

BO1 History of Mathematics  
Lecture XIII  
Complex analysis  
Part 1: Complex numbers

MT 2020 Week 7

# Summary

## Part 1

- ▶ Complex numbers: validity and representation
- ▶ Substitution of complex values for real

## Part 2

- ▶ Cauchy's contributions
- ▶ Riemann
- ▶ What *is* an analytic function?

# Early ideas about complex numbers

Before 1600, very faint beginnings:

# Early ideas about complex numbers

Before 1600, very faint beginnings:

- ▶ Cardano (1545) [from quadratics]



# Early ideas about complex numbers

Before 1600, very faint beginnings:

- ▶ Cardano (1545) [from quadratics]
- ▶ Bombelli (1572) [from cubics]

# Early ideas about complex numbers

Before 1600, very faint beginnings:

- ▶ Cardano (1545) [from quadratics]
- ▶ Bombelli (1572) [from cubics]
- ▶ Harriot (c. 1600) [from quartics]

# Early ideas about complex numbers

Before 1600, very faint beginnings:

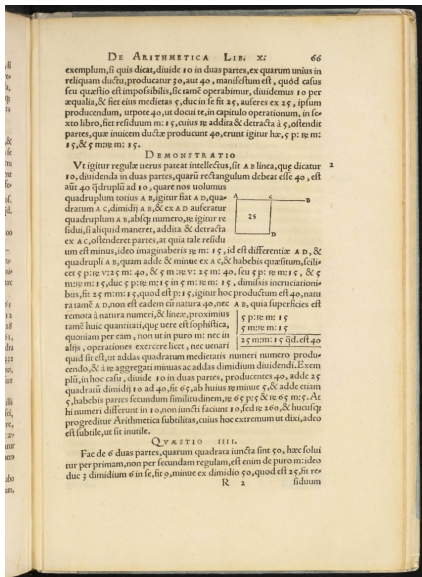
- ▶ Cardano (1545) [from quadratics]
- ▶ Bombelli (1572) [from cubics]
- ▶ Harriot (c. 1600) [from quartics]

But:

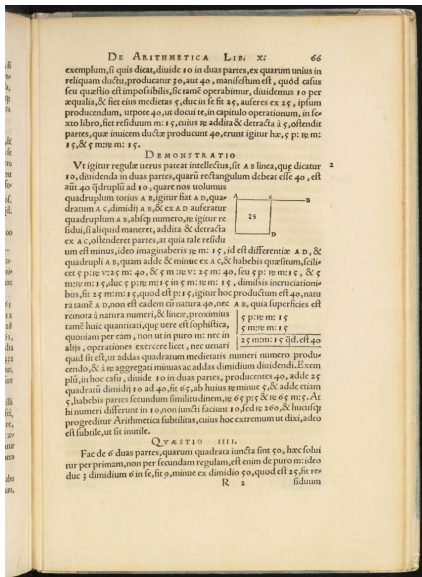
*For the most part such roots were ignored: negative roots were described merely as 'false', but complex roots as 'impossible'. (Mathematics emerging, p. 459.)*

# Cardano and complex numbers

Problem: find two numbers that add to 10 and multiply to 40,

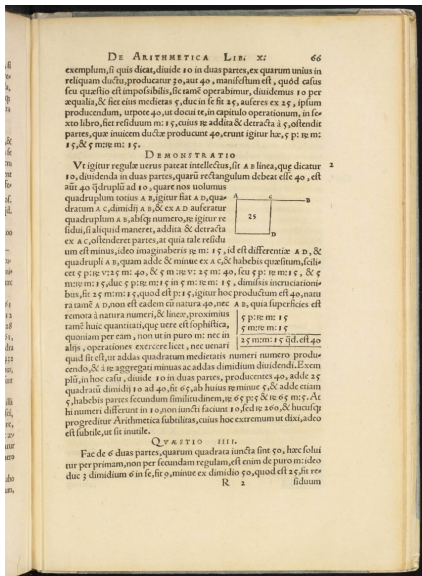


# Cardano and complex numbers



Problem: find two numbers that add to 10 and multiply to 40, i.e., solve an equation of the type 'square plus number equals thing'

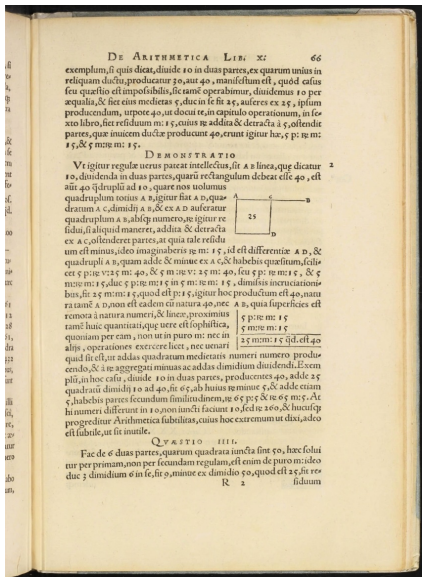
# Cardano and complex numbers



Problem: find two numbers that add to 10 and multiply to 40, i.e., solve an equation of the type 'square plus number equals thing'

Cardano noted that  $5 + \sqrt{-15}$  and  $5 - \sqrt{-15}$  solve the problem, "dismissis incruationibus",

# Cardano and complex numbers

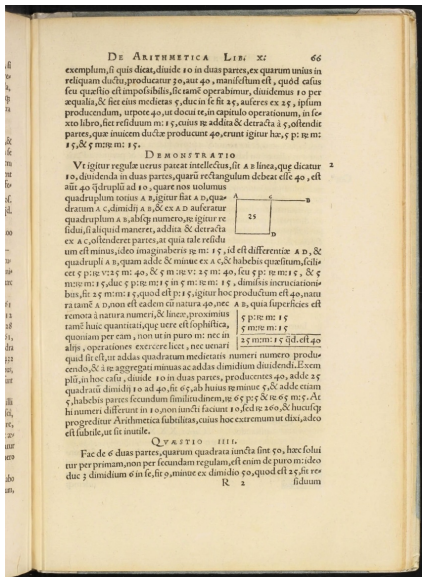


Problem: find two numbers that add to 10 and multiply to 40, i.e., solve an equation of the type 'square plus number equals thing'

Cardano noted that  $5 + \sqrt{-15}$  and  $5 - \sqrt{-15}$  solve the problem, "dismissis incruationibus", meaning

"putting aside mental tortures",

# Cardano and complex numbers



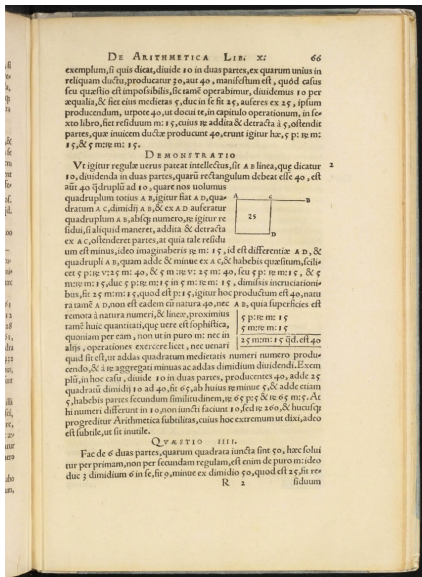
Problem: find two numbers that add to 10 and multiply to 40, i.e., solve an equation of the type 'square plus number equals thing'

