

Recall: $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

$$\mathbb{N}_0 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$$

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\} = -\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$$

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \right\}$$

\mathbb{I} = "numbers whose decimal representation is infinite and not eventually periodic"

$$\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{Q} \cup \mathbb{I} \quad \text{real numbers}$$

Still: cannot solve all quadratic equations in the reals:

E.g.: $x^2 = -1$

Solution: define the imaginary unit i with the property that $i^2 = -1$

$$\mathbb{C} = \{x + iy : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Examples: $x^2 + 1 = (x+i)(x-i)$

$$x^2 - (i)^2 = x^2 - (-1) = x^2 + 1$$

$$\cdot (7+3i)(1-i) = 7-7i+3i+3i(-i) = 7+3 + (-7+3)i = \underline{10-4i}$$

$$\cdot \frac{3+i}{2-i} = \frac{3+i}{2-i} \cdot \frac{2+i}{2+i} = \frac{6+3i+2i-1}{2^2+1} = \frac{1}{5}(5+5i) = \underline{1+i}$$

• Roots of $2x^2 - x + 3$:

$$x_{1,2} = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1^2 - 4 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}}{2 \cdot 2} = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{-23}}{4} = \frac{1}{4} \pm i \frac{\sqrt{23}}{4}$$

"complex conjugate pair"

The complex conjugate of $z = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$ is $\bar{z} = x - iy$ E.g. $(+2i)^* = 1 - 2i$
 $7^* = 7$

↑ real part *↑ imaginary part*

sometimes it is written \bar{z}

Fact: If $p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ has real coefficients, and z is a root, then \bar{z} is also a root.

in general

Proof: $p(z^*) = a_n \underbrace{(z^*)^n}_{(z^n)^*} + a_{n-1} \underbrace{(z^*)^{n-1}}_{(z^{n-1})^*} + \dots + a_0 \stackrel{\downarrow}{=} (a_n^* z^n + a_{n-1}^* z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0^*)$

only equal if
 $a_n = a_n^*$, so $a_n \in \mathbb{R}$
 $a_{n-1} = a_{n-1}^*$, so $a_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$
 \vdots

$= (a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0)^*$

$= p(z)^*$

$= 0^* = 0$

Why is $(z^n)^* = (z^*)^n$?

$z^2 = (x+iy)^2 = x^2 + 2ixy - y^2$
 z^3, \dots, z^n

Example: $i^* = -i$
 $(i^2)^* = (-1)^* = -1$, $(i^*)^2 = (-i)^2 = i^2 = -1$

$(i^3)^* = (-i)^* = i$, $(i^*)^3 = (-i)^3 = -1 \cdot \underbrace{i \cdot i}_{=-1} \cdot i = i$

coffee break exercise: finish the argument

More on roots of polynomials:

$n=1$: always one real root

$n=2$: $a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0 = 0$

$\Delta = a_1^2 - 4a_2 a_0$

$\begin{cases} > 0 & \text{two distinct real roots} \\ = 0 & \text{one "double" root} \\ < 0 & \text{complex conjugate pair of roots} \end{cases}$

$n=3,4$: formulas available, but rarely useful (too messy)

$n \geq 5$: no general formula exists

Fundamental theorem of algebra:

Every polynomial of degree ≥ 1 has at least one complex root.

Consequence: Any polynomial can be written in factorized form as

$p(x) = a_n \underbrace{(x-z_1)(x-z_2)(x-z_3) \dots (x-z_n)}_{\bullet}$

where z_1, \dots, z_n are n complex roots of p (repetitions allowed)

n times ... speak of a root of order k , e.g. "double root", "triple root"...

(If one of these appears n -times, we get ...)

Reason: $p(x) = (x - \alpha) q(x) + r$ This is always possible (long division)

\uparrow (complex) number

\uparrow polynomial of degree $n-1$

If α is a root of p , then $p(\alpha) = 0 \Rightarrow \underbrace{(\alpha - \alpha) q(\alpha)}_{=0} + r = 0 \Rightarrow r = 0$

so $p(x) = (x - \alpha) q(x)$

Remark: \mathbb{Q} is countable

\mathbb{I} is uncountable

(Discussion in Analysis I)

