

Weeks 1 and 2.  
 Homework on page 17.

JK

I. Review quad eqn + rxn now.

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0, \quad \underline{a \neq 0 \text{ or } a > 0.}$$

$$x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{c}{a} = 0$$

$$\left(x^2 + 2\left(\frac{b}{2a}\right)x + \left(\frac{b}{2a}\right)^2\right) - \left(\frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 + \frac{c}{a} = 0$$

$$\left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 - \frac{b^2}{4a^2} + \frac{c}{a} = 0$$

$$\left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 = \frac{b^2 - 4ac}{4a^2}$$

$$\left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right) = \frac{\pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

Real solutions when  $b^2 - 4ac \geq 0$ .

Complex number (imaginary) solutions when  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ .

Simplest complex soln:

$$x^2 + 1 = 0$$

$$x = \frac{-0 \pm \sqrt{0^2 - 4(1)(1)}}{2}$$

$$x = \pm \sqrt{-1}.$$

There is no real number  $\sqrt{-1}$ .

Initially people dealt with  $\sqrt{-1}$  by writing  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ ,  $-i = -\sqrt{-1}$  and using the rule  $i^2 = -1$ .

Then, assuming  $i$  behaves otherwise as an ordinary number, we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a+bi)(c+di) &= a(c+di) + bi(c+di) \\ [a,b,c,d \text{ real}] &= ac+adi + bci + bd i^2 \\ &= (ac-bd) + (ad+bc)i\end{aligned}$$

This actually gives us a rigorous definition of complex nos. (Due to W.R. Hamilton in 1800's). We identify

$a+bi = (a,b)$  as an ordered pair of real numbers. Thus  $1 = (1,0)$   
 $i = (0,1)$ .

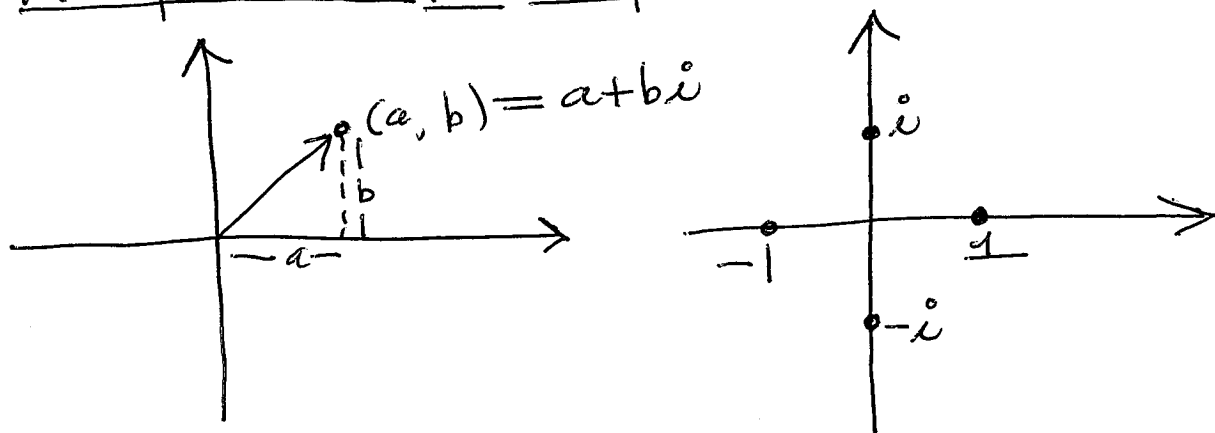
and define the product of these pairs by:  $(a,b)(c,d) = (ac-bd, ad+bc)$

