

"There are nine and sixty ways of constructing tribal lays, And every single one of them is right."

In the Neolithic Age
Rudyard Kipling (1865 – 1936)

Background & Overview

- In the previous lecture we met one approach to describing the entities we shall henceforward refer to as *Complex Numbers*.
- The Complex Number, z, is given as a+ib with a and b Real. z=a+ib $\{a,b\}\in R$
- By considering the *Complex Plane* and its description of $z \in C$ as a *coordinate* (Re(z), Im(z)) we obtain a second view of how to interpret $z \in C$.
- We are, however, not limited to these two basic forms.
- In this lecture some of the more common alternative and powerful techniques for describing $z \in C$ are reviewed.

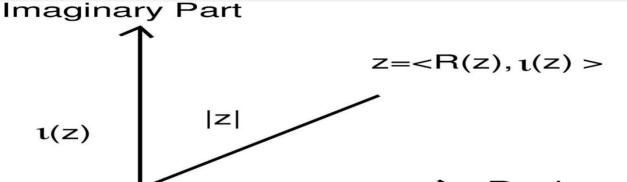
Complex Numbers as 2×2 -matrices

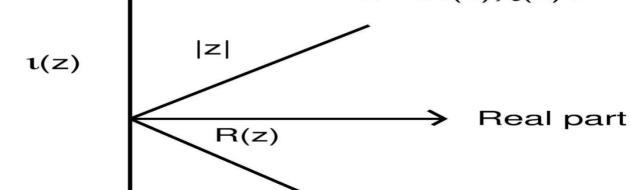
- For z = a + ib.
- The Matrix Form of z is denoted M_z with:

$$\mathbf{M}_z = \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix}$$

- The basic operations just manipulate 2×2 matrices:
- Addition: $\mathbf{M}_{u+v} = \mathbf{M}_u + \mathbf{M}_v$
- •Conjugate: $\mathbf{M}_{\bar{z}} = \mathbf{M}_{z}^{\mathsf{T}}$ (ie the *Transpose* of \mathbf{M}_{z})
- Modulus: $|z| = \det \mathbf{M}_z$ (ie the *determinant* of \mathbf{M}_z)
- Multiplication: $\mathbf{M}_{u \cdot v} = \mathbf{M}_u \cdot \mathbf{M}_v = \mathbf{M}_v \cdot \mathbf{M}_u = \mathbf{M}_{v \cdot u}$

Complex Numbers as 2-vectors: Argand Diagrams





 $\overline{z} = \langle R(z), -\iota(z) \rangle$

Advantages of Argand Diagrams

- For z = a + ib.
- •The "philosophical" issue of "imaginary number" does not arise: properties are expressed in terms of standard 2-dimensional vector systems.
- Addition of Complex Numbers "mimics" vector addition.
- Conjugate is reflection in the Re(z) axis.
- Modulus is standard (Euclidean) vector size.

Disadvantages of Argand Diagrams

- Multiplication and Division do not seem to have a natural Geometric analogy.
- While useful as a *visualization aid*, Complex Number analysis has a lot of subtleties that are lost by treating this as "just another way of dealing with 2-vectors".
- Some of these issues begin to be resolved with the next widely used formalism we look at: *Polar coordinates*.

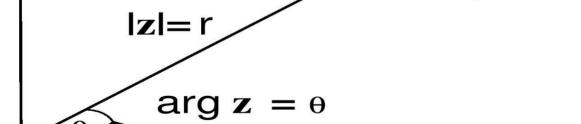
Polar Coordinate Form of Complex Numbers

- For z = a + ib with |z| = r.
- The number z is described (in *Polar form*) as

$$z = (r, \theta)$$

- What is θ here?
- The *angle* (in *radians*) measured *counter clockwise* from Re(z) to the 2-vector $\langle a, b \rangle$ in "*standard position*" (recall from earlier part of the module).
- This angle is denoted $\arg z$. It is, sometimes, referred to as the *phase* of z.
- It can be shown: $\arg z = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\operatorname{Re}(z)}{|z|}\right) = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)}{|z|}\right)$

Polar Coordinates for Complex Numbers $z = (r, \theta)$ |z|=r



The Euler Form for Complex Numbers

- For z = a + ib with |z| = r and $\arg z = \theta$.
- The number z is described (in *Euler form*) as

$$z = r \cdot e^{i\theta}$$

• This establishes a remarkable link between the *exponential* function, *trigonometric* functions and *complex numbers*:

$$z = re^{i\theta} = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$$

• This relation is known as *Euler's Formula* and leads to:

$$\forall \alpha \in R : (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^{\alpha} = \cos(\alpha \theta) + i \cdot \sin(\alpha \theta)$$

Some consequences of Euler Form

- For |u| = s and $\arg u = \sigma$, |v| = t and $\arg v = \tau$ $u \cdot v = se^{i\sigma} \cdot te^{i\tau} = (st)e^{i(\sigma+\tau)}$
- Looking at Argand diagram: the *phase* resulting from the *product* of two Complex numbers is the result of *adding* the *phase of each*.
- There are *infinitely many* representations of any *single* Complex number:

$$cos(\theta + 2\pi) = cos \theta$$
; $sin(\theta + 2\pi) = sin \theta$

• The *principal value* of $\arg z = \theta$ is that for which $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$

Complex Powers

- The interpretation of u^v is well understood when $u, v \in R$.
- For $u \in C$ this can be extended.
- For $v \in C$ this is highly non-trivial.
- We look at the case: $u^v:u\in\mathcal{C}$, $v\in\mathcal{Q}^+$ (positive Rationals)
- It suffices to consider $v = \frac{1}{k}$
- Writing $u = |u|e^{i \arg u}$ then $u^{\frac{1}{k}} = (|u|^{\frac{1}{k}})e^{\frac{i \arg u}{k}}$
- There are k distinct *principal values* $\varphi_m=rac{\arg u+2m\pi}{k}$ so that $\left(e^{i\varphi_m}\right)^k=e^{i\arg u}$

Primitive Roots of Unity

- The ideas from the previous slide prove particularly useful in the seemingly basic case u=1. These, of course, are the roots of the polynomial x^k-1 .
- We have (for any $k \in N$) exactly k primitive roots of unity: $\left\{e^{\frac{2i\pi m}{k}}: 0 \le m < k\right\}$
- The concept of Primitive Root of Unity underpins the important Fourier Transform widely used in signal processing and other electronics applications.
- The *Discrete Fourier Transform* finds a key use in *Computer Science* as the basis of the *fastest* (known) *Multiplication Algorithm*.

Summary

- Complex Numbers have a wide range of different methods that can be used as representations and it is a straightforward process to switch between different representation methods.
- There is, however, a central issue with Complex Numbers which we have not met with any of the earlier Number types:

Complex Numbers cannot be ordered

- That is to say: there is no consistent interpretation of what is to be understood by one Complex Number being "smaller" than another.
- While this has not proven problematic it will arise when we move on to look at the developments of *Calculus* needed for *Complex Functions*, in particular *Integral Calculus*.
- This will be (briefly) considered in the next lecture.