# Complex numbers

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# Contents

1	Intro	oduction 2	
	1.1	A historical problem	
	1.2	Creating a new set of numbers 3	
2	The	construction of complex numbers 3	
	2.1	Definition	
	2.2	Representation of complex numbers	
	2.3	Operations with complex numbers	
	2.4	The complex conjugate	
		2.4.1 Definition	
		2.4.2 Applications	
		2.4.3 Properties	
2	0	destis securitors	
3	Qua	Description 8	
	3.1	Applications to higher degree equations	
	3.2	Applications to higher degree equations	
4	4 Polar and exponential form		
	4.1	Polar form	
		4.1.1 Definition	
		4.1.2 Properties of the modulus and argument	
	4.2	Exponential form	
		4.2.1 Definition	
5	Con	unlex numbers and vectors 12	
0	5 1	Definition 12	
	5.2	Affix of a vector 12	
	5.2	Set of points	
	5.0	Sum of two voctors	
	5.4	Oriented angles	
	5.5	Collinearity and arthogonality 12	
	0.0 E 7	Trian also in the complex plane	
	<b>J.</b> /	Irrangies in the complex plane	

# 1 Introduction

### 1.1 A historical problem

At the end of the 16th century, there was a great deal of interest in solving cubic equations. It was quickly shown that by changing variables any cubic equation can be written in the form

$$x^3 + px + q = 0$$

This equation has at least one real root, which can be expressed in the form :

$$x_0 = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{q}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{q^2}{4} + \frac{p^3}{27}}} + \sqrt[3]{-\frac{q}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{q^2}{4} + \frac{p^3}{27}}}$$

An Italian mathematician of the time, Bombelli, was particularly interested in the following equation :

$$x^3 - 15x - 4 = 0$$

A solution to which can be found as follows : p = -15 and q = -4

$$x_0 = \sqrt[3]{2 - \sqrt{4 - 125}} + \sqrt[3]{2 + \sqrt{4 - 125}}$$
$$= \sqrt[3]{2 - \sqrt{-121}} + \sqrt[3]{2 + \sqrt{-121}}$$
$$= \sqrt[3]{2 - 11\sqrt{-1}} + \sqrt[3]{2 + 11\sqrt{-1}}$$

However, the square root  $\sqrt{-1}$  was problematic.

But Bombelli noticed that by using the expression  $(\sqrt{-1})^2 = -1$ , he could carry out the following expansion <sup>1</sup>

$$(2 - \sqrt{-1})^3 = 2^3 - 3(2)^2 \sqrt{-1} + 3(2)(\sqrt{-1})^2 - (\sqrt{-1})^3$$
  
= 8 - 12\sqrt{-1} + 6(-1) - (-1)\sqrt{-1}  
= 2 - 11\sqrt{-1}  
(2 + \sqrt{-1})^3 = 2^3 + 3(2)^2 \sqrt{-1} + 3(2)(\sqrt{-1})^2 + (\sqrt{-1})^3  
= 8 + 12\sqrt{-1} + 6(-1) + (-1)\sqrt{-1}  
= 2 + 11\sqrt{-1} then  
$$x_0 = 2 - \sqrt{-1} + 2 + \sqrt{-1} = 4$$

And indeed , 4 is a solution to the equation.

$$4^3 - 15 \times 4 - 4 = 64 - 60 - 4 = 0$$

**Conclusion** :  $\sqrt{-1}$  does not exist, but allows you to find the solution to an equation via an intermediate calculation. Complex numbers were born!!

• In the 17th century these numbers became intermediaries for common calculations but were not considered as numbers in their own right.

1. Remember that:  $(a+b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$  and  $(a-b)^3 = a^3 - 3a^2b + 3ab^2 - b^3$ 

- In the 18th century it was shown that these numbers can be put into the form *a*+b√-1.
  Euler then proposed to denote them thus √-1 = *i*. *i* being called "imaginary".
- In the 19th century Gauss showed that such numbers can be represented graphically. They then finally received the status of numbers.

### **1.2** Creating a new set of numbers

The discovery of a new set of numbers is quite common in mathematics. Let us recall the solutions to the following equations.

• Resolution in  $\mathbb{N}$  of the equation x + 7 = 6.

This equation has no solution, but by creating the negative integers, we find that x = -1

• Resolution in  $\mathbb{Z}$  of the equation 3x = 1.

This equation has no solution, but by creating rational numbers, we find that  $x = \frac{1}{3}$ .