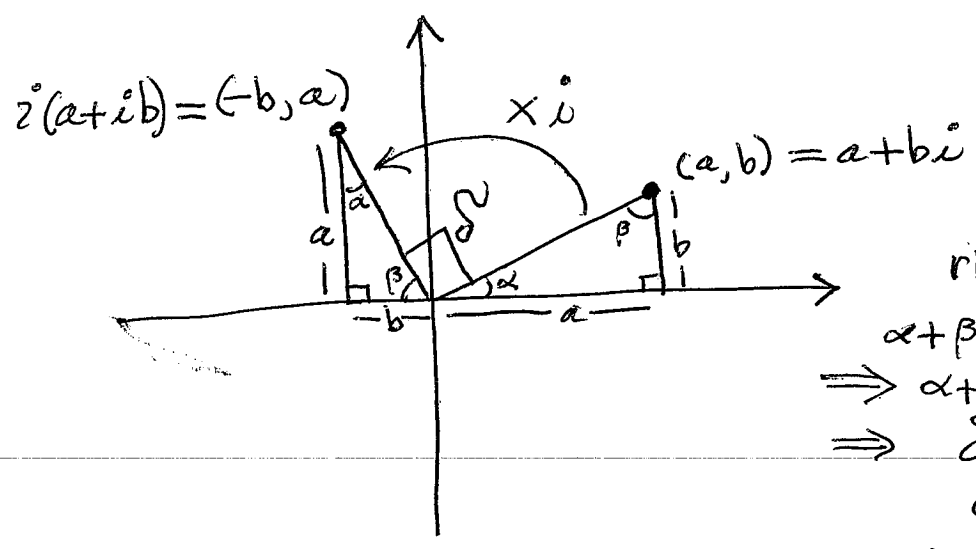
and the sum by:  $(a,b) + (c,d) = (a+c, b+d)$ .

In this way we have  $(a,b) = (a',b')$  if and only if  $a=a'$  and  $b=b'$ .

Note that  $(a,b)i = (-b,a)$ .

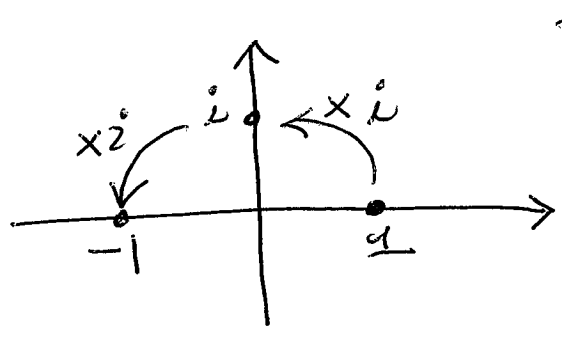
If you think of  $(a,b)$  as a point in the plane, then we have a geometric interpretation of complex numbers.





$\text{right } \Delta \Rightarrow \alpha + \beta = \pi/2$   
 $\alpha + \beta + \delta = \text{straight } \angle$   
 $\Rightarrow \alpha + \beta + \delta = \pi$   
 $\Rightarrow \delta = \pi - (\alpha + \beta)$   
 $\delta = \pi - \pi/2$   
 $\therefore \delta = \pi/2$

Multiplication by  $i$  rotates a point in the plane by  $\pi/2 = 90^\circ$ .



$i^2 = -1$   
means that  
 two  $90^\circ$  rotations  
 make a  $180^\circ$  rotation!

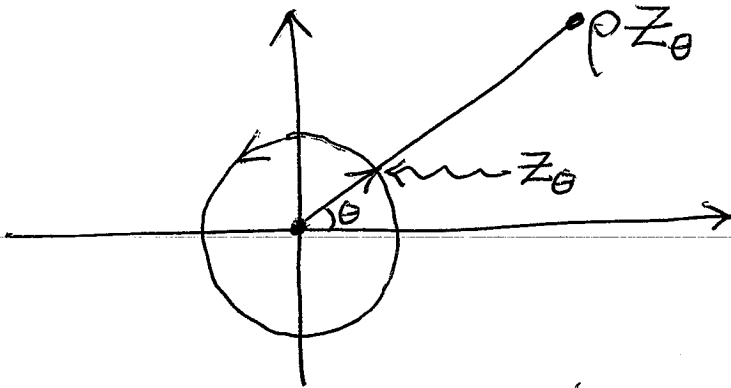
Theorem. Let  $Z_\theta = \cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta)$ .

Then  $Z_\theta Z_\phi = Z_{(\theta + \phi)}$ .

Proof.  $Z_\theta Z_\phi = [\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta)][\cos(\phi) + i \sin(\phi)]$   
 $= [\cos(\theta)\cos(\phi) - \sin(\theta)\sin(\phi)] + i [\sin(\theta)\cos(\phi) + \cos(\theta)\sin(\phi)]$   
 $= \cos(\theta + \phi) + i \sin(\theta + \phi)$   
 $= Z_{(\theta + \phi)} \quad //$

$\sin(\theta) = \sin(\theta)$ $\cos(\phi) = \cos(\phi)$
We use basic trig formulas for sin & cos of sums of $\angle$ s.

Any complex number can be written in the form  $Z = \rho Z_\theta$  for some  $\rho \geq 0$  and  $\theta$  an angle between  $0$  and  $2\pi$ .



