Complex Numbers

Preben Alsholm

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Complex Numbers

Sets of numbers Rules for addition and multiplication What is a Cauchy sequence?

Description of the complex numbers

Division? Real and imaginary parts etc. Polar form I Polar form II The Complex Exponential The polar form once more

De Moivre's formula

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• N is the set of natural numbers, $1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \ldots$

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- N is the set of natural numbers, $1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \ldots$
- ► Z is the set of integers

... - 5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5,

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- Z is the set of integers
 ... 5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5,
- ► Q is the set of rational numbers, i.e. fractions and integers.

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- R is the set of real numbers. Can be identified with the set of points on a straight line, the real number line. *Irrational* numbers are real numbers that are not rational.

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- C is the set of complex numbers. Can be identified with the set of points in the plane, the complex plane.
 Complex numbers that are not real are called *imaginary*.

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- C is the set of complex numbers. Can be identified with the set of points in the plane, the complex plane.
 Complex numbers that are not real are called *imaginary*.
- We have $N \subset Z \subset Q \subset R \subset C$.

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1. a + b = b + a (the commutative law of addition)

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3. ab = ba (the commutative law of multiplication)

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4. (ab) c = a (bc) (the associative law of multiplication)

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7. 1*a* = *a*

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9. ax = 1 has precisely one solution for x, provided $a \neq 0$

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10. Every Cauchy sequence has a limit

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▶ A Cauchy sequence is a sequence of numbers $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} = x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n, \dots$ satisfying $x_n - x_m \to 0$ for $n, m \to \infty$.

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- That every Cauchy sequence has a limit means that x_n − x_m → 0 for n, m → ∞ implies that there exists a number x, such that x_n → x for n → ∞.

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- That every Cauchy sequence has a limit means that x_n − x_m → 0 for n, m → ∞ implies that there exists a number x, such that x_n → x for n → ∞.
- The claim: Every Cauchy sequence has a limit is valid for R and C, not for Q.

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- The claim: Every Cauchy sequence has a limit is valid for R and C, not for Q.
- ► C has the very important property that every polynomial of degree ≥ 1 has at least one root. (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).

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• As a set C equals the set of points in the plane. The plane is identified with R^2 , thus $C = R^2$.

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- ► As a set C equals the set of points in the plane. The plane is identified with R², thus C = R².
- ► The point (a₁, a₂) is written a₁ + a₂i. Thus i is the point (0, 1) and 1 is the point (1, 0).

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- The point (a₁, a₂) is written a₁ + a₂i. Thus i is the point (0, 1) and 1 is the point (1, 0).
- ▶ Definition of addition. If a = a₁ + a₂i and b = b₁ + b₂i then a + b = (a₁ + b₁) + (a₂ + b₂) i.

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- Definition of addition. If a = a₁ + a₂i and b = b₁ + b₂i then a + b = (a₁ + b₁) + (a₂ + b₂) i.
- ▶ Definition of multiplication. If a = a₁ + a₂i and b = b₁ + b₂i then

 $ab = (a_1 + a_2i)(b_1 + b_2i) = (a_1b_1 - a_2b_2) + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)i$

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$$ab = (a_1 + a_2i)(b_1 + b_2i) = (a_1b_1 - a_2b_2) + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)i_2$$

• It follows that $i^2 = -1$.

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Division?

► The solution to the equation az = 1 exists if a ≠ 0 and is uniquely determined. It is denoted a⁻¹ or 1/a.

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Division?

- ► The solution to the equation az = 1 exists if a ≠ 0 and is uniquely determined. It is denoted a⁻¹ or 1/2.
- By $\frac{b}{a}$ we mean ba^{-1} . It is the solution to the equation az = b

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- By $\frac{b}{a}$ we mean ba^{-1} . It is the solution to the equation az = b

• The usual method of calculating $\frac{b}{a}$:

$$\frac{2+3i}{-4+7i} = \frac{(2+3i)(-4-7i)}{(-4+7i)(-4-7i)} = \frac{(2+3i)(-4-7i)}{(-4)^2 - (7i)^2}$$
$$= \frac{(2+3i)(-4-7i)}{16+49} = \frac{13-26i}{65} = \frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{5}i$$

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► Real part: $\operatorname{Re}(a_1 + ia_2) = a_1$. Imaginary part: $\operatorname{Im}(a_1 + ia_2) = a_2$

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- ► Real part: $\operatorname{Re}(a_1 + ia_2) = a_1$. Imaginary part: $\operatorname{Im}(a_1 + ia_2) = a_2$
- Complex conjugate: $\overline{a} = \overline{a_1 + ia_2} = a_1 ia_2$

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- Complex conjugate: $\overline{a} = \overline{a_1 + ia_2} = a_1 ia_2$
- $\overline{a+b} = \overline{a} + \overline{b}$ and $\overline{(ab)} = \overline{a}\overline{b}$

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$$\overline{a+b} = \overline{a} + \overline{b}$$
 and $\overline{(ab)} = \overline{a}\overline{b}$

▶ Modulus, absolute value: $|a| = |a_1 + ia_2| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2}$

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Modulus, absolute value: |a| = |a₁ + ia₂| = √a₁² + a₂²
 |ab| = |a| |b|

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- ▶ Modulus, absolute value: $|a| = |a_1 + ia_2| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2}$
- $\blacktriangleright |ab| = |a||b|$
- The triangle inequality: $|a + b| \le |a| + |b|$

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Let r = |a| and v be an angle measured from the positive real axis to the line connecting 0 and a (measured positive in the counterclockwise direction).



