1. De Moivre's Theorem.

- (a) Use de Moivre's Theorem to express $\cos(2\theta)$ as a polynomial in $\cos(\theta)$.
- (b) Solve this polynomial to obtain a formula for $\cos(\theta)$ in terms of $\cos(2\theta)$.
- (c) Use the formula from (b) to find the exact value of $\cos(\pi/8)$.

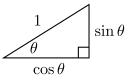
For part (a) we have

$$\cos(2\theta) + i\sin(2\theta) = (\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^2$$
$$= \cos\theta\cos\theta + 2i\sin\theta\cos\theta + i^2\sin\theta\sin\theta$$
$$= (\cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta) + i(2\sin\theta\cos\theta).$$

Comparing the real parts of both sides gives

$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta.$$

Now remember that $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$. Why? This is just the Pythagorean Theorem:



Thus we have

(1)
$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta = \cos^2\theta - (1 - \cos^2\theta) = 2\cos^2\theta - 1$$

For part (b), we solve equation (1) to obtain

$$\cos\theta = \sqrt{\frac{\cos(2\theta) + 1}{2}}$$

This is sometimes called the "half-angle formula" because it allows us to compute $\cos(\theta/2)$ whenever we know $\cos \theta$:

$$\cos(\theta/2) = \sqrt{\frac{\cos\theta + 1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + 2\cos\theta}.$$

For part (c), start with an angle you know. Do you know that $\cos(\pi/2) = 0$? Good. Then

$$\cos(\pi/4) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + 2\cos(\pi/2)} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + 2 \cdot 0} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$$

Applying the formula again gives

$$\cos(\pi/8) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + 2\cos(\pi/4)} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}.$$

Just for fun, let's also compute $\cos(\pi/16)$:

$$\cos(\pi/16) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + 2\cos(\pi/8)} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}}.$$

Hey, now I see a pattern. And it tells me that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2^n}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \cdots}}}.$$

But of course we know that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2^n}\right) = \cos(0) = 1,$$

hence

$$2 = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \cdots}}}$$

That's was kind of fun, right?

2. Quadratic Formula Again.

- (a) Compute the square roots of i.
- (b) Use part (a) to solve the equation $\frac{1}{2}z^2 + (1+i)z + \frac{i}{2} = 0$ for $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

For part (a) we want to solve the equation $x^2 = i$. To do this we will express x and i in polar coordinates: let $x = re^{i\theta}$ and note that $i = e^{i\pi/2}$. Then we have

$$x^{2} = i$$
$$(re^{i\theta})^{2} = e^{i\pi/2}$$
$$r^{2}e^{i2\theta} = e^{i\pi/2}$$

Comparing lengths gives r = 1 and comparing angles gives

$$2\theta - \pi/2 = 2\pi k$$
$$2\theta = 2\pi k + \pi/2$$
$$\theta = \frac{2\pi k + \pi/2}{2}$$
$$\theta = \pi/4 + \pi k$$

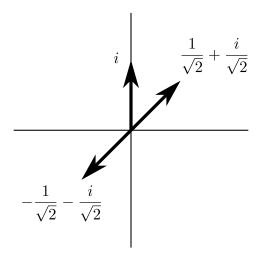
for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. We conclude that the square roots of *i* are

$$x = \sqrt{i} = e^{\pi/4 + \pi k}$$
, for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

That looks like a lot, but it really just represents two complex numbers:

$$e^{i\pi/4} = (1+i)/\sqrt{2}$$
 and $e^{i(\pi/4+\pi)} = -(1+i)/\sqrt{2}$.

Here is a picture of i and its two square roots:



For part (b) we apply the good old Quadratic Formula to get

$$z = -(1+i) + \sqrt{(1+i)^2 - i} = -(1+i) + \sqrt{(1+2i-1) - i} = -(1+i) + \sqrt{i}.$$

Finally, we use the square roots of i computed in part (a) to get

$$z = -(1+i) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1+i) = \left(-1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)(1+i) = \left(\frac{-2+\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)(1+i),$$

or

$$z = -(1+i) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1+i) = \left(-1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)(1+i) = \left(\frac{-2 - \sqrt{2}}{2}\right)(1+i),$$

3. Complex Conjugation. Recall that complex conjgation $*:\mathbb{C}\to\mathbb{C}$ is defined by

$$(a+ib)^* := a - ib.$$

Show that for all $u, v \in \mathbb{C}$ we have

(a) $(u+v)^* = u^* + v^*$ (b) $(uv)^* = u^*v^*$ (c) |u||v| = |uv|. [Hint: $|u|^2 = uu^*$.]

