

Section 1.10

eg Use a power series representation to find a series that represents $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx$.

We have already shown that

$$e^{-x^2} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!} x^{2i}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so } \int e^{-x^2} dx &= C + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left[\frac{(-1)^i}{i!} \int x^{2i} dx \right] \\ &= C + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!} \cdot \frac{x^{2i+1}}{2i+1} \\ &= C + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!(2i+1)} x^{2i+1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!(2i+1)} x^{2i+1}$ represents an antiderivative of e^{-x^2} and so, by the Fundamental Theorem of

Calculus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!(2i+1)} \cdot 1^{2i+1} - \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!(2i+1)} \cdot 0^{2i+1} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!(2i+1)} - 0 \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^i}{i!(2i+1)} \end{aligned}$$

We could approximate the definite integral with the first few terms of this alternating series, so

$$\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx \approx 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{42} \approx 0.7429.$$

Section 1.11: Complex Numbers

The natural numbers \mathbb{N} consist of the whole numbers $1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$

The integers \mathbb{Z} consist of $0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$

The rational numbers \mathbb{Q} are quotients of the form $\frac{a}{b}$ where a, b are integers and $b \neq 0$.

The irrational numbers include any number whose decimal representation neither terminates nor repeats.

The real numbers \mathbb{R} are comprised of all rational and irrational numbers.

However, there is no real number which is the solution to an equation such as $x^2 + 1 = 0$.

Such a solution would require $x^2 = -1$
 $x = \pm \sqrt{-1}$

Thus we define an imaginary number i for which $i^2 = -1$.

From this, we define the complex numbers \mathbb{C} to be any number of the form $z = \alpha + i\beta$ where α and β are real numbers. We call α the real part of z and β the imaginary part.

eg Solve $x^2 + 4x + 5 = 0$

By the quadratic formula,

$$x = \frac{-4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 20}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-4 \pm \sqrt{-4}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-4 \pm \sqrt{-1} \cdot \sqrt{4}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-4 \pm 2i}{2} = -2 \pm i$$

We can add or subtract complex numbers by adding or subtracting the real parts and their imaginary parts.

eg $(1+2i) + (3+4i) = (1+3) + (2+4)i$
 $= 4+6i$

We multiply complex numbers using distributivity:

eg $(1+2i)(3+4i) = 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 4i + 2i \cdot 3 + 2i \cdot 4i$
 $= 3 + 4i + 6i + 8i^2$
 $= 3 + 10i - 8$
 $= -5 + 10i$

Two complex numbers $z = \alpha + i\beta$ and $w = \gamma + i\delta$ are equal if $\alpha = \gamma$ and $\beta = \delta$.

Observe that if $\alpha + i\beta = 0$ then $\alpha = \beta = 0$ because

$$0 + i0 = 0.$$

Some polynomial expressions can only be factored in terms of complex numbers.

$$\text{eg } x^2 + 9 = (x - 3i)(x + 3i)$$

In general, $x^2 + k^2 = (x - ki)(x + ki)$.

Consider $z = \alpha + i\beta$. Then

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{\alpha + i\beta} \cdot \frac{\alpha - i\beta}{\alpha - i\beta}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha - i\beta}{\alpha^2 - i\alpha\beta + i\alpha\beta - i^2\beta^2}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha - i\beta}{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha}{\alpha^2 + \beta^2} - i \frac{\beta}{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}$$

We call $\alpha - i\beta$ the complex conjugate of $\alpha + i\beta$.

Given a complex number z , we denote its conjugate

by \bar{z} .

$$\text{eg } \frac{2+2i}{2-3i} = \frac{2+2i}{2-3i} \cdot \frac{2+3i}{2+3i} = \frac{4+6i+4i-6}{4+6i-6i+9}$$

$$= \frac{-2+10i}{13} = -\frac{2}{13} + \frac{10}{13}i$$

Given $z = \alpha + i\beta$ then

$$\begin{aligned} z \cdot \bar{z} &= (\alpha + i\beta)(\alpha - i\beta) \\ &= \alpha^2 + \beta^2 \end{aligned}$$

which is a real number.

We define the absolute value of modulus of z to be

$$|z| = \sqrt{z \cdot \bar{z}} = \sqrt{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}.$$