

recall: bijective fct.s  $f: A \rightarrow B$  have inverses

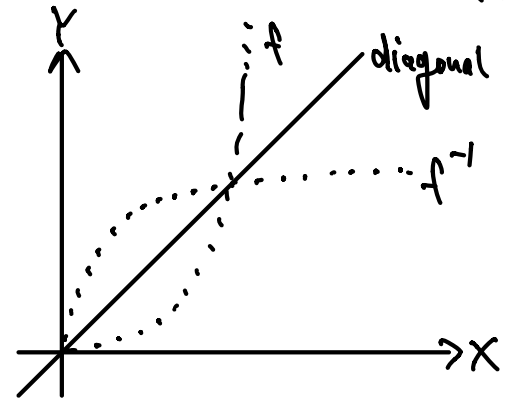
Inverse means: If  $f(x) = y$  then  $f^{-1}(y) = f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ .

$\hookrightarrow f^{-1}f = \text{id} = \mathbb{1}$  (identity)

Ex.:  $f: [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty), x \mapsto x^2$

$\hookrightarrow x^2 = y \Rightarrow x = \sqrt{y}$

$\Rightarrow f^{-1}: [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty), x \mapsto \sqrt{x}$



graph of  $f^{-1}$  = reflection of  $f$  across line  $x=y$

$\exp: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty), x \mapsto e^x$  is actually bijective

inverse  $\ln: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto \ln x$  is called natural logarithm

note: we can thus define  $a^x$  for any  $a > 0$  and any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$a^x = \exp(\ln(a^x)) = \exp(x \ln a) = e^{x \ln a}$

more generally: the inverse of  $a^x$  is called  $\log_a x$ , for any  $a > 0$

$\hookrightarrow$  see HW

$\underbrace{\log_a x}_{\text{logarithm of } x \text{ to basis } a}$

note:  $x^r = e^{\ln x^r} = e^{r \ln x} \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow 0} e^0 = 1$

side note: useful notation: Landa symbols

e.g., convenient notation:  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \underbrace{O(x^3)}$  for small  $x$

↳ Landa symbol (big O): terms of order  $x^3$

in general:  $f(x) = O(g(x))$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$  (or  $x \rightarrow \infty$  or any other number depending on context)

$$\Leftrightarrow |f(x)| \leq C|g(x)| \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0$$

Ex.: •  $p(x) = 2x^5 + 3x^2 - 1 = O(x^5)$  for large  $x$

•  $(1-x)^{-1} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + O(x^4)$  for small  $x$

Landa symbol (small o):  $f(x) = o(g(x))$  if  $\left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| \xrightarrow{\text{as } x \rightarrow 0} 0$

Ex.: •  $p(x) = 2x^5 + 3x^2 - 1 = o(x^6)$  large  $x$  ( $x \rightarrow \infty$ )

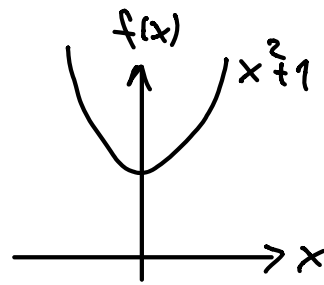
•  $(1-x)^{-1} = 1 + x + x^2 + o(x^2)$  small  $x$  ( $x \rightarrow 0$ )  
↑ recall: geometric series

•  $q(x) = 3x^4 + 2x^3 + 100x^2$

↳ then  $p(x) \cdot q(x) = 6x^9 + o(x^8)$  for large  $x$

# 1.7 Complex Numbers

$f(x) = x^2 + 1 = 0$  has no real roots



$\Rightarrow$  introduce imaginary unit  $"i := \sqrt{-1}"$  or, rather,  $i^2 = -1$

Ex.: Zeros of  $p(x) = x^2 + 2x + 10$

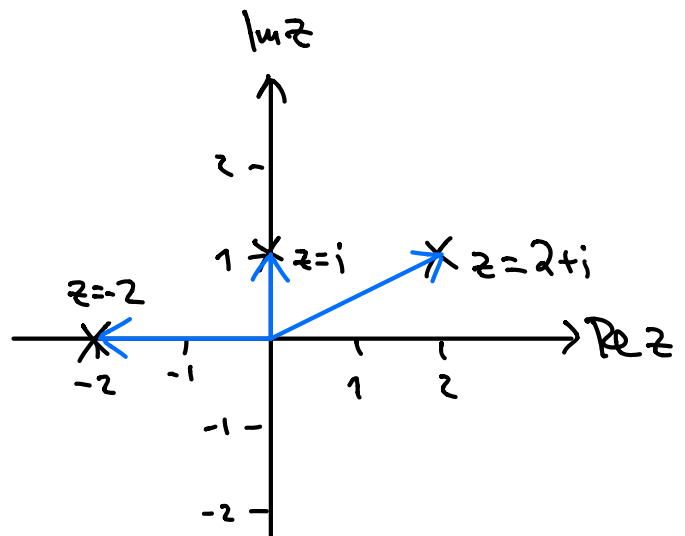
$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{zeros are } x_{\pm} &= -1 \pm \sqrt{1-10} = -1 \pm \sqrt{-9} = -1 \pm 3\sqrt{-1} \\ &= -1 \pm 3i \end{aligned}$$

Complex number  $z = a + ib$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

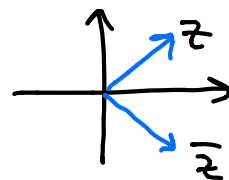
$\hookrightarrow a$  is called real part of  $z$ ,  $\operatorname{Re} z = a$

