

Proceedings of the Jon Borwein Commemorative Conference, 2017

**How mathematicians learned to stop
worrying and love the computer**

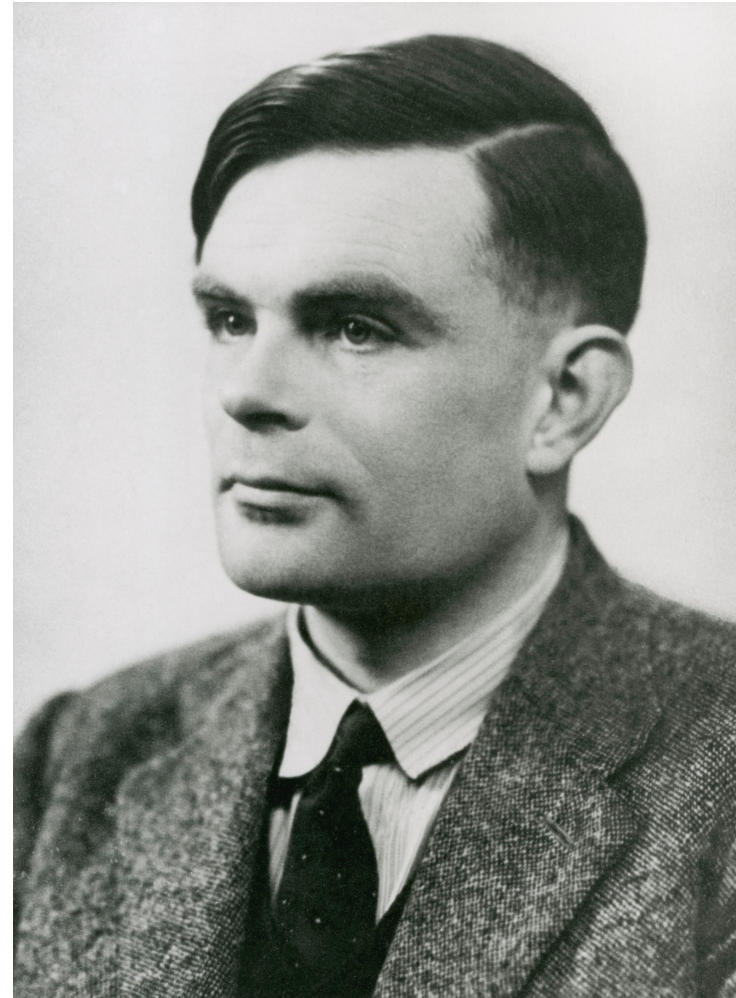
IMAGE GALLERY

Keith Devlin, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA

The two most iconic computer pioneers

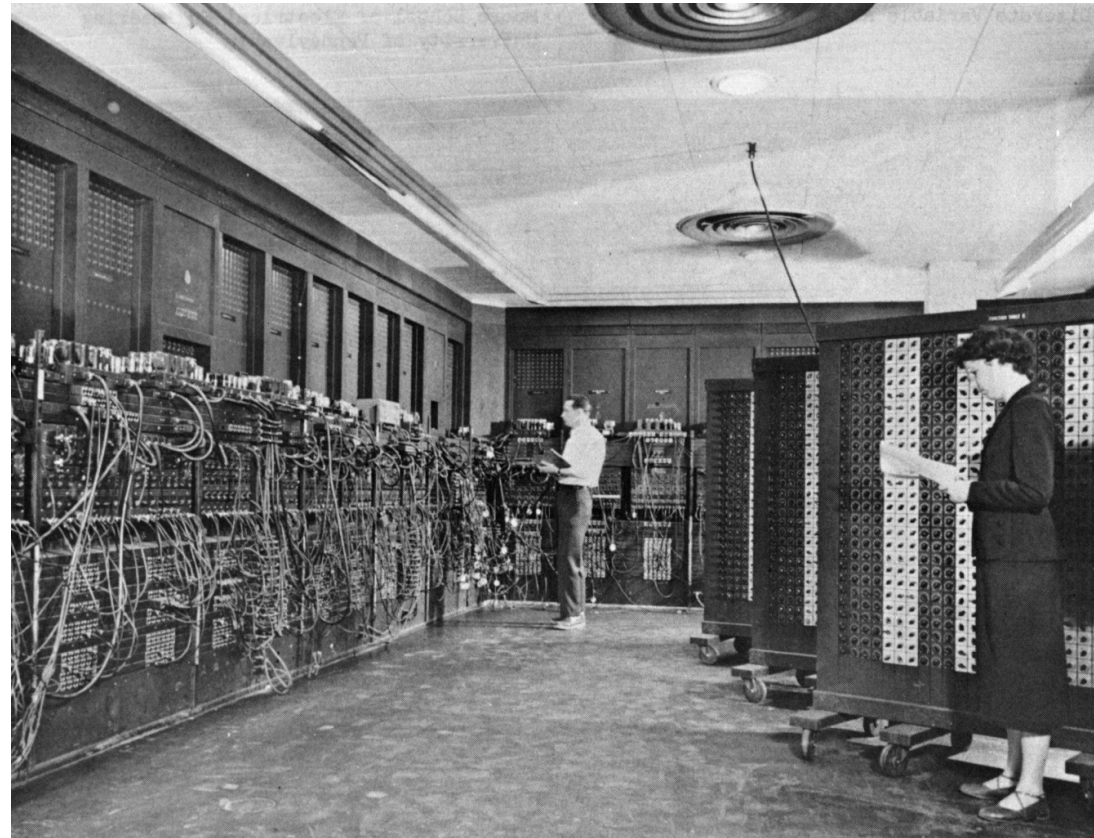


John von Neumann (1903-57)

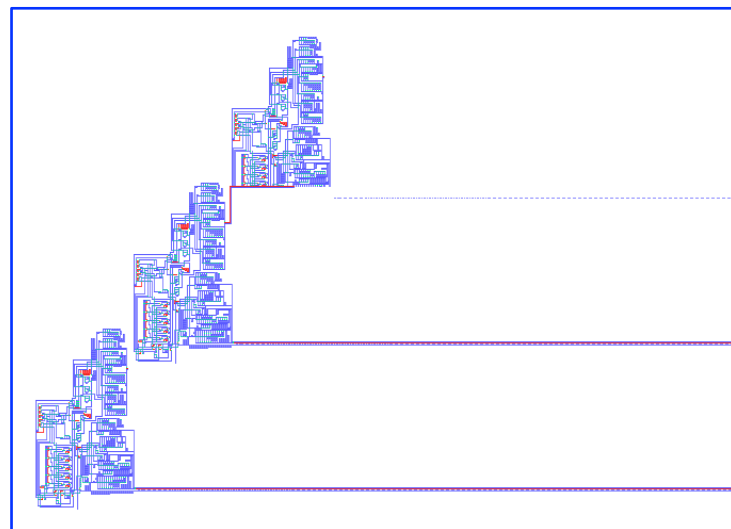


Alan Turing (1912-54)

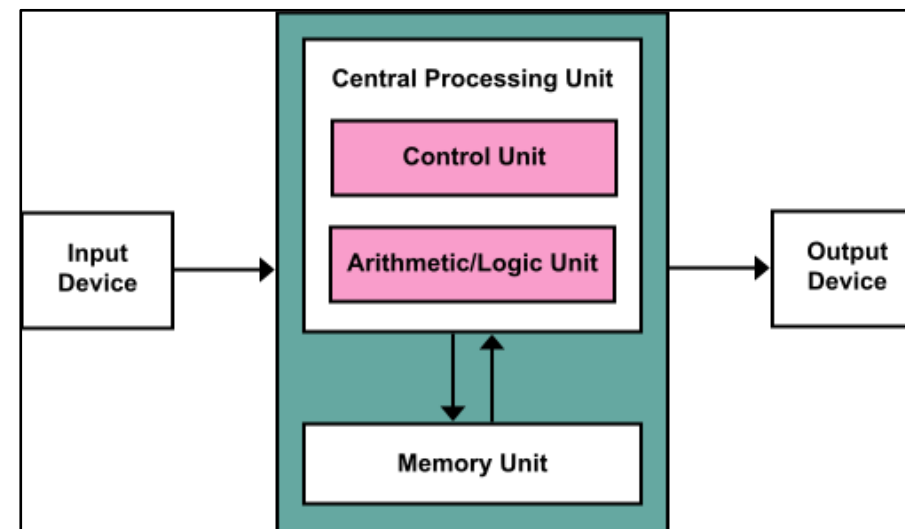
von Neumann - from theory to practice



ENIAC: Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer (1946)
Ballistic Research Laboratory (BRL), Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD

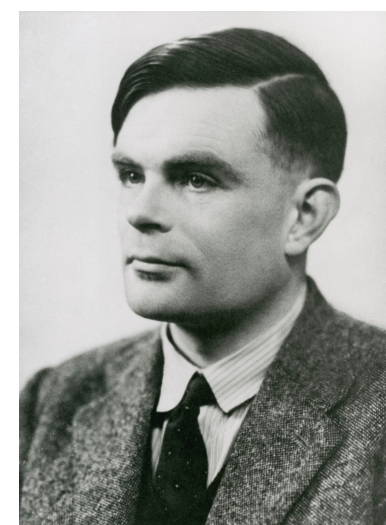


Cellular automata (1940s)



von Neumann architecture (1945)

Turing - from theory to practice



230 A. M. TURING [Nov. 12,

ON COMPUTABLE NUMBERS, WITH AN APPLICATION TO THE ENTSCHEIDUNGSPROBLEM

By A. M. TURING.