Cardano noted that  $5 + \sqrt{-15}$  and  $5 - \sqrt{-15}$  solve the problem, "dismissis incruationibus", meaning

"putting aside mental tortures", or "the cross-multiples having canceled out",



# Cardano and complex numbers

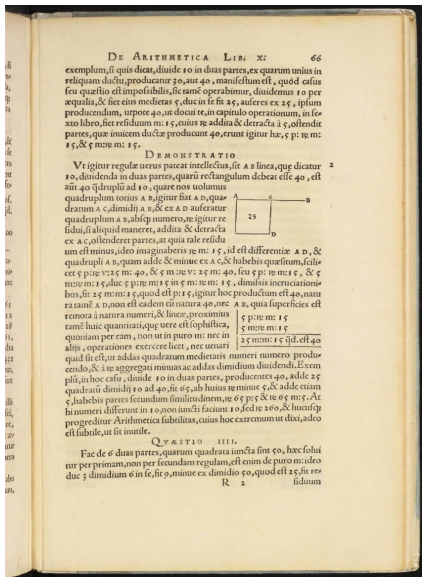


Problem: find two numbers that add to 10 and multiply to 40, i.e., solve an equation of the type 'square plus number equals thing'

Cardano noted that  $5 + \sqrt{-15}$  and  $5 - \sqrt{-15}$  solve the problem, "dismissis incruacionibus", meaning

"putting aside mental tortures", or "the cross-multiples having canceled out", or "the imaginary part being lost"

# Cardano and complex numbers



Problem: find two numbers that add to 10 and multiply to 40, i.e., solve an equation of the type 'square plus number equals thing'

Cardano noted that  $5 + \sqrt{-15}$  and  $5 - \sqrt{-15}$  solve the problem, "dismissis incruacionibus", meaning

"putting aside mental tortures",

or

"the cross-multiples having canceled out",

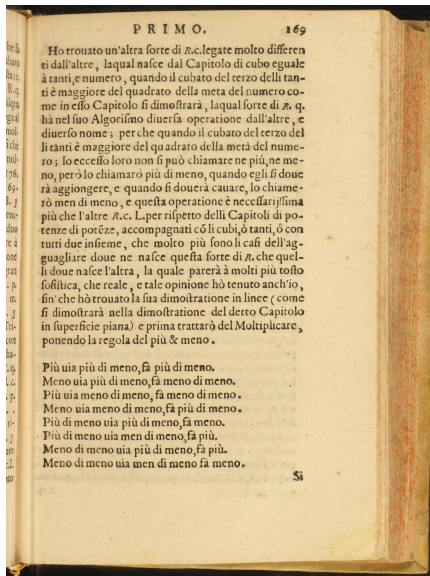
or

"the imaginary part being lost"

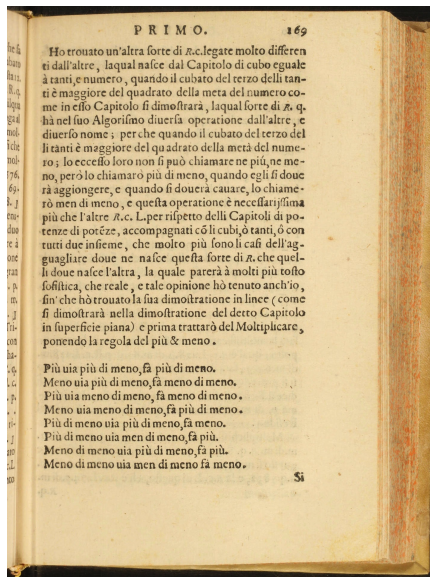
But regarded such ideas as absurd and useless

# Bombelli and complex numbers

“Another sort of cube root much different from the former . . .”



# Bombelli and complex numbers



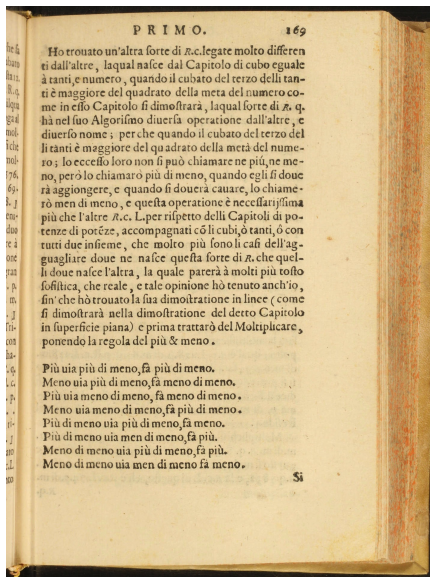
“Another sort of cube root much different from the former . . .”

Systematic rules:

*più di meno via più di meno, fà meno* ( $\sqrt{-1} \times \sqrt{-1} = -1$ )

*meno di meno via più di meno, fà più* ( $-\sqrt{-1} \times \sqrt{-1} = 1$ )

# Bombelli and complex numbers



“Another sort of cube root much different from the former . . .”

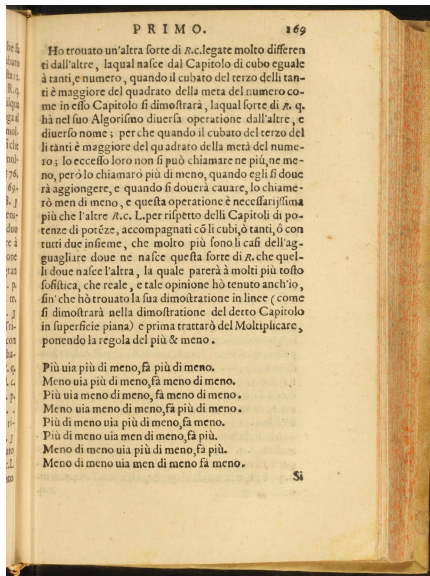
Systematic rules:

*più di meno via più di meno, farà meno* ( $\sqrt{-1} \times \sqrt{-1} = -1$ )

*meno di meno via più di meno, farà più* ( $-\sqrt{-1} \times \sqrt{-1} = 1$ )

**But** complex numbers were not admitted as solutions of equations — they could appear in calculations, provided they cancelled out by the end

# Bombelli and complex numbers



“Another sort of cube root much different from the former . . .”

