

Pierre Simon Laplace (1749-1827)

①

& Adrien-Marie Legendre (1752-1833)

Laplace: - mainly an applied mathematician / mathematical physicist

- adapted to each change of régime in France from the  
Revolution through the Bourbon Restoration (kept a low  
profile, especially in times of uncertainty)

- His major work was his Mécanique Céleste (5 volumes, 1799-1825),  
summarized and extended previous work in Newtonian mechanics and  
mathematical astronomy.

- added to the theory of tides

- stability of the solar system

- Two major bits of applied math came out of this:

Laplace's Equation: If  $\varphi$  is the potential energy of a particle

in a conservative vector (force) field, then

$$\frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial z^2} = \nabla \cdot \nabla \varphi = \nabla^2 \varphi = \Delta \varphi$$

← "Laplacian" operator

Laplace transform:

If  $f(t)$  is a function defined & integrable for  $t \geq 0$ , then the Laplace transform of  $f$  is  $F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$ . (2)

This allows one in many applications to change a problem to one involving better-behaved functions.

- Legendre:
- born into a wealthy family, but lost his personal fortune in 1793 when the Revolution got really radical
  - studied math & physics, initially just for fun.
  - contributed to several areas of mathematics: algebra, number theory, analysis, statistics, geometry, and various parts of applied mathematics

~~Laplace~~

Legendre transform:  
(applications in mechanics  
& thermodynamics)

Let  $p = \frac{df}{dx}$ . The Legendre transform of  $f(x)$  is then

$$f^*(p) = \sup \left\{ px - f(x) \mid x \in \text{dom}(f) \right\}$$

where  $p$  is held constant.

(3)

- In statistics & related areas, he contributed the method of least squares. (1806)
- In geometry, he showed that Euclid's Parallel Postulate (Post. V) is equivalent to the existence of a single square.
- In number theory, he
  - proved Fermat's Last Theorem for  $n=5$
  - conjectured the "Prime Number Theorem" in 1796  

$$\text{If } \pi(x) = \# \text{ primes} \leq x, \text{ Then } \pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\ln(x)}.$$

(Not proved until 1898. . . )
  - conjectured the Law of Quadratic Reciprocity (previously conjectured by Euler) If  $p \nmid n$ , then  $\left(\frac{n}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \equiv a^2 \pmod{p} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \not\equiv a^2 \pmod{p} \end{cases}$   

$$\text{Legendre symbol} \rightarrow \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \equiv a^2 \pmod{p} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \not\equiv a^2 \pmod{p} \end{cases}$$

Then if  $p \& q$  are distinct odd primes, then

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)(q-1)/4}.$$

Legendre proved some special cases of this, but it took Gauss to fully prove it.

(4)

- In algebra, among other things he devised the Legendre polynomials, which occur in solutions to the Laplace equation, various power series expansions, trigonometric formulas, and so on.

The Legendre polynomials are a system of polynomials  $P_n(x)$  [of degree  $n \geq 0$ ] satisfying  $P_n(1) = 1$   
 and  $\int_{-1}^1 P_m(x) P_n(x) dx = 0$  whenever  $n \neq m$ .

- The fact that  $P_0(x) = a$  is constant &  $P_0(1) = 1$  means that  
 $P_0(x) = 1$ .

- For  $P_1(x)$  we have  $P_1(x) = ax+b$  &  $P_0(1) = 1 = a \cdot 1 + b \Rightarrow a+b$   
 $\& 0 = \int_{-1}^1 P_0(x) P_1(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 (ax+b) \cdot 1 dx = \left[ \frac{a}{2}x^2 + bx \right]_{-1}^1$   
 $= \left( \frac{a}{2} + b \right) - \left( \frac{a}{2} - b \right) = 2b \Rightarrow b=0 \Rightarrow a=1$

so  $P_1(x) = x$ .

(5)

• For  $P_2(x)$  we have  $P_2(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$

$$I = P_2(1) = a + b + c$$

$$0 = \int_{-1}^1 P_2(x) P_0(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 (ax^2 + bx + c) \cdot 1 dx = a \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{b}{2} x^2 + cx \Big|_{-1}^1 \\ = \left( \frac{a}{3} + \frac{b}{2} + c \right) - \left( -\frac{a}{3} + \frac{b}{2} - c \right) = \frac{2}{3}a + 2c$$

$$0 = \int_{-1}^1 P_2(x) P_1(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 (ax^2 + bx + c) \cdot x dx = \int_{-1}^1 (ax^3 + bx^2 + cx) dx \\ = a \frac{x^4}{4} + b \frac{x^3}{3} + c \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_{-1}^1 = \left( \frac{a}{4} + \frac{b}{3} + \frac{c}{2} \right) - \left( \frac{a}{4} - \frac{b}{3} + \frac{c}{2} \right) = \frac{2}{3}b$$

$$\Rightarrow b = 0 \quad \text{so} \quad a + c = 1 \quad \& \quad \frac{2}{3}a + 2c = 0 = \frac{a}{3} + c$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2}{3}a + 0c = 1 - 0 = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad a = \frac{3}{2} \quad \& \quad c = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\therefore P_2(x) = \frac{3}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1)$$

& so on...

(6)

Two places that Legendre polynomials happen:

- 1° (As introduced by Legendre in 1782) as coefficients in the expansion of Newtonian potential.

$$\frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r^2 + (r')^2 - 2rr' \cos(\theta)}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(\cos(\theta)) \cdot \frac{(r')^n}{r^{n+1}}$$

where  $\vec{r}, \vec{r}'$  are vectors;  $r, r'$  are their lengths;  $\theta$  is the angle between them,

- 2° Trig identities:

$$\frac{\sin((n+i)\theta)}{\sin(n\theta)} = \sum_{i=0}^n P_i(\cos(\theta)) \cdot P_{n-i}(\cos(\theta))$$