



Analysis I

Lecture 8

Fundamental theorem of algebra

Let $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{C}$ with $a_n \neq 0$ be coefficients of a polynomial

$$p(z) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \cdot z^i = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots + a_n z^n$$

Then there exist $z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t.

$$p(z) = a_n \cdot \prod_{k=1}^n (z - z_k)$$

roots of $p(z)$

variable

fixed complex #s.

In particular, $p(z_j) = 0$ for
any $j \geq 1, \dots, n$

Indeed
$$p(z_1) = a_n \prod_{i=1}^n (z_1 - z_i)$$
$$= a_n (z_1 - z_1) \times (z_1 - z_2) \times \dots \times (z_1 - z_n) = 0$$

In other words if

$$P(z) = a_n \cdot \prod_{k=1}^n (z - z_k) \quad \text{then}$$

z_1, \dots, z_n are root (solutions)

of polynomial equation

$$\underline{\underline{P(z) = 0}}$$

Remark If $p(a) = 0$ then

we can factorize $p(z)$ as

$$p(z) = (z - a) \cdot q(z) \quad \text{for}$$

some

polynomial $q(z)$.

Factorisation can be computed by
long division.

Example $p(x) = x^4 - 5x^3 - 3x^2 + 17x - 10$

$$p(1) = 1 - 5 - 3 + 17 - 10 = 0$$

So $p(x) = (x - 1) \cdot q(x)$

How to find $q(x)$?

$P(x)$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^4 - 5x^3 - 3x^2 + 17x - 10 \\ - x^4 - x^3 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$- 4x^3 - 3x^2 + 17x - 10$$

$$- 4x^3 + 4x^2$$

$$- 7x^2 + 17x - 10$$

$$- 7x^2 + 7x$$

$$10x - 10$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 10x - 10 \\ - 10x - 10 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

$$p(x) = (x-1)q(x)$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x-1 \\ \hline x^3 - 4x^2 - 7x + 10 \end{array}$$

$q(x)$

$$(x-1) \cdot x^3 = x^4 - x^3$$

$$(x-1) \cdot (-4x^2) =$$

$$= -4x^3 + 4x^2$$

$$(x-1) \cdot (-7x) =$$

$$= -7x^2 + 7x$$

$$q(x) = x^3 - 4x^2 - 7x + 10$$

$$q(1) = 1 - 4 - 7 + 10 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow q(x) = (x-1) \cdot \underline{h(x)}$$

can find h
by long division

$\deg(h) = 2 \Rightarrow$ roots of h are
given by quadratic formula

$$p(x) = x^4 - 5x^3 - 3x^2 + 17x - 10$$

∴ we get that

$$p(x) = (x-1) \cdot q(x) =$$

$$= (x-1) \cdot (x-1) \cdot \underline{h(x)} = \underline{(x-1)^2} \cdot (x-5) \cdot (x-(-2))$$

$(x+2)$
||

↗
quadratic with
roots 5 and -2

Fundamental theorem of algebra (alternative formulation)

For every polynomial $p(z)$ of degree > 0
the equation $p(z) = 0$ has a root
in \mathbb{C} .

i.e. there exists complex number
 a s.t. $p(a) = 0$.

$$\text{If } p(a) = 0 \Rightarrow p(z) = (z-a)q(z)$$

by Remark

So we can find a new root of $p(z)$

by finding a root of $q(z)$

$$\text{Since } q(b) = 0 \Rightarrow p(b) = (b-a) \cdot \overset{0}{q(b)} = 0$$

Roots of polynomials with real coeff.