[Received 28 May, 1936.—Read 12 November, 1936.]

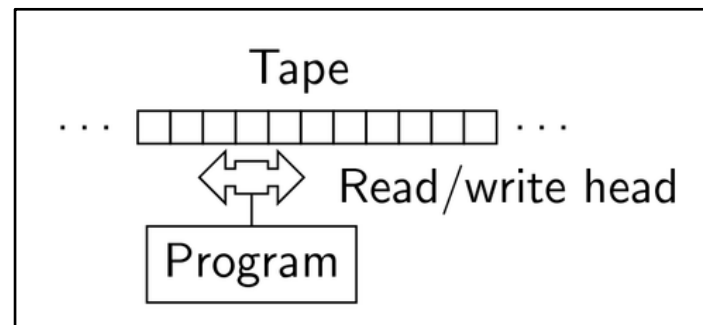
The “computable” numbers may be described briefly as the real numbers whose expressions as a decimal are calculable by finite means. Although the subject of this paper is ostensibly the computable numbers, it is almost equally easy to define and investigate computable functions of an integral variable or a real or computable variable, computable predicates, and so forth. The fundamental problems involved are, however, the same in each case, and I have chosen the computable numbers for explicit treatment as involving the least cumbersome technique. I hope shortly to give an account of the relations of the computable numbers, functions, and so forth to one another. This will include a development of the theory of functions of a real variable expressed in terms of computable numbers. According to my definition, a number is computable if its decimal can be written down by a machine.

In §§ 9, 10 I give some arguments with the intention of showing that the computable numbers include all numbers which could naturally be regarded as computable. In particular, I show that certain large classes of numbers are computable. They include, for instance, the real parts of all algebraic numbers, the real parts of the zeros of the Bessel functions, the numbers π , e , etc. The computable numbers do not, however, include all definable numbers, and an example is given of a definable number which is not computable.

Although the class of computable numbers is so great, and in many ways similar to the class of real numbers, it is nevertheless enumerable. In § 8 I examine certain arguments which would seem to prove the contrary. By the correct application of one of these arguments, conclusions are reached which are superficially similar to those of Gödel†. These results

† Gödel, “Über formal unentscheidbare Sätze der Principia Mathematica und verwandter Systeme, I”, *Monatshfte Math. Phys.*, 38 (1931), 173–193.

Proc. of the London Math. Soc.
Series 2, 42 (1936), pp 230–265



Tape symbol	Current state A			Current state B			Current state C		
	Write symbol	Move tape	Next state	Write symbol	Move tape	Next state	Write symbol	Move tape	Next state
0	P	R	B	P	L	A	P	L	B
1	P	L	C	P	R	B	P	R	HALT

Turing Machine (1936)



Manchester Mark I (1949)

A SHOCK: The Four Color Theorem (1976)

1852, Francis Guthrie asked: Can every possible map be colored using at most 4 colors?

EVERY PLANAR MAP IS FOUR COLORABLE PART I: DISCHARGING¹

BY
K. APPEL AND W. HAKEN

1. Introduction

We begin by describing, in chronological order, the earlier results which led to the work of this paper. The proof of the Four Color Theorem requires the results of Sections 2 and 3 of this paper and the reducibility results of Part II. Sections 4 and 5 will be devoted to an attempt to explain the difficulties of the Four Color Problem and the unusual nature of the proof.

The first published attempt to prove the Four Color Theorem was made by A. B. Kempe [19] in 1879. Kempe proved that the problem can be restricted to the consideration of "normal planar maps" in which all faces are simply connected polygons, precisely three of which meet at each node. For such maps, he derived from Euler's formula, the equation

$$(1.1) \quad 4p_2 + 3p_3 + 2p_4 + p_5 = \sum_{k=7}^{k_{\max}} (k-6)p_k + 12$$

where p_i is the number of polygons with precisely i neighbors and k_{\max} is the largest value of i which occurs in the map. This equation immediately implies that every normal planar map contains polygons with fewer than six neighbors.

In order to prove the Four Color Theorem by induction on the number p of polygons in the map ($p = \sum p_i$), Kempe assumed that every normal planar map with $p \leq r$ is four colorable and considered a normal planar map M_{r+1} with $r+1$ polygons. He distinguished the four cases that M_{r+1} contained a polygon P_2 with two neighbors, or a triangle P_3 , or a quadrilateral P_4 , or a pentagon P_5 ; at least one of these cases must apply by (1.1). In each case he

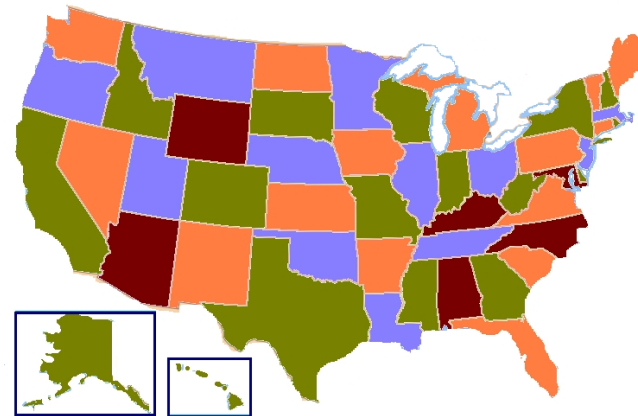
Received July 23, 1976.

¹ The authors wish to express their gratitude to the Research Board of the University of Illinois for the generous allowance of computer time for the work on the discharging algorithm. They also wish to thank the Computer Services Organization of the University of Illinois and especially its systems consulting staff for considerable technical assistance. They further wish to thank Armin and Dorothea Haken for their effective assistance in checking the definitions and diagrams in the manuscript.

Haken also wishes to thank the Center for Advanced Study of the University of Illinois for support for the year 1974-75 and the National Science Foundation for support for half of the year 1971-72 and for summers 1971 through 1974. He also wishes to thank his teacher, Karl-Heinrich Weise at the University of Kiel, for introducing him to mathematics and in particular to the Four Color Problem.

Appel wishes to thank his teacher, Roger Lyndon, for teaching him how to think about mathematics.

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A four coloring of the United States
1976, proved by Kenneth Appel and Wolfgang Haken
Proof made essential use of a computer to check 1,476 special map configurations

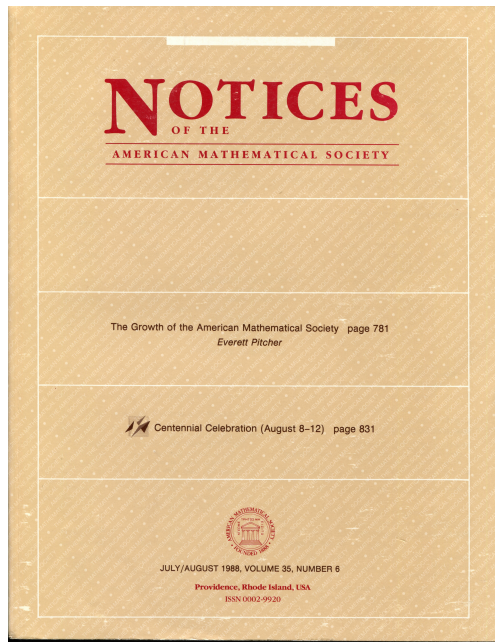


K. Appel & W. Haken



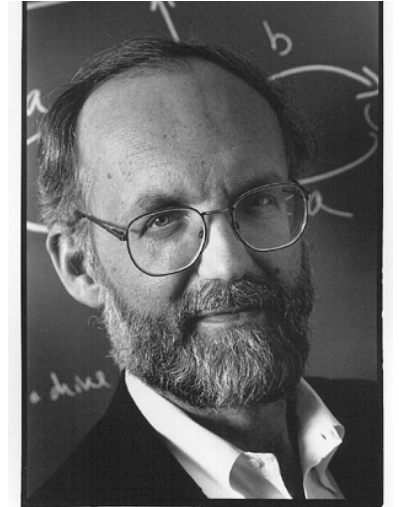
Illinois J. Math. 21 (1977), 429-490
[PART II: Reducibility, pp.491-567]

The AMS Notices “Computers and Mathematics” column



Over its six-and-a-half years run, the column published 59 feature articles, 19 editorial essays, and 115 reviews of mathematical software packages

— 31 features 11 editorials, and 41 reviews under Barwise, 28 features, 8 editorials, and 74 reviews under Devlin.



Jon Barwise (1942-2000)

SECTION LAUNCH

FEATURE COLUMNS

690 Inside the AMS: Report of the Treasurer (1987)

The annual report includes a review of the Society's operations during the past year.

693 Computers and Mathematics *Jon Barwise*

A new column is introduced, designed to examine the increased interaction between computers and mathematics. In this first feature, a noted mathematician ponders the impact of computers on his work and that of other mathematicians.

NAMS, May/June 1988, from the title page

In his introductory essay, Barwise declared that the goal of the new column was to reflect, both practically and philosophically, on cases where computers were affecting mathematicians and how they might do so in the future; to act as an information exchange into what software products were available; and to publish mathematicians' reviews of new software.

