

## Complex Numbers - Part 1 (12 pages; 4/6/23)

(1) Consider  $x^2 + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow x = \sqrt{-1}$

Define  $i = \sqrt{-1}$  so that  $i^2 = -1$

For expressions involving  $i$ , apply the usual rules of algebra, and replace any occurrences of  $i^2$  with  $-1$

### Examples

(i)  $(1 + i)(2 + 3i) = 2 + 3i + 2i + 3i^2 = 2 + 5i - 3 = -1 + 5i$

(ii)  $(2 + 3i)(2 - 3i) = 4 - (3i)^2 = 4 - 9i^2 = 4 - 9(-1)$   
 $= 4 + 9 = 13$

(iii)  $i^7 = (i^4)(i^2)i = (1)(-1)i = -i$

(iv) To solve  $z^2 + 16 = 0$ :  $z = \sqrt{-16} = \sqrt{16}\sqrt{-1} = 4i$

(v)  $\frac{2}{i} = \frac{2i}{i^2} = \frac{2i}{-1} = -2i$

(The process in (v) is called 'rationalising the denominator'. Oddly enough, this is the same expression as is applied to  $\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$ , for example; even though in the case of  $\frac{2}{i}$  we are making the denominator real, rather than rational!)

Note:  $j$  is sometimes used (especially by engineers) instead of  $i$

(2) If  $z = a + bi$ , where  $a$  &  $b$  are real numbers,  $a$  is defined to be the **real part** of  $z$ ,  $Re(z)$  and  $b$  is the **imaginary part**,  $Im(z)$ .

An **imaginary** number is defined to be a number of the form  $bi$

[For clarity, it is sometimes referred to as a 'pure imaginary' number.]

The definition of a complex number is a number of the form  $a + bi$  (where  $a$  and  $b$  can be zero).

**Exercise:** State whether the following are real, imaginary or complex (they could be more than one of these):

(a) 1 (b)  $1 + 2i$  (c)  $2i$  (d) 0

**Solution**

(a) real & complex

(b) complex

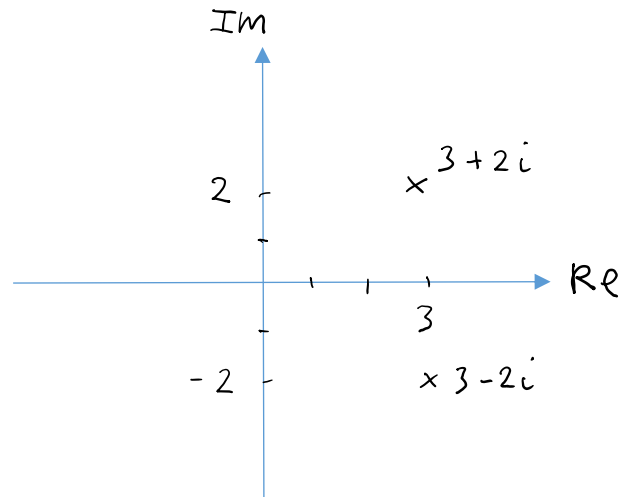
(c) imaginary & complex

(d) real, imaginary & complex!

For clarity, a number such as  $1 + 2i$  is sometimes referred to as a 'non-real complex' number.

### (3) Argand Diagram

Complex numbers can be treated in a very similar way to vectors, by representing  $a + bi$  (where  $a$  &  $b$  are real) by the point  $(a, b)$  in the 'Argand diagram' (see below).



The two axes are referred to as the **real** and **imaginary axes**.

Textbooks differ as to whether the imaginary axis should be labelled  $1, 2, 3, \dots$  or  $i, 2i, 3i, \dots$ . The former is arguably more logical, as  $1, 2, 3, \dots$  is the imaginary part. The Pearson Edexcel textbook uses  $1, 2, 3, \dots$ . The MEI FP1 textbook (ie the old syllabus) uses both!

We can see that a real number is any number on the real axis, whilst an imaginary number is any number on the imaginary axis (and a complex number is any number in the Argand diagram). This explains why the number 0 is real, imaginary and complex.

#### (4) Equating real and imaginary parts

Just as for vectors, if  $a + bi = c + di$ , it follows that

$$a = c \text{ and } b = d$$

This is a (very) commonly-used and powerful technique in Complex Numbers.

## (5) Quadratic equations

Consider  $z^2 + z + 1 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow z = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{-1}\sqrt{3}}{2} = -\frac{1}{2} \pm i \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

If  $z = a + bi$ , then  $z^* = a - bi$  is defined as the (complex) **conjugate** of  $z$ . [ $z^*$  is sometimes written as  $\bar{z}$ ]

In the Argand diagram,  $z^*$  is the reflection in the real axis of  $z$ .