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} ; x_2 = \frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

if $\Delta \geq 0$ we have 2 real roots

if $\Delta < 0$ then $x_1 = x_2$

if $\Delta < 0$ then $x_1 = \overline{x_2}$

Example

$$x^2 + x + 1 = 0$$

$$\Delta = b^2 - 4ac = 1 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 = -3 < 0$$

$$\sqrt{\Delta} = \sqrt{3} \cdot i \quad \text{or} \quad -\sqrt{3} \cdot i$$

So we get

$$x_1 = \frac{-1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \cdot i$$

$$x_2 = \frac{-1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \cdot i$$

Fundamental theorem of algebra over \mathbb{R}

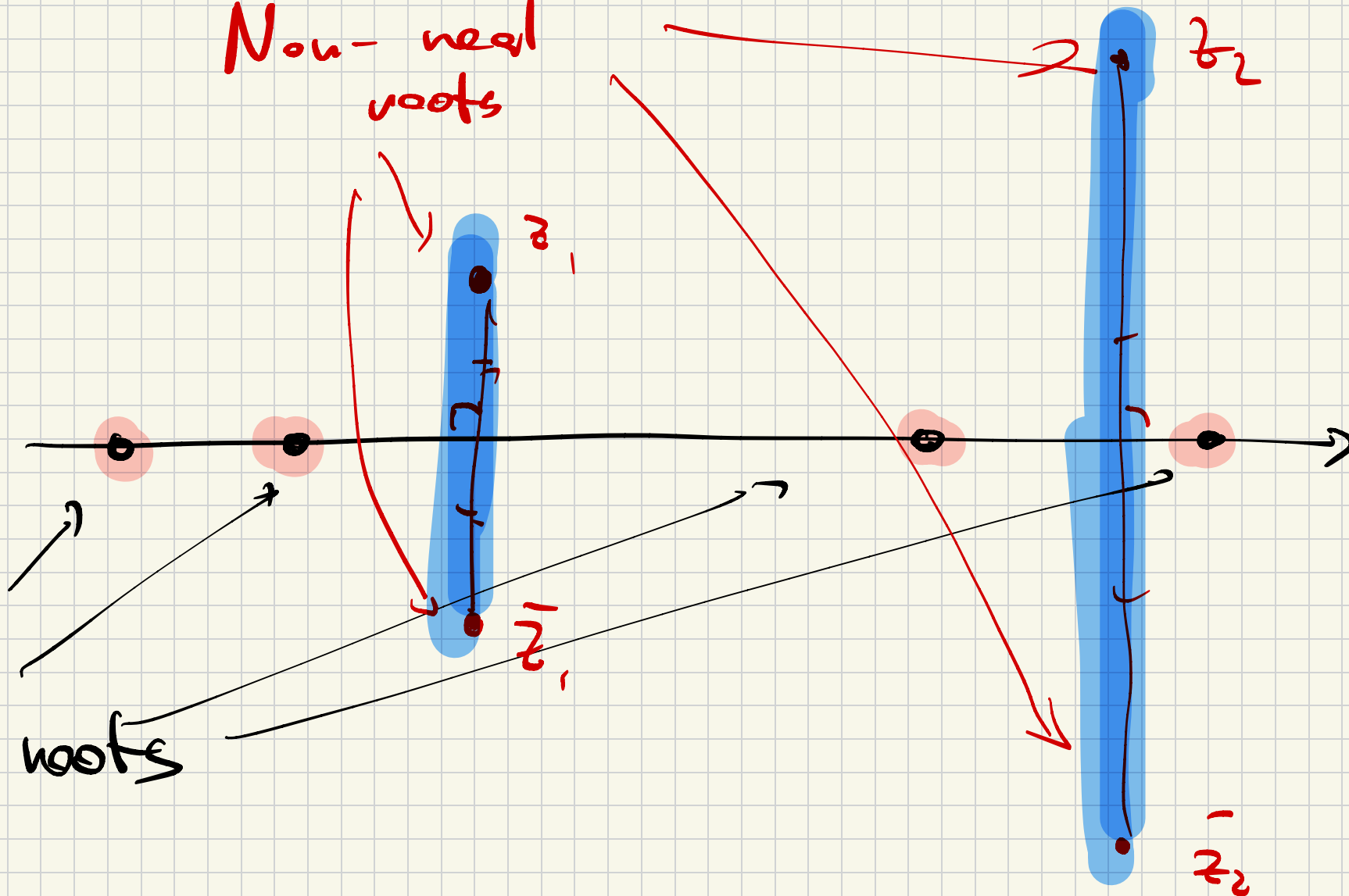
Let $p(x)$ be a polynomial with coefficients in \mathbb{R} then

easy to show by Analysis (1) If degree of $p(x)$ is odd then $p(x)$ has a real root

(2) If a complex number z is a root then \bar{z} is also a root.