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Let r = |a| and v be an angle measured from the positive real axis to the line connecting 0 and a (measured positive in the counterclockwise direction).



v is an argument for a. Notation: arg(a). The set of arguments for a is {v + p2π | p ∈ Z }.

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- v is an argument for a. Notation: arg(a). The set of arguments for a is {v + p2π | p ∈ Z }.
- Any complex number can be written in polar form: a = r · (cos v + i sin v), where r is the modulus and v is an argument of a.

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► The principal value: Arg (a) is the uniquely given argument in the interval]−π, π].

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- The principal value: Arg (a) is the uniquely given argument in the interval]-π, π].
- By arg_τ (a) we mean the unique argument in the interval]τ, τ + 2π], thus Arg (a) = arg_{−π} (a).

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- $\arg(ab) = \arg a + \arg b$

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- $\arg\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = \arg a \arg b$
- These must be properly understood: Thus arg (ab) = arg a + arg b means that one of the arguments for ab is obtained by adding an argument for a and an argument for b.

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The real exponential function exp has the fundamental property

$$\exp(x + y) = \exp(x) \exp(y)$$

i.e. $e^{x+y} = e^x e^y$ for all $x, y \in R$.

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• Definition. If z = x + iy $(x, y \in R)$ then

$$\exp(z) = \exp x \cdot (\cos y + i \sin y)$$

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▶ $|e^{x+iy}| = e^x$ and $\arg(e^{x+iy}) = y$ when $x, y \in R$.

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- ▶ $|e^{x+iy}| = e^x$ and $\arg(e^{x+iy}) = y$ when $x, y \in R$.
- ► $\exp(z_1 + z_2) = \exp z_1 \cdot \exp z_2$ for all $z_1, z_2 \in C$, i.e. $e^{z_1+z_2} = e^{z_1}e^{z_2}$.

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• Proof: Let $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1$ and $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |e^{z_1} \cdot e^{z_2}| &= |e^{z_1}| \cdot |e^{z_2}| = |e^{x_1 + iy_1}| \cdot |e^{x_2 + iy_2}| = e^{x_1} \cdot e^{x_2} \\ &= e^{x_1 + x_2} = |e^{x_1 + x_2 + i(y_1 + y_2)}| = |e^{z_1 + z_2}| \\ \arg(e^{z_1} \cdot e^{z_2}) &= \arg(e^{z_1}) + \arg(e^{z_2}) = \arg(e^{x_1 + iy_1}) + \arg(e^{x_2 + iy_2}) \end{aligned}$$

$$y_1 + y_2 = \arg\left(e^{x_1 + x_2 + i(y_1 + y_2)}\right) = \arg\left(e^{z_1 + z_2}\right)$$

The polar form once more

The polar form for the number a having modulus r and argument v was written

 $a = r \left(\cos v + i \sin v \right)$

In the future we shall write:

$$a=r\exp\left(iv
ight)=re^{iv}$$

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In the future we shall write:

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• Example. The polar form for $-\sqrt{3} - i$. Modulus: $\sqrt{\left(-\sqrt{3}\right)^2 + (-1)^2} = 2$. An argument is $-\frac{5\pi}{6}$. Thus $-\sqrt{3} - i = 2\exp\left(-i\frac{5\pi}{6}\right) = 2e^{-i\frac{5\pi}{6}}$

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For $n \in N$ og $\theta \in R$ gælder

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

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Proof:

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

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• Example.
 $\cos 3x = \operatorname{Re}(\cos 3x + i \sin 3x) = \operatorname{Re}((\cos x + i \sin x)^3)$
 $= \operatorname{Re}(\cos^3 x + 3i \cos^2 x \sin x - 3 \cos x \sin^2 x - i \sin \frac{1}{16} \cos^2 x)^{1/2}$ rom once
 $= \cos^3 x - 3 \cos x \sin^2 x = \cos^3 x - 3 \cos x (1 - \cos^2 x))^{1/2}$

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 $= \operatorname{Re}(\cos^3 x + 3i \cos^2 x \sin x - 3 \cos x \sin^2 x - i \sin x)^2$
 $= \cos^3 x - 3 \cos x \sin^2 x = \cos^3 x - 3 \cos x (1 - \cos^2 x))^2$ for once
 $= \cos^3 x - 3 \cos x$
• By replacing Re with Im above we get the formula
 $\sin 3x = 3 \cos^2 x \sin x - \sin^3 x$
 $= -4 \sin^3 x + 3 \sin x$

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