• Resolution in  $\mathbb{Q}$  of the equation  $x^2 = 2$ .

This equation has no solution, but by creating real numbers, we find that  $x = \sqrt{2}$  or  $x = -\sqrt{2}$ .

• Resolution in  $\mathbb{R}$  of the equation  $x^2 + 1 = 0$ .

This equation has no solution. So by creating a set of numbers called  $\mathbb{C}$  (for complex) whose main characteristic by comparison with the real numbers is the addition of the number *i* such that  $i^2 = -1$ , the following solutions can be found : x = i and x = -i

The natural approach is therefore to seek a greater set of numbers that contains the former, and which possesses the same properties and which can be represented graphically.

# 2 The construction of complex numbers

### 2.1 Definition

**Definition** 1 : The set of complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ , is the set of numbers z of the form :

z = a + ib with $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $i^2 = -1$ 

The real number *a* is called the real part of *z* denoted : Re(z)

The real number *b* is called the imaginary part of *z* denoted : Im(z).

This form z = a + ib is called the Cartesian form.

### Note :

1) All real numbers are included in  $\mathbb{C}$  (let b = 0).

2) If a = 0, *z* is purely imaginary

### 2.2 Representation of complex numbers

**Theorem 1**: A point M(*a*; *b*) can be related to any complex number z = a + ib, in an orthonormal plane(O,  $\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}$ )

*z* is called the **affix** of point M, and is written M(z).

**Note** : This function is bijective. Conversely, a complex number z = x + iy can also be related to any point M(x ; y) of a plane with an orthonormal basis.

**Conclusion** : The complex number z = a + ib can be represented graphically.

The modulus of *z* is the distance OM, i.e. the quantity, denoted |z| such that :

$$|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

If  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ , then z = a and  $|z| = \sqrt{a^2} = |a|$ That is to say, the modulus is the absolute value of the real number (it has the same nature, so therefore the same notation).



And for  $z \neq 0$ , the argument of z, denoted  $\arg(z)$ , is the angle  $\theta$ ,  $(\vec{u}; \overrightarrow{OM})$  such that :

$$\begin{cases} \cos \theta = \frac{u}{|z|} \\ \sin \theta = \frac{b}{|z|} \end{cases} \quad \text{with} \quad \theta = \arg(z) \quad [2\pi] \end{cases}$$

Examples :

1) Determine the modulus and an argument of the following complex numbers :  $z_1 = 1 + i$  ,  $z_2 = 1 - \sqrt{3}i$  ,  $z_3 = -4 + 3i$ 

$$\begin{aligned} |z_1| &= \sqrt{1+1} = \sqrt{2} & |z_2| = \sqrt{1+3} = 2 & |z_3| = \sqrt{16+9} = 5 \\ \begin{cases} \cos \theta_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \begin{cases} \cos \theta_2 &= \frac{1}{2} & \\ \sin \theta_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \\ \theta_1 &= \frac{\pi}{4} & \theta_2 = -\frac{\pi}{3} & \theta_3 = \arccos -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \theta_3 &= \arccos -\frac{4}{5} \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{3}{5} & \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{4}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{1}{5} \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{1}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{1}{5} \\ \cos \theta_3 &= -\frac{1}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &= \frac{1}{5} \\ \sin \theta_3 &=$$

2) Determine the set of points M whose affix z satisfies each of the following equalities :

a) 
$$|z| = 3$$
 b)  $\text{Re}(z) = -2$  c)  $\text{Im}(z) = 1$ 

- a) |z| = 3 : circle  $\mathscr{C}$  centered at O and of radius 3
- b)  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = -2$ : A line  $d_1$  parallel to the *y*-axis, with an *x*-coordinate of -2
- c) Im(z) = 1: A line  $d_2$  parallel to the *x*-axis, with a *y*-coordinate of 1



# 2.3 Operations with complex numbers

Two operations can be defined in the set of complex numbers :

• Addition (+) :

if 
$$z = a + ib$$
 and  $z' = a' + ib'$  then  $z + z' = (a + a') + i(b + b')$ 

• Multiplication (×) :

if z = a + ib and z' = a' + ib' then  $z \times z' = (aa' - bb') + i(ab' + a'b)$ 

The set of complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$  under the laws of addition and multiplication is a commutative field. It has all the properties of the two laws in the set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ , i.e. : commutativity and associativity for addition and multiplication, the distribution of multiplication over addition, ...

