Queens College, CUNY, Department of Computer Science Numerical Methods CSCI 361 / 761 Spring 2018

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25 Lecture 25

Complex numbers

- We shall study Fourier transforms and Fourier series later in this course.
- To do so, we shall require the use of **complex numbers**.
- In this lecture we shall review some basic definitions and properties of complex numbers.

25.1 Complex numbers: general definitions

- \bullet Let x and y br real numbers.
- Also define i to be the square root of -1, so $i^2 = -1$. Clearly $(-i)^2 = -1$ also.
- ullet A complex number z is defined via

$$z = x + iy. (25.1.1)$$

- The number x is called the **real part** of z, denoted by $\Re\{z\}$.
- The number y is called the **imaginary part** of z, denoted by $\Im\{z\}$.
 - 1. If y = 0 we say that z is **pure real**, or just real.
 - 2. If x = 0 we say that z is **pure imaginary**.
- Complex numbers have a close connection to (x,y) coordinates in a Cartesian plane.
 - 1. The x axis of the plane is called the **real axis**.
 - 2. The y axis of the plane is called the **imaginary axis**.
- The complex conjugate is denoted by z^* and given by reversing the imaginary part of z:

$$z^* = \bar{z} = x - iy. (25.1.2)$$

- The complex conjugate of z^* is the original number z itself: $(z^*)^* = z$.
- Many authors also denote the complex conjugate by \bar{z} . We shall employ the notation z^* .
- In terms of points in a Cartesian plane, z^* corresponds to the point (x, -y).
- The complex conjugate z^* is the reflection of z in the real axis.
- The reflection of z in the imaginary axis is obviously given by $-(z^*) = -(x iy) = -x + iy$.
- See Fig. 1.
- Given z and z^* , the real and imaginary parts of z can be obtained via

$$\Re\{z\} = \frac{z+z^*}{2}, \qquad \Im\{z\} = \frac{z-z^*}{2i}.$$
 (25.1.3)

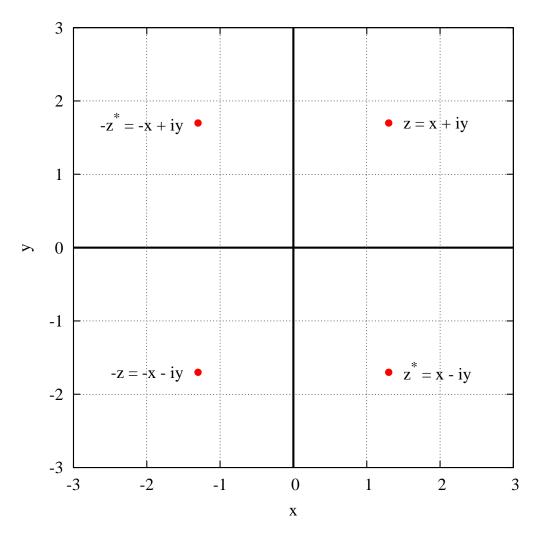


Figure 1: Complex plane with four points z = x + iy, $z^* = x - iy$, -z = -x - iy and $-z^* = -x + iy$.

25.2 $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$

- Mathematicians usually denote various sets of numbers by the following notations.
 - 1. N: Natural numbers $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$
 - 2. \mathbb{Z} : Integers $m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$
 - 3. Q: Rational numbers m_1/m_2 $(m_2 \neq 0)$.
 - 4. \mathbb{R} : Real numbers x.
 - 5. \mathbb{C} : Complex numbers z = x + iy.
- Using this notation, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $z, z^* \in \mathbb{C}$.
- Do not be frightened by the above notation. We shall not use it.

25.3 Complex numbers: basic operations

• The product of a complex number z = x + iy by a real number t is

$$tz = zt = tx + ity. (25.3.1)$$

- We saw this above when I wrote $-(z^*) = -(x iy) = -x + iy$.
- Obviously therefore -z = -x iy.
- Let w = u + iv be a complex number.
- The sum of two complex numbers z + w is given by

$$z + w = w + z = (x + u) + i(y + v). (25.3.2)$$

• The product of two complex numbers zw is given by

$$zw = wz = (x + iy)(u + iv) = xu - yv + i(xv + yu).$$
 (25.3.3)

• The product of z and its complex conjugate z^* is always a nonnegative real number:

$$zz^* = z^*z = (x+iy)(x-iy) = x^2 + y^2.$$
(25.3.4)