If the coefficients of a quadratic equation are real and one of the roots is a non-real complex number, then the other root will be its conjugate.

[The use of the letter  $z$  is always a hint that non-real complex roots are expected.]

**Example:** Find the quadratic equation with roots

$$1 + i \text{ and } 1 - i$$

### Method 1

$$(z - [1 + i])(z - [1 - i]) = 0 \quad (\text{A})$$

$$\Rightarrow z^2 + z(-1 + i - 1 - i) + (1 - i^2) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z^2 - 2z + 2 = 0$$

$$\text{Or, from (A): } ([z - 1] - i)([z - 1] + i) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (z - 1)^2 - i^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z^2 - 2z + 1 + 1 = 0 \text{ etc}$$

### Method 2

Let the equation be  $z^2 + bz + c = 0$

Using the fact that the sum of the roots of  $az^2 + bz + c = 0$  is

$-\frac{b}{a}$ , whilst the product of the roots is  $\frac{c}{a}$ :

$$(1 + i) + (1 - i) = -b \quad \text{and} \quad (1 + i)(1 - i) = c$$

$$\text{So } b = -2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 1^2 - i^2 = 1 + 1 = 2$$

$$\text{and the equation is } z^2 - 2z + 2 = 0$$

## (6) Division by Complex Numbers

Example:  $(2 + 5i) \div (1 + 3i)$

### Method 1

$$\frac{2+5i}{1+3i} = \frac{(2+5i)(1-3i)}{(1+3i)(1-3i)} = \frac{2+15-6i+5i}{1-(3i)^2} = \frac{17-i}{10} - \frac{i}{10}$$

$$\text{Check: } \frac{1}{10}(17-i)(1+3i) = \frac{1}{10}(17+3-i+51i) = 2+5i$$

### Method 2

$$\text{Let } (2 + 5i) \div (1 + 3i) = a + bi$$

$$\text{Then } 2 + 5i = (a + bi)(1 + 3i) = a + 3ai + bi - 3b$$

$$\text{Equating real \& imaginary parts, } 2 = a - 3b \quad (1)$$

$$\text{and } 5 = 3a + b \quad (2)$$

$$3 \times (1): 6 = 3a - 9b \quad (3)$$

$$5 = 3a + b \quad (2)$$

$$(3) - (2) \Rightarrow 1 = -10b \Rightarrow b = -\frac{1}{10}$$

$$(1) \Rightarrow a = 2 + 3\left(-\frac{1}{10}\right) = \frac{20-3}{10} = \frac{17}{10}$$

**Exercise:** Solve the equation  $(2 + i)z + 3 = 0$

**Solution**

**Method 1**

$$(2 + i)z + 3 = 0 \Rightarrow z = \frac{-3}{2+i} = \frac{-3(2-i)}{4+1} = \frac{-6+3i}{5}$$

**Method 2**

Let  $z = a + bi$

Then  $(2 + i)(a + bi) + 3 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow 2a - b + (a + 2b)i + 3 = 0$$

Equating real parts:  $2a - b = -3$  (1)

Equating imaginary parts:  $a + 2b = 0$  (2)

Hence  $2(-2b) - b = -3$  and  $\therefore b = \frac{3}{5}$  and  $a = -\frac{6}{5}$

**Exercise** Solve the equation  $2z = iz^* + 1$

**Solution**

Let  $z = a + bi$

$$\Rightarrow 2(a + bi) = i(a - bi) + 1$$

Equating real parts:  $2a = b + 1$

Equating imaginary parts:  $2b = a$

$$\Rightarrow b = \frac{1}{3} \text{ \& } a = \frac{2}{3}, \text{ so that } z = \frac{1}{3}(2 + i)$$

**(7) Example: Find  $\sqrt{i}$**

Let  $\sqrt{i} = a + bi$

Then  $i = (a + bi)^2 = a^2 - b^2 + 2abi$

Note: Because  $i = (a + bi)^2 \Rightarrow \pm\sqrt{i} = a + bi$  (rather than just  $\sqrt{i} = a + bi$ ), we need to ensure that the eventual solution does satisfy  $\sqrt{i} = a + bi$ . In fact, it isn't an issue because if  $a + bi$  is one solution we would expect  $-(a + bi)$  to be a solution as well; ie  $\sqrt{i} = -(a + bi)$ , so that  $-\sqrt{i} = a + bi$

