

Complex Numbers and Exponentials

Definition and Basic Operations

A complex number is nothing more than a point in the xy -plane. The sum and product of two complex numbers (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) is defined by

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) &= (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2) \\ (x_1, y_1)(x_2, y_2) &= (x_1x_2 - y_1y_2, x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)\end{aligned}$$

respectively. It is conventional to use the notation $x + iy$ (or in electrical engineering country $x + jy$) to stand for the complex number (x, y) . In other words, it is conventional to write x in place of $(x, 0)$ and i in place of $(0, 1)$. In this notation, the sum and product of two complex numbers $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1$ and $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}z_1 + z_2 &= (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2) \\ z_1z_2 &= x_1x_2 - y_1y_2 + i(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)\end{aligned}$$

The complex number i has the special property

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

For example, if $z = 1 + 2i$ and $w = 3 + 4i$, then

$$\begin{aligned}z + w &= (1 + 2i) + (3 + 4i) = 4 + 6i \\ zw &= (1 + 2i)(3 + 4i) = 3 + 4i + 6i + 8i^2 = 3 + 4i + 6i - 8 = -5 + 10i\end{aligned}$$

Addition and multiplication of complex numbers obey the familiar algebraic rules

$$\begin{aligned}z_1 + z_2 &= z_2 + z_1 & z_1z_2 &= z_2z_1 \\ z_1 + (z_2 + z_3) &= (z_1 + z_2) + z_3 & z_1(z_2z_3) &= (z_1z_2)z_3 \\ 0 + z_1 &= z_1 & 1z_1 &= z_1 \\ z_1(z_2 + z_3) &= z_1z_2 + z_1z_3 & (z_1 + z_2)z_3 &= z_1z_3 + z_2z_3\end{aligned}$$

The negative of any complex number $z = x + iy$ is defined by $-z = -x + (-y)i$, and obeys $z + (-z) = 0$.

Other Operations

The complex conjugate of z is denoted \bar{z} and is defined to be $\bar{z} = x - iy$. That is, to take the complex conjugate, one replaces every i by $-i$. Note that

$$z\bar{z} = (x + iy)(x - iy) = x^2 - ixy + ixy + y^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

is always a positive real number. In fact, it is the square of the distance from $x + iy$ (recall that this is the point (x, y) in the xy -plane) to 0 (which is the point $(0, 0)$). The distance from $z = x + iy$ to 0 is denoted $|z|$ and is called the absolute value, or modulus, of z . It is given by

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

Since $z_1 z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1)$,

$$\begin{aligned} |z_1 z_2| &= \sqrt{(x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2)^2 + (x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{x_1^2 x_2^2 - 2x_1 x_2 y_1 y_2 + y_1^2 y_2^2 + x_1^2 y_2^2 + 2x_1 y_2 x_2 y_1 + x_2^2 y_1^2} \\ &= \sqrt{x_1^2 x_2^2 + y_1^2 y_2^2 + x_1^2 y_2^2 + x_2^2 y_1^2} = \sqrt{(x_1^2 + y_1^2)(x_2^2 + y_2^2)} \\ &= |z_1| |z_2| \end{aligned}$$

for all complex numbers z_1, z_2 .

Since $|z|^2 = z\bar{z}$, we have $z\left(\frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2}\right) = 1$ for all complex numbers $z \neq 0$. This says that the multiplicative inverse, denoted z^{-1} or $\frac{1}{z}$, of any nonzero complex number $z = x + iy$ is

$$z^{-1} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2} = \frac{x-iy}{x^2+y^2} = \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} - \frac{y}{x^2+y^2}i$$

It is easy to divide a complex number by a real number. For example

$$\frac{11+2i}{25} = \frac{11}{25} + \frac{2}{25}i$$

In general, there is a trick for rewriting any ratio of complex numbers as a ratio with a real denominator. For example, suppose that we want to find $\frac{1+2i}{3+4i}$. The trick is to multiply by $1 = \frac{3-4i}{3-4i}$. The number $3-4i$ is the complex conjugate of $3+4i$. Since $(3+4i)(3-4i) = 9-12i+12i+16 = 25$

$$\frac{1+2i}{3+4i} = \frac{1+2i}{3+4i} \frac{3-4i}{3-4i} = \frac{(1+2i)(3-4i)}{25} = \frac{11+2i}{25} = \frac{11}{25} + \frac{2}{25}i$$