Thus, when you multiply complex nos, you add their angles and multiply their lengths.

$$(\rho Z_\theta)(\rho' Z_{\theta'}) = (\rho\rho') Z_{(\theta+\theta')}$$

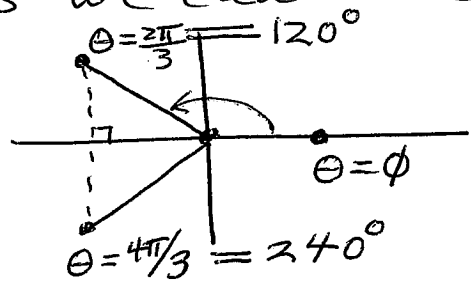
$$\mathbb{C} = \{a+bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}, \mathbb{R} = \text{the real numbers.}$$

Example. Find all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  s.t.  $z^3 = 1$ .

Answer. Let  $z = Z_\theta$  then  $3\theta = 2\pi N$

So  $\theta = 2\pi N/3$ . Thus we can have

$$\theta = 2\pi/3, 4\pi/3, \phi:$$



$$Z_{\frac{2\pi}{3}} = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i$$

$$Z_{\frac{4\pi}{3}} = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i$$

$$Z_\phi = 1 = 1$$

Let

$$\omega = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$

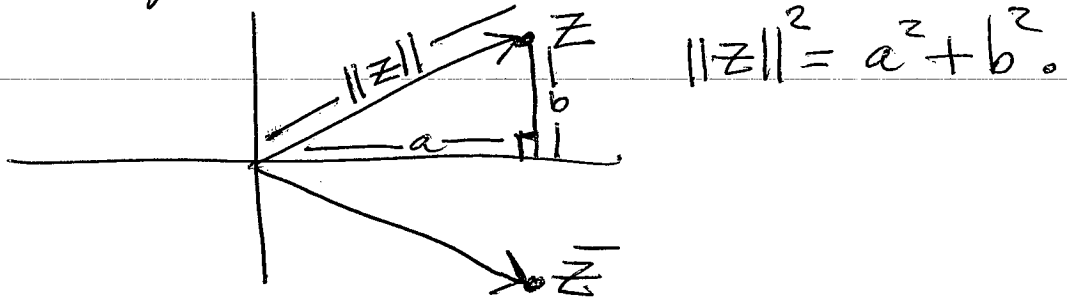
$$\omega^2 = \frac{-1 - \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$

$1, \omega, \omega^2$  are the three cube roots of unity.

Some facts.

$$1. \left. \begin{array}{l} z = a+bi \\ \bar{z} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} a-bi \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} z\bar{z} = (a+bi)(a-bi) \\ \underline{z\bar{z} = a^2 + b^2 = \|z\|^2} \end{array}$$

$$\|z\| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = \sqrt{z\bar{z}}$$



$$2. \overline{zW} = \bar{z}\bar{W}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pf. } \overline{zW} &= \overline{(a+bi)(c+di)} \\ &= \overline{(ac-bd) + (ad+bc)i} \\ &= (ac-bd) - (ad+bc)i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{z}\bar{W} &= (a-bi)(c-di) \\ &= (ac-bd) - (bc-ad)i \end{aligned} \quad //$$

3. Note:

$$\begin{aligned} (a^2+b^2)(c^2+d^2) &= z\bar{z}W\bar{W} \\ &= (zW)(\bar{z}\bar{W}) \\ &= (zW)\overline{(zW)} \end{aligned}$$

$$(a^2+b^2)(c^2+d^2) = (ac-bd)^2 + (ad+bc)^2$$

Thus the product of two sums of squares is a sum of squares. (Try  $(1^2+2^2)(3^2+4^2)$ .)

# 4. Solving cubic equations.

⑥

Fact:  $(a+b)^3 = a^3 + b^3 + 3ab^2 + 3a^2b$

So  $(a+b)^3 = (3ab)(a+b) + (a^3 + b^3)$ .

If you were asked to solve

$$X^3 = pX + q$$

you can set  $X = a+b$  ( $a, b$  unknown) and try to find  $a, b$  s.t.

$$\begin{cases} p = 3ab \\ q = a^3 + b^3 \end{cases}$$

This leads to a quadratic equation for  $a^3 = R$  and  $b^3 = S$ .

$$(p/3)^3 = a^3 b^3 = RS$$

$$q = a^3 + b^3 = R + S.$$

Solve for  $R$  and  $S$ .

