zz''}{\sqrt{x''^2 + y''^2 + z''^2}} \right) - \frac{m''}{\sqrt{(x - x'')^2 + (y - y'')^2 + (z - z'')^2}}$$

$$+ \cdots$$

¶2. By multiplying the equations (m) the first with 2dx, the second with rdy, the third with 2dz, adding them next, and integrating finally, it turns into

$$(1)_P \quad \frac{dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2}{dt^2} - \frac{2\mu}{r} + 2\int d'R$$

where, the symbol d' denotes a relative differential on the only coordinates x, y, z of the planet m; therefore, we get the followings

$$d'R = \frac{dR}{dx}dx + \frac{dR}{dy}dy + \frac{dR}{dz}dz.$$

¶4. (pp.13-14.)

We denote below $\int ndt$ with ρ , and we call this integral the mean motion of the perturbed planet, because it corresponds to the formula of elliptic motion of the perturbed motion of mean motion nt.

$$\int ndt = \rho, \quad n = \frac{\sqrt{\mu}}{a\sqrt{a}}, \quad \frac{\mu}{a} = 2\int d'R \quad \Rightarrow \quad dn = \frac{3an}{2} \cdot d \cdot \frac{1}{a} = \frac{3an}{\mu} \cdot d'R$$

where

$$dn = \mu^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\left(\frac{1}{a} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right]' \cdot d\left(\frac{1}{a} \right) = \left(n^2 a^3 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{1}{a} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot d\left(\frac{1}{a} \right), \quad d\left(\frac{1}{a} \right) = \frac{2d'R}{\mu}$$

Poisson proposes a formula of the mean integrated motion ρ , combining the mean motion n of the Kepler's third law : $n^2a^3 = \mu$, where μ is a constant, as follows :

$$\rho = \frac{3}{\mu} \iint an \ d'R \ dt$$

This is the formula which we will hold principally through the following of this Mémoire. [48, p.14.]

§2. Variagions du Moyan mouvement. Première approximation.

¶8. (p.23.)

Assuming thus, to take the value the differential of R with respect to the coordinates of m, without varying one of perturbed planets, it is necessary to differentiate with respect to the mean motion nt, and to treat the other mean motions as constants. This differentiation will disappear the constant term R, which responds to i' = 0, i = 0; and d'R will be compose of only the periodic terms in the form:

$$d'R = m'Aindt \sin(i'n't - int + k)$$

 $^{^{51}(\}downarrow)$ Poisson cites these expression $(C)_p$ in the Laplace's *Mécanique Céleste*, Libre II, chap.2., sic. These expression C, C', C'' and A correspond to (4), (5), (6) and (7), respectively in the Œuvres complète de Laplace, Tome 1, pp.146-7.

as a result, it turns:

$$d^2\rho = \frac{3m'Ain^2adt^2}{\mu} \sin(i'n't - int + k) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d^2\rho}{dt^2} = \frac{3m'Ain^2a}{\mu} \sin(i'n't - int + k)$$

and by integrating with respect to t, we get the mean motion:

$$\rho = \frac{3m'Ain^2a}{\mu(i'n'-in)^2} \sin(i'n't-int+k)$$

¶10. (pp.26-27.)

However, Mr. Laplace, has regarded (MC, t. 3, p.14) that this part of R is constant with respect to the elements of the planet m; from here, it follows that the differential d' of this part reduce into 0, at least when we neglect the quantities of forth order with respect to the eccentricities and to inclinations, as Mr. Laplace has supposed so. We will demonstrate later, (no.17), that this differential is 0, although we have regarded with all the powers of the eccentricities and inclinations; the secular inequalities of elements of m, don't give any term non periodic in the value of d'R; it will be, as a result, no use to regard it;

 $\S 3.$ Variations Séculaires du Moyan mouvement. Seconde Approximation. (pp.39-52) $\P 18.$ (pp.46-47)

Due to the theorem of no.14, this mean motion will not contain any secular inequality, in spite of the number of perturbed planets; and it is evident that it will be the same of the long axis, which is determined by the equation:

$$\frac{1}{a} = \frac{2}{\mu} \cdot \int d'R$$

We have deduced, by the preceding analysis, into this important theorem and which has been the principle object of our research: the mean motion and the long axis of the planets are invariables.

- while we ignore the periodic inequality, and
- while we neglect the quantities of the third order with respect to perturbed forces.