$\hookrightarrow b$  is called imaginary part of  $z$ ,  $\operatorname{Im} z = b$

Complex plane (Argand diagram):



Complex conjugate  $\bar{z} = \overline{(a+ib)} := a - ib$



addition:  $z_1 + z_2 = (a_1 + ib_1) + (a_2 + ib_2) = (a_1 + a_2) + i(b_1 + b_2)$

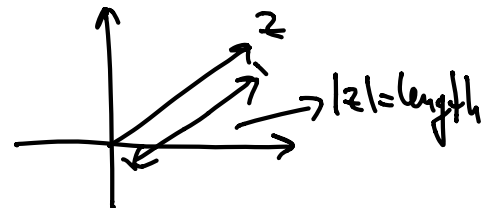
multiplication:  $z_1 \cdot z_2 = (a_1 + ib_1) \cdot (a_2 + ib_2) = (a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2) + i(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1)$

division:  $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{a_1 + ib_1}{a_2 + ib_2} = \frac{z_1 \overline{z_2}}{z_2 \overline{z_2}} = \frac{(a_1 + ib_1)(a_2 - ib_2)}{(a_2 + ib_2)(a_2 - ib_2)}$

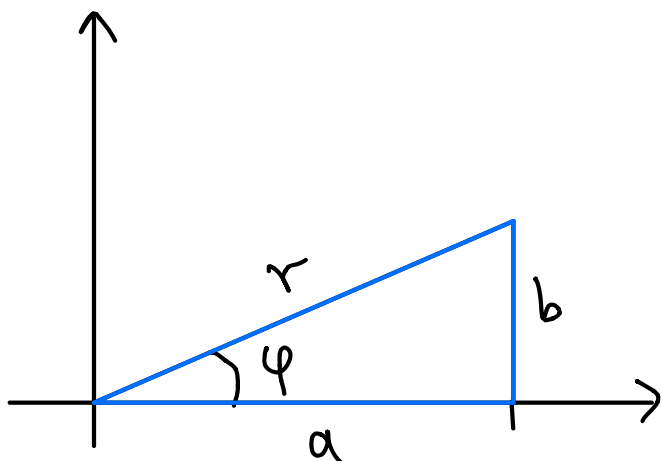
$$= \frac{a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2 + i(-a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1)}{a_2^2 + b_2^2}$$

$$= \left( \frac{a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2}{a_2^2 + b_2^2} \right) + i \left( \frac{-a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1}{a_2^2 + b_2^2} \right)$$

absolute value:  $|z| := \sqrt{z \overline{z}} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$



now: trigonometric functions



$$\sin \varphi := \frac{b}{r}$$

$$\cos \varphi := \frac{a}{r}$$

$$\tan \varphi := \frac{b}{a}$$

Pythagoras:  $r^2 = a^2 + b^2 = r^2 \cos^2 \varphi + r^2 \sin^2 \varphi = r^2 (\sin^2 \varphi + \cos^2 \varphi)$

$$\Rightarrow \sin^2 \varphi + \cos^2 \varphi = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{polar representation } z = r \cdot \cos \varphi + i r \cdot \sin \varphi \\ = r (\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi)$$

with  $r = |z|$

$$\text{and } \varphi = \begin{cases} \tan^{-1} \frac{\operatorname{Im} z}{\operatorname{Re} z} & \text{for } \operatorname{Re} z > 0 \\ \pi + \tan^{-1} \frac{\operatorname{Im} z}{\operatorname{Re} z} & \text{for } \operatorname{Re} z < 0 \end{cases} \quad (\varphi \text{ is called "argument of } z")$$

consider  $e^{ix} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ix)^k}{k!} = 1 + ix - \frac{x^2}{2!} - i \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$

$$= \underbrace{\left( \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \right)}_{\text{even powers of } x} + i \underbrace{\left( \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \right)}_{\text{odd powers of } x}$$

and  $|e^{ix}| = \sqrt{e^{ix} e^{-ix}} = 1$

$\Rightarrow$  Guess (that we will deduce next time):  $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$

we need to know series expansions of  $\cos x$  and  $\sin x$

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easier later (with Taylor series), but here sketch of heuristic proof

from geometry, deduce  $\sin(x+y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y$

$$\cos(x+y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y$$

Setting  $y = ux$  gives us a recursion relation:

$$\sin((n+1)x) = \sin x \cos nx + \cos x \sin nx$$

$$\cos((n+1)x) = \cos x \cos nx - \sin x \sin nx$$

solving this recursion leads to de Moivre formulas:

$$\sin nx = \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \text{ odd}}}^n (-1)^{\frac{k-1}{2}} \binom{n}{k} \sin^k x \cos^{n-k} x$$

$$\cos nx = \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \text{ even}}}^n (-1)^{\frac{k}{2}} \binom{n}{k} \sin^k x \cos^{n-k} x$$

set  $y = ux$ , then

$$\sin y = \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \text{ odd}}}^n (-1)^{\frac{k-1}{2}} \binom{n}{k} \left( \sin \frac{y}{u} \right)^k \left( \cos \frac{y}{u} \right)^{n-k}$$

$$\binom{n}{k} \left( \frac{y}{u} \right)^k = \frac{n!}{(n-k)! k!} \frac{y^k}{u^k} = \frac{1}{k!} \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{u \cdot u \cdot \dots \cdot u} y^k$$

use  $\sin x \approx x$  and  $\cos x \approx 1$  for small  $x$  (from geometry)

$$\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \text{ odd}}}^{\infty} (-1)^{\frac{k-1}{2}} \frac{y^k}{k!}, \text{ similar for } \cos y$$