- The value of zz^* is zero if and only if x = y = 0, i.e. z = 0.
- The absolute value or magnitude or amplitude of z is

$$|z| = \sqrt{zz^*} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}. \tag{25.3.5}$$

- Obviously $|z^*| = |z|$ and |zw| = |z||w| and |zt| = |z||t|.
- Therefore if $z \neq 0$ the value of $z^{-1} = 1/z$ is given by

$$z^{-1} = \frac{1}{z} = \frac{z^*}{zz^*} = \frac{x - iy}{x^2 + y^2}.$$
 (25.3.6)

• Therefore the division of two complex numbers w/z is given by the product wz^{-1} :

$$\frac{w}{z} = wz^{-1} = \frac{wz^*}{zz^*} = \frac{(u+iv)(x-iy)}{x^2+y^2} = \frac{xu+yv+i(xv-yu)}{x^2+y^2}.$$
 (25.3.7)

25.4 Complex numbers: amplitude-argument or polar form

- We can also represent complex numbers using polar coordinates (r, θ) .
- Recall that in the Cartesian plane, $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$.
- Then we obtain

$$z = x + iy = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta). \tag{25.4.1}$$

- We need to process this some more.
- The exponential of a complex number w is defined as the sum of the power series

$$e^w = \exp(w) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{w^n}{n!} = 1 + w + \frac{w^2}{2!} + \frac{w^3}{3!} + \cdots$$
 (25.4.2)

- The series in eq. (25.4.2) converges for all values of w.
- Set $w = i\theta$ and we obtain

$$e^{i\theta} = 1 + i\theta - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} - i\frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + i\frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \cdots$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \cdots\right) + i\left(\theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \cdots\right)$$

$$= \cos\theta + i\sin\theta.$$
(25.4.3)

• Hence eq. (25.4.1) can be reexpressed as

$$z = x + iy = r e^{i\theta} \,. \tag{25.4.4}$$

• Let $z_1=r_1\,e^{i\theta_1}$ and $z_2=r_2\,e^{i\theta_2}$ be two complex numbers. The product z_1z_2 is given by

$$z_1 z_2 = z_2 z_1 = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}. (25.4.5)$$

• Note that $z^* = r e^{-i\theta}$. Set $z_1 = z = r e^{i\theta}$ and $z_2 = z^* = r e^{-i\theta}$, then

$$zz^* = r^2 e^{i(\theta - \theta)} = r^2$$
. (25.4.6)

- Then r is the amplitude of z. Note that $r \geq 0$.
- We call θ the **argument** of z.
- We call eq. (25.4.4) the **polar form** of a complex number.
- We also call eq. (25.4.4) the **amplitude**—argument representation of a complex number.
- Note that $\cos(\theta + 2j\pi) = \cos\theta$ and $\sin(\theta + 2j\pi) = \sin\theta$ for any integer $j = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$
- Hence

$$r e^{i(\theta+2j\pi)} = r \left[\cos(\theta+2j\pi) + i\sin(\theta+2j\pi)\right] = r \left[\cos\theta + i\sin\theta\right] = r e^{i\theta} = z.$$
 (25.4.7)

- Hence $re^{i(\theta+2j\pi)}$ represents the same complex number z, for any integer j.
- We shall see below in Sec. 25.8 that this leads to some problems.

25.5 Complex numbers: multiplication using polar form

• We saw above that if $z_1 = r_1 e^{i\theta_1}$ and $z_2 = r_2 e^{i\theta_2}$, the product $z_1 z_2$ is given by

$$z_1 z_2 = z_2 z_1 = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}. (25.5.1)$$

- We multiply the amplitudes and add the arguments.
- This has a simple interpretation when $r_2 = 1$.

• Let
$$z=r\,e^{i\theta}$$
 and $w=e^{i\phi}$. Then
$$zw=r\,e^{i(\theta+\phi)}\,. \tag{25.5.2}$$

- The amplitude does not change (=r) but the argument changes from θ to $\theta + \phi$.
- In terms of points in a Cartesian plane, multiplication by $e^{i\phi}$ corresponds to a counterclockwise rotation around the origin through an angle ϕ .
- See Fig. 2.