Feb 1991: Barwise bows out of “Computers and Mathematics” with farewell reflections and a new journal announcement

The Changing Face of Mathematics

Whether we like it or not, computers are changing the face of mathematics in radical ways, from research, to teaching, to writing, personal communication, and publication. Over the past couple of years we have seen numerous articles about these developments.

Computers are even forcing us to expand our ideas about what constitutes doing mathematics, by making us take much more seriously the role of experimentation in mathematics. (I draw attention to a new journal devoted to experimental mathematics below.)

One view of the future is that mathematics will come to have (or already has) two distinct sides: experimentation, which can exploit the speed and graphic abilities of programs like *Maple* and *Mathematica*, to allow us to spot regularities and make conjectures, and proof, very much in the style of today’s mathematics.

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Whether we applaud or abhor all these changes in mathematics, there is no denying them by turning back the clock, anymore than there is in the rest of life. Computers are here to stay, just as writing is, and they are changing our subject. At least this is my firm conviction, and it is the reason I have been willing to serve as editor of this column for something over two years.

The Journal of Experimental Mathematics

One of the topics that has come up several times over the past couple of years in this column is the development of experimental techniques in mathematics, both for the discovery of new insights and conjectures. A new journal in this area has now been formed devoted to the publication of experimental mathematics. Part of the draft announcement I have seen reads “It is hoped that the journal will help generate a climate in which accounts of interesting experiments are not confined to private notebooks and suppressed from accounts of the mathematics they inspire, but see the light of day, to the benefit of researchers, students, and the mathematical community in general.”

Is this to be taken seriously? If you have any doubts, the list of editors and advisors to the journal should be interesting: F. Almgren, H. Cohen, R. Devaney, D. Epstein (Editor-in-chief), R. Graham, D. Hoffman, H.W. Lenstra, S. Levy, R. Llave, B. Mandelbrot, A. Marden, D. Mumford, U. Pinkall, P. Sarnak, J.P. Serre, and W. Thurston.

As the above quote and this list make clear, what we are talking about is nothing less than a possible revolution in the way mathematicians think about and report their work. Anyone familiar with the standards of experimentation in other branches of science can only wonder what standards will evolve for judging experimental work in mathematics. It is an exciting event.

Mar 1991: Devlin takes over “Computers and Mathematics” starting with a look to the future (short for the column, long for the computer in mathematics)

Why “Computers and Mathematics?”

This column is surely just a passing fad that will die away before long. Not because mathematics will cease to have much connection with computers, but rather, quite the reverse: the use of computers by mathematicians will become so commonplace that no one thinks to mention it any more.

As far as the use of scientific text processors to write papers and books is concerned, that state of affairs is probably here already, or at least very close, with Donald Knuth’s \TeX clearly the favored tool. As J. I. Hall of Michigan State University reported in this column in January, “virtually all of the larger math departments which responded to the survey have converted their technical typing staff to \TeX , in one of its many configurations.” And yet it was only four years ago, in 1987, that Richard Palais of Brandeis University organized the series of articles in *Notices*, describing the various mathematical word processing systems available, that for many of us was the first real introduction to the range of products becoming available for the preparation of mathematical documents. And I suspect that for most of us it

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Imagine then the kind of person coming into our graduate schools, if not today, then certainly tomorrow. Brought up from early childhood on a diet involving MTV, Nintendo, graphical calculators packed with algorithms, Macintosh-style computers, and, in the not-too-distant future, hypermedia educational tools as well. Such a person is going to enter mathematics with an outlook and a range of mental abilities quite different from their instructors—in fact I see no *a priori* reason why they should be the same people who would have become successful mathematicians had they come along a generation earlier.* Such a profound change in outlook and skills, and probably also personnel-type, will surely send mathematics into directions few of us can presently foresee.

Just before Christmas, I was discussing a particular proof with one of the sophomore undergraduates in my course on abstraction and proofs. Much to my surprise, the way the student described the entire proof process, in a quite matter of fact way, was as the unification (or amalgamation) of different pieces of information. (He did not use the word “unification,” but he did keep referring to “information” and the merging of different information.) The *linearity* of the proof, which always seemed so important to me when I was a student, hardly came into the picture at all as far as this young mathematician was concerned.

Nov/Dec 1994: The column closes down

Coming of Age

“This column is surely just a passing fad that will die away before long. Not because mathematics will cease to have much connection with computers, but rather, quite the reverse: the use of computers by mathematicians will become so commonplace that no one thinks to mention it anymore.”

The above paragraph opened my introductory editorial for this column in the March 1991 issue of the *Notices*, when I took over the stewardship of the column from founding editor Jon Barwise. Over the three and a half years I have edited the column, I have continued to view its very existence with ambivalence.

Though it must be obvious to all that the development of the modern computer has changed mathematics forever, both in terms of content (the addition of new areas of research, not the elimination or replacement of any old areas) and the way many of us go about our daily lives as mathematicians, I always felt that there was altogether too much hype. I looked forward to the day when, for most of us, the computer settled back to become an accepted part of the mathematician’s working environment, ranked alongside the blackboard, the pencil and scratch pad, the telephone, and the coffee pot. We are in the business of mathematics, not computing. Editing a column entitled “Computers and Mathematics”, the function of which was to concentrate entirely on the computer connection, did not seem consistent with my view of the computer as simply one of the tools we use to get the job done.

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On the other hand, the column clearly filled a definite need within the mathematical community, as mathematicians learned how to take advantage of the new, electronic tools being made available—I soon lost count of the number of mathematicians who, on meeting me, would say how valuable they found the column, with its mixture of feature articles and software reviews and the occasional editorial comment from the column editor (the original format developed by Barwise).

I guess I ended up like the newly elected president who declares that he did not seek the office, nor did he agree with the system that elected him, but he would serve anyway, for the general good. Not that the task was painful. Or difficult. I was, and still am, interested not only in mathematics and computing but—as a logician—how the latter affects the way we do the former and how the former supports the latter.

Things have moved swiftly in the mathematics community. Possibly the last scientists to avail themselves of computer technology, in just a few short years mathematicians have, for the most part, embraced it in a significant and far-reaching way, with the result that the mathematics community is now one of the leading users of computer technology.

Nov/Dec 1994: The column closes down

With its midwifery role clearly coming to an end, the time was surely drawing near when “Computers and Mathematics” should come to an end. The change in format of the *Notices*, which will take place at the end of this year, offered an obvious juncture to wind up the column. Thus, this will be the final regularly scheduled “Computers and Mathematics” section in the *Notices*. The February issue will provide a reference bibliography of all the articles and reviews that have appeared in the column since its inception—something many readers have asked for on numerous occasions.

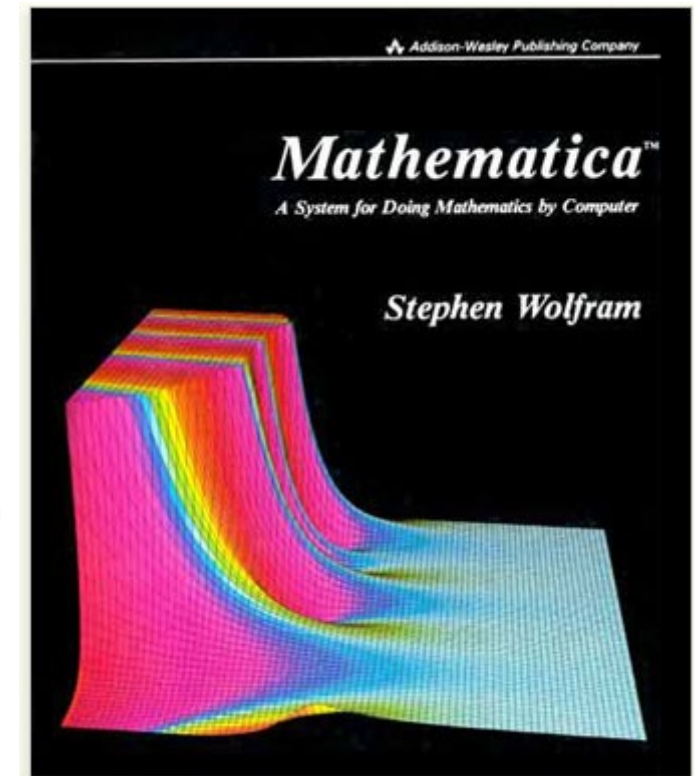
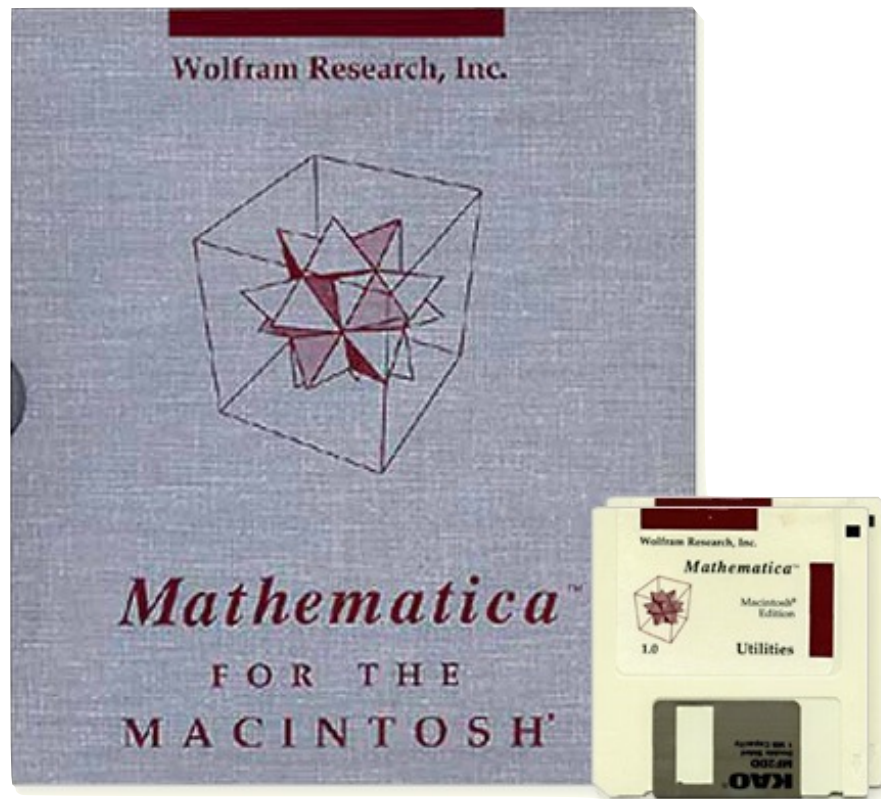
The disappearance of this column does not mean that the *Notices* will stop publishing articles on the use of computers in mathematics. Rather, recognizing that the use of computer technology is now just one more aspect of mathematics, the new-look *Notices* will no longer single out computer use for special attention. I’ll drink to that.