Equating real & imaginary parts,

$$2ab = 1 \quad (1) \quad \& \quad a^2 - b^2 = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$(2) \Rightarrow b = \pm a$$

**Case 1:  $b = a$**

$$(1) \Rightarrow 2a^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a = b = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

**Case 2:  $b = -a$**

$$(1) \Rightarrow -2a^2 = 1, \text{ which isn't possible}$$

$$\text{Hence solution is: } \sqrt{i} = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1 + i) = \pm \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(1 + i)$$

$$\text{Check: } \frac{1}{2}(1 + i)^2 = \frac{1}{2}(1 - 1 + 2i) = i$$

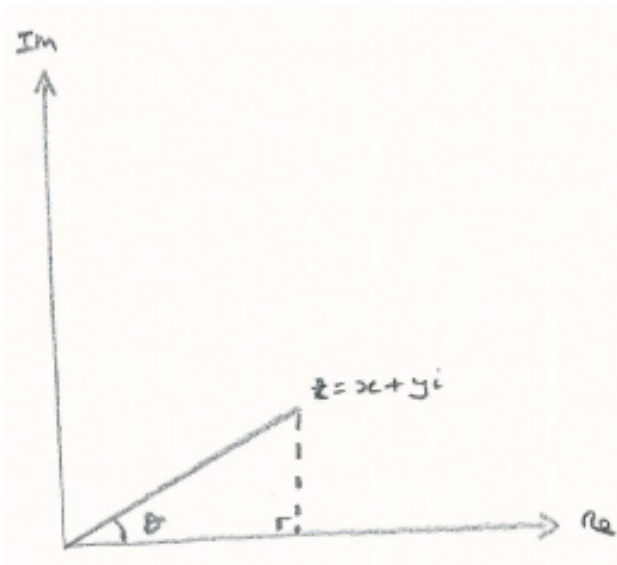
## (8) Modulus

Referring to the diagram below, the modulus of  $z$ , denoted by  $|z|$ , is defined as the magnitude of  $z$  when viewed as a vector in the Argand diagram.

$$\text{Thus } |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\text{Also, } (x + yi)(x - yi) = x^2 + y^2,$$

$$\text{so that } zz^* = |z|^2$$



Note that the modulus is always positive; eg  $|-2i| = 2$

### (9) Argument

The argument of  $z$ , denoted by  $\arg(z)$  [or just  $\arg z$ ], is defined to be the angle that  $z$  makes with the positive real axis, when  $z$  is viewed as a vector in the Argand diagram.

So  $\arg(z) = \theta$  in the above diagram.

The argument is usually measured in radians, and is usually restricted so that  $-\pi < \arg(z) \leq \pi$

For example, if  $\pi < \theta \leq 3\pi$ , then  $\arg(z) = \theta - 2\pi$ ,

and if  $-3\pi < \theta \leq -\pi$ , then  $\arg(z) = \theta + 2\pi$

[An alternative convention that is sometimes used requires that  $0 < \arg(z) \leq 2\pi$ ]

Note that  $\arg(0)$  is not defined.

For  $z = x + yi$ ,  $\tan\theta = \frac{y}{x}$  when  $z$  is in the 1st quadrant, and in this case  $\arg(z) = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ .



When  $z$  is not in the 1st quadrant, it is still the case that  $\tan\theta = \frac{y}{x}$  (by the definition of  $\sin\theta$  &  $\cos\theta$  for angles  $\geq \frac{\pi}{2}$ ), but it may be necessary to add or subtract  $\pi$  from  $\arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ .

For example,  $-3 - 2i$  is diametrically opposite  $3 + 2i$ , and  $\arg(-3 - 2i) = \arctan\left(\frac{-2}{-3}\right) - \pi$

Also,  $\arctan(-1) = -\frac{\pi}{4}$ , so that  $\arg(-4 + 4i) = \arctan\left(\frac{4}{-4}\right) + \pi$

Sometimes the argument can be easily established by referring to the Argand diagram.