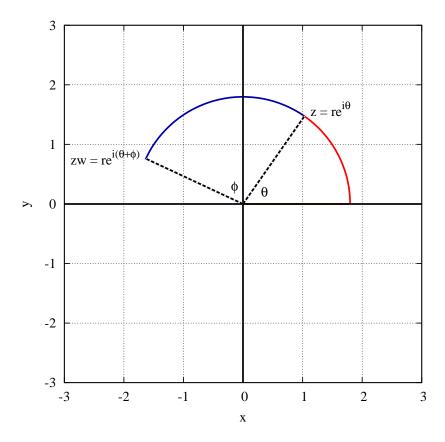


Figure 2: Complex multiplication using polar form, to demonstrate rotation in the complex plane.

25.6 Complex numbers: useful numbers

• The following are useful expressions:

$$e^{i\pi} = -1, \qquad e^{i\pi/2} = i, \qquad e^{-i\pi/2} = -i.$$
 (25.6.1)

- \bullet Multiplication by i yields a counterclockwise rotation through 90° in the complex plane.
- Multiplication by -i yields a clockwise rotation through 90° in the complex plane.
- The following equation is called **Euler's equation** or **Euler's identity**

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0. (25.6.2)$$

- It is frequently advertised as an example of mathematical beauty.
- It relates five of the most important numbers in mathematics: $0, 1, e, \pi$ and i.

25.7 Complex numbers: primitive roots of unity

- For any positive integer n > 1, a **primitive** n^{th} **root of unity** is a complex number $\omega_n \neq 1$ such that $\omega_n^n = 1$ and $\omega_n^j \neq 1$ for any smaller positive integer j, where $1 \leq j < n$.
- Hence by definition, a primitive n^{th} root of unity is a root of the equation $z^n 1 = 0$ and is not a root of the equation $z^j 1 = 0$ for any smaller positive integer j, where $1 \le j < n$.
- Obviously $e^{i2\pi/n}$ is a primitive n^{th} root of unity, but there are others.
- The following are examples of primitive roots of unity:
 - 1. n = 2. The primitive root is -1.
 - 2. n = 3. The primitive roots are $e^{i2\pi/3}$ and $e^{i4\pi/3}$.
 - 3. n = 4. The primitive roots are i and -i.
 - (a) Note that -1 is not a primitive fourth root of unity because $(-1)^2 = 1$.
 - 4. n=5. The primitive roots are $e^{i2\pi/5}$, $e^{i4\pi/5}$, $e^{i6\pi/5}$ and $e^{i8\pi/5}$.
 - 5. n = 6. The primitive roots are $e^{i2\pi/6} = e^{i\pi/3}$ and $e^{i5\pi/3}$.
 - (a) Note that $e^{i2\pi/3}$ is not a primitive sixth root of unity because $(e^{i2\pi/3})^3 = 1$.
 - (b) Note that $e^{i3\pi/3} = -1$ is not a primitive sixth root of unity because $(-1)^2 = 1$.
 - (c) Note that $e^{i4\pi/3}$ is not a primitive sixth root of unity because $(e^{i4\pi/3})^3 = 1$.
- Clearly $e^{i2\pi m/n}$ is a primitive n^{th} root of unity if and only if gcd(m,n)=1.
- Hence finding all the primitive n^{th} roots of unity is equivalent to finding all the prime divisors of n, which is a computationally hard problem.
- The complex conjugate of a primitive root is also a primitive root, hence we can also write $e^{-i2\pi m/n}$, where gcd(m,n)=1.
- If ω_n is a primitive n^{th} root of unity, then the following sums of powers all add up to zero:

$$1 + \omega_n + \omega_n^2 + \dots + \omega_n^{n-1} = 0,$$

$$1 + \omega_n^2 + \omega_n^4 + \dots + \omega_n^{2(n-1)} = 0,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$1 + \omega_n^j + \omega_n^{2j} + \dots + \omega_n^{j(n-1)} = 0 \qquad (1 \le j < n).$$
(25.7.1)

• However, if j = n, then the following sum adds up to n:

$$1 + \omega_n^n + \omega_n^{2n} + \dots + \omega_n^{(n-1)n} = 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = n.$$
 (25.7.2)

• What this means, in general, is that if j is a multiple of n (including zero), then the sum of powers adds up to n, else the sum adds up to zero. Note that j can be zero or negative in the above statement.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^{jk} = \begin{cases} n & j \text{ divides } n, \text{ including } j \le 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (25.7.3)

• The primitive roots of unity will be important for later use in Fourier series.