Then take their cube roots and add them up.

Example:  $X^3 = 3X + 1$ .

$$p = 3, q = 1$$

$$\begin{cases} 3 = 3ab \\ 1 = a^3 + b^3 \end{cases}$$

So  $\begin{cases} 1 = ab \\ 1 = a^3 + b^3 \end{cases}$

$$\text{So } \begin{cases} 1 = a^3 b^3 = RS \\ 1 = a^3 + b^3 = R + S \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} 1 = RS \\ 1 = R + S \end{cases}$$

next page →

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$$\begin{cases} 1 = RS \\ 1 = R + S \end{cases}$$

$$S_0 \quad S = 1 - R$$

⑦

~~$\gamma$~~

$$1 = RS = R(1 - R)$$

$$1 = R - R^2$$

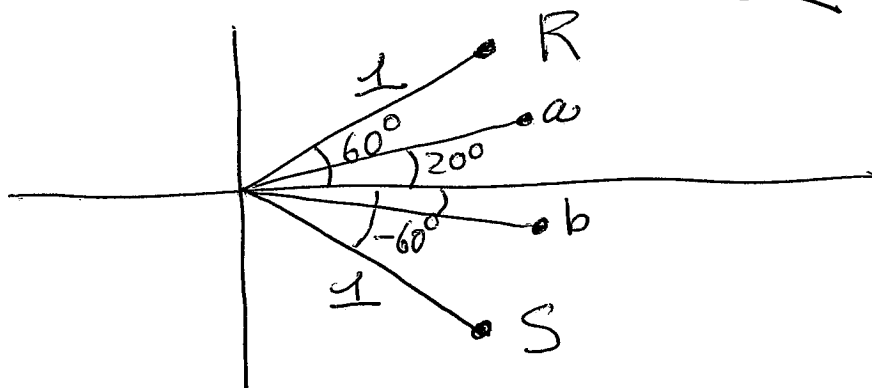
$$R^2 - R + 1 = 0$$

$$R = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4}}{2} = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$

This means we can take

$$a^3 = R = \frac{1 + \sqrt{3}i}{2} = \cos(60^\circ) + i \sin(60^\circ)$$

$$b^3 = S = 1 - R = \frac{1 - \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$



So we can take  $a = \cos(20^\circ) + i \sin(20^\circ)$   
 $b = \cos(20^\circ) - i \sin(20^\circ)$

$$a = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1 + \sqrt{3}i}{2}}, \quad b = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1 - \sqrt{3}i}{2}}$$

These are the "principal cube roots of R and S".

Note that  $x=a+b$  is real. ⑧

$$X = 2 \cos(20^\circ).$$

Thus we have shown that  $X^3 = 3X + 1$  has a real root  $= 2 \cos(20^\circ) = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1+\sqrt{3}i}{2}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{1-\sqrt{3}i}{2}}$ .

What about the other roots of  $X^3 = 3X + 1$ ?

Recall our 3 cube roots of unity  $\{1, \omega, \omega^2\}$ . We have

$$ab = \sqrt[3]{R} \sqrt[3]{S} = \sqrt[3]{\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{3}i}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{3}i}{2}\right)} = \sqrt[3]{1} = 1.$$

If we replace  $a$  by  $\omega a = a'$   
 $b$  by  $\omega^2 b = b'$

$$\text{Then } a'b' = \omega a \omega^2 b = \omega^3 ab = 1.$$

So we still have

$$P = 3 a'b'$$

$$\forall Q = a^3 + b'^3.$$

Thus we have found 3 roots to the cubic:

$$\begin{aligned} & a+b, \\ & \omega a + \omega^2 b, \\ & \omega^2 a + \omega b. \end{aligned}$$



Are the two new roots complex (9) or real?

A complex number  $\bar{z}$  is real if and only if  $z = \bar{z}$ .