Let u = a + ib and v = c + id where a, b, c, d are real. For part (a) we have

$$u^* + v^* = (a + ib)^* + (c + id)^*$$

= (a - ib) + (c - id)
= (a + c) - i(b + d)
= ((a + c) + i(b + d))^*
= ((a + ib) + (c + id))^*
= (u + v)^*.

For part (b) we have

$$u^{*}v^{*} = (a + ib)^{*}(c + id)^{*}$$

= $(a - ib)(c - id)$
= $(ac - bd) + i(-ad - bc)$
= $(ac - bd) - i(ad + bc)$
= $((ac - bd) + i(ad + bc))^{*}$
= $((a + ib)(c + id))^{*}$
= $(uv)^{*}$.

For part (c) we don't need to do any more real work, because it follows directly from (b) that

$$u|^{2}|v|^{2} = (uu^{*})(vv^{*})$$

= $(uv)(u^{*}v^{*})$
= $(uv)(uv)^{*}$
= $|uv|^{2}$.

Now take the positive square root of both sides.

4. Conjugate Pairs of Roots.

- (a) Consider a polynomial with **real** coefficients, $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$. Show that for all **complex** numbers $z \in \mathbb{C}$ we have $f(z)^* = f(z^*)$.
- (b) Conclude that the **complex** roots of a **real** polynomial come in conjugate pairs.

For part (a), assume that $f(x) = \sum_{k\geq 0} a_k x^k$ is a polynomial with **real** coefficients, and let z be any **complex** number. Then f(z) is a complex number so we can compute its conjugate. Since the coefficients a_k are real we have $(a_k)^* = a_k$ for all k. Using Problem 3(a) and then 3(b) gives

$$f(z)^* = \left(\sum_{k \ge 0} a_k z^k\right)^*$$
$$= \sum_{k \ge 0} (a_k z^k)^* \qquad 3(a)$$

$$=\sum_{k\ge 0} (a_k)^* (z^k)^*$$
 3(b)

$$= \sum_{k\geq 0} a_k (z^k)^* \qquad a_k \text{ is real}$$
$$= \sum_{k\geq 0} a_k (z^*)^k \qquad ?$$
$$= f(z^*).$$

In the last step we used the fact that $(z^k)^* = (z^*)^k$. Why is this true? Because of 3(b):

$$(z^k)^* = (\underbrace{z \cdot z \cdots z}_{k \text{ times}})^* = \underbrace{z^* \cdot z^* \cdots z^*}_{k \text{ times}} = (z^*)^k$$

Technically, we should use induction on k to prove this, but why bother?

For part (b), assume that f(x) is a polynomial with **real** coefficients and suppose that f(z) = 0 for some **complex** number z. Then from part (a) we have

$$f(z^*) = f(z)^* = 0^* = 0$$

hence z^* is also a root. This implies that the complex (non-real) roots of f(x) come in complexconjugate pairs. In other words, the set of roots of f(x) in the complex plane has a reflection symmetry across the real axis.

5. Useful Little Theorem. Let f(x) be a polynomial of degree 3 with real coefficients. Prove that if f(x) has a **complex** root, then it must also have a **real** root. [Hint: If f(u) = 0 for some $u \in \mathbb{C}$, show that f(x) is divisible by $(x^2 - (u + u^*)x + uu^*)$. Show that the quotient must have real coefficients.]

You might think that this is a Useless Little Theorem, because we already know (by the Intermediate Value Theorem) that every real polynomial of degree 3 has a real root. That's a valid objection, but we will see later that this theorem is surprisingly useful in a different context. For example, we will use it to prove that a regular 7-gon can not be constructed with a ruler and compass.

Proof. Suppose that $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ has degree 3 and suppose that f(u) = 0 for some $u \in \mathbb{C}$. We will show that f(x) has a real root. If u is real then we're done. Otherwise, Problem 4(b) implies that u^* is another root of f(x). Using Descartes' Factor Theorem gives

$$f(x) = (x - u)(x - u^*)g(x)$$

where g(x) is a polynomial of degree 1, say g(x) = ax + b. But then g(-b/a) = 0 and hence f(-b/a) = 0. We will be done if we can show that -b/a is a **real** number. In fact, we will show that a and b are both real.

This might seem obvious, but it's not. We know that f(x) has real coefficients, but there are complex numbers on the right side of the equation and it's possible that they cancel in some complicated way. The key is to expand

$$(x-u)(x-u^*) = (x^2 - (u+u^*)x + uu^*),$$

and to observe that $u+u^*$ and uu^* are both **real**. [Why is this?] Thus g(x) is the quotient of a real polynomial divided by a real polynomial. This implies that g(x) has real coefficients. \Box

[That last part (showing that g(x) has real coefficients) was a little bit subtle. I expect many people got confused, and that's OK! As I mentioned before, it is not immediately obvious that this Useful Little Theorem is interesting. You'll have to take my word for it and be patient.]