## MATH 135: COMPLEX NUMBERS

(WINTER, 2014)

The introduction of complex numbers in the 16th century made it possible to solve the equation $x^{2}+1=0$. These notes ${ }^{1}$ present one way of defining complex numbers.

## 1. The Complex Plane

A complex number $z$ is given by a pair of real numbers $x$ and $y$ and is written in the form $z=x+i y$, where $i$ satisfies $i^{2}=-1$. The complex numbers may be represented as points in the plane (sometimes called the Argand diagram). The real number 1 is represented by the point ( 1,0 ), and the complex number $i$ is represented by the point $(0,1)$. The $x$-axis is called the "real axis", and the $y$-axis is called the "imaginary axis". For example, the complex numbers $3+4 i$ and $3-4 i$ are illustrated in Fig 1a.


Fig 1A


Fig 1b

Complex numbers are added in a natural way: If $z_{1}=x_{1}+i y_{1}$ and $z_{2}=x_{2}+i y_{2}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
z_{1}+z_{2}=\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right)+i\left(y_{1}+y_{2}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Fig 1B illustrates the addition $(4+i)+(2+3 i)=(6+4 i)$. Multiplication is given by

$$
z_{1} z_{2}=\left(x_{1} x_{2}-y_{1} y_{2}\right)+i\left(x_{1} y_{2}+x_{2} y_{1}\right)
$$

Note that the product behaves exactly like the product of any two algebraic expressions, keeping in mind that $i^{2}=-1$. Thus,

$$
(2+i)(-2+4 i)=2(-2)+8 i-2 i+4 i^{2}=-8+6 i
$$

We call $x$ the real part of $z$ and $y$ the imaginary part, and we write $x=\operatorname{Re} z, y=\operatorname{Im} z$. (Remember: $\operatorname{Im} z$ is a $\overline{\text { real number.) The term "imaginary" is an historical holdover; it took mathematicians }}$
${ }^{1}$ These notes are based on notes written by Bob Phelps, with modifications by Tom Duchamp.
some time to accept the fact that $i$ (for "imaginary", naturally) was a perfectly good mathematical object. Electrical engineers (who make heavy use of complex numbers) reserve the letter $i$ to denote electric current and they use $j$ for $\sqrt{-1}$.

There is only one way we can have $z_{1}=z_{2}$, namely, if $x_{1}=x_{2}$ and $y_{1}=y_{2}$. An equivalent statement (one that is important to keep in mind) is that $z=0$ if and only if $\operatorname{Re} z=0$ and $\operatorname{Im} z=0$. If $a$ is a real number and $z=x+i y$ is complex, then $a z=a x+i a y$ (which is exactly what we would get from the multiplication rule above if $z_{2}$ were of the form $z_{2}=a+i 0$ ). Division is more complicated (although we will show later that the polar representation of complex numbers makes it easy). To find $z_{1} / z_{2}$ it suffices to find $1 / z_{2}$ and then multiply by $z_{1}$. The rule for finding the reciprocal of $z=x+i y$ is given by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{x+i y}=\frac{1}{x+i y} \cdot \frac{x-i y}{x-i y}=\frac{x-i y}{(x+i y)(x-i y)}=\frac{x-i y}{x^{2}+y^{2}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The expression $x-i y$ appears so often and is so useful that it is given a name. It is called the complex conjugate of $z=x+i y$ and a shorthand notation for it is $\bar{z}$; that is, if $z=x+i y$, then $\bar{z}=x-i y$. For example, $\overline{3+4 i}=3-4 i$, as illustrated in the Fig 1A. Note that $\overline{\bar{z}}=z$ and $\overline{z_{1}+z_{2}}=\bar{z}_{1}+\bar{z}_{2}$. Exercise (3b) is to show that $\overline{z_{1} z_{2}}=\bar{z}_{1} \bar{z}_{2}$. Another important quantity associated with a given complex number $z$ is its modulus

$$
|z|=(z \bar{z})^{1 / 2}=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}=\left((\operatorname{Re} z)^{2}+(\operatorname{Im} z)^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}
$$

Note that $|z|$ is a real number. For example, $|3+4 i|=\sqrt{3^{2}+4^{2}}=\sqrt{25}=5$. This leads to the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Re} z \leq|\operatorname{Re} z|=\sqrt{(\operatorname{Re} z)^{2}} \leq \sqrt{(\operatorname{Re} z)^{2}+(\operatorname{Im} z)^{2}}=|z| \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, $\operatorname{Im} z \leq|\operatorname{Im} z| \leq|z|$.