The notations $\operatorname{Re} z$ and $\operatorname{Im} z$ stand for the real and imaginary parts of the complex number z , respectively. If $z = x + iy$ (with x and y real) they are defined by

$$\operatorname{Re} z = x \quad \operatorname{Im} z = y$$

Note that both $\operatorname{Re} z$ and $\operatorname{Im} z$ are real numbers. Just subbing in $\bar{z} = x - iy$ gives

$$\operatorname{Re} z = \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z}) \quad \operatorname{Im} z = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \bar{z})$$

The Complex Exponential

Definition and Basic Properties. For any complex number $z = x + iy$ the exponential e^z , is defined by

$$e^{x+iy} = e^x \cos y + ie^x \sin y$$

In particular, $e^{iy} = \cos y + i \sin y$. This definition is not as mysterious as it looks. We could also define e^{iy} by the subbing x by iy in the Taylor series expansion $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$. (If you don't know about this Taylor series expansion, just skip the rest of this paragraph.)

$$e^{iy} = 1 + iy + \frac{(iy)^2}{2!} + \frac{(iy)^3}{3!} + \frac{(iy)^4}{4!} + \frac{(iy)^5}{5!} + \frac{(iy)^6}{6!} + \dots$$

The even terms in this expansion are

$$1 + \frac{(iy)^2}{2!} + \frac{(iy)^4}{4!} + \frac{(iy)^6}{6!} + \dots = 1 - \frac{y^2}{2!} + \frac{y^4}{4!} - \frac{y^6}{6!} + \dots = \cos y$$

and the odd terms in this expansion are

$$iy + \frac{(iy)^3}{3!} + \frac{(iy)^5}{5!} + \cdots = i\left(y - \frac{y^3}{3!} + \frac{y^5}{5!} + \cdots\right) = i \sin y$$

For any two complex numbers z_1 and z_2

$$\begin{aligned} e^{z_1} e^{z_2} &= e^{x_1}(\cos y_1 + i \sin y_1) e^{x_2}(\cos y_2 + i \sin y_2) \\ &= e^{x_1+x_2}(\cos y_1 + i \sin y_1)(\cos y_2 + i \sin y_2) \\ &= e^{x_1+x_2} \{(\cos y_1 \cos y_2 - \sin y_1 \sin y_2) + i(\cos y_1 \sin y_2 + \cos y_2 \sin y_1)\} \\ &= e^{x_1+x_2} \{\cos(y_1 + y_2) + i \sin(y_1 + y_2)\} \\ &= e^{(x_1+x_2)+i(y_1+y_2)} \\ &= e^{z_1+z_2} \end{aligned}$$

so that the familiar multiplication formula also applies to complex exponentials. For any complex number $c = \alpha + i\beta$ and real number t

$$e^{ct} = e^{\alpha t + i\beta t} = e^{\alpha t} [\cos(\beta t) + i \sin(\beta t)]$$

so that the derivative with respect to t

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} e^{ct} &= \alpha e^{\alpha t} [\cos(\beta t) + i \sin(\beta t)] + e^{\alpha t} [-\beta \sin(\beta t) + i\beta \cos(\beta t)] \\ &= (\alpha + i\beta) e^{\alpha t} [\cos(\beta t) + i \sin(\beta t)] \\ &= c e^{ct} \end{aligned}$$

is also the familiar one.

Relationship with sin and cos. When θ is a real number

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\theta} &= \cos \theta + i \sin \theta \\ e^{-i\theta} &= \cos \theta - i \sin \theta = \overline{e^{i\theta}} \end{aligned}$$

are complex numbers of modulus one. Solving for $\cos \theta$ and $\sin \theta$ (by adding and subtracting the two equations)

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) = \operatorname{Re} e^{i\theta} \\ \sin \theta &= \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}) = \operatorname{Im} e^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