Systematic rules:

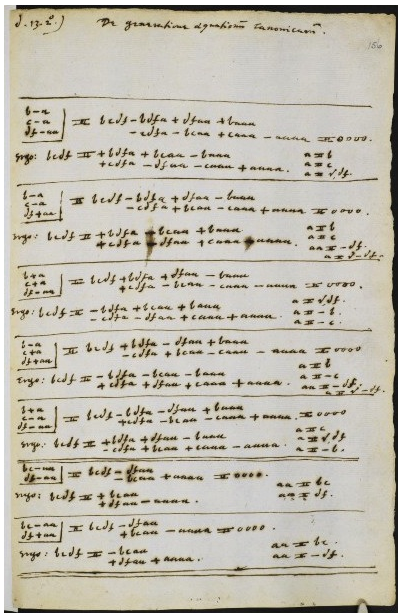
*più di meno via più di meno, fa meno* ( $\sqrt{-1} \times \sqrt{-1} = -1$ )

*meno di meno via più di meno, fa più* ( $-\sqrt{-1} \times \sqrt{-1} = 1$ )

**But** complex numbers were not admitted as solutions of equations — they could appear in calculations, provided they cancelled out by the end

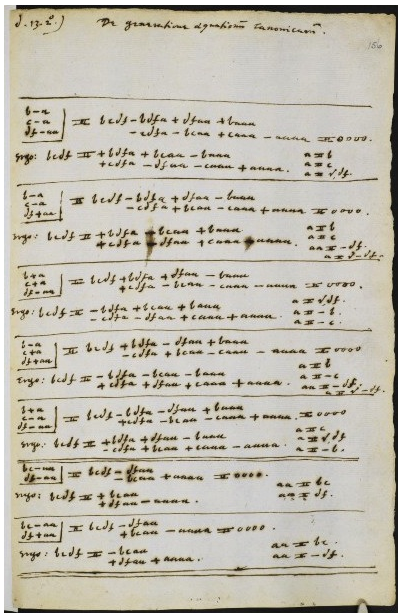
Complex numbers justified through practical use?

# Harriot and complex numbers



Add MS 6783 f. 156

# Harriot and complex numbers

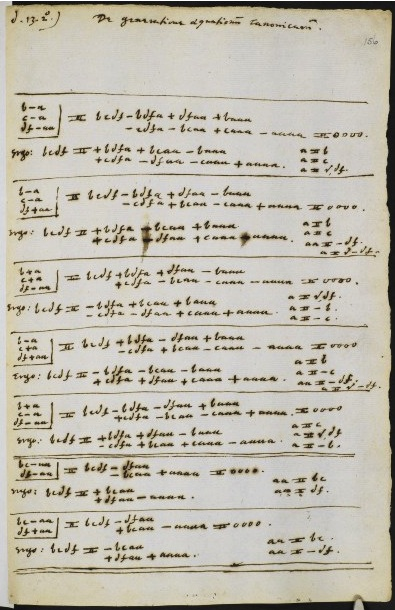


Add MS 6783 f. 156

Unpublished manuscripts contain systematic treatment of complex roots of equations



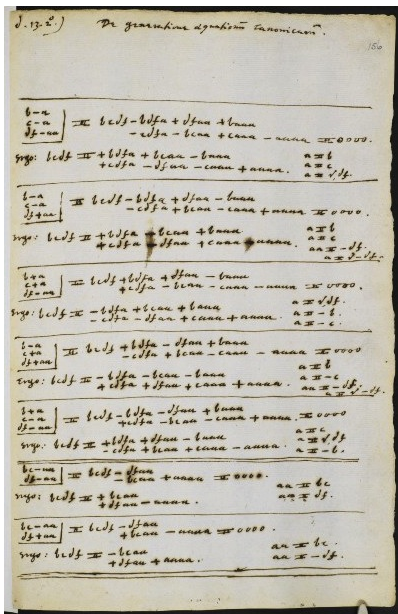
# Harriot and complex numbers



Add MS 6783 f. 156

Unpublished manuscripts contain systematic treatment of complex roots of equations — but these were removed by his editors

# Harriot and complex numbers

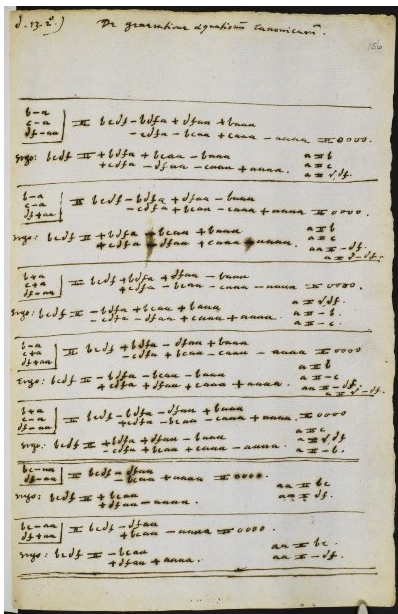


Add MS 6783 f. 156

Unpublished manuscripts contain systematic treatment of complex roots of equations — but these were removed by his editors

Cf. Harriot's *Artis analyticae praxis* (1931), pp. 14–15;

# Harriot and complex numbers



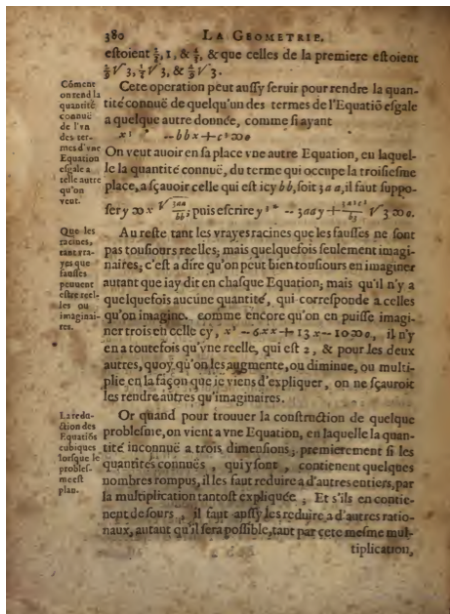
Add MS 6783 f. 156

Unpublished manuscripts contain systematic treatment of complex roots of equations — but these were removed by his editors

Cf. Harriot's *Artis analyticae praxis* (1931), pp. 14–15; see:

Muriel Seltman & Robert Goulding, *Thomas Harriot's Artis analyticae praxis: an English translation with commentary*, Springer, 2007

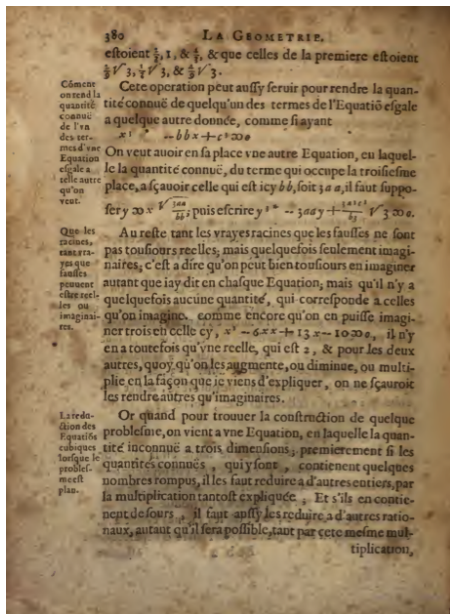
# Descartes and 'imaginaries'