Roots of real polynomials:

Non-real roots



Alternative form:

Any real polynomial $p(x)$ factors

as

$$p(x) = \prod (x - x_i)$$

x_i -
real root
of $p(x)$

$$\cdot \prod q_j(x)$$

quadratic
polynomials

(degree 2)

Sequences of real numbers

A sequence is an infinite string of numbers;



More formally a sequence is a

map (or function)

$$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$n \mapsto x_n$

We will denote the whole sequence

by

$$(x_n)_{n \geq 0}.$$

Sometimes we would like to index elements of sequence with some $n_0 \geq 1$

$$(x_n)_{n \geq n_0}$$

$$= x_{n_0}, x_{n_0+1}, x_{n_0+2}, \dots$$

Examples

1) Harmonic sequence $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$

defined by

$$\underline{x_n = \frac{1}{n}}$$

$$x_1 = 1, \quad x_2 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad x_3 = \frac{1}{3}, \quad \dots$$

Alternatively

consider

$$(x_n)_{n \geq 0}$$

with

$$x_n = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

2) Alternating harmonic sequence

$(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$ defined by $x_n = (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n}$

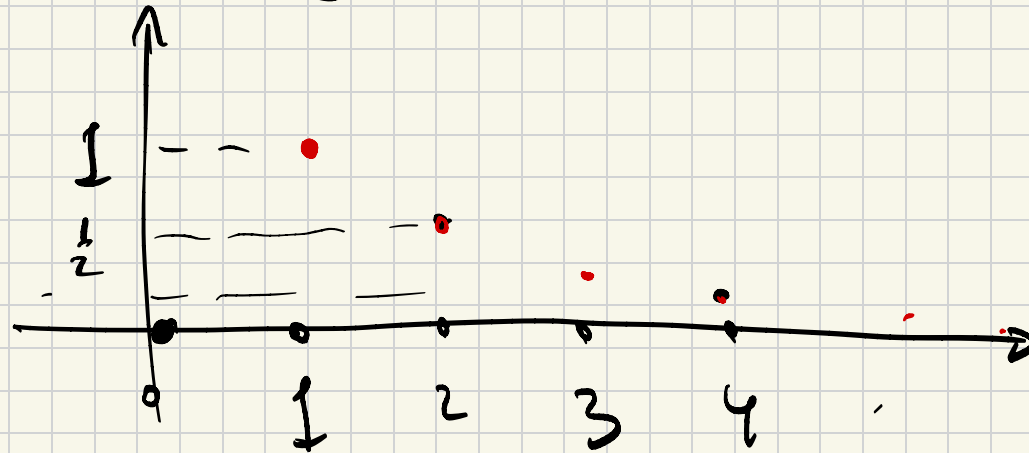
$$x_1 = (-1)^{1+1} \cdot \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

