## Chapter 2

## Equations. Functions of one variable. Complex numbers

2.1 
$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \iff x_{1,2} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are the roots of  $x^2 + px + q = 0$ , 2.2 then

 $x_1 + x_2 = -p, \qquad x_1 x_2 = q$ 

$$2.3 \quad ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$$

$$2.4 \quad x^3 + px + q = 0$$

 $x^3 + px + q = 0$  with  $\Delta = 4p^3 + 27q^2$  has

- three different real roots if  $\Delta < 0$ ;
- 2.5 three real roots, at least two of which are equal, if  $\Delta = 0$ ;
  - one real and two complex roots if  $\Delta > 0$ .

The solutions of  $x^3 + px + q = 0$  are  $x_1 = u + v, x_2 = \omega u + \omega^2 v$ , and  $x_3 = \omega^2 u + \omega v$ , where  $\omega = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{i}{2}\sqrt{3}$ , and

2.6

$$u = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{q}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{4p^3 + 27q^2}{27}}}$$
$$v = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{q}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{4p^3 + 27q^2}{27}}}$$

The roots of the general quadratic equation. They are real provided  $b^2 \ge 4ac$  (assuming that a, b, and c are real).

Viète's rule.

The general *cubic* equation.

(2.3) reduces to the form (2.4) if x in (2.3) is replaced by x - b/3a.

Classification of the roots of (2.4) (assuming that p and q are real).

Cardano's formulas for the roots of a cubic equation. *i* is the imaginary unit (see (2.75)) and  $\omega$  is a complex third root of 1 (see (2.88)). (If complex numbers become involved, the cube roots must be chosen so that 3uv = -p. Don't try to use these formulas unless you have to!) If  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ , and  $x_3$  are the roots of the equation  $x^3 + px^2 + qx + r = 0$ , then

2.7 
$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = -p x_1 x_2 + x_1 x_3 + x_2 x_3 = q x_1 x_2 x_3 = -r$$

2.8 
$$P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

For the polynomial P(x) in (2.8) there exist constants  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  (real or complex) such that

$$P(x) = a_n(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = -\frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}$$
2.10 
$$x_1 x_2 + x_1 x_3 + \dots + x_{n-1} x_n = \sum_{i < j} x_i x_j = \frac{a_{n-2}}{a_n}$$

$$x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n = (-1)^n \frac{a_0}{a_n}$$

If  $a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_1, a_0$  are all integers, then any integer root of the equation

2.11 
$$x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0} = 0$$

must divide  $a_0$ .

Let k be the number of changes of sign in the sequence of coefficients  $a_n$ ,  $a_{n-1}$ , ...,  $a_1$ ,  $a_0$  in (2.8). The number of positive real roots of P(x) = 0, counting the multiplicities of the roots, is k or k minus a positive even number. If k = 1, the equation has exactly one positive real root.

The graph of the equation

$$Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0$$

is

• an ellipse, a point or empty if  $4AC > B^2$ ;

- a parabola, a line, two parallel lines, or empty if  $4AC = B^2$ ;
- a hyperbola or two intersecting lines if  $4AC < B^2$ .

Useful relations.

A polynomial of degree  $n. (a_n \neq 0.)$ 

The fundamental theorem of algebra.  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are called zeros of P(x) and roots of P(x) = 0.

Relations between the roots and the coefficients of P(x) = 0, where P(x) is defined in (2.8). (Generalizes (2.2) and (2.7).)

Any integer solutions of  $x^3 + 6x^2 - x - 6 = 0$ must divide -6. (In this case the roots are  $\pm 1$ and -6.)

Descartes's rule of signs.

Classification of *conics*. A, B, C not all 0.

2.9

0 1 1

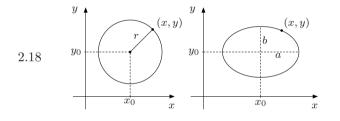
2.13

2.14 
$$\begin{aligned} x &= x' \cos \theta - y' \sin \theta, \quad y &= x' \sin \theta + y' \cos \theta \\ \text{with } \cot 2\theta &= (A - C)/B \end{aligned}$$

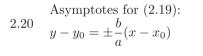
2.15 
$$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

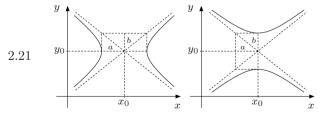
2.16 
$$(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 = r^2$$

2.17 
$$\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y-y_0)^2}{b^2} = 1$$



2.19 
$$\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y-y_0)^2}{b^2} = \pm 1$$





2.22 
$$y - y_0 = a(x - x_0)^2, \quad a \neq 0$$

2.23 
$$x - x_0 = a(y - y_0)^2, \quad a \neq 0$$

Transforms the equation in (2.13) into a quadratic equation in x' and y', where the coefficient of x'y' is 0.