La géométrie (1637):

introduced the term  
'imaginaire'

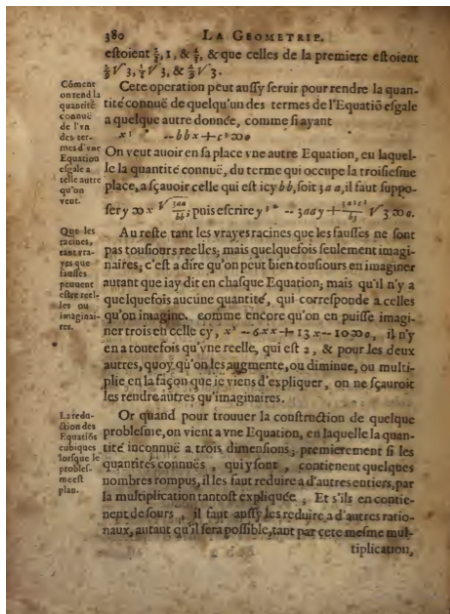
# Descartes and 'imaginaries'



*La géométrie* (1637):

introduced the term  
'imaginaire' — meant to be  
derogatory?

# Descartes and 'imaginaries'



*La géométrie* (1637):

introduced the term  
'imaginaire' — meant to be  
derogatory?

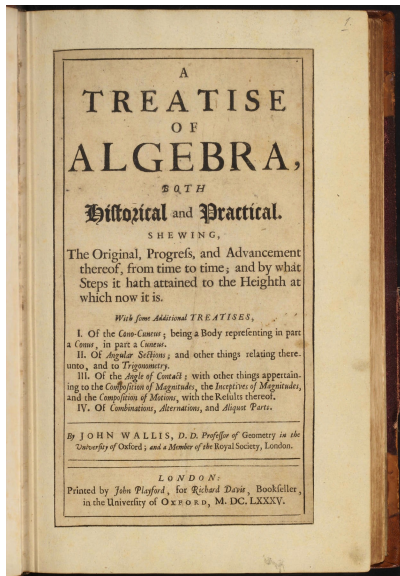
Didn't regard them as  
numbers

# Ideas about complex numbers in the later 17th century

John Wallis, *A treatise of algebra* (1685): complex numbers based on insights derived from

- ▶ Euclidean geometry
- ▶ trigonometry
- ▶ properties of conics

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §15.1.1.)



## Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



- ▶ A man starts at  $A$  and walks 5 yds to  $B$ , then retreats 2 yds to  $C$ : overall, he has covered 3 yds.



## Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



- ▶ A man starts at A and walks 5 yds to B, then retreats 2 yds to C: overall, he has covered 3 yds. If he instead retreats 8 yds to D, then we may say that he has covered -3 yds.

## Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



- ▶ A man starts at A and walks 5 yds to B, then retreats 2 yds to C: overall, he has covered 3 yds. If he instead retreats 8 yds to D, then we may say that he has covered -3 yds.
- ▶ Somewhere on the seashore, we gain 26 units of land from the sea, but lose 10 units.

## Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



- ▶ A man starts at A and walks 5 yds to B, then retreats 2 yds to C: overall, he has covered 3 yds. If he instead retreats 8 yds to D, then we may say that he has covered -3 yds.
- ▶ Somewhere on the seashore, we gain 26 units of land from the sea, but lose 10 units. Thus, we have gained 16 units overall;

## Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



- ▶ A man starts at A and walks 5 yds to B, then retreats 2 yds to C: overall, he has covered 3 yds. If he instead retreats 8 yds to D, then we may say that he has covered -3 yds.
- ▶ Somewhere on the seashore, we gain 26 units of land from the sea, but lose 10 units. Thus, we have gained 16 units overall; if this is a perfect square, then it has side 4 units of length.

## Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



- ▶ A man starts at A and walks 5 yds to B, then retreats 2 yds to C: overall, he has covered 3 yds. If he instead retreats 8 yds to D, then we may say that he has covered -3 yds.
- ▶ Somewhere on the seashore, we gain 26 units of land from the sea, but lose 10 units. Thus, we have gained 16 units overall; if this is a perfect square, then it has side 4 units of length.
- ▶ If instead we lose 26 units of land, but gain 10, then we have lost 16 units overall, or gained -16.

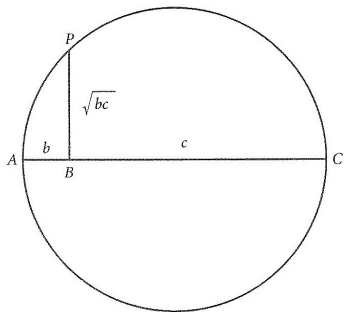
## Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



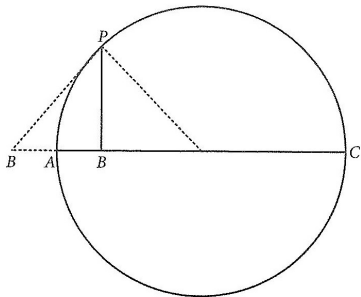
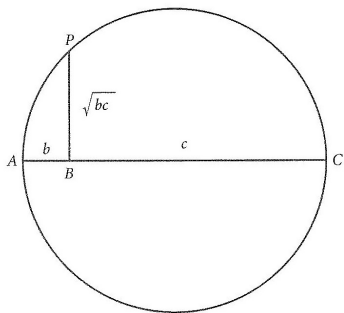
- ▶ A man starts at A and walks 5 yds to B, then retreats 2 yds to C: overall, he has covered 3 yds. If he instead retreats 8 yds to D, then we may say that he has covered -3 yds.
- ▶ Somewhere on the seashore, we gain 26 units of land from the sea, but lose 10 units. Thus, we have gained 16 units overall; if this is a perfect square, then it has side 4 units of length.
- ▶ If instead we lose 26 units of land, but gain 10, then we have lost 16 units overall, or gained -16. The area in question (assumed to be a square) might therefore be viewed as having side  $\sqrt{-16}$ .

(see: Leo Corry, *A brief history of numbers*, OUP, 2015, pp. 184–185)

## Wallis: imaginary numbers as geometric means



## Wallis: imaginary numbers as geometric means



(see: Leo Corry, *A brief history of numbers*, OUP, 2015, pp. 185–186)



## "A new Impossibility in Algebra"

John Wallis, *A treatise of algebra*, p. 267 'Of negative squares':  
... requires a new Impossibility in Algebra

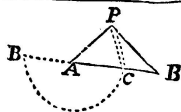
---

### CHAP. LXVII. *Of Negative Squares.*

---

267

Suppose again,  $AP = 15$ ,  $PC = 12$ , (and therefore  $AC = \sqrt{225 - 144} = \sqrt{81} = 9$ ,)  $PB = 20$  (and therefore  $BC = \sqrt{400 - 144} = \sqrt{256} = +16$ , or  $-16$ ;) Then is  $AB = 9 + 16 = 25$ , or  $AB = 9 - 16 = -7$ . The one Affirmative, the other Negative. (The same values would be, but with contrary Signs, if we take  $AC = \sqrt{81} = -9$ : That is,  $AB = -9 + 16 = +7$ ,  $AB = -9 - 16 = -25$ .)