The child has come of age.



1988: Stephen Wolfram's *Mathematica*

v1.0 released June 23, 1988



Mathematica launch

Corporate Speakers at the *MATHEMATICA*TM Product Announcement (June 23, 1988):

- Forest Baskett, Vice President, Research & Development, Silicon Graphics Computer Systems
- Gordon Bell, Vice President, Research, Development and Engineering, Ardent Computer
- Steven Jobs, President, NeXT, Inc.
- William Joy, Vice President, Research & Development, Sun Microsystems
- Vicky Markstein, Research Staff Member, IBM
- Eric Lyons, Director of Technology, Autodesk, Inc.
- Larry Tesler, Vice President, Advanced Technology, Apple Computer
- Stephen Wolfram, President, Wolfram Research, Inc., and Professor of Physics, Mathematics and Computer Science, University of Illinois



Bundled with NeXT

Media interest in *Mathematica*

3.14159265358979323846264338327950288419716939937510

RESOURCES ■

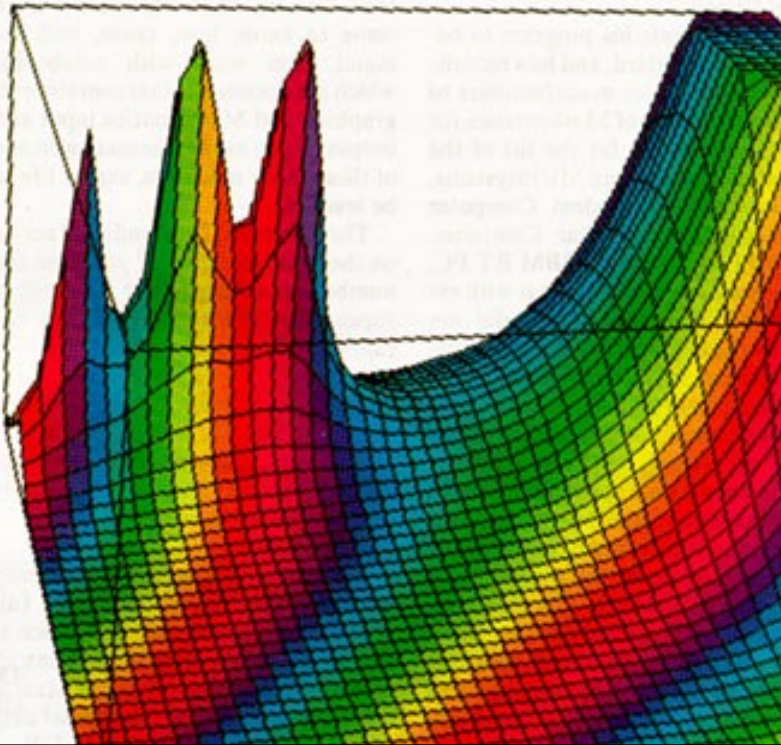
Enter Mathematica

Remember when you were in high school in that (expletive deleted) math class, and you couldn't understand the equation you had to solve? Wouldn't it have helped to be able to type the equation on your Mac and instantly see a picture of it — and a solution? What if you could check similar equations quickly to see how they differed? With Mathematica, an astoundingly powerful new mathematics program from Wolfram Research, such feats become mere child's play.

Mathematica opens up the entire world of mathematics to exploration by both the curious and the professional. What a spreadsheet can do with arithmetic, Mathematica can do with all of mathematics. Combining the knowledge of a mathematics Ph.D. with the speed of a computer, Mathematica is a breakthrough product in the world of small computers. It's powerful enough to provide professional physicists, mathematicians, or engineers with important new tools, yet simple enough to help students with their algebra.

Mathematica performs numeric calculations to any desired degree of precision. It does symbolic mathematics, manipulating algebraic formulae with ease. It produces dazzling two-

*In which a few thousand years
of mathematical knowledge
suddenly arrive on the desktop,
and we journey through a strange
and wonderful new world*



BY JAMES FINN

Information Processing

SOFTWARE

IT'S HOT, IT'S SEXY, IT'S ... CALCULUS?

Stephen Wolfram's Mathematica may create a giant market

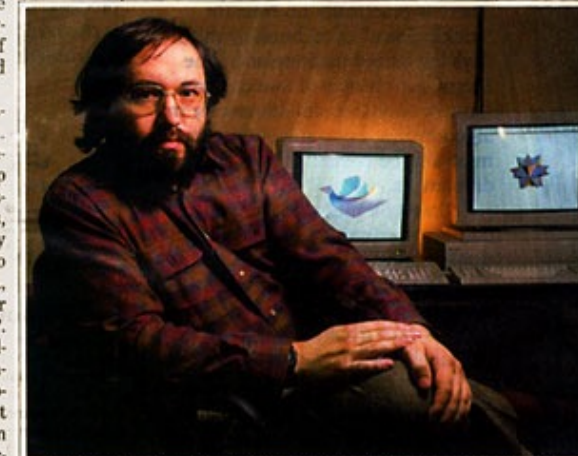
When Stephen Wolfram taught an introductory physics class to undergraduates at the University of Illinois last spring, he was appalled by the display of apathy. "The students didn't give a damn," he recalls. "It was very depressing." That convinced him that he had done the right thing in 1987, when he set up his own business partly because he thought it might leave a bigger imprint on the world of mathematics than he could in a lifetime of teaching.

A year later a lot of customers agree with Wolfram. Since founding Wolfram Research Inc., he has lined up an impressive list of licensees: IBM, Sun Microsystems, Silicon Graphics, and Sony are selling or planning to sell a version of his product, called Mathematica, for their computers. Steven P. Jobs, who persuaded Wolfram to use the name Mathematica, is including the program with each of his Next Inc. machines. And Wolfram Research sells a \$500 version for the Apple Macintosh. "That basically makes Mathematica the standard," says Steven M. Christensen, a research scientist at the National Center for Supercomputing Applications at the University of Illinois in Urbana-Champaign. Some analysts have likened Mathematica to Lotus Development Corp.'s 1-2-3 spreadsheet program, pegging the potential market for Mathematica at \$500 million.

MATH APPEAL. Mathematica is an extraordinarily powerful calculator. But unlike simple calculation programs, it does more sophisticated math as well. Not only does it do arithmetic grunt work such as finding logarithms, but it can also do calculus and solve differential equations and algebra problems. Moreover, the program helps students visualize mathematical functions by displaying them in intricate and colorful pictures. "It's going to revolutionize mathematics instruction," declares Cur-

tis S. Wozniak, general manager of the education products division at Sun, whose version of Mathematica is expected to be shipped next month. Wozniak says that 20% of Sun's business is in education.

Mathematica is particularly useful for scientists and anyone doing serious mathematical analysis. G-Bar Corp., an



WOLFRAM: HIS SOFTWARE COULD REVOLUTIONIZE MATH INSTRUCTION

arbitrage firm in Chicago, uses the program to do stock market analysis. Christensen, a theoretical physicist, says Mathematica helped him solve complex equations in a few days instead of the months it would have taken him to write his own program.

Despite a late start, Wolfram has the potential to take a quick market lead. Symbolics Inc. in Cambridge, Mass., the University of Waterloo in Ontario, and a few others have been selling theoretical math programs for workstations and minicomputers since the early 1980s. And PC software firms such as Universal Technical Systems Inc. in Rockford, Ill., and Mathsoft Inc. in Cambridge sell more limited equation solvers. Mathematica could appeal to a larger market, as it performs both basic calculations and high-level mathematics. Mathsoft's new product for Sun Microsystems Inc.'s workstations, called MathStation,

comes the closest to direct competition.

What's more, Mathematica appears to be the right program at the right time. As PCs become more powerful, they can more easily run programs such as Mathematica, which requires at least 2.5 megabytes of internal memory. Predicts Fred Thorlin, an analyst at Dataquest Inc. in San Jose, Calif.: "It won't happen overnight, but Mathematica could be stupendously successful."