$$x_2 = (-1)^{2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

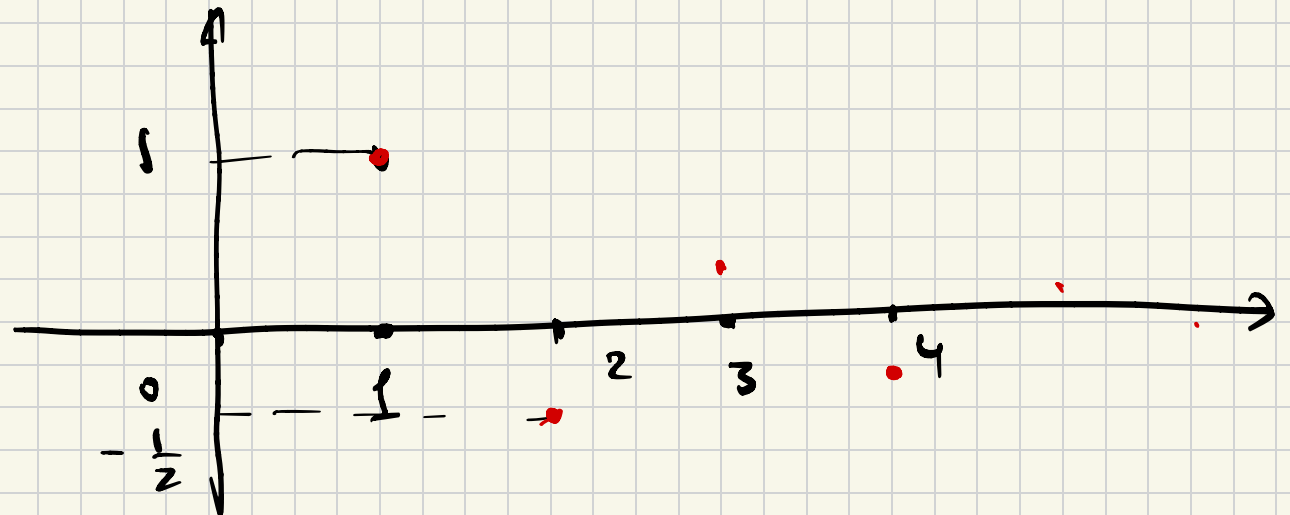
$$x_3 = \frac{1}{3} \quad x_4 = -\frac{1}{4}$$

Plot of harmonic and alternating harmonic sequences

harmonic



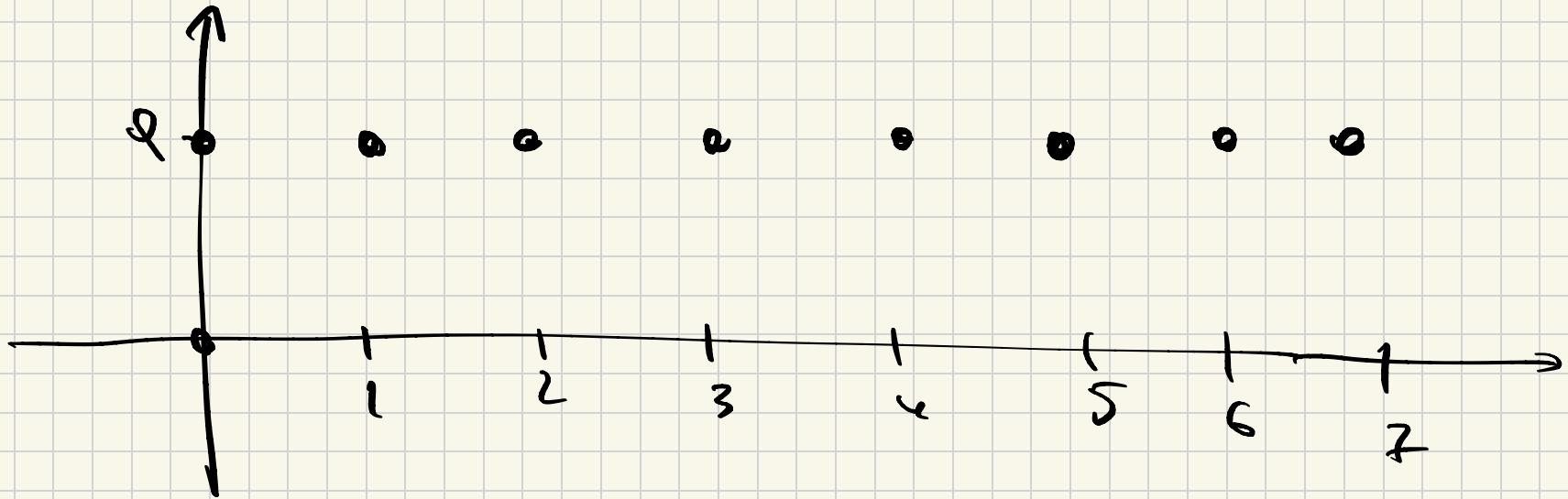
Alternating harmonic



3) Constant sequence

Fix some $q \in \mathbb{R}$

$$X_n = q \quad \text{for } n \geq 0$$



Another way to define (x_n)
is by recursive relation:

Examples: Arithmetic sequence:

$$x_0 = a \quad \text{and} \quad x_n = x_{n-1} + b \quad \text{for } n$$

some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

this can also be defined by $x_n = a + n \cdot b$.