Which gives indeed (as before) a double value of  $AB$ ,  $\sqrt{175}$ ,  $+ \sqrt{-81}$ , and  $\sqrt{175}$ ,  $- \sqrt{-81}$ : But such as requires a new Impossibility in Algebra, (which in Lateral Equations doth not happen;) not that of a Negative Root, or a Quantity less than nothing; (as before,) but the Root of a Negative Square. Which in strictness of speech, cannot be: since that no Real Root (Affirmative or Negative,) being Multiplied into itself, will make a Negative Square.

## Complex numbers in the 18th century (1)



Nature remained unclear:

“that amphibian between being and not-being, which we call the imaginary root of negative unity” (Leibniz, 1702)

But complex numbers were increasingly being used ...

# Complex numbers in the 18th century (2)

296 MEMOIRES DE L'ACADEMIE ROYALE  
boles, dépend en partie de la quadrature du cercle, & en  
partie de la quadrature de l'hyperbole ou de la description  
de la Logarithmique.

*Manières abrégées de transformer les différentielles  
composées en simples, & réciproquement; Et même  
les simples imaginaires en réelles composées.*

PROBL. I. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb-xx}$  en  
une différentielle Logarithmique  $\frac{adt}{zbt}$ , & réciproquement.

Faites  $z = \frac{x-1}{x+1} \times b$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adz}{bb-xx} = \frac{adt}{zbt}$ . Réci-  
proquement prenez  $t = \frac{+z+b}{-x+b}$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adt}{zbt} =$   
 $= \frac{adz}{bb-xx}$ .

Corol. On transformera de même la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb+xx}$   
en  $\frac{-adt}{zbt\sqrt{-1}}$  différentielle de Logarithme imaginaire; &  
réciproquement.

PROBL. II. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb+xx}$  en  
différentielle de secteur ou d'arc circulaire  $\frac{-adt}{z\sqrt{t-bbt}}$ ; &  
réciproquement.

Faites  $z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t} - bb}$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adz}{bb+xx} = \frac{-adt}{z\sqrt{t-bbt}}$   
Réciproquement prenez  $t = \frac{1}{z^2 + bb}$ , & vous aurez  
 $\frac{-adt}{z\sqrt{t-bbt}} = \frac{adz}{bb+xx}$ .

PROBL. III. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb-xx}$  en  
différentielle de secteur hyperbolique  $\frac{adt}{z\sqrt{t+bbt}}$ ; & réci-  
proquement.

Faites  $z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t} + bb}$ , & ensuite  $t = \frac{1}{bb-xx}$ ; & vous  
aurez ce qu'on demande.

PROBL.

Johann Bernoulli, 'Solution d'un  
problème concernant le calcul  
intégrale, ...', *Mémoires de  
l'Académie royale des sciences*,  
1702:

# Complex numbers in the 18th century (2)

296 MEMOIRES DE L'ACADEMIE ROYALE  
boles, dépend en partie de la quadrature du cercle, & en  
partie de la quadrature de l'hyperbole ou de la description  
de la Logarithmique.

*Manières abrégées de transformer les différentielles  
composées en simples, & réciproquement; Et même  
les simples imaginaires en réelles composées.*

PROBL. I. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb-xx}$  en  
une différentielle Logarithmique  $\frac{adt}{zbt}$ , & réciproquement.

Faites  $z = \frac{x-1}{x+1} \times b$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adz}{bb-xx} = \frac{adt}{zbt}$ . Réci-  
proquement prenez  $t = \frac{+z+b}{-x+b}$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adt}{zbt} =$   
 $= \frac{adz}{bb-xx}$ .

Corol. On transformera de même la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb+xx}$   
en  $\frac{-adt}{zbt\sqrt{-1}}$  différentielle de Logarithme imaginaire; &  
réciproquement.

PROBL. II. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb+xx}$  en  
différentielle de secteur ou d'arc circulaire  $\frac{-adt}{z\sqrt{t-bbtt}}$ ; &  
réciproquement.

Faites  $z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t} - bb}$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adz}{bb+xx} = \frac{-adt}{z\sqrt{t-bbtt}}$   
Réciproquement prenez  $t = \frac{1}{zz+bb}$ , & vous aurez  
 $\frac{-adt}{z\sqrt{t-bbtt}} = \frac{adz}{bb+xx}$ .

PROBL. III. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adz}{bb-xx}$  en  
différentielle de secteur hyperbolique  $\frac{adt}{z\sqrt{t+bbtt}}$ ; & réci-  
proquement.

Faites  $z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t} + bb}$ , & ensuite  $t = \frac{1}{bb-xx}$ ; & vous  
aurez ce qu'on demande.

PROBL.

Johann Bernoulli, 'Solution d'un  
problème concernant le calcul  
intégrale, ...', *Mémoires de  
l'Académie royale des sciences*,  
1702:

by making the substitution

$z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t} - bb}$ , transform the

differential  $\frac{adz}{bb+xx}$  into  $\frac{-adt}{2bt\sqrt{-1}}$

# Complex numbers in the 18th century (2)

296 MEMOIRES DE L'ACADEMIE ROYALE  
boles, dépend en partie de la quadrature du cercle, & en  
partie de la quadrature de l'hyperbole ou de la description  
de la Logarithmique.

*Manières abrégées de transformer les différentielles  
composées en simples, & réciproquement; Et même  
les simples imaginaires en réelles composées.*

PROBL. I. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adx}{bb-xx}$  en  
une différentielle Logarithmique  $\frac{adx}{x+b}$ , & réciproquement.

Faites  $z = \frac{x-1}{x+1} \times b$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adx}{bb-xx} = \frac{adt}{x+b}$ . Réci-  
proquement prenez  $t = \frac{x+b}{-x+b}$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adt}{x+b} =$   
 $= \frac{adx}{bb-xx}$ .

Corol. On transformera de même la différentielle  $\frac{adx}{bb+xx}$   
en  $\frac{-adx}{x+b\sqrt{-1}}$  différentielle de Logarithme imaginaire; &  
réciproquement.

PROBL. II. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adx}{bb+xx}$  en  
différentielle de secteur ou d'arc circulaire  $\frac{-adt}{x+b\sqrt{-1}}$ ; &  
réciproquement.