'GENIUS' GRANT. A native of London, Wolfram, 29, started early, writing research papers on particle physics while still at Eton, the elite private school near London. He didn't graduate, but that didn't stop him from entering Oxford University at age 17. Without a degree from Oxford, he entered the California Institute of Technology as a graduate student. A few weeks after his 20th birthday, he received his PhD. At age 21, Wolfram was the youngest recipient of a John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation "genius" grant—\$125,000 over five years to use as he pleased. He used some of that and most of his savings, about \$250,000 in all, to start Wolfram Research.

Wolfram was just as precocious in his business dealings. With some fellow students at Caltech, he developed SMP, a mathematics program for use by research scientists. Sensing an opportunity, Wolfram wanted to license SMP to a company to sell. But a protracted and bitter struggle ensued, and in 1982 Caltech won

ownership of the program, eventually selling the distribution rights on its own. Soon afterward the disillusioned Wolfram left Caltech for Princeton University and then the University of Illinois, where he's a tenured professor of physics, mathematics, and computer science.

It took Wolfram and seven colleagues a year to design Mathematica. The company now has about 35 employees, with Wolfram as president and CEO. His goal is to see his program become as indispensable to PCs as word processors are. Then, he says, he will know he has made his mark. "Writing an academic paper about your computer program isn't the way to make a difference," Wolfram says. "It's a lot more exciting to make something a lot of other people can use." With so many computer manufacturers already in his corner, the odds are with him.

By Katherine M. Hafner in New York

A Top Scientist's Latest: Math Software

By ANDREW POLLACK

Special to The New York Times

SANTA CLARA, Calif., June 23 — A man widely regarded as one of the world's most brilliant scientists formally entered the computer business today with a program intended to do for mathematics what the calculator did for arithmetic.

Stephen Wolfram, who earned a Ph.D. in physics when he was 20, is the force behind the new program, *Mathematica*, which seems to be a dream come true for math students who have trouble factoring complex polynomials, graphing elliptical functions or calculating pi to 2,000 decimal places.

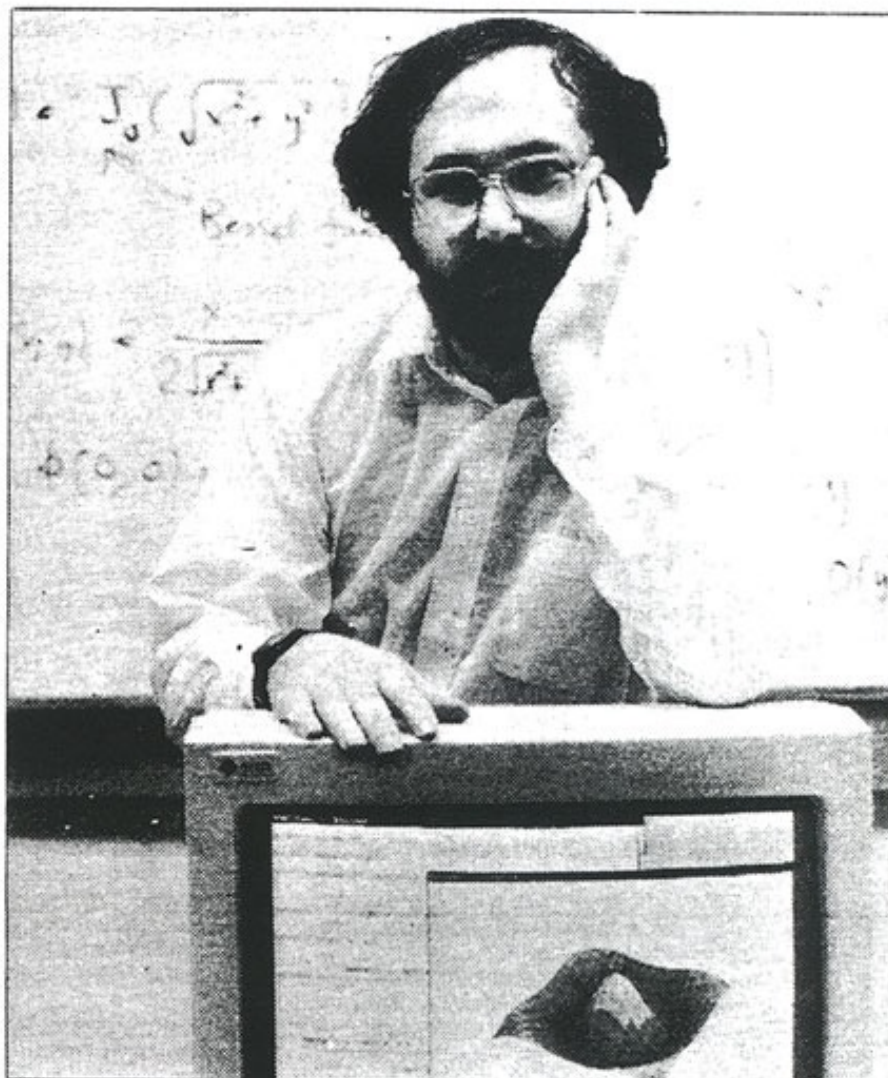
Mathematica, which is also intended for use by scientists and engineers, can solve equations in algebra and calculus and draw two- and three-dimensional graphs instantly.

Math Done the Old Way

Dr. Wolfram, who is 28 years old, said that, surprisingly, mathematics is still done largely with pencil, paper and calculator.

Whether Dr. Wolfram, a professor at the University of Illinois, proves to be as good an entrepreneur as he is a scientist remains to be seen. His program is not the first directed at mathematics, and many previous ones have not been great commercial successes.

Dr. Wolfram's program has attracted unusual attention, partly because of who he is and partly because of the companies that are backing



The New York Times/Terrence McCarthy

Stephen Wolfram, with a frame from his software, *Mathematica*, that shows a three-dimensional plot of the wave pattern on a drum head.

Continued on Page 30

Twilight of the pencil?

William H. Press

Mathematica. Wolfram Research Inc., PO Box 6059, Champaign, Illinois 61821. \$495 (Macintosh Plus/SE version); \$795 (Macintosh II version). Stop Press: on 15 December a version becomes available for 386-based IBM-PCs; prices from \$695 to \$1,295.
Mathematica: A System of Doing Mathematics by Computer. By Stephen Wolfram. Addison-Wesley: 1988. Pp. 749. Hbk \$40.95; £36.85; pbk \$27.75, £19.95.

Mathematica is a remarkable, perhaps even revolutionary, computer program written by a small group of young programmers at Wolfram Research Inc. Inside it are of the order of 200,000 lines of source code. More interesting is that behind the program there are a number of powerful, perhaps radical, ideas on what amounts to 'machine-assisted human thought' as it applies to mathematics. The manual, available in book form, provides an intellectual entrée to these ideas: the software is separately available from Wolfram Research (for Macintosh machines) and from Sun Microsystems Inc. (for Sun workstations). *Mathematica* is included free with the new Next computers.

The program is sufficiently different from existing computer tools, and so powerful in its way, that it is hard to describe exactly what it is. The easiest description, though it misses the mark, is to say that it is a symbolic manipulation package comparable, say, to *Macsyma* (Symbolics Inc.). If you type 'Integrate [1/(1+x^6)]', *Mathematica* echoes back the indefinite integral, a complicated expression involving arctangents and logarithms. As compared with *Macsyma* (available for VAX, Sun and Apollo workstations, but not for the Macintosh), *Mathematica* is less good at doing integrals, but seems better at solving systems of (even nonlinear) equations, number theoretical calculations and special functions. *Mathematica* has the vastly superior user interface, but its output format (like *Macsyma*'s) leaves something to be desired.

The reason that this comparison misses the mark is that *Mathematica* is deeper in its concept than previous symbolic mathematics programs. It is a kind of 'general algorithmic engine', for which symbolic mathematics is only one possible application. The engine can operate with equal facility on algebraic objects, numerical objects (arbitrary precision in integer or floating), graphical objects (represented ultimately in *Postscript* graphics language), or any other object that the user simply defines 'on the fly'. The interface among these modes is

practically seamless.

If one thinks of *Mathematica* as a computer language — another approximate but incomplete description — then it is something like LISP, but with a friendly user interface, with several dozen pre-defined data structures, and with several hundred pre-defined operations on these structures. Also pre-defined are anyone's

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Do[ p[4+2j+k+1] = {k, j, k}, {k, 0, 1}, {j, 0, 1}, {k, 0, 1}
Norm[p_] := Sqrt[p[[1]]^2+p[[2]]^2+p[[3]]^2]
w[i_][q_] := Product[1-Abs[q[[i]]]-p[[i]]{i}], {i, 3}]
Force[p1_p2_] := (p1-p2)/Norm[p1-p2]^3
GridForce[q_] := Sum[ w[[i]][q] Force[p[[i], ReceivePt], {i, 8}]
ReceivePt = {2.6, 1.9, 1.0};
Discrep[q_] := Block[ {F1, F2},
  F1 = Force[q, ReceivePt];
  F2 = GridForce[q];
  Norm[F1-F2]/Norm[F1]
];
Plot3D[Discrep[{x, y, 0.5}], {x, 0, 1}, {y, 0, 1}]
Discrep[{1/2, 1/2, 1/2}]
0.0104823
ReceivePt = {6.1/2, 1/2};
Discrep[{1/2, 1/2, 1/2}]/InputForm
1/2 - 41^2*(11/2 - 41)^(-2) + 41/2*(1/2 + 41)^(-2/21) -
41 - 41/2*(11/2 + 41 - 41^2)^(-1/21)

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Using *Mathematica* for algorithmic experimentation.

favourite control structures, an inclusive set taken from C, FORTRAN and Pascal. *Mathematica* emerges as a higher-level language than any of its antecedents. It is a huge language, in terms of its number of pre-defined operations.