Example

Geometric sequence

Fix $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ then

$$\underline{x_0 = a} \quad \text{and} \quad x_n = x_{n-1} \cdot b \quad n \geq 1$$

recursive definition

OR defining by a formula

$$x_n = a \cdot b^n$$

$$x_0 = a \cdot b^0 = a$$

Another recursive sequence is

Fibonacci sequence:

$$x_0 = 1, \quad x_1 = 1 \quad \text{and}$$

$$\text{for } n \geq 2 \quad x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}$$

$$x_0 = 1; \quad x_1 = 1; \quad x_2 = x_1 + x_0 = 2; \quad x_3 = 2 + 1 = 3; \quad x_4 = 5, \dots$$

Question! Is there explicit formula for x_n ?

2) Sequence of primes $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$

x_n is the n -th positive prime number

E.g.

$$x_1 = 2$$

$$x_5 = 11$$

$$x_2 = 3$$

$$x_6 = 13$$

$$x_3 = 5$$

⋮

$$x_4 = 7$$

Definition let $(x_n)_{n \geq n_0}$ be a sequence

then we say that

1) (x_n) is increasing if $x_{n+1} \geq x_n \quad \forall n \geq n_0$

2) (x_n) is strictly increasing if $x_{n+1} > x_n \quad \forall n \geq n_0$

3) (x_n) is decreasing if $x_{n+1} \leq x_n \quad \forall n \geq n_0$

4) (x_n) is strictly decreasing if $x_{n+1} < x_n \quad \forall n \geq n_0$

5) (x_n) is (strictly) MONOTONE

if it is (strictly) decreasing or (strictly) increasing.

6) (x_n) is bounded above if $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}$

s.t. $x_n < M \quad \forall n \geq n_0$

7) (x_n) is bounded below if $\exists m \in \mathbb{R}$

s.t. $x_n > m \quad \forall n \geq n_0$

Remark

$(x_n)_{n \geq n_0}$ is bounded (below or above)

if $\{x_n \mid n \geq n_0\}$ is bounded

(below or above).

Notation

$\sup (x_n)_{n \geq n_0}$ and

$\inf (x_n)_{n \geq n_0}$

By $\inf (x_n)$ we really mean

$$\inf \{ x_n \mid n \geq n_0 \}$$

By $\sup (x_n)$ we mean

$$\sup \{ x_n \mid n \geq n_0 \}.$$

Proposition (x_n) is bounded if and only if \Rightarrow

$\exists c > 0$ s.t. $\forall n$ $|x_n| < c$ \Leftarrow

Proof: \Rightarrow
 (x_n) is bounded

$\Rightarrow \exists c \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $|x_n| \leq c$

i.e. bounded below and above.

(x_n) is bounded $\Rightarrow \exists m, M$ s.t. $m < x_n < M \forall n$
 \Rightarrow We can take $c = \max(|m|, |M|)$.

Need to show \Leftarrow

then we will have $|x_n| \leq C = \max(|M|, |m|)$

↔

need to show

$\exists C \geq 0$ s.t. $|x_n| \leq C \forall n \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow (x_n)$ is bounded.

If C is such that $|x_n| \leq C \forall n$
then $M = C$ is an upper bound of (x_n)
and $m = -C$ is a lower bound of (x_n)
So (x_n) is bounded ■

Example Prove that (x_n) defined by

$$x_n = (-1)^n \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{n}} \text{ is bounded.}$$

Proof It is enough to check that

$$\exists C \geq 0 \text{ s.t. } |x_n| \leq C$$

But $|x_n| \geq \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{n}}$ since $1 + \sqrt{n} \geq 1$

then $\frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{n}} \leq 1 \Rightarrow C = 1$ works. \blacksquare