The (Euclidean) distance between the points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$ .

Circle with center at  $(x_0, y_0)$  and radius r.

Ellipse with center at  $(x_0, y_0)$  and axes parallel to the coordinate axes.

Graphs of (2.16) and (2.17).

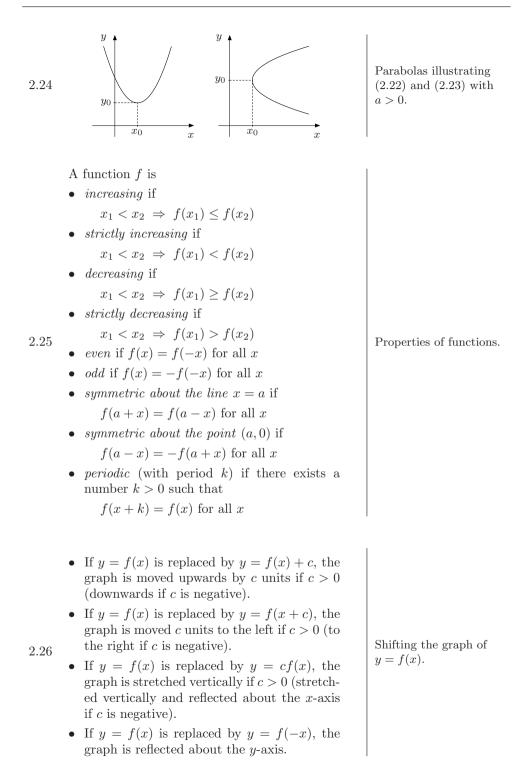
Hyperbola with center at  $(x_0, y_0)$  and axes parallel to the coordinate axes.

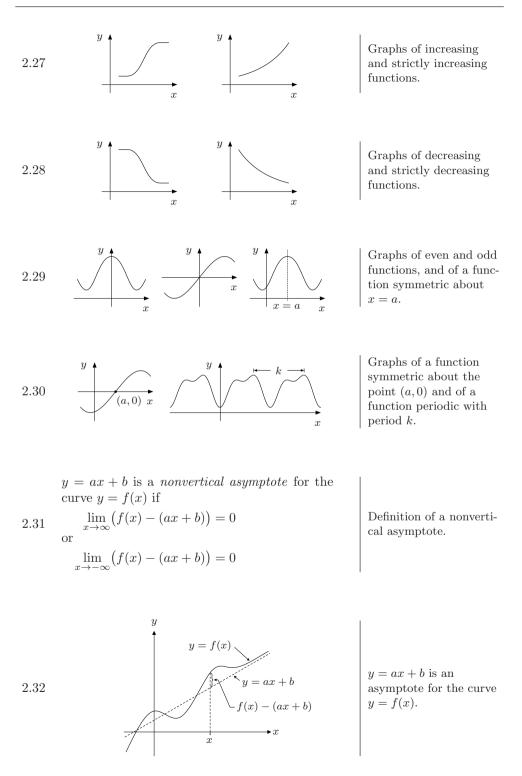
Formulas for asymptotes of the hyperbolas in (2.19).

Hyperbolas with asymptotes, illustrating (2.19) and (2.20), corresponding to + and - in (2.19), respectively. The two hyperbolas have the same asymptotes.

Parabola with vertex  $(x_0, y_0)$  and axis parallel to the y-axis.

Parabola with vertex  $(x_0, y_0)$  and axis parallel to the x-axis.





How to find a nonvertical asymptote for the curve y = f(x) as  $x \to \infty$ :

- Examine  $\lim_{x\to\infty} (f(x)/x)$ . If the limit does not exist, there is no asymptote as  $x\to\infty$ .
- 2.33 If  $\lim_{x \to \infty} (f(x)/x) = a$ , examine the limit  $\lim_{x \to \infty} (f(x) ax)$ . If this limit does not exist, the curve has no asymptote as  $x \to \infty$ .
  - If  $\lim_{x \to \infty} (f(x) ax) = b$ , then y = ax + b is an asymptote for the curve y = f(x) as  $x \to \infty$ .