Faites  $z = \sqrt{\frac{x}{b} - bb}$ , & vous aurez  $\frac{adx}{bb+xx} = \frac{-adt}{x+b\sqrt{-1}}$   
Réciproquement prenez  $t = \frac{x}{x+b\sqrt{-1}}$ , & vous aurez  
 $\frac{-adt}{x+b\sqrt{-1}} = \frac{adx}{bb+xx}$ .

PROBL. III. Transformer la différentielle  $\frac{adx}{bb-xx}$  en  
différentielle de secteur hyperbolique  $\frac{adt}{x+b\sqrt{-1}}$ ; & réci-  
proquement.

Faites  $z = \sqrt{\frac{x}{b} + bb}$ , & ensuite  $t = \frac{x}{b-b-xx}$ ; & vous  
aurez ce qu'on demande.

PROBL.

Johann Bernoulli, 'Solution d'un  
problème concernant le calcul  
intégrale, ...', *Mémoires de  
l'Académie royale des sciences*,  
1702:

by making the substitution

$z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t} - bb}$ , transform the

differential  $\frac{adz}{bb+zz}$  into  $\frac{-adt}{2bt\sqrt{-1}}$

No worries about the validity of  
switching between real and complex  
integrals

(See *Mathematics emerging*,  
§15.2.1)

# Complex numbers in the 18th century (3)

[ 192 ]

## How EQUATIONS are to be solv'd.

**A**FTER therefore in the Solution of a Question you are come to an Equation, and that Equation is duly reduc'd and order'd; when the Quantities which are suppos'd given, are really given in Numbers, those Numbers are to be substituted in their room in the Equation, and you'll have a Numeral Equation, whose Root being extracted will satisfy the Question. As if in the Division of an Angle into five equal Parts, by putting  $r$  for the Radius of the Circle,  $q$  for the Chord of the Complement of the propos'd Angle to two right ones, and  $x$  for the Chord of the Complement of the fifth Part of that Angle, I had come to this Equation,  $x^5 - 5rrx^3 + 5r^4x - r^5q = 0$ . Where in any particular Case the Radius  $r$  is given in Numbers, and the Line  $q$  subtending the Complement of the given Angle; as if Radius were 10, and the Chord 3; I substitute those Numbers in the Equation for  $r$  and  $q$ , and there comes out the Numeral Equation  $x^5 - 500x^3 + 50000x - 30000 = 0$ , whereof the Root being extracted will be  $x$ , or the Line subtending the Complement of the fifth Part of that given Angle.

But the Root is a Number which being substituted in the Equation for the Letter or Species signifying the Root, will make all the Terms vanish. Thus Unity is the Root of the Equation  $x^4 - 19x^2 + 49x - 30 = 0$ , because being writ for  $x$  it produces  $1 - 19 + 49 - 30$ , that is, nothing. And thus, if for  $x$  you write the Number 3, or the Negative Number  $-5$ , and in both Cases there will be produc'd nothing, the Affirmative and Negative Terms in these four Cases destroying one another; then since any of the Numbers written in the Equation fulfils the Condition of  $x$ , by making all the Terms of the Equation together equal to nothing, any of them will be the Root of the Equation.

And that you may not wonder that the same Equation may have several Roots, you must know that there may be more Solutions [than one] of the same Problem. As if there was sought the Interfection of two given Circles; there are two Interfections, and consequently the Question admits two Answers; and then the Equation determining  
the

Isaac Newton, *Universal Arithmetick*, 1728:

p. 195: "it is just that the Roots of Equations should be often impossible, lest they should exhibit the cases of Problems that are impossible as if they are possible"

# Complex numbers in the 18th century (3)

[ 192 ]

## How EQUATIONS are to be solv'd.

**A**FTER therefore in the Solution of a Question you are come to an Equation, and that Equation is duly reduc'd and order'd; when the Quantities which are suppos'd given, are really given in Numbers, those Numbers are to be substituted in their room in the Equation, and you'll have a Numeral Equation, whose Root being extracted will satisfy the Question. As if in the Division of an Angle into five equal Parts, by putting  $r$  for the Radius of the Circle,  $q$  for the Chord of the Complement of the propos'd Angle to two right ones, and  $x$  for the Chord of the Complement of the fifth Part of that Angle, I had come to this Equation,  $x^5 - 5rrx^3 + 5r^4x - r^5q = 0$ . Where in any particular Case the Radius  $r$  is given in Numbers, and the Line  $q$  subtending the Complement of the given Angle; as if Radius were 10, and the Chord 3; I substitute those Numbers in the Equation for  $r$  and  $q$ , and there comes out the Numeral Equation  $x^5 - 500x^3 + 50000x - 30000 = 0$ , whereof the Root being extracted will be  $x$ , or the Line subtending the Complement of the fifth Part of that given Angle.

But the Root is a Number which being substituted in the Equation for the Letter or Species signifying the Root, will make all the Terms vanish. Thus Unity is the Root of the Equation  $x^5 - 500x^3 + 50000x - 30000 = 0$ , because being writ for  $x$  it produces  $1 - 1 - 19 + 49 - 30$ , that is, nothing. And thus, if for  $x$  you write the Number 3, or the Negative Number  $-5$ , and in both Cases there will be produc'd nothing, the Affirmative and Negative Terms in these four Cases destroying one another; then since any of the Numbers written in the Equation fulfils the Condition of  $x$ , by making all the Terms of the Equation together equal to nothing, any of them will be the Root of the Equation.

And that you may not wonder that the same Equation may have several Roots, you must know that there may be more Solutions [than one] of the same Problem. As if there was sought the Interfection of two given Circles; there are two Interfections, and consequently the Question admits two Answers; and then the Equation determining the

Isaac Newton, *Universal Arithmetick*, 1728:

p. 195: "it is just that the Roots of Equations should be often impossible, lest they should exhibit the cases of Problems that are impossible as if they are possible" — complex numbers as an indicator of real-world solvability of problems

# Complex numbers in the 18th century (4)

Leonhard Euler also used them freely:  
e.g., in *Introductio in analysin  
infinitorum*, 1748, §138:

$$e^{+\nu\sqrt{-1}} = \cos . \nu + \sqrt{-1} . \sin . \nu$$

$$e^{-\nu\sqrt{-1}} = \cos . \nu - \sqrt{-1} . \sin . \nu$$

(See *Mathematics emerging*, §9.2.3)





# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

- ▶ Early 17th century: known that an equation of degree  $n$  **may** have  $n$  roots

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

- ▶ Early 17th century: known that an equation of degree  $n$  **may** have  $n$  roots
- ▶ During 17th century: complex numbers gradually admitted as roots

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

- ▶ Early 17th century: known that an equation of degree  $n$  **may** have  $n$  roots
- ▶ During 17th century: complex numbers gradually admitted as roots
- ▶ 15 Sept 1759: Euler asserted theorem in a letter to Nicholas Bernoulli, but didn't prove it