A complex number is equal to zero, if and only if its real and imaginary parts are equal to zero :

 $a+ib=0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad a=0 \quad \text{and} \quad b=0$ 

**Examples** : Consider the following :

$$z_1 = 4 + 7i - (2 + 4i) = 4 + 7i - 2 - 4i = 2 + 3i$$
  

$$z_2 = (2 + i)(3 - 2i) = 6 - 4i + 3i + 2 = 8 - i$$
  

$$z_3 = (4 - 3i)^2 = 16 - 24i - 9 = 7 - 24i$$

**Note** : Comparison of two complex numbers : it is possible to define an order in  $\mathbb{C}$  which is a continuation of the order in  $\mathbb{R}$ . We can simply compare the real parts and if they are equal we then compare the imaginary parts. Denoting " $\leq$ " such an order, we would have :

$$a + ib \leq c + id \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad a < c \quad \text{or} \quad a = c \text{ and } b \leqslant d$$

What follows is :  $2 + 5i \leq 3 - 7i$  and  $-1 - i \leq -1 + 2i$ 

However, this order is not a comprehensive order because it is not compatible with multiplication :

according to this order :  $0 \leq i$  but by multiplying by  $i \quad 0 \leq -1$ 

So the idea of inequalities in  $\mathbb{C}$  was finally abandoned !

### 2.4 The complex conjugate

### 2.4.1 Definition

**Definition 2** : Consider a complex number *z* with the Cartesian form : z = a + ib. The conjugate of *z*, is the number, denoted  $\overline{z}$ , such that :

 $\overline{z} = a - ib$ 

**Property** : The product of a complex number and its conjugate is :

 $z\overline{z} = |z|^2 = a^2 + b^2$  indeed:  $(a + ib)(a - ib) = a^2 - iab + iab + b^2$ 

This way we can make a denominator a real number.

### Geometric interpretation

The point  $M'(\overline{z})$  is the symmetrical point M(z) relative to the *x*-axis.



### 2.4.2 Applications

1) Find the Cartesian form of the following complex number :  $z = \frac{2-i}{3+2i}$ 

Multiplying the top and bottom of the fraction by the complex conjugate of the denominator :

$$z = \frac{(2-i)(3-2i)}{(3+2i)(3-2i)} = \frac{6-4i-3i-2}{9+4} = \frac{4-7i}{13} = \frac{4}{13} - \frac{7}{13}i$$

2) Solve the following equation : z = (2 - i)z + 3

z = (2 - i)z + 3	-3(1+i)
z - (2 - i)z = 3	$z = \frac{1}{(1-i)(1+i)}$
z(1-2+i) = 3	3 3
~ 33	$z = -\frac{z}{2} - \frac{z}{2}i$
$2 = \frac{1}{-1+i} = \frac{1}{1-i}$	

### 2.4.3 Properties

**Property** 1 : If z is a complex number and  $\overline{z}$  its conjugate, then we have the following properties :  $z + \overline{z} = 2\text{Re}(z)$  and "z is a purely imaginary" equivalent to :  $z + \overline{z} = 0$ 

 $z - \overline{z} = 2i \operatorname{Im}(z)$  and "z is a real number" equivalent to :  $z = \overline{z}$ 

 $\begin{array}{l} \underbrace{\textbf{Law}}_{} \boldsymbol{i} : \text{ For all complex numbers } z \text{ and } z': \\ \\ & \overline{z+z'} = \overline{z} + \overline{z'} \quad , \quad \overline{z \times z'} = \overline{z} \times \overline{z'} \\ \\ & \text{with } z' \neq 0 \quad \overline{\left(\frac{z}{z'}\right)} = \frac{\overline{z}}{\overline{z'}} \quad , \quad \overline{z^n} = (\overline{z})^n \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^* \end{array}$ 

### Examples :

1) Find the Cartesian form of the conjugate  $\overline{z}$  of the following complex number :  $z = \frac{3-i}{1+i}$ 

$$\overline{z} = \overline{\left(\frac{3-i}{1+i}\right)} = \frac{\overline{3-i}}{\overline{1+i}} = \frac{3+i}{1-i} = \frac{(3+i)(1+i)}{1+1} = \frac{3+3i+i-1}{2} = 1+2i$$

- 2) *M* is a point in the complex plane with the affix z = x + iy, *x* and *y* are real numbers. Let the number :  $Z = \frac{5z 2}{z 1}$  be related to all complex numbers  $z, z \neq 1$ 
  - a) Express  $Z + \overline{Z}$  in terms of z and  $\overline{z}$ .
  - b) Prove that "*Z* is purely imaginary" is equivalent to "*M* is a point on a circle missing a point".