## Exercises 1.

(1) Prove that the product of $z=x+i y$ and the expression in (2) (above) equals 1.
(2) Verify each of the following:
(a) $(\sqrt{2}-i)-i(1-\sqrt{2} i)=-2 i$
(b) $\frac{1+2 i}{3-4 i}+\frac{2-i}{5 i}=-\frac{2}{5}$
(c) $\frac{5}{(1-i)(2-i)(3-i)}=\frac{1}{2} i$
(d) $(1-i)^{4}=-4$
(3) Prove the following:
(a) $z+\bar{z}=2 \operatorname{Re} z$ and $z$ is a real number if and only if $\bar{z}=z$.
(b) $\overline{z_{1} z_{2}}=\bar{z}_{1} \bar{z}_{2}$.
(4) Prove that $\left|z_{1} z_{2}\right|=\left|z_{1}\right|\left|z_{2}\right|$ (Hint: Use (3b).)
(5) Find all complex numbers $z=x+i y$ such that $z^{2}=1+i$.

## 2. Polar Representation of Complex Numbers

Recall that the plane has polar coordinates as well as rectangular coordinates. The relation between the rectangular coordinates $(x, y)$ and the polar coordinates $(r, \theta)$ is

$$
x=r \cos \theta \quad \text { and } \quad y=r \sin \theta
$$

$$
r=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}} \quad \text { and } \quad \theta=\arctan \frac{y}{x}
$$

(If $z=0$, then $r=0$ and $\theta$ can be anything.)
Thus, for the complex number $z=x+i y$, we can write

$$
z=r(\cos \theta+i \sin \theta)
$$

There is another way to rewrite this expression for $z$. Later in the course, we will show that $e^{x}$ can be expressed as the following power series (i.e. as an infinite sum of powers of $x$ ):

$$
e^{x}=1+x+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\ldots+\frac{x^{n}}{n!}+\ldots
$$

For any complex number $z$, we define $e^{z}$ by the power series:

$$
e^{z}=1+z+\frac{z^{2}}{2!}+\frac{z^{3}}{3!}+\ldots+\frac{z^{n}}{n!}+\ldots
$$

In particular,

$$
\begin{aligned}
e^{i \theta} & =1+i \theta+\frac{(i \theta)^{2}}{2!}+\frac{(i \theta)^{3}}{3!}+\ldots+\frac{(i \theta)^{n}}{n!}+\ldots \\
& =1+i \theta-\frac{\theta^{2}}{2!}-\frac{i \theta^{3}}{3!}+\frac{\theta^{4}}{4!}+\ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

The functions $\cos \theta$ and $\sin \theta$ can also be written as power series:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \cos \theta=1-\frac{\theta^{2}}{2}+\frac{\theta^{4}}{4!}-\frac{\theta^{6}}{6!}+\ldots \pm \frac{(-1)^{n} \theta^{2 n}}{(2 n)!} \pm \ldots \\
& \sin \theta=\theta-\frac{\theta^{3}}{3!}+\frac{\theta^{5}}{5!}-\frac{\theta^{7}}{7!}+\ldots \pm \frac{(-1)^{n} \theta^{2 n+1}}{(2 n+1)!} \pm \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus
(the power series for $\left.e^{i \theta}\right)=($ the power series for $\cos \theta)+i \cdot($ the power series for $\sin \theta)$ This is the Euler Formula:

$$
e^{i \theta}=\cos \theta+i \sin \theta
$$

For example,

$$
e^{i \pi / 2}=i, \quad e^{\pi i}=-1 \quad \text { and } \quad e^{2 \pi i}=+1
$$

Given $z=x+i y$, then $z$ can be written in the form $z=r e^{i \theta}$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
r=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}=|z| \quad \text { and } \quad \theta=\tan ^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For example the complex number $z=8+6 i$ may also be written as $10 e^{i \theta}$, where $\theta=\arctan (.75) \approx$ .64 radians. This is illustrated in Fig 2.