All of this structure means that *Mathematica* can be used by the novice as a kind of super-BASIC. Follow the examples in the book, and you have: (i) a numerical calculator that knows lots of special functions, handles real or complex numbers in arbitrary precision; or (ii) a graphics package that plots functions, contour plots, shaded three-dimensional surfaces (in colour if you like); or (iii) a symbolic mathematics package that can do algebra, matrix algebra, derivatives, integrals and so forth.

A nice feature is the way that your session is recorded in an on-screen 'Note-book', in which the program statements can easily be cleaned up, explanatory text inserted and the result printed out in laser-printer fonts as an elegant-looking document. Wolfram's informal statistics suggest that a surprisingly large number of users are financial analysts, who are probably using *Mathematica* in this mode.

This is flashy stuff, but by itself it is unlikely to revolutionize the way that working scientists do mathematics. Two deeper aspects of the program — which require a correspondingly greater investment of effort to master — might, however, bring about just such a change.

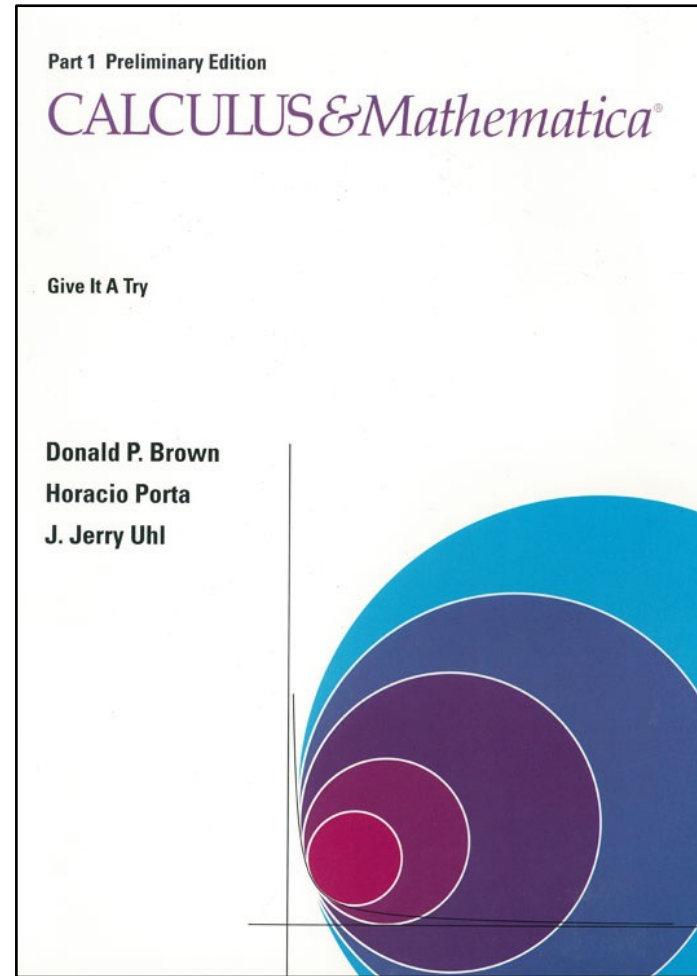
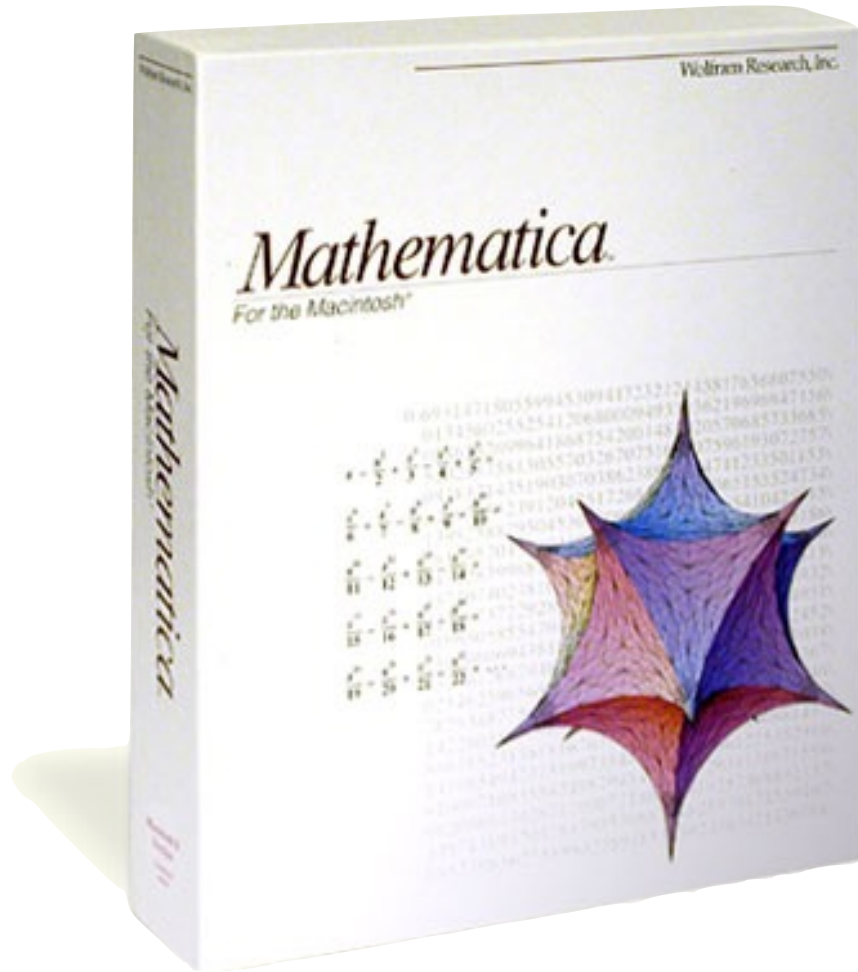
The first of these is *Mathematica*'s usefulness as a concise test-bed for algorithmic experimentation. Some sense of this may be conveyed in the accompanying figure,

even without detailed explanation. A sequence of definitions (lines with the '=' construction) creates eight 3-vectors on the corner of a unit cube, defines 'triangular' linear interpolation functions, and teaches *Mathematica* to compare the inverse square force resulting from a particle at an arbitrary location with that from the particle's interpolation onto the corners of the cube. The definitions are then used in three ways: first, to make plot of the force comparison on a two-dimensional slice through the unit cube; second, to compute a particular value; and third, to give an algebraic formula. It would be difficult, if not impossible, to get the same intuitive grasp of a problem like this by hand calculation.

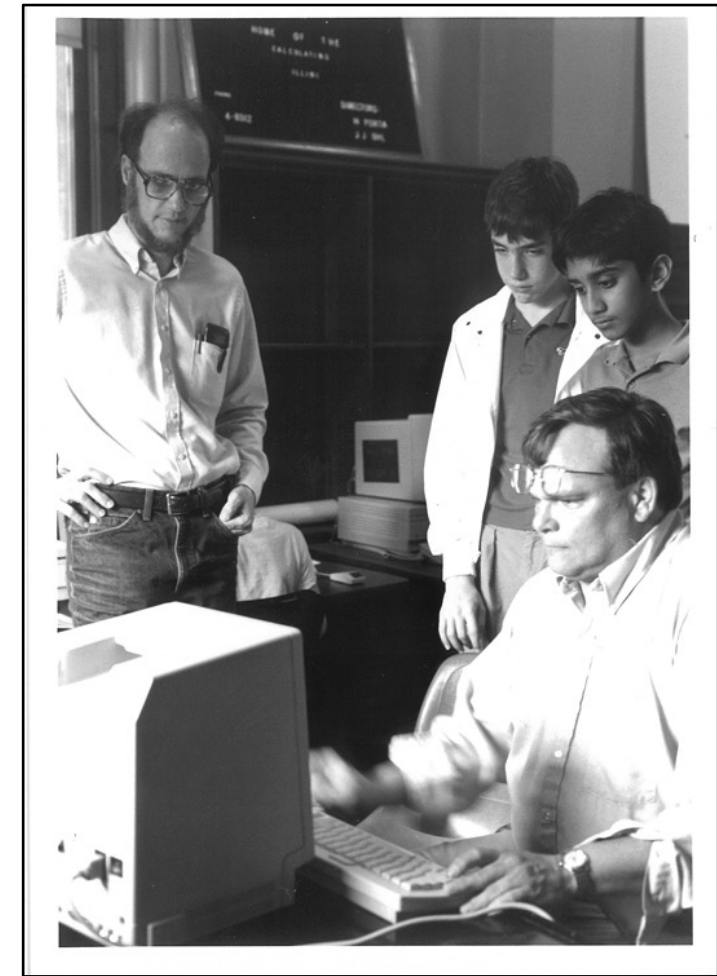
Notice that nothing in the definitions specifies whether they are numerical or symbolic. That is determined, interpretatively, by the actual calling arguments in each invocation. This, in fact, relates to the second deep aspect of *Mathematica*. It has a sophisticated hierarchical mechanism for 'overloading' procedural definitions, even its most fundamental pre-defined ones. The same operation (addition, for example, or 'do loop') can be defined to work on numbers, vectors or any other object, in any desired way. Functions automatically parse their arguments and search for a previously stored definition that matches syntactically. If nothing matches, then the function becomes a new symbolic 'atom'. Once one masters the knack, one can 'teach' *Mathematica* to be anything one wants it to be, or to deal with virtually any kind of mathematical object.