To find an approximate root of f(x) = 0, define  $x_n$  for n = 1, 2, ..., by

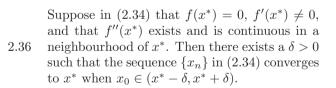
2.34 
$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

 $\boldsymbol{u}$ 

If  $x_0$  is close to an actual root  $x^*$ , the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  will usually converge rapidly to that root.

x

y = f(x)



 $x_{n+1}$ 

 $x_n$ 

Suppose in (2.34) that f is twice differentiable with  $f(x^*) = 0$  and  $f'(x^*) \neq 0$ . Suppose further that there exist a K > 0 and a  $\delta > 0$  such that for all x in  $(x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta)$ ,

2.37 
$$\frac{|f(x)f''(x)|}{f'(x)^2} \le K|x-x^*| < 1$$

Then if  $x_0 \in (x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta)$ , the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in (2.34) converges to  $x^*$  and

$$|x_n - x^*| \le (\delta K)^{2^n} / K$$

Method for finding nonvertical asymptotes for a curve y = f(x) as  $x \to \infty$ . Replacing  $x \to \infty$  by  $x \to -\infty$ gives a method for finding nonvertical asymptotes as  $x \to -\infty$ .

Newton's approximation method. (A rule of thumb says that, to obtain an approximation that is correct to n decimal places, use Newton's method until it gives the same n decimal places twice in a row.)

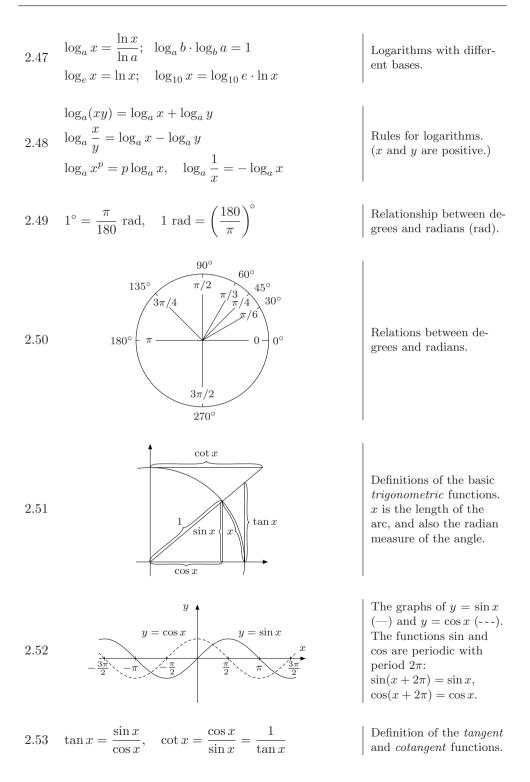
Illustration of Newton's approximation method. The tangent to the graph of f at  $(x_n, f(x_n))$  intersects the x-axis at  $x = x_{n+1}$ .

Sufficient conditions for convergence of Newton's method.

A precise estimation of the accuracy of Newton's method.

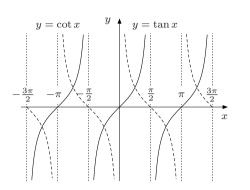
2.35

2.38
$$y - f(x_1) = f'(x_1)(x - x_1)$$
The equation for the tangent to  $y = f(x)$  at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$ .2.39 $y - f(x_1) = -\frac{1}{f'(x_1)}(x - x_1)$ The equation for the normal to  $y = f(x)$  at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$ .2.40 $y$ normal tangent tangent  $(x_1, f(x_1))$ .The tangent and the normal to  $y = f(x)$  at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$ .2.40 $y$  $x_1$  $x_1$ The tangent and the normal to  $y = f(x)$  at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$ .2.40 $y$  $x_1$  $x_1$ The tangent and the normal to  $y = f(x)$  at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$ .2.41(ii)  $(a^r) \cdot a^s = a^{r+s}$  (ii)  $(a^r)^s = a^{rs}$   
 $(v)  $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^r = \frac{a^r}{b^r}$  (vi)  $a^{-r} = \frac{1}{a^r}$ Rules for powers.  $(r \text{ and } s \text{ are arbitrary real numbers.)$ 2.42 $e^x = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{n}{n}\right)^n = 2.718281828459 \dots$   
 $e^x$ .Important definitions and results. See (8.23) for another formula for  $e^x$ .2.43 $e^{\ln x} = x$ Definition of the natural logarithm.2.44 $y$  $e^x$ 2.44 $y$  $e^x$  $y$  $e^x$  $x$  $y$  $y$  $e^x$  $x$  $x$ <$ 