FIG 2
If $z=-4+4 i$, then $r=\sqrt{4^{2}+4^{2}}=4 \sqrt{2}$ and $\theta=3 \pi / 4$, therefore $z=4 \sqrt{2} e^{3 \pi i / 4}$. Any angle which differs from $3 \pi / 4$ by an integer multiple of $2 \pi$ will give us the same complex number. Thus, $-4+4 i$ can also be written as $4 \sqrt{2} e^{11 \pi i / 4}$ or as $4 \sqrt{2} e^{-5 \pi i / 4}$. In general, if $z=r e^{i \theta}$, then we also have $z=r e^{i(\theta+2 \pi k)}, k=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ Moreover, there is ambiguity in equation (4) about the inverse tangent which can (and must) be resolved by looking at the signs of $x$ and $y$, respectively, in order to determine the quadrant in which $\theta$ lies. If $x=0$, then the formula for $\theta$ makes no sense, but $x=0$ simply means that $z$ lies on the imaginary axis and so $\theta$ must be $\pi / 2$ or $3 \pi / 2$ (depending on whether $y$ is positive or negative).

The conditions for equality of two complex numbers using polar coordinates are not quite as simple as they were for rectangular coordinates. If $z_{1}=r_{1} e^{i \theta_{1}}$ and $z_{2}=r_{2} e^{i \theta_{2}}$, then $z_{1}=z_{2}$ if and only if $r_{1}=r_{2}$ and $\theta_{1}=\theta_{2}+2 \pi k, k=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ Despite this, the polar representation is very useful when it comes to multiplication:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { if } z_{1}=r_{1} e^{i \theta_{1}} \quad \text { and } \quad z_{2}=r_{2} e^{i \theta_{2}}, \text { then } \quad z_{1} z_{2}=r_{1} r_{2} e^{i\left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right)} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

To see why this is true, write $z_{1} z_{2}=r e^{i \theta}$, so that $r=\left|z_{1} z_{2}\right|=\left|z_{1}\right|\left|z_{2}\right|=r_{1} r_{2}$ (the next-to-last equality uses $\operatorname{Ex}(4 \mathrm{a}))$. It remains to show that $\theta=\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}$, that is, that $e^{i \theta_{1}} e^{i \theta_{2}}=e^{i\left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right)}$, (this is Exercise (7a)). For example, let

$$
\begin{gathered}
z_{1}=2+i=\sqrt{5} e^{i \theta_{1}}, \\
\theta_{1} \approx 0.464 \\
z_{2}=-2+4 i=\sqrt{20} e^{i \theta_{2}},
\end{gathered} \quad \theta_{2} \approx 2.034
$$

Then $z_{3}=z_{1} z_{2}$, where:

$$
z_{3}=-8+6 i=\sqrt{100} e^{i \theta_{3}} \quad \theta_{3} \approx 2.498
$$



Fig 3
Applying (5) to $z_{1}=z_{2}=-4+4 i=4 \sqrt{2} e^{\frac{3}{4} \pi i}$ (our earlier example), we get

$$
(4+4 i)^{2}=\left(4 \sqrt{2} e^{\frac{3}{4} \pi i}\right)^{2}=32 e^{\frac{3}{2} \pi i}=-32 i .
$$

By an easy induction argument, the formula in (5) can be used to prove that for any positive integer n

$$
\text { If } z=r e^{i \theta}, \quad \text { then } \quad z^{n}=r^{n} e^{i n \theta}
$$