25.8 Complex numbers: square roots and branch cuts (advanced topic)

- Let $z = r e^{i\theta}$ and let $w = \sqrt{z}$. How do we calculate w?
- By definition $w^2 = z$, hence logically

$$w = r^{1/2} e^{i\theta/2} \,. \tag{25.8.1}$$

- This works, but it hides some difficulties.
- Suppose r=4 and $\theta=4\pi/3$, hence $z=4e^{i4\pi/3}$.
- Then using eq. (25.8.1) we obtain the square root

$$w = 2e^{i2\pi/3} = 2\left(\cos\frac{2\pi}{3} + i\sin\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = 2\left(-\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = -1 + i\sqrt{3}.$$
 (25.8.2)

- Now consider $r e^{i(\theta-2\pi)} = 4 e^{i(4\pi/3-2\pi)} = 4 e^{-i2\pi/3}$, which is the same number.
- Then using eq. (25.8.1) we obtain the square root

$$w = 2e^{-i\pi/3} = 2\left(\cos\frac{\pi}{3} - i\sin\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = 2\left(\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = 1 - i\sqrt{3}.$$
 (25.8.3)

- This is the negative of the square root in eq. (25.8.2).
- Of course, we know that every number has two square roots (except zero), but how do we know which root eq. (25.8.1) will yield?
- For a real number, we can say 'select the positive root' or 'choose the negative root' but for a complex number, eq. (25.8.1) is ambiguous.
- How do we specify a rule to say which square root do we want from eq. (25.8.1), i.e. eq. (25.8.2) or eq. (25.8.3)?
- There is no simple way to constrain eq. (25.8.1) to yield a unique answer.
- We must make a **branch cut** in the complex plane.
- That is to say, we must restrict the value of θ to an interval of length 2π .
- One popular choice is to restrict $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$. Another popular choice is to restrict $-\pi < \theta \le \pi$.
- There are infinitely many choices of branch cuts.
- The results from eq. (25.8.1) depend on the choice of the branch cut.
- When performing calculations with complex numbers, we must select a branch cut and stick with it consistently in all our calculations.
- Another possibility, which mathematicians also use, is to allow $-\infty < \theta < \infty$ and to say that every nonzero complex number has **infinitely many square roots**.
- You can see that the problem has no simple answer.
- We shall avoid calculations which require branch cuts in the complex plane.

25.9 Complex numbers: logarithm (advanced topic)

- Perhaps the nastiest of the standard mathematical functions is the complex logarithm.
- Write $z = r e^{i\theta}$. Go one step further and write $z = r e^{i(\theta + 2j\pi)}$ for $j = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$
- Then the complex logarithm ln(z) is given by

$$\ln(z) = \ln\left(r e^{i(\theta + 2j\pi)}\right) = \ln(r) + i(\theta + 2j\pi) \qquad (j = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots).$$
 (25.9.1)

- The imaginary part of ln(z) has an infinity of values, uniformly spaced at intervals of 2π .
- We shall avoid the complex logarithm in this class.

25.10 Complex numbers: equations (advanced topic)

- One can write polynomial and differential equations, etc. using complex numbers.
- The binomial theorem and Taylor series, etc. are all applicable for complex numbers.
- For example the following are applications of the binomial theorem

$$(1+z)^{2} = 1 + 2z + z^{2},$$

$$\frac{1}{1-z} = 1 + z + z^{2} + \dots + z^{n} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^{n}.$$
(25.10.1)

• We can also write

$$\frac{1}{1-z} = \frac{1-z^*}{(1-z)(1-z^*)} = \frac{1-z^*}{1-z-z^*+zz^*} = \frac{1-z^*}{1-2\Re\{z\}+|z|^2}.$$
 (25.10.2)

- The denominator on the right hand side of eq. (25.10.2) is real.
- The following is a complex differential equation for a complex function f(z)

$$\frac{df}{dz} = f. (25.10.3)$$

- The solution of eq. (25.10.3) is $f(z) = \exp(z)$, for the initial condition f(0) = 1.
- The following is a complex quadratic equation (a, b, c and z are all complex)

$$az^2 + bz + c = 0. (25.10.4)$$

• The solution of eq. (25.10.4) is

$$z = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \,. \tag{25.10.5}$$

- How do we calculate the square root in eq. (25.10.5)? We require a branch cut.
- Hence even the solutions of simple equations such as quadratics can get messy.