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} z = a+bi; \quad z = \bar{z} \Leftrightarrow a+bi = a-bi \\ \Leftrightarrow a=a \text{ and } b = -b \Leftrightarrow b = 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{Now } a+b = a+\bar{a} \quad (b = \bar{a})$$

$$\text{So } \overline{a+b} = \overline{a+\bar{a}} = \bar{a} + \bar{\bar{a}} = \bar{a} + a = b+a = a+b \checkmark$$

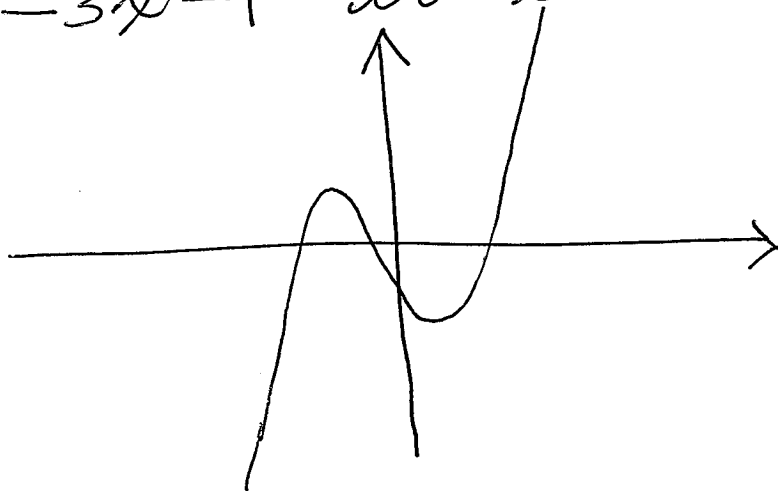
$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \overline{\bar{z}} = z \text{ for any } z \\ \overline{z+w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{Note: } \begin{array}{l} \overline{\bar{w}} = w \\ \overline{w^2} = \bar{w}^2 \\ \bar{\bar{a}} = a \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } \overline{wa + w^2b} &= \bar{w} \bar{a} + \overline{w^2} \bar{b} \\ &= \bar{w}^2 b + \bar{w} a = \overline{wa + w^2b} \end{aligned}$$

Thus the other two roots of  $x^3 = 3x + 1$  are also real! and so  $x^3 = 3x + 1$  has three real roots. If you plot

$y = x^3 - 3x - 1$  it will look like:



(10)

Here is another example.

Consider the cubic

$$X^3 = -3X + 1$$

Then with  $X = a+b$ , we have

$$\begin{cases} +3ab = -3 \\ a^3 + b^3 = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} ab = -1 \\ a^3 + b^3 = 1 \end{cases}$$

 $\Rightarrow$ 

$$\begin{cases} a^3 b^3 = -1 \\ a^3 + b^3 = 1 \end{cases}$$

So

$$\begin{cases} RS = -1 \\ R + S = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$R(1-R) = -1$$

$$R - R^2 = -1$$

$$R^2 - R - 1 = 0$$

$$R = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

The quadratic has real roots.

$$\text{So } a^3 = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}, \quad b^3 = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

and the full set of solutions to the cubic is: (next page)

$$\text{Let } a = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}}, \quad b = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}} \quad (11)$$