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

- ▶ Early 17th century: known that an equation of degree  $n$  **may** have  $n$  roots
- ▶ During 17th century: complex numbers gradually admitted as roots
- ▶ 15 Sept 1759: Euler asserted theorem in a letter to Nicholas Bernoulli, but didn't prove it
- ▶ Mid/late 18th century: attempted proofs by Euler, d'Alembert, Lagrange, and others

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

- ▶ Early 17th century: known that an equation of degree  $n$  **may** have  $n$  roots
- ▶ During 17th century: complex numbers gradually admitted as roots
- ▶ 15 Sept 1759: Euler asserted theorem in a letter to Nicholas Bernoulli, but didn't prove it
- ▶ Mid/late 18th century: attempted proofs by Euler, d'Alembert, Lagrange, and others
- ▶ 1799: proof by Gauss in his doctoral dissertation, followed by several others

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

- ▶ Early 17th century: known that an equation of degree  $n$  **may** have  $n$  roots
- ▶ During 17th century: complex numbers gradually admitted as roots
- ▶ 15 Sept 1759: Euler asserted theorem in a letter to Nicholas Bernoulli, but didn't prove it
- ▶ Mid/late 18th century: attempted proofs by Euler, d'Alembert, Lagrange, and others
- ▶ 1799: proof by Gauss in his doctoral dissertation, followed by several others
- ▶ 1806: new proof by Argand

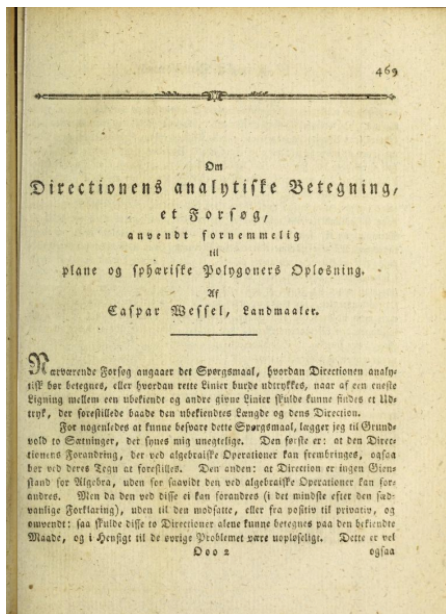
# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

*Every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  roots.*

- ▶ Early 17th century: known that an equation of degree  $n$  **may** have  $n$  roots
- ▶ During 17th century: complex numbers gradually admitted as roots
- ▶ 15 Sept 1759: Euler asserted theorem in a letter to Nicholas Bernoulli, but didn't prove it
- ▶ Mid/late 18th century: attempted proofs by Euler, d'Alembert, Lagrange, and others
- ▶ 1799: proof by Gauss in his doctoral dissertation, followed by several others
- ▶ 1806: new proof by Argand
- ▶ 1821: Argand's proof appears in Cauchy's *Cours d'analyse*

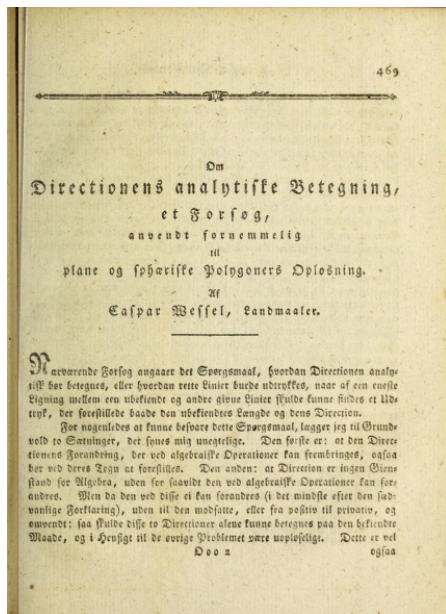


# New ways of viewing complex numbers



Caspar Wessel, 'Om Directionens analytiske Betegning ...' ['On the analytic representation of direction ...'], *Nye Samling af det Kongelige Danske Videnskabers Selskabs Skrifter*, 1799

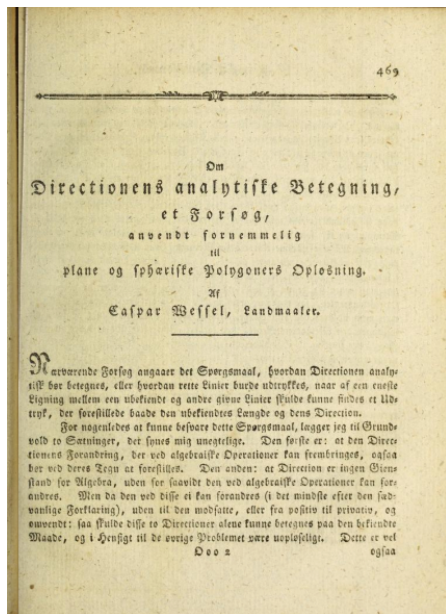
# New ways of viewing complex numbers



Caspar Wessel, 'Om Directionens analytiske Betegning ...' ['On the analytic representation of direction ...'], *Nye Samling af det Kongelige Danske Videnskabers Selskabs Skrifter*, 1799

Published in Danish

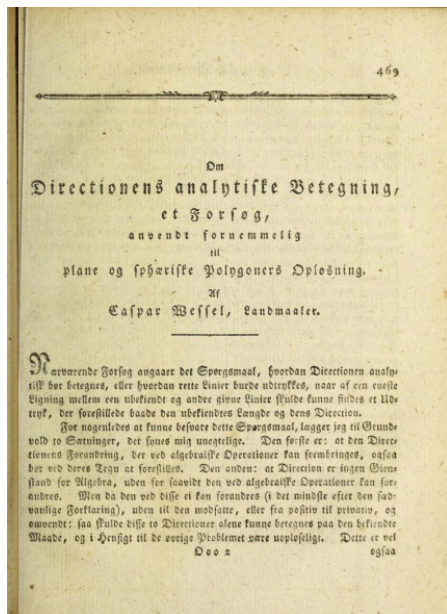
# New ways of viewing complex numbers



Caspar Wessel, 'Om Directionens analytiske Betegning ...' ['On the analytic representation of direction ...'], *Nye Samling af det Kongelige Danske Videnskabers Selskabs Skrifter*, 1799

Published in Danish — not well known

# New ways of viewing complex numbers



Caspar Wessel, 'Om Directionens analytiske Betegning ...' ['On the analytic representation of direction ...'], *Nye Samling af det Kongelige Danske Videnskabers Selskabs Skrifter*, 1799

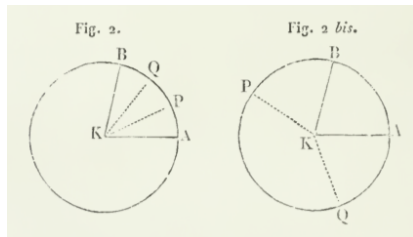
Published in Danish — not well known

French translation published in 1897

# New ways of viewing complex numbers



Robert Argand, *Essay on a method of representing imaginary quantities . . .*, 1806



# New ways of viewing complex numbers

*Transactions of the Royal Irish  
Academy, 1837*

Complex numbers as ordered  
pairs subject to specified rules:

*Theory of Conjugate Functions, or Algebraic Couples; with a Preliminary and  
Elementary Essay on Algebra as the Science of Pure Time.*

By WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON,

*M.R.I.A., F.R.A.S., Hon. M.R.S.Ed. and Dub., Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and  
Sciences, and of the Royal Northern Antiquarian Society at Copenhagen, Andrews' Professor of  
Astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Royal Astronomer of Ireland.*

Read November 4th, 1833, and June 1st, 1835.