These formulae make it easy derive trig identities. For example

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta \cos \phi &= \frac{1}{4}(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta})(e^{i\phi} + e^{-i\phi}) \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(e^{i(\theta+\phi)} + e^{i(\theta-\phi)} + e^{i(-\theta+\phi)} + e^{-i(\theta+\phi)}) \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(e^{i(\theta+\phi)} + e^{-i(\theta+\phi)} + e^{i(\theta-\phi)} + e^{i(-\theta+\phi)}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\cos(\theta + \phi) + \cos(\theta - \phi)) \end{aligned}$$

and, using $(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$,

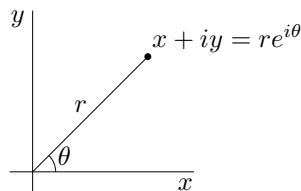
$$\begin{aligned} \sin^3 \theta &= -\frac{1}{8i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta})^3 \\ &= -\frac{1}{8i}(e^{i3\theta} - 3e^{i\theta} + 3e^{-i\theta} - e^{-i3\theta}) \\ &= \frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}) - \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i3\theta} - e^{-i3\theta}) \\ &= \frac{3}{4} \sin \theta - \frac{1}{4} \sin(3\theta) \end{aligned}$$

and

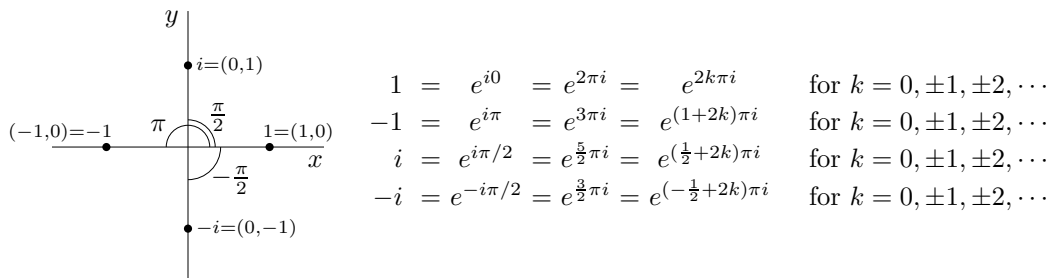
$$\begin{aligned}\cos(2\theta) &= \operatorname{Re} e^{i2\theta} = \operatorname{Re} (e^{i\theta})^2 \\ &= \operatorname{Re} (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^2 \\ &= \operatorname{Re} (\cos^2 \theta + 2i \sin \theta \cos \theta - \sin^2 \theta) \\ &= \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta\end{aligned}$$

Polar Coordinates. Let $z = x + iy$ be any complex number. Writing (x, y) in polar coordinates in the usual way gives $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$ and

$$x + iy = r \cos \theta + ir \sin \theta = re^{i\theta}$$



In particular



The polar coordinate $\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$ associated with the complex number $z = x + iy$ is also called the argument of z .

The polar coordinate representation makes it easy to find square roots, third roots and so on. Fix any positive integer n . The n^{th} roots of unity are, by definition, all solutions z of

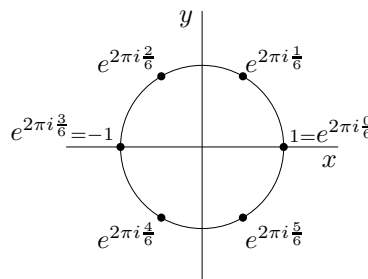
$$z^n = 1$$

Writing $z = re^{i\theta}$

$$r^n e^{n\theta i} = 1 e^{0i}$$

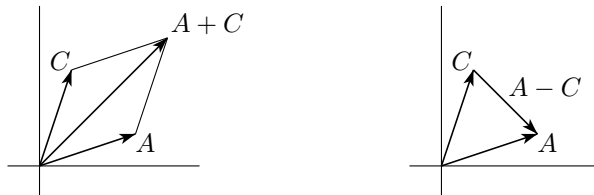
The polar coordinates (r, θ) and (r', θ') represent the same point in the xy -plane if and only if $r = r'$ and $\theta = \theta' + 2k\pi$ for some integer k . So $z^n = 1$ if and only if $r^n = 1$, i.e. $r = 1$, and $n\theta = 2k\pi$ for some integer k . The n^{th} roots of unity are all complex numbers $e^{2\pi i \frac{k}{n}}$ with k integer. There are precisely n distinct n^{th} roots of unity because $e^{2\pi i \frac{k}{n}} = e^{2\pi i \frac{k'}{n}}$ if and only if $2\pi \frac{k}{n} - 2\pi \frac{k'}{n} = 2\pi \frac{k-k'}{n}$ is an integer multiple of 2π . That is, if and only if $k - k'$ is an integer multiple of n . The n distinct n^{th} roots of unity are

$$1, e^{2\pi i \frac{1}{n}}, e^{2\pi i \frac{2}{n}}, e^{2\pi i \frac{3}{n}}, \dots, e^{2\pi i \frac{n-1}{n}}$$