These are real numbers.  
 $a > 0, b < 0.$

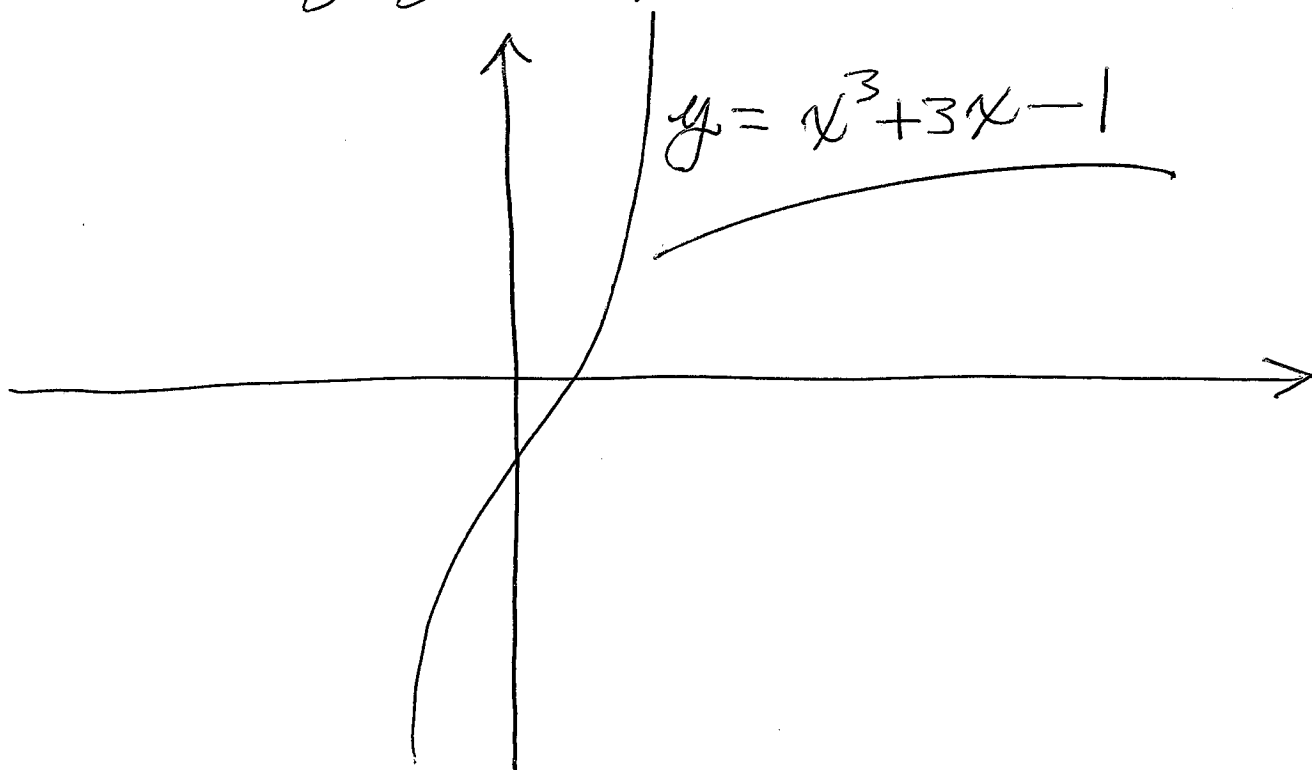
Then solutions to  $x^3 = -3x + 1$   
are:  $a + b$  (real)

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \omega a + \omega^2 b \\ \omega^2 a + \omega b \end{array} \right\}$  both complex.

Note that

$$\overline{\omega a + \omega^2 b} = \overline{\omega} \overline{a} + \overline{\omega^2} \overline{b} \\ = \omega^2 a + \omega b.$$

Thus the two complex roots  
are conjugates of each other.



## II. Induction

Principle of Mathematical Induction  
 Suppose that  $P(n)$  is a statement about a natural number  $n$ .  
 $n \in N = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ .  
 Then  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n \in N$  if you prove:  
 I.  $P(1)$  is true.  
 and II. If  $P(k)$  is true (for some  $k$ ) then  $P(k+1)$  is true.  
 That is, you must show that  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$ .

Example. Show that  
 $1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2$   
 for all  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ .

Solution. I.  $P(n) : 1 + 3 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2$   
 $P(1) : 1 = 1^2$  ( $2 \cdot 1 - 1 = 1$ )  
 $\therefore P(1)$  is true.

II. Suppose  $1 + 3 + \dots + (2k-1) = k^2$   
 (i.e. assume  $P(k)$  is true).

Then  $1 + 3 + \dots + (2k-1) + (2(k+1)-1)$   
 $= k^2 + 2(k+1) - 1$   
 $= k^2 + 2k + 1$   
 $= (k+1)^2$ . Thus we showed  
 that  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$ . //

Strong Induction. For part II you can assume that  $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(k)$  are all true and prove from that, that  $P(k+1)$  is true.

[It is not hard to show that Induction and Strong Induction are logically equivalent.]

Example.

Theorem. Let  $S \subseteq N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  be a non-empty subset of the natural numbers  $N$ . Then  $S$  has a least member.

Proof. Let  $P(n) : n \notin S$ .

Suppose that  $S$  has no least member and that  $S \subseteq N$ . We will prove, by strong induction, that  $S$  is empty!

I.  $1 \notin S$  since  $1 \in S \Rightarrow S$  has 1 as a least member.

II. Suppose that  $1 \in S, 2 \notin S, \dots, k \notin S$ . Then clearly if  $(k+1) \in S$ ,  $k+1$  would be the least member of  $S$ .  $\therefore k+1 \notin S$ .

