2. Édouard Goursat, A course in mathematical analysis, vol. I, Ginn \& Co., 1904.
3. C. P. Nicholas, Another look at the probability integral, American Mathematical Monthly 64 (1957) 739-741.
4. C. P. Nicholas and R. C. Yates, The probability integral, American Mathematical Monthly 57 (1950) 412-413.
5. T. J. Stieljes, Oevres Complètes, vol. II, Wolters-Noordhoff, 1918.
6. S. C. van Veen, Historische bizjonderheden over $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} d x$, Mathematica B 12 (1943-1944), 1-4.
7. Robert Weinstock, Elementary evaluations of $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} d x, \int_{0}^{\infty} \cos \left(x^{2}\right) d x$, and $\int_{0}^{\infty} \sin \left(x^{2}\right) d x$, American Mathematical Monthly 97 (1990) 39-42.
8. Robert M. Young, Excursions in Calculus, Mathematical Association of America, 1992.
9. -_ On the evaluation of certain improper integrals, Mathematical Gazette 75 (1991) 88-89.

## A Simple Introduction to e

Pratibha Ghatage (ghatage@math.csuohio.edu) Cleveland State University, Cleveland, OH 44115

The idea for this note was suggested by Dimitric's recent paper [1] that discusses a way to introduce the Euler number $\boldsymbol{e}$ in a heuristic way. Given the volume and breadth of literature on the subject, what follows is a very simplistic way of introducing $\boldsymbol{e}$ that is easily understood by freshmen.

Let $A_{2}$ denote the area under the hyperbola $y=\frac{1}{x}$ between $x=1$ and $x=2$. Then (Figure 1) $A_{2}$ is greater than the area $\frac{1}{2}$ of the "inner" rectangle having height $\frac{1}{2}$, and


Figure 1.


Figure 2.


Figure 3.
$A_{2}$ is less than the area $\frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{2}\right)=\frac{3}{4}$ of the trapezoid having heights 1 and $\frac{1}{2}$. [The line segment joining points $(1,1)$ and $\left(2, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ has equation $y=-\frac{x}{2}+\frac{3}{2}$, and $-\frac{x}{2}+$ $\frac{3}{2}>\frac{1}{x}$ for $x \in(1,2)$.] Thus, $\frac{1}{2}<A_{2}<\frac{3}{4}$. Now (Figure 2) let $A_{3}$ be the area under the hyperbola $y=\frac{1}{x}$ between $x=1$ and $x=3$. If we divide the interval $[1,3]$ into eight equal-sized subintervals, then the sum of the area of the "inner" rectangles is $\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{4}{5}+\frac{4}{6}+\cdots \frac{4}{12}\right) \approx 1.0199$. Therefore $A_{3}=1$.

It is intuitively obvious (without the benefit of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus) that the area under the hyperbola from $x=1$ on increases continuously as the value of the right-hand endpoint increases. Hence, somewhere strictly between 2 and 3, there lies a unique number $\boldsymbol{e}$ for which the area under the hyperbola from $x=1$ to $x=\boldsymbol{e}$ is exactly 1 . For $x \in\left[1, \frac{5}{2}\right]$, students can verify (Figure 3) that the sum of the three trapezoidal areas is

$$
\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}\left[\left(1+\frac{2}{3}\right)+\left(\frac{2}{3}+\frac{1}{2}\right)+\left(\frac{1}{2}+2\right)\right]=\frac{56}{60}<1
$$

and so $\boldsymbol{e}>2.5$.

## Reference

1. Dimitric, R. M., Using less calculus in teaching calculus: an historical approach, Mathematics Magazine 74 (2001) 201-211.

## A Surface Useful for Illustrating the Implicit Function Theorem

Jeffrey Nunemacher (jlnunema@owu.edu), Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, OH 43015

While teaching multi-variable calculus last year, I stumbled upon a surface that can be used to make the content of the Implicit Function Theorem concrete and visual. The folium of Descartes, defined by the equation $x^{3}+y^{3}-3 x y=0$, is a classic curve often used to illustrate various techniques in single variable calculus. We construct our surface by setting $z=h(x, y)=x^{3}+y^{3}-3 x y$, so that the level set at $z=0$ is the folium. Most of the level sets of the defining function for this surface are smooth curves, but there are two points where the hypotheses of this theorem break down, and the level sets at these points display interesting singularities. The surface can also be used to illustrate the complementarity of two and three dimensional graphs for studying a function of two variables.

A curve is locally smooth at a point $P$ if the curve does not intersect itself at $P$ and the direction of the tangent line varies continuously there. The Implicit Function Theorem asserts that a level set of a function $z=f(x, y)$ is locally a smooth curve at a point $P(a, b)$ if $\operatorname{grad} f(a, b) \neq \mathbf{0}$. Here grad $f(a, b)$ denotes the vector $\left(f_{x}(a, b), f_{y}(a, b)\right)$ and $\mathbf{0}$ is the vector $(0,0)$. Many students have trouble appreciating the significance of this theorem. A study of the surface $z=h(x, y)$ sheds some light on this fundamental result.