Finally, Poisson concludes his object of this paper with the following paragraph:

Nous sommes donc conduits, par l'analyse précédente, à ce théorème important et qui était le but principal de nos recherches : Les moyens mouvemens et les grands axes des planètes sont invariables, lorsqu'on fait abstraction des inégalités périodiques, et que l'on néglige les quantités du troisième order par rapport aux forces perturbatrices. (itallic sic.) [48, p.47]

The mean movements and long axes of planets are invariable, when we ignore the periodic inequality, and when we neglect the quantities of the third order with respect to the perturbational forces. (trans. mine.)

This result is the today's conventional sense in the astronomy.

8.4. Gauss and Bessel.

Bessel, in [1] introduces Gauss' paper [21] in Latin entitled with lengthy title: Determination of attraction in the point on an arbitrarily given position of the moving planet, of which their masses are described in the total orbit to be uniformly distributed by the time rule for each part, ⁵² and hopes to his study in 1814, which is called by the announcement of the paper, is earlier than Lagrange and Legendre. It tells a extension of a scope of study in this series. Gauss' application is to calculate the pertubation of a planet in accordance with the Kepler second law. Bessel's

 $^{52(\}Downarrow)$ Translation mine.

paper is Ueber die Entwicklung der Functionen zwier Winkel u und u' in Reihen, welche nach den Cosinussen und Sinussen der Vierfachen von u und u' fortgehen, 1820. Gauss' introduction says as follows:

 $\P 1.$

The elements in the planetary orbit receive the strict variation, by the perturbation of the another planet, especially, we suppose that

- after this position in the orbit is independent,
- or the perturbing planet obeys the Kepler's second law in elliptic orbit,
- or its mass per orbit considered in this range is equally distributed, and in the partial orbit, in other words, if,
- the uniform interval of time are assumed, and
- the same masses above mentioned are divided into parts, then, the time of the revolving planet perturbing and perturbed is not commensurable.

For this elegant theorem, we don't give any sort of propositions, without proving almost perfectly from the astronomical physical principle. The problem has been offered by (Kepler) himself, or by the other, however, this solution needs to be the attraction: the orbital attraction of planets is, moreover, preferably, elliptic annulus, of which the thickness is infinitesimal, in the arbitrary point of given position exactly determined. [21, p.332]

$\P 2.$

Gauss also struggles for perturbation with the given eccentric anomaly. We denote

- the eccentric ratio : e,
- the eccentric anomaly: E,
- the element of eccentric anomaly: dE,

then

- the mean element of eccentric anomaly: $(1 e \cos E)dE$,
- the distance of the attraction point from a point : ρ ,
- the product of orbit is

$$\frac{(1 - e\cos E)dE}{2\pi\rho^2} \tag{47}$$

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We denote

- the long radius : a,
- the short radius : b,

then $a^2 - b^2 = a^2 e^2$. And x value of the orbit : $a \cos E$, and y value of the orbit : $b \cos E$. the values on coordinates on x, y and z are A, B and C. From here, we can decompose into three elements

$$\frac{(A - a\cos E)(1 - e\cos E)dE}{2\pi\rho^2} \equiv d\xi,$$

$$\frac{(B - b\sin E)(1 - e\cos E)dE}{2\pi\rho^2} \equiv d\eta,$$

$$\frac{C(1 - e\cos E)dE}{2\pi\rho^2} \equiv d\zeta$$

 $^{^{53}(\}Downarrow)$ This is due to the Newtonian dynamics. Laplace also considers the perturbation of the planets owing to the Newtonian dynamics. cf. (46)

where, $\rho = \sqrt{(A - a\cos E)^2 + (B - b\sin E)^2 + C^2}$. We can get ξ , η and ζ by integrating these three differential. For lack of space, we omit the followings.

9. From Kepler motion to the quantum mechanics

Kepler (1571-1630) 1634 [23] proposes laws on the motions of planets in reserving many analytical open problems. Huygens (1625-95) proposes and Fresnel (1788-1827) corrects the wave principles. Euler(1707-1783) 1748 proposes the wave motion of string. Navier (1785-1836) and Poisson (1781-1840) propose wave equations in elasticity respectively. Fourier (1768-1830) 1820 [13] combines his communication theory with the Euler equation 1755 and puts the heat equation of motion in fluid, in which he expresses the molecular motion with communication and transportation of molecules before Boltzmann's modeling with collision and transportation. Navier, Poisson, Cauchy, Stokes, et al. struggle to configurate the microscopically-descriptive fluid equations with mathematical and practical adaptation, to which Plandtl 1934 uses the nomenclature as the Navier-Stokes equations. Sturm (1803-55) and Liouville (1809-82) propose the differential equation of Strum-Liouville 1836-7 [39, 80], solving boundary value problem. Boltzmann (1844-1904) 1895 proposes the gas theory, ending the microscopically descriptive equations such as the original Navier-Stokes equations. However, Boltzmann's motion theories aren't satisfied with the law of Newton (1643-1727) and are 'thrown into oblibion.'