This makes it easy to solve equations like $z^{3}=1$. Indeed, writing the unknown number $z$ as $r e^{i \theta}$, we have $r^{3} e^{i 3 \theta}=1 \equiv e^{0 i}$, hence $r^{3}=1$ (so $r=1$ ) and $3 \theta=2 k \pi, k=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$. It follows that $\theta=2 k \pi / 3, k=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ There are only three distinct complex numbers of the form $e^{2 k \pi i / 3}$, namely $e^{0}=1, e^{2 \pi i / 3}$ and $e^{4 \pi i / 3}$. The following figure illustrates $z=8 i=8 e^{i \pi / 2}$ and its three cube roots $z_{1}=2 e^{i \pi / 6}, z_{2}=2 e^{5 i \pi / 6}$, $z_{3}=2 e^{9 i \pi / 6}$


Fig 4
From the fact that $\left(e^{i \theta}\right)^{n}=e^{i n \theta}$ we obtain De Moivre's formula:

$$
(\cos \theta+i \sin \theta)^{n}=\cos n \theta+i \sin n \theta
$$

By expanding on the left and equating real and imaginary parts, this leads to trigonometric identities which can be used to express $\cos n \theta$ and $\sin n \theta$ as a sum of terms of the form $(\cos \theta)^{j}(\sin \theta)^{k}$. For example, taking $n=2$ one gets $\cos 2 \theta=\cos ^{2} \theta-\sin ^{2} \theta$. For $n=3$ one gets $\cos 3 \theta=$ $\cos ^{3} \theta-\cos \theta \sin ^{2} \theta-2 \sin ^{2} \theta \cos ^{2} \theta$.

## Exercises 2.

(1) Let $z_{1}=3 i$ and $z_{2}=2-2 i$
(a) Plot the points $z_{1}+z_{2}, z_{1}-z_{2}$ and $\overline{z_{2}}$.
(b) Compute $\left|z_{1}+z_{2}\right|$ and $\left|z_{1}-z_{2}\right|$.
(c) Express $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ in polar form.
(2) Prove the following:
(a) $e^{i \theta_{1}} e^{i \theta_{2}}=e^{i\left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right)}$.
(b) Use (a) to show that $\left(e^{i \theta}\right)^{-1}=e^{-i \theta}$, that is, $e^{-i \theta} e^{i \theta}=1$.
(3) Let $z_{1}=6 e^{i \pi / 3}$ and $z_{2}=2 e^{-i \pi / 6}$. Plot $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{1} z_{2}$ and $z_{1} / z_{2}$.
(4) Find all complex numbers $z$ which satisfy $z^{3}=-1$.
(5) Find all complex numbers $z=r e^{i \theta}$ such that $z^{2}=\sqrt{2} e^{i \pi / 4}$.

## 3. Complex-valued Functions

Now suppose that $w=w(t)$ is a complex-valued function of the real variable $t$. That is

$$
w(t)=u(t)+i v(t)
$$

where $u(t)$ and $v(t)$ are real-valued functions. A complex-valued function can be thought of a defining a curve in the complex plane.

The derivative of $w(t)$ with respect to $t$ is defined to be the function

$$
w^{\prime}(t)=u^{\prime}(t)+i v^{\prime}(t)
$$

(This is just like the definition of the derivative of a vector-valued function-just differentiate the components.) The derivative can be thought of as the tangent to the complex curve.

There are three commonly used ways to denote the derivative:

$$
w^{\prime}(t)=\frac{d w}{d t}=\dot{w}(t)
$$

We will use all three.
It is easily checked (just expand the left and right hand sides of each identity) that the following formulas hold for complex-valued functions $z=z(t)$ and $w=w(t)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C^{\prime}=0 \text { where } C=\text { constant } \\
& (z+w)^{\prime}=z^{\prime}+w^{\prime} \\
& (z w)^{\prime}=z^{\prime} w+z w^{\prime} \\
& (C z)^{\prime}=C z^{\prime} \text { where } C=\mathrm{constant} \\
& \left(z^{n}\right)^{\prime}=n z^{n-1} z^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

One function is of particular interest to us: the complex exponential function. It is defined as follows:

$$
e^{(\rho+i \omega) t}=e^{\rho t} e^{i \omega t}=e^{\rho t} \cos (\omega t)+i e^{\rho t} \sin (\omega t)
$$

Thought of as a curve in the complex plane, the complex exponential is the formula for a spiral curve. The quantity $\omega$ is the angular velocity of the spiral $(\omega>0$ corresponds to a counterclockwise spiral, $\omega<0$ to a clockwise one). The quantity $\rho$ measures the rate at which the spiral expands outward $(\rho>0)$ or inward $(\rho<0)$.