We have proved, by induction, that  $S$  is empty.  $\therefore S$  not empty implies  $S$  has a least member. //

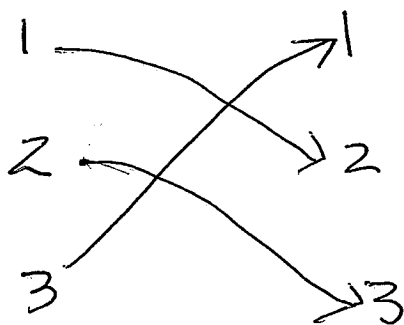
### III. Multiplying Permutations

The permutations of 1, 2, 3 are:

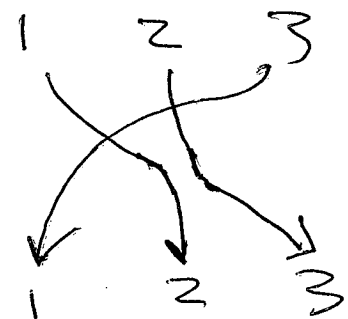
$\left. \begin{array}{l} 123 \\ 132 \\ 213 \\ 231 \\ 312 \\ 321 \end{array} \right\}$  These are all the ways to arrange three things (1, 2, 3) in order.

I will write  $\binom{123}{abc}$  to denote a given permutation. Thus  $\binom{123}{231}$  denotes "231".

I think of this as a mapping from the set  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  to itself.



or



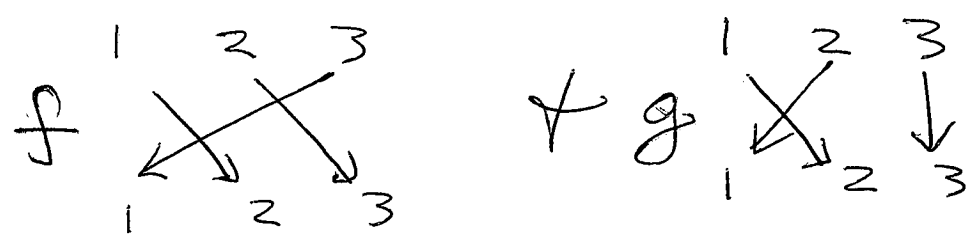
or

$$f: \{1, 2, 3\} \longrightarrow \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1)f = 2 \\ (2)f = 3 \\ (3)f = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

Notice I write  $(x)f$  instead of  $f(x)$ !