*General Introductory Remarks.*

THE Study of Algebra may be pursued in three very different schools, the Practical, the Philological, or the Theoretical, according as Algebra itself is accounted an Instrument, or a Language, or a Contemplation; according as ease of operation, or symmetry of expression, or clearness of thought, (the *opere*, the *fari*, or the *aspere*,) is eminently prized and sought for. The Practical person seeks a Rule which he may apply, the Philological person seeks a Formula which he may write, the Theoretical person seeks a Theorem on which he may meditate. The felt imperfections of Algebra are of three answering kinds. The Practical Algebraist complains of imperfection when he finds his Instrument limited in power; when a rule, which he could happily apply to many cases, can be hardly or not at all applied by him to some new case; when it fails to enable him to do or to discover something else, in some other Art, or in some other Science, to which Algebra with him was but subordinate, and for the sake of which and not for its own sake, he studied Algebra. The Philological Algebraist complains of imperfection, when his Language presents him with an Anomaly; when he finds an Exception disturb the simplicity of his Notation, or the symmetrical structure of his Syntax; when a Formula must be written with precaution, and a Symbolism is not universal. The Theoretical Algebraist complains of imperfection, when the clearness of his Contemplation is obscured; when the Reasonings of his Science seem anywhere to oppose each other, or become in any part too complex or too little valid for his belief to rest firmly upon them; or when, though trial may have taught him that a rule is useful, or that a formula gives true results, he cannot prove that rule, nor understand that formula: when he cannot rise to intuition from induction, or cannot look beyond the signs to the things signified.

# New ways of viewing complex numbers

*Theory of Conjugate Functions, or Algebraic Couples; with a Preliminary and Elementary Essay on Algebra as the Science of Pure Time.*

By WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON,

*M.R.I.A., F.R.A.S., Hon. M.R.S.Ed. and Dub., Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and of the Royal Northern Antiquarian Society at Copenhagen, Andrews' Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Royal Astronomer of Ireland.*

Read November 4th, 1833, and June 1st, 1835.

## *General Introductory Remarks.*

THE Study of Algebra may be pursued in three very different schools, the Practical, the Philological, or the Theoretical, according as Algebra itself is accounted an Instrument, or a Language, or a Contemplation; according as ease of operation, or symmetry of expression, or clearness of thought, (the *opere*, the *fari*, or the *aspere*,) is eminently prized and sought for. The Practical person seeks a Rule which he may apply, the Philological person seeks a Formula which he may write, the Theoretical person seeks a Theorem on which he may meditate. The felt imperfections of Algebra are of three answering kinds. The Practical Algebraist complains of imperfection when he finds his Instrument limited in power; when a rule, which he could happily apply to many cases, can be hardly or not at all applied by him to some new case; when it fails to enable him to do or to discover something else, in some other Art, or in some other Science, to which Algebra with him was but subordinate, and for the sake of which and not for its own sake, he studied Algebra. The Philological Algebraist complains of imperfection, when his Language presents him with an Anomaly; when he finds an Exception disturb the simplicity of his Notation, or the symmetrical structure of his Syntax; when a Formula must be written with precaution, and a Symbolism is not universal. The Theoretical Algebraist complains of imperfection, when the clearness of his Contemplation is obscured; when the Reasonings of his Science seem anywhere to oppose each other, or become in any part too complex or too little valid for his belief to rest firmly upon them; or when, though trial may have taught him that a rule is useful, or that a formula gives true results, he cannot prove that rule, nor understand that formula: when he cannot rise to intuition from induction, or cannot look beyond the signs to the things signified.

## *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, 1837*

Complex numbers as ordered pairs subject to specified rules:

$$(a, b) \pm (c, d) = (a \pm c, b \pm d)$$

$$(a, b)(c, d) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$$

$$\frac{(a, b)}{(c, d)} = \left( \frac{ac + bd}{c^2 + d^2}, \frac{bc - ad}{c^2 + d^2} \right)$$

# New ways of viewing complex numbers

*Theory of Conjugate Functions, or Algebraic Couples; with a Preliminary and Elementary Essay on Algebra as the Science of Pure Time.*

By WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON,

*M.R.I.A., F.R.A.S., Hon. M.R.S.Ed. and Dub., Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and of the Royal Northern Antiquarian Society at Copenhagen, Andrews' Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Royal Astronomer of Ireland.*

Read November 4th, 1833, and June 1st, 1835.

## *General Introductory Remarks.*

THE Study of Algebra may be pursued in three very different schools, the Practical, the Philological, or the Theoretical, according as Algebra itself is accounted an Instrument, or a Language, or a Contemplation; according as ease of operation, or symmetry of expression, or clearness of thought, (the *opere*, the *fari*, or the *aspere*,) is eminently prized and sought for. The Practical person seeks a Rule which he may apply, the Philological person seeks a Formula which he may write, the Theoretical person seeks a Theorem on which he may meditate. The felt imperfections of Algebra are of three answering kinds. The Practical Algebraist complains of imperfection when he finds his Instrument limited in power; when a rule, which he could happily apply to many cases, can be hardly or not at all applied by him to some new case; when it fails to enable him to do or to discover something else, in some other Art, or in some other Science, to which Algebra with him was but subordinate, and for the sake of which and not for its own sake, he studied Algebra. The Philological Algebraist complains of imperfection, when his Language presents him with an Anomaly; when he finds an Exception disturb the simplicity of his Notation, or the symmetrical structure of his Syntax; when a Formula must be written with precaution, and a Symbolism is not universal. The Theoretical Algebraist complains of imperfection, when the clearness of his Contemplation is obscured; when the Reasonings of his Science seem anywhere to oppose each other, or become in any part too complex or too little valid for his belief to rest firmly upon them; or when, though trial may have taught him that a rule is useful, or that a formula gives true results, he cannot prove that rule, nor understand that formula: when he cannot rise to intuition from induction, or cannot look beyond the signs to the things signified.

*Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, 1837*

Complex numbers as ordered pairs subject to specified rules:

$$(a, b) \pm (c, d) = (a \pm c, b \pm d)$$

$$(a, b)(c, d) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$$

$$\frac{(a, b)}{(c, d)} = \left( \frac{ac + bd}{c^2 + d^2}, \frac{bc - ad}{c^2 + d^2} \right)$$

Led to the search for **triples**, and thence to **quaternions**