2.55



x	0	$\frac{\pi}{6} = 30^{\circ}$	$\frac{\pi}{4} = 45^{\circ}$	$\frac{\pi}{3} = 60^{\circ}$	$\frac{\pi}{2} = 90^{\circ}$
$\sin x$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$	1
$\cos x$	1	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
$\tan x$	0	$\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{3}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	*
$\cot x$	*	$\sqrt{3}$	1	$\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{3}$	0

The graphs of  $y = \tan x$ (--) and  $y = \cot x$  (---). The functions  $\tan$  and  $\cot$  are periodic with period  $\pi$ :  $\tan(x + \pi) = \tan x$ ,  $\cot(x + \pi) = \cot x$ .

Special values of the trigonometric functions.

\* not defined

2.56	x	$\frac{3\pi}{4} = 135^{\circ}$	$\pi = 180^{\circ}$	$\frac{3\pi}{2} = 270^{\circ}$	$2\pi = 360^{\circ}$
	$\sin x$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$	0	-1	0
	$\cos x$	$-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$	-1	0	1
	$\tan x$	-1	0	*	0
	$\cot x$	-1	*	0	*

\* not defined

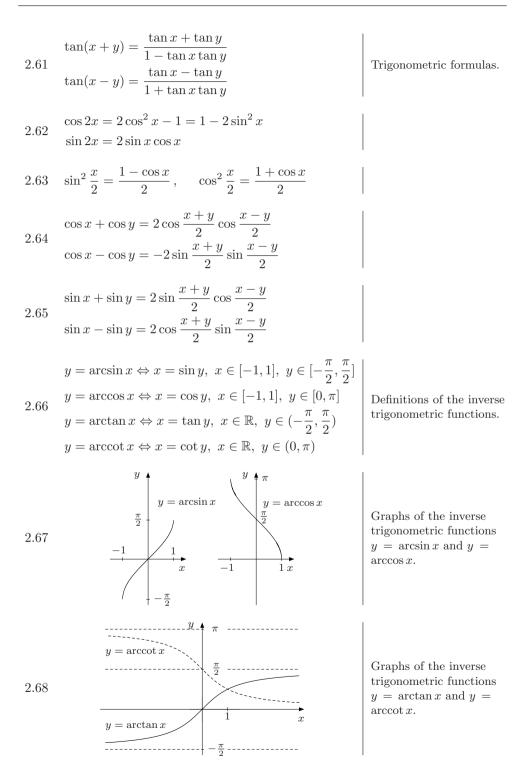
$$2.57 \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin ax}{x} = a$$

2.58 
$$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$$

2.59 
$$\tan^2 x = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} - 1, \qquad \cot^2 x = \frac{1}{\sin^2 x} - 1$$

2.60  $\cos(x+y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y$  $\sin(x-y) = \cos x \cos y + \sin x \sin y$  $\sin(x+y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y$  $\sin(x-y) = \sin x \cos y - \cos x \sin y$  An important limit.

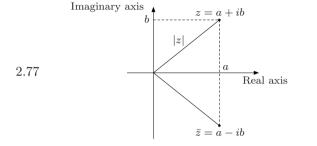
Trigonometric formulas. (For series expansions of trigonometric functions, see Chapter 8.)