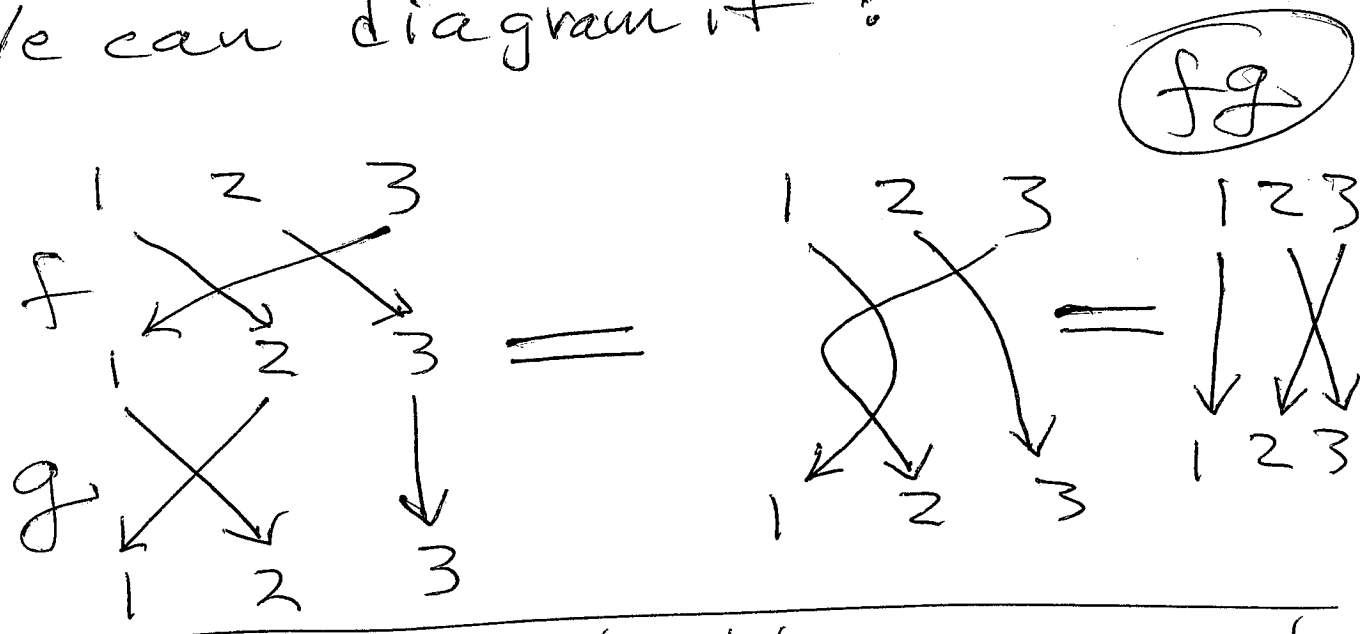
Suppose



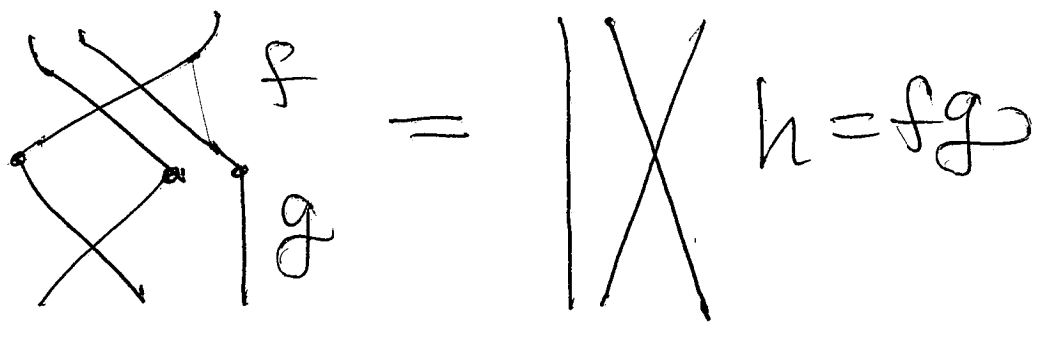
Then  $(x)fg =$  result of doing  $f$  & then doing  $g$ .

e.g.  $(1)fg = (2)g = 1$ .

We can diagram it:

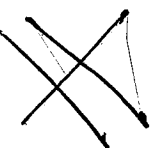


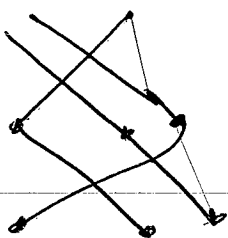
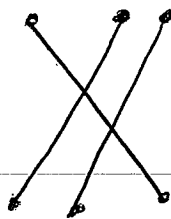
I will eliminate the arrows and write



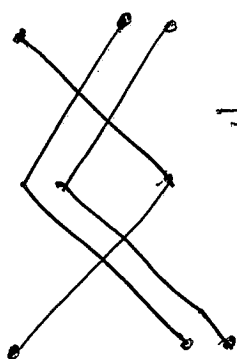

So you see, you can multiply permutations.

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





e.g.  $R =$  

$R^2 =$    $=$  

simplify  
and redraw  
the  
connections.  
Only endpts  
matter.

$R^3 =$    $=$    $= I$ .

We have 6 permutations.

					
I	R	$R^2$	$F_1$	$F_2$	$F_3$

You can make a  $6 \times 6$  multiplication table.

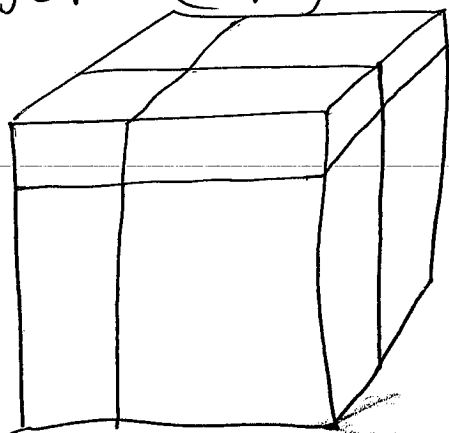
(Home work.)



# Homework

(17)

1. Draw the full architecture for  $(a+b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$



Show how a cube of side  $a+b$  decomposes into 3 dim rectangular parts in corres with the above formulas.

2. Prove by induction that  $(1^3 + 2^3 + \dots + n^3) = (1 + 2 + \dots + n)^2$  for all  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
3. Prove by induction (strong induction) that every natural number can be written as a sum of distinct powers of 2.  
(e.g.  $27 = 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^1 + 2^0$ )
4. Using numbers different from our examples, solve a cubic of the form  $X^3 = pX + q$  ( $p$  and  $q$  real numbers that you choose.)
5. Make a multiplication table for  $\{I, R, R^2, F_1, F_2, F_3\}$  as on page 16.