### Examples

(i)  $\arg(-3i) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$

(ii)  $\arg(-1 + i) = \frac{3\pi}{4}$

### (10) Polar (or modulus-argument) form

Let  $r = |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

Then  $x = r\cos\theta$

and  $y = r\sin\theta$

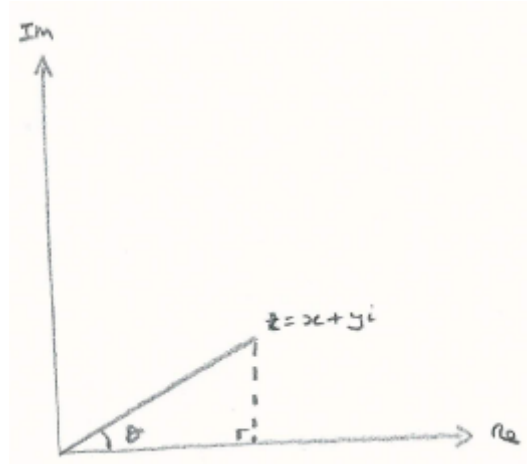
Thus  $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$

This is the **polar** or **modulus-argument** form;

sometimes written as  $(r, \theta)$  or (informally) as  $rcis\theta$

### Examples

(i)  $z = 1 + \sqrt{3}i$



$$|z| = \sqrt{1+3} = 2$$

$\arg(z) = \arctan\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{1}\right) = \frac{\pi}{3}$  (no adjustment is necessary, since  $z$  is in the 1st quadrant)

$$\text{So } z = 2\left(\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)\right)$$

Alternatively, having found the modulus, we could write

$z = 2\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i\right)$ , and then recognise the angle from

$$\cos\theta = \frac{1}{2} \quad \& \quad \sin\theta = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

(ii)  $z = -2$

$$|z| = 2 \quad \& \quad \arg(z) = \pi,$$

$$\text{so } z = 2(\cos(\pi) + i\sin(\pi))$$

### (11) Product of two complex numbers

Let  $z_1 = r_1(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$  and  $z_2 = r_2(\cos\phi + i\sin\phi)$

Then  $z_1z_2 = r_1r_2(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)(\cos\phi + i\sin\phi)$

$$= r_1r_2\{(\cos\theta\cos\phi - \sin\theta\sin\phi) + i(\sin\theta\cos\phi + \cos\theta\sin\phi)\}$$

$$= r_1r_2\{\cos(\theta + \phi) + i\sin(\theta + \phi)\}$$

(applying the compound angle formulae)

So  $|z_1z_2| = |z_1| \cdot |z_2|$  and  $\arg(z_1z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$

Thus when  $z_1$  is multiplied by  $z_2$ , there are two effects:

The modulus of  $z_1$  is multiplied by the modulus of  $z_2$ , and there is a rotation of  $\phi$  rad anti-clockwise.

**Note:** we have to subtract  $2\pi$  from  $\theta + \phi$  if it exceeds  $\pi$

## (12) Dividing by a complex number

If  $z_1 = r_1(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$  and  $z_2 = r_2(\cos\phi + i\sin\phi)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{z_1}{z_2} &= \frac{r_1(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)}{r_2(\cos\phi + i\sin\phi)} \\ &= \frac{r_1(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)(\cos\phi - i\sin\phi)}{r_2(\cos\phi + i\sin\phi)(\cos\phi - i\sin\phi)} \\ &= \frac{r_1(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)(\cos\phi - i\sin\phi)}{r_2(\cos^2\phi + \sin^2\phi)} \\ &= \frac{r_1}{r_2} \{(\cos\theta\cos\phi + \sin\theta\sin\phi) + i(\sin\theta\cos\phi - \cos\theta\sin\phi)\} \\ &= \frac{r_1}{r_2} \{\cos(\theta - \phi) + i\sin(\theta - \phi)\} \end{aligned}$$

So when  $z_1$  is divided by  $z_2$  :

The modulus of  $z_1$  is divided by the modulus of  $z_2$ , and there is a rotation of  $\phi$  rad clockwise.

**Note:** Add  $2\pi$  to  $\theta - \phi$  if it is less than  $-\pi$

## (13) Exercises

(i) Use the modulus-argument form to establish the relation between  $z$  and  $iz$  on the Argand diagram.

**Solution**

Let  $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$  and write  $i = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$

Then  $iz = r\{\cos\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + i\sin\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\}$

Thus  $iz$  is obtained from  $z$  by a rotation of  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  radians (anti-clockwise) about the Origin.

(ii) Use the modulus-argument form to demonstrate that

$$zz^* = |z|^2$$

**Solution**

Let  $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$ , so that

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } zz^* &= r^2\{\cos(\theta - \theta) + i\sin(\theta - \theta)\} \\ &= |z|^2(1) \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively:

$$\begin{aligned} zz^* &= r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)r(\cos\theta - i\sin\theta) \\ &= r^2(\cos^2\theta - (i\sin\theta)^2) \\ &= r^2(\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta) \\ &= |z|^2 \end{aligned}$$