The potential user should be aware of some practicalities. *Mathematica* requires at least four megabytes of memory to run effectively on a Macintosh — and Mac

Teaching calculus with *Mathematica*



First *Mathematica* based calculus course



Jerry Uhl and calculus students

Launched
1988

Celebrating More Than 25 Years of Contributions
to Invention, Discovery, and Education

Wolfram *Mathematica*



Celebrating *Mathematica's*
First Quarter Century »

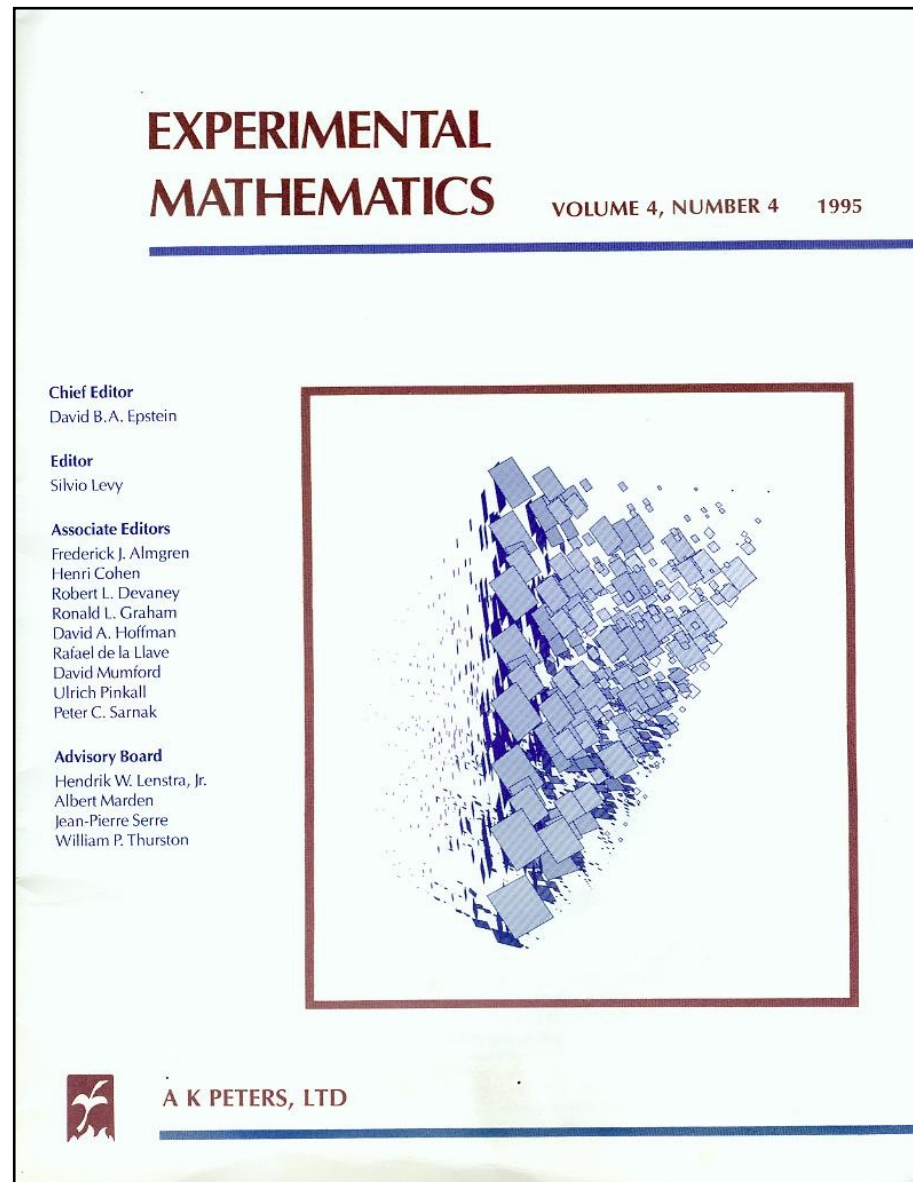
From Stephen Wolfram's Blog (June 23, 2013)



There Was a Time
before *Mathematica...* »

From Stephen Wolfram's Blog (June 6, 2013)

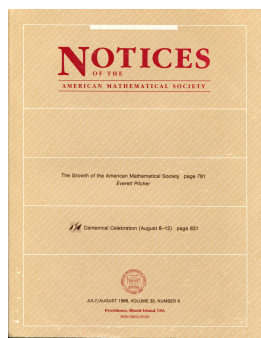
Embracing the computer: Experimental Mathematics



Experimental Mathematics journal established by David Epstein, Silvio Levy, and Klaus Peters.

“Experimental mathematics” is an approach to mathematics in which computation is used to investigate mathematical objects and identify properties and patterns.

Founders stated goal: The objective is to play a role in the **discovery** of formal proofs, **not to displace** them. The first issue published in 1992.



Oct 1992: The Borweins in "Computers and Mathematics"

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Some Observations on Computer Aided Analysis Jonathan Borwein* and Peter Borwein*

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Over the last quarter Century and especially during the last decade, a dramatic "re-experimentalization" of mathematics has begun to take place. In this process, fueled by advances in hardware, software, and theory, the computer plays a laboratory role for pure and applied mathematicians; a role which, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the physical sciences played much more fully than in our century.

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Edited by Keith Devlin

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Computers and Mathematics

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1. Cubic Series for π

The Mathematical Component, Ramanujan [10] produced a number of remarkable series for $1/\pi$ including

$$(1.1) \quad \frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{9801} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(4n)!}{(n!)^2 (3n)!} \frac{[1103 + 26390n]}{99^{6n}}$$

This series adds roughly eight digits per term and was used by Gosper in 1985 to compute 17 million terms of the continued fraction for π . Such series exist because various modular invariants are rational (which is more-or-less equivalent to identifying those imaginary quadratic fields with class number 1), see [3]. The larger the discriminant of such a field the greater the rate of convergence. Thus with $d = -163$ we have the largest of the class number 1 examples

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$$(*) \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a(n) + nb(n)}{(3n)! (n!)^2} \frac{1}{j(n)^n} = \frac{\sqrt{-j(n)}}{\pi}$$

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$$b(n) = (t(1728 - j(n)))^{1/2},$$
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$$C = 4320 \cdot 2^{2/3} + 3^{1/3} (-471154446661617873062970863$$
$$+ 5273559419633 + 2721^{1/2})^{3/2} - 4320 \cdot 2^{2/3}$$
$$+ 3^{1/3} (471154446661617873062970863 + 5273559419633$$
$$+ 2721^{1/2})^{3/2} - 1658037933280$$

$$A = 271362581002591670714650084289323501202067183298721$$
$$+ 99780432501542041707016500 + 2721^{1/2})^{3/2}$$
$$- 27136(-2581002591670714650084289323501202067183298721$$
$$+ 99780432501542041707016500 + 2721^{1/2})^{3/2}$$
$$+ 372226616981894772$$

$$B = 193019904 + 907^{1/2}$$
$$(669689031513505648275135384091973612$$
$$+ 22970060316722125 + 2721^{1/2})^{3/2} - 193019904 + 907^{1/2}$$
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$$+ 352177949364002065512$$

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$$C = -21472799063512240 - 96940338848032 + s^{1/2}$$

$$- 1296 + s^{1/2} (1098323457946350323713318473$$
$$+ 4891274625692362754607399912 + s^{1/2})^{1/2}$$