In my opinion it would be a great tragedy for science if the theory of gases were temporarily thrown into oblibion because of a momentary hostile attitude toward it, as was for example the wave theory because of Newton's authority. Forward to Part II. [2, p.215]

9.1. The modeling of Schrödinger equation. Schrödinger (1887-1961) [78] bases his original quantum theory on the classic mechanics of Kepler motion, showing some examples to apply the eigenvalue problem on the differential equations of Sturm-Liouvill type: 54

$$(1)_S \quad L[y] = py'' + p'y' - qy, \qquad (2)_S \quad L[y] + E\rho y = 0$$

where, L is the differential operator, E is an eigenvalue of constant to find, y = y(x). p, p', q are unrelated functions with the variable x. $\rho = \rho(x)$ is a wide-ranging-continuous function. The solutions y(x) relate to the equation $(2)_S$, namely, the eigen function. Here, all the eigenvalues are real and positive. [78, (2), pp.514-5].

Schrödinger is necessary the new quantum mechanics based on the analogical ground from classical mechanics or the mathematics such as :

- the motion theory of planets by Kepler in classic principle for modeling the modern theory of atomic structure,
- collision of electron with nucleus like Fourier's or gas-theorists' molecular collision,
- entropy concept like energy conversion in gas theory unsatisfied with Newton theory since Clausius 1865,
- light wave theory unsatisfied with Newton theory since Huygens' wave principle,
- application of the Sturm-Liouville theory and its differential equation to the boundary value problem in atomic mechanics, etc.

10. Conclusions

We see Poisson observes keenly the paradigms of Euler, Laplace and Fourier, while he revers Lagrange as his mentor, by judging from the followings:

 $^{54(\}Downarrow)$ Schrödinger gets this problem from Courant-Hilbert. V.§5, 1, p.238 f. [78, (3), p.440.], not from French Sturm-Liouvill's bibliographies, or like Euler's French papers on the wave equation.

- 1. We must consider our problem as the totality among the definite integral, the trigonometric series, etc., for Poisson's objection to Fourier is relating the universal and fundamental problem of analytics, as we show Poisson's analytical/mathematical thought or sight in § 2.1, etc. In fact, Poisson's works span them. (LFPD)
- 2. About the trigonometric series, Poisson doesn't talk proudly a little about his conciseness and superiority to Lagrange, but appreciates as the first study of this sort. Comparing Euler, Laplace and Fourier with Lagrange, we must consider the Poisson's pure respect for Lagrange or mentorship. We dare to comment that this is the 20 years difference of career between the pioneering study by Lagrange at the age of 23 years old in 1759 ⁵⁵ and the work at Poisson's 43 years old in 1823. Fourier issues the manuscript of his main work at the age of 39 years in 1807. So, we think such a comparison is a meaningless argument. To Lagrange's works of trigonometric series, we need to pay more attention, as Poisson, Liouville, et al. do it. (LFP)
- 3. About the Poisson's method of definite integral 1811, we are necessary to consider the applicability to solve the various problems of integral.
- 4. Fourier's theoretical works in life are: theorem on the discriminant of number and range of real root, heat and diffusion theory and equations, practical use of transcendental series, theoretical reasons to the wave and fluid equations and many seeds to be done in the future as like Dirichlet's expression: to offer a new example of the *prolificity* of the analytic process. (LFPD)
- 5. To Fourier's method: we think, a rough-and-ready method for prompt application by request from physic/mathematics. (LFP)
- 6. Poisson's objections are very useful for Fourier to prove the series theory, however, in vain for Fourier's passing away. It is toword a sort of *singularity of passage* from the finite to the infinite like Dirichlet's expression. (LFPD)
- 7. Poisson points out the Laplace's defect on a perturbation problem of the Kepler problem, while Poisson appreciates Lagrange's pioneering calculation of it. We see that Poisson follows and checks widely not only the Lagrange's but also the Laplace's tremendous volume of complete study on the celestial mechanics. (KLLP)
- 8. Poisson, for himself, fails in it, as nobody succeeds in it, where, it contains the describability of transcendental series for an arbitrary function. (LCP)

Finally, Poisson decides to break down the mentorship with Lagrange, namely

9. Poisson's conjecture on the exact differential, points out Lagrange's defect, which seems to be unique to disparage his mentor's work. (LCP)

We conclude Lagrange's works contribute the Poisson's works.

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