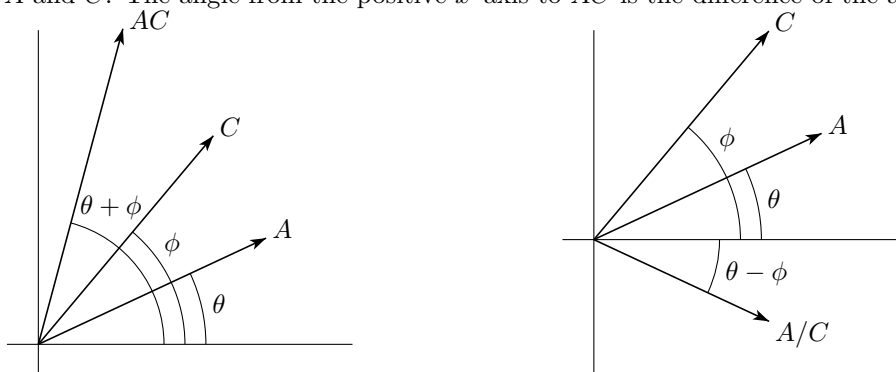


Phasors and Phasor Diagrams. Algebraic expressions involving complex numbers may be evaluated geometrically by exploiting the following two observations.

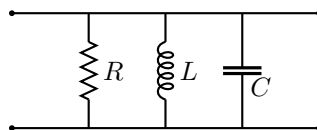
- (Addition and subtraction) A complex number is nothing more than a point in the xy -plane. So we may identify the complex number $A = a + ib$ with the vector whose tail is at the origin and whose head is at the point (a, b) . Similarly, we may identify the complex number $C = c + id$ with the vector whose tail is at the origin and whose head is at the point (c, d) . Those two vectors form two sides of a parallelogram. The vector for the sum $A + C = (a + c) + i(b + d)$ is that from the origin to the diagonally opposite corner of the parallelogram. The vector for the difference $A - C = (a - c) + i(b - d)$ has its tail at C and its head at A .



- (Multiplication and Division) To multiply or divide two complex numbers, write them in their polar coordinate forms $A = re^{i\theta}$, $C = \rho e^{i\varphi}$. So r and ρ are the lengths of A and C , respectively, and θ and φ are the angles from the positive x -axis to A and C , respectively. Then $AC = r\rho e^{i(\theta+\varphi)}$. This vector has length equal to the product of the lengths of A and C . The angle from the positive x -axis to AC is the sum of the angles θ and φ . And $\frac{A}{C} = \frac{r}{\rho} e^{i(\theta-\varphi)}$. This vector has length equal to the ratio of the lengths of A and C . The angle from the positive x -axis to AC is the difference of the angles θ and φ .



Complex numbers are also called “phasors” by some electrical engineers. They call the diagrams resulting from the geometric evaluation, as above, of algebraic expressions involving complex numbers “phasor diagrams”. For example, suppose that an AC signal of frequency ω is applied to the left hand end of the parallel circuit



Then the impedances across the three circuit elements are

$$Z_R = R \quad Z_L = i\omega L \quad Z_C = \frac{1}{i\omega C}$$

and the impedance, Z , of the parallel circuit as a whole is determined by

$$\frac{1}{Z} = \frac{1}{Z_R} + \frac{1}{Z_C} + \frac{1}{Z_L} = \frac{1}{R} + i\omega C - \frac{i}{\omega L}$$

To evaluate Z geometrically, we

- add $Z_L^{-1} = -\frac{i}{\omega L}$ to $Z_C^{-1} = i\omega C$ (In the phasor diagram, below, I am considering the case that $\frac{1}{\omega L} > \omega C > 0$.)
- add $Z_R^{-1} = \frac{1}{R}$ to the result to give $\frac{1}{Z}$ and finally
- invert the result, using that $\frac{1}{re^{i\theta}} = \frac{1}{r}e^{-i\theta}$