2.69 
$$\operatorname{arcsin} x = \sin^{-1} x$$
,  $\operatorname{arccos} x = \cos^{-1} x$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} x = \tan^{-1} x$ ,  $\operatorname{arccos} x = \cot^{-1} x$   
 $\operatorname{arcsin} (-x) = -\operatorname{arcsin} x$   
 $\operatorname{arccos} (-x) = \pi - \operatorname{arccos} x$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} (-x) = \operatorname{arctan} x$   
 $\operatorname{arccot} (-x) = \pi - \operatorname{arccos} x$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} (-x) = \operatorname{arctan} x$   
 $\operatorname{arccot} (-x) = \pi - \operatorname{arccos} x$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} x + \operatorname{arccos} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{\pi}{2} - \operatorname{arctan} x$ ,  $x > 0$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{\pi}{2} - \operatorname{arctan} x$ ,  $x < 0$   
2.71  $\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$ ,  $\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{\pi}{2} - \operatorname{arctan} x$ ,  $x < 0$   
2.72  $\begin{array}{c} y = \cosh x & \frac{y}{1} \\ y = \sinh x \end{array}$   
 $\operatorname{arcsin} x + \operatorname{arccos} x = \frac{x}{2}$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{\pi}{2} - \operatorname{arctan} x$ ,  $x < 0$   
2.71  $\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$ ,  $\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$   
 $\operatorname{arctan} \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{\pi}{2} - \operatorname{arctan} x$ ,  $x < 0$   
2.72  $\begin{array}{c} y = \cosh x & \frac{y}{1} \\ y = \sinh x \end{array}$   
 $\operatorname{arcsin} x = \operatorname{arcsin} x + \operatorname{arccos} x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$   
 $\operatorname{arcsin} x = \operatorname{arcsin} x + \operatorname{arccos} x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$   
 $\operatorname{arcsin} x = \operatorname{arcsin} x + \operatorname{arccos} x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$   
 $\operatorname{arcsin} x = \operatorname{arccos} x + \operatorname{arccos} x = \operatorname{arcsin} x + \operatorname{arccos} x = \operatorname{arccos} x$ 

$$2.75 \quad z = a + ib, \quad \bar{z} = a - ib$$

2.76 
$$|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$
,  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = a$ ,  $\operatorname{Im}(z) = b$ 



A complex number and  
its conjugate. 
$$a, b \in \mathbb{R}$$
,  
and  $i^2 = -1$ . *i* is called  
the *imaginary unit*.

|z| is the modulus of z = a + ib. Re(z) and Im(z) are the real and imaginary parts of z.

Geometric representation of a complex number and its conjugate.

Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of complex numbers.

Basic rules.  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  are complex numbers.

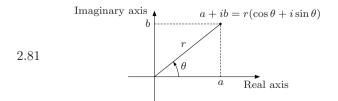
The trigonometric or polar form of a complex number. The angle  $\theta$  is called the argument of z. See (2.84) for  $e^{i\theta}$ .

Geometric representation of the trigonometric form of a complex number.

• 
$$(a+ib) + (c+id) = (a+c) + i(b+d)$$
  
•  $(a+ib) - (c+id) = (a-c) + i(b-d)$   
2.78 •  $(a+ib)(c+id) = (ac-bd) + i(ad+bc)$   
•  $\frac{a+ib}{c+id} = \frac{1}{c^2+d^2}((ac+bd) + i(bc-ad))$ 

2.79 
$$|\bar{z}_1| = |z_1|, \ z_1\bar{z}_1 = |z_1|^2, \ \overline{z_1 + z_2} = \bar{z}_1 + \bar{z}_2,$$
  
 $|z_1z_2| = |z_1||z_2|, \ |z_1 + z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$ 

2.80 
$$z = a + ib = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta) = re^{i\theta}, \text{ where}$$
$$r = |z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}, \quad \cos\theta = \frac{a}{r}, \quad \sin\theta = \frac{b}{r}$$



If 
$$z_k = r_k(\cos \theta_k + i \sin \theta_k)$$
,  $k = 1, 2$ , then  
 $z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2(\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2))$   
 $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2}(\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2))$   
2.83  $(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta$   
If  $z = x + iy$ , then  
 $e^z = e^{x+iy} = e^x \cdot e^{iy} = e^x(\cos y + i \sin y)$   
In particular,  
 $e^{iy} = \cos y + i \sin y$   
2.85  $e^{\pi i} = -1$   
2.86  $e^{\overline{z}} = \overline{e^z}$ ,  $e^{z+2\pi i} = e^z$ ,  $e^{z_1+z_2} = e^{z_1}e^{z_2}$ ,  
 $e^{z_1-z_2} = e^{z_1}/e^{z_2}$   
2.87  $\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}$ ,  $\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$   
If  $a = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \neq 0$ , then the equation  
 $z^n = a$   
2.88 has exactly *n* roots, namely  
 $z_k = \sqrt[n]{r}\left(\cos\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} + i \sin\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n}\right)$   
for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ .  
Multiplication and division on trigonometric  
form.  
Multiplication trigonometric  
form.  
Multiplication trigonometric  
form.  
Multiplication and division trigonometric  
form.  
Multiplication trig

## References

Most of these formulas can be found in any calculus text, e.g. Edwards and Penney (1998) or Sydsæter and Hammond (2005). For (2.3)–(2.12), see e.g. Turnbull (1952).



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