$$A = 63365028312971999585426220$$

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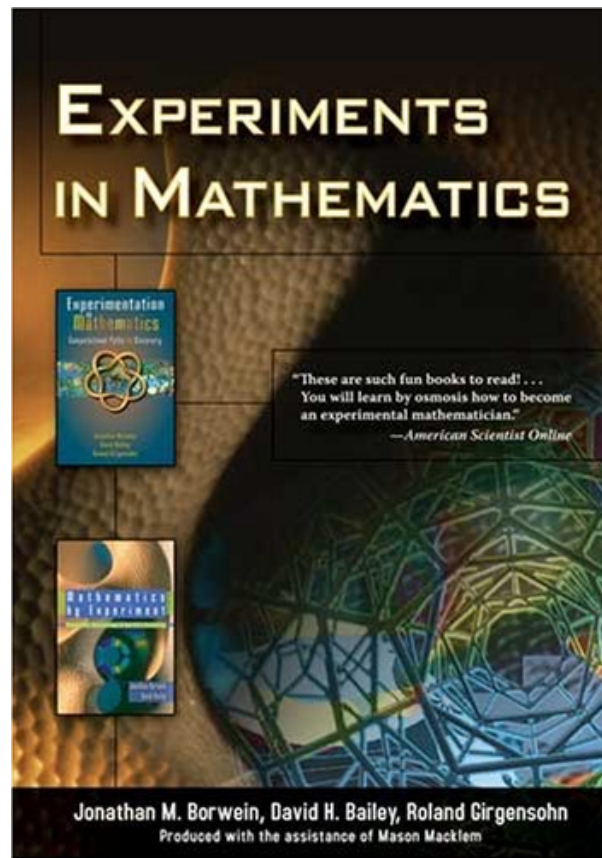
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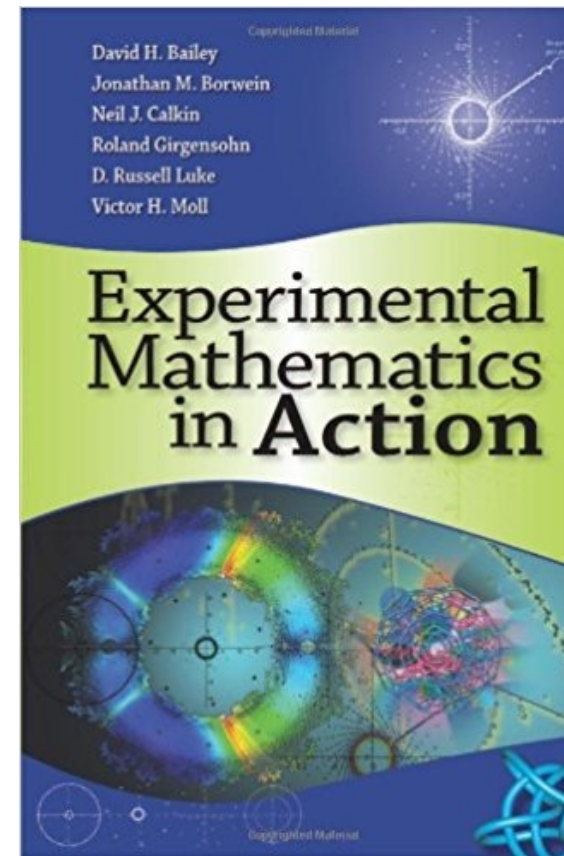
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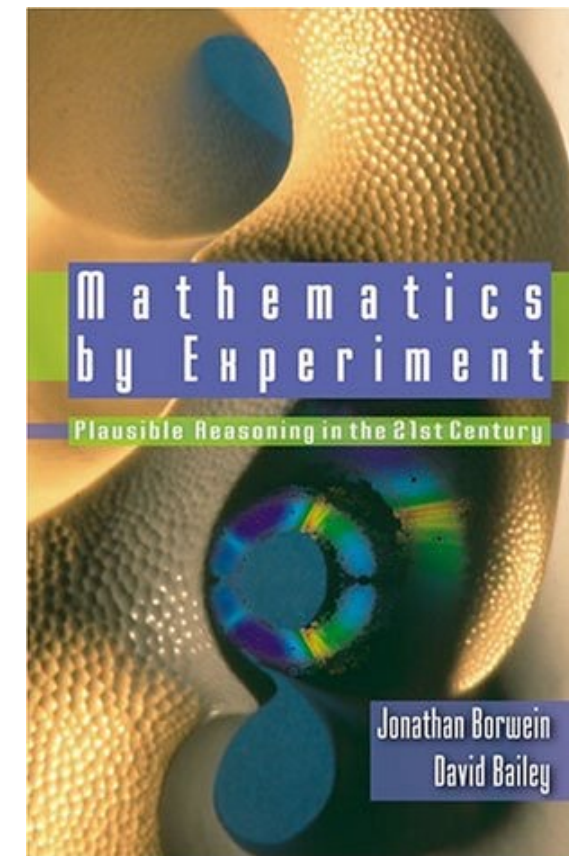
Borwein, Bailey, *et al*



2004



2007



2008

Embracing the computer: Experimental Mathematics

THINK - COMPUTE - REPEAT



THE COMPUTER AS CRUCIBLE

AN INTRODUCTION TO EXPERIMENTAL MATHEMATICS

JONATHAN BORWEIN • KEITH DEVLIN

AK Peters/CRC Press, 2008

Some techniques of experimental mathematics

1. Symbolic computation using a computer algebra system such as *Mathematica* or *Maple*
2. Data visualization methods
3. Search Web resources, eg. Sloane's *Online Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences*
4. Integer-relation methods, such as the PSLQ algorithm
5. High-precision integer and floating-point arithmetic
6. High-precision numerical evaluation of integrals and summation of infinite series,
7. Use of the Wilf-Zeilberger algorithm for proving summation identities
8. Iterative approximations to continuous functions
9. Identification of functions based on graph characteristics

2009: Wolfram Alpha

The screenshot shows the Wolfram Alpha homepage. At the top, the logo "WolframAlpha" is displayed in red and orange, with the tagline "computational knowledge engine." below it. A search bar with the placeholder text "Enter what you want to calculate or know about:" is centered. Below the search bar are icons for various input methods (text, image, list, voice) and navigation links for "Web Apps", "Examples", and "Random".

Below the search bar, the text "Explore some of the things Wolfram|Alpha can do:" is followed by a grid of 30 category tiles. Each tile contains an icon and a category name.

Category	Category	Category	Category	Category
<i>sin(x)</i> Mathematics	Step-by-step Solutions	Words & Linguistics	Units & Measures	Statistical & Data Analysis
People & History	Dates & Times	Chemistry	Culture & Media	Money & Finance
Physics	Art & Design	Socioeconomic Data	Astronomy	Music
Health & Medicine	Engineering	Places & Geography	Food & Nutrition	Education
Materials	Earth Sciences	Life Sciences	Weather & Meteorology	Technological World
Sports & Games	Computational Sciences	Transportation	Web & Computer Systems	Surprises





Keith Devlin, Contributor

Dr Keith Devlin is a mathematician at Stanford University in Palo Alto, California.

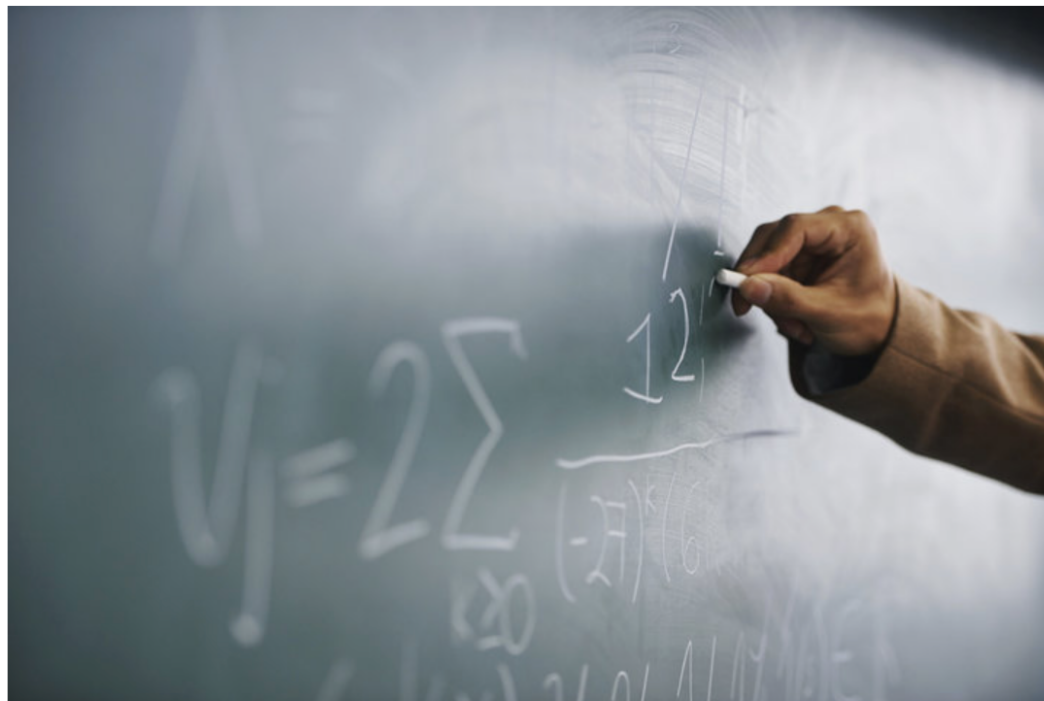
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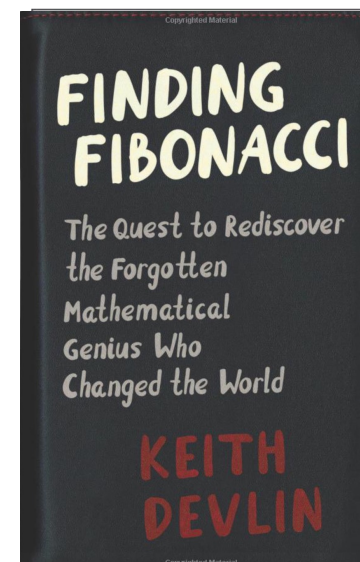
27

All The Mathematical Methods I Learned In My University Math Degree Became Obsolete In My Lifetime

01/01/2017 12:50 pm ET | Updated Jan 23, 2017



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Buy it now

If you are connected with the world of K-12 mathematics education, it's highly unlikely that a day will go by without you uttering, writing, hearing, or reading the term "number sense". In contrast everyone else on the planet would be hard pressed to describe what it is. Though entering the term into Google will return close to 38 million hits, it has yet to enter the world's collective consciousness. Stanford mathematician Keith Devlin explains what it is.