Fig 4A


Fig 4B

Computing the derivatives of the real and imaginary parts and collecting terms yields the formula $\left(e^{(\rho+i \omega) t}\right)^{\prime}=(\rho+i \omega) e^{(\rho+i \omega) t}$. In other words, even if $r$ is a complex number, the formula

$$
\frac{d}{d t} e^{r t}=r e^{r t}
$$

holds!

$$
\text { 4. The function } x(t)=e^{\rho t}\left(C_{1} \cos (\omega t)+C_{2} \sin (\omega t)\right)
$$

We want to write the function

$$
x(t)=C_{1} e^{\rho t} \cos (\omega t)+C_{2} e^{\rho t} \sin (\omega t)
$$

in the form

$$
x(t)=A e^{\rho t} \cos (\omega t-\phi), .
$$

The reason for rewriting $x(t)$ in this way is that it gives an easy way to figure out what its graph looks like.

First notice that

$$
A e^{\rho t} \cos (\omega t-\phi)=(A \cos (\phi) \cos (\omega t)+A \sin (\phi) \sin (\omega t)) e^{\rho t}
$$

So

$$
A \cos (\phi)=C_{1} \text { and } A \sin (\phi)=C_{2} .
$$

The relation among the quantities $\rho, A, C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ is expressed in the next figure:


From Fig 6 it is clear that

$$
A=\sqrt{C_{1}^{2}+C_{2}^{2}} \text { and } \tan (\phi)=\frac{C_{2}}{C_{1}} .
$$

Example 1. Consider the function

$$
x(t)=(5 \cos (2 t)+4 \sin (2 t)) e^{-t / 5}
$$

The point $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=(5,4)$ is in the first quadrant so $0<\phi<\pi / 2$. So

$$
A=\sqrt{5^{2}+4^{2}}=\sqrt{41} \text { and } \phi=\tan ^{-1}(4 / 5)
$$

Hence,

$$
(5 \cos (2 t)+4 \sin (2 t)) e^{-t / 5}=\sqrt{41} e^{-t / 5} \cos \left(2 t-\tan ^{-1}(4 / 5)\right)
$$

The sketch of this curve is:


FIG 5

Note: There is an alternate description of $x(t)$ that makes direct used of the polar form of complex numbers. Let $C=5-4 i$ (note the sign change!) and $\rho+i \omega=-1 / 5+2 i$. Then it is easily verified that

$$
x(t)=\operatorname{Re}\left((5-4 i) e^{(-1 / 5+2 i) t}\right)
$$

To see that, compute as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x(t) & =\operatorname{Re}\left(\sqrt{41} e^{-t / 5} e^{i\left(2 t+\tan ^{-1}(-4 / 5)\right)}\right) \\
& \left.=\sqrt{41} e^{-t / 5} \cos \left(2 t+\tan ^{-1}(-4 / 5)\right)\right) \\
& =\sqrt{41} e^{-t / 5} \cos \left(2 t-\tan ^{-1}(4 / 5)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Exercises 3.

(1) Sketch the graph of the curve

$$
z(t)=(2+2 i) e^{\left(\frac{1}{2}+\pi i\right) t}
$$

for $0 \leq t \leq 3$. Sketch the graph of $x=x(t)=\operatorname{Re}(z(t))$.
(2) consider the function

$$
x(t)=3 e^{-2 t} \cos (4 t)-5 e^{-2 t} \sin (4 t)
$$

Write it in each of the forms

$$
x(t)=A e^{\rho t} \cos (\omega t-\phi)
$$

and

$$
x(t)=\operatorname{Re}\left(C e^{r t}\right)
$$

where $A, \omega$ and $\phi$ are real numbers and $C$ and $r$ are complex numbers.