\_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_

a) 
$$Z + \overline{Z} = \frac{5z - 2}{z - 1} + \overline{\left(\frac{5z - 2}{z - 1}\right)}$$
$$= \frac{5z - 2}{z - 1} + \frac{5\overline{z} - 2}{\overline{z} - 1}$$
$$= \frac{(5z - 2)(\overline{z} - 1) + (5\overline{z} - 2)(z - 1)}{(z - 1)(\overline{z} - 1)}$$
$$= \frac{5z\overline{z} - 5z - 2\overline{z} + 2 + 5z\overline{z} - 5\overline{z} - 2z + 2}{(z - 1)(\overline{z} - 1)}$$
$$= \frac{10z\overline{z} - 7(z + \overline{z}) + 4}{(z - 1)(\overline{z} - 1)}$$

b) If *Z* is purely imaginary then  $Z + \overline{Z} = 0$ . So therefore :

$$10z\overline{z} - 7(z + \overline{z}) + 4 = 0$$
  

$$10|z|^2 - 14\operatorname{Re}(z) + 4 = 0$$
  

$$10(x^2 + y^2) - 14x + 4 = 0$$
  

$$x^2 + y^2 - \frac{7}{5} + \frac{2}{5} = 0$$
  

$$\left(x - \frac{7}{10}\right)^2 - \frac{49}{100} + y^2 + \frac{2}{5} = 0$$
  

$$\left(x - \frac{7}{10}\right)^2 + y^2 - \frac{9}{100} = 0$$

It can therefore be deduced that the set of points M(z) is the circle centered at  $\Omega\left(\frac{7}{10}\right)$  and of radius  $\frac{3}{10}$  missing the point A(1).

#### **Quadratic equations** 3

#### Resolution 3.1

Complex numbers were created so that quadratic equations always have roots.

**Theorem 2** : Any quadratic equation in C always has either two distinct solutions or one double solution. If the equation has real coefficients, i.e.

$$az^2 + bz + c = 0$$
 with  $a \in \mathbb{R}^*$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ 

then it has solutions in C.

1) If 
$$\Delta > 0$$
, two real solutions :  $z_1 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{\Delta}}{2a}$  and  $z_2 = \frac{-b - \sqrt{\Delta}}{2a}$   
2) If  $\Delta = 0$ , a double real solution :  $z_0 = -\frac{b}{2a}$   
3) If  $\Delta < 0$  two conjugate complex solutions with  $\Delta = i^2 |\Delta|$ 

 $\iota \mid \Delta \mid$ 

$$z_1 = rac{-b + i\sqrt{|\Delta|}}{2a}$$
 and  $z_2 = rac{-b - i\sqrt{|\Delta|}}{2a}$ 

**Example :** Solve  $z^2 - 2z + 2 = 0$  $\Delta = 4 - 8 = -4 = (2i)^2.$  $\Delta < 0$  so there are two conjugate complex solutions :

$$z_1 = \frac{2+2i}{2} = 1+i$$
$$z_2 = \frac{2-2i}{2} = 1-i$$

We can write an algorithm to calculate the roots of :  $Ax^2 + Bx + C$ 

Variables: A, B, C, D, X, Y real numbers  
Inputs and initialization  
Input A, B, C  

$$B^2 - 4AC \rightarrow D$$
  
Processing  
if  $D \ge 0$  then  
 $\begin{pmatrix} (-B + \sqrt{D})/(2A) \rightarrow X \\ (-B - \sqrt{D})/(2A) \rightarrow Y \end{pmatrix}$   
else  
 $\begin{pmatrix} (-B + i\sqrt{|D|})/(2A) \rightarrow X \\ (-B - i\sqrt{|D|})/(2A) \rightarrow Y \end{pmatrix}$   
end  
Output : Print X, Y

#### 3.2 Applications to higher degree equations

**Theorem 3**: Any polynomial of degree *n* in C has *n* distinct or multiple roots. If *a* is a root then the polynomial can be factorized by (z - a)

Example : Consider following equation in  $\mathbb{C}$  :  $z^3 - (4+i)z^2 + (13+4i)z - 13i = 0$ 

- 1) Prove that *i* is a solution to the equation
- 2) Determine the real numbers *a*, *b* and *c* such that :  $z^{3} - (4 + i)z^{2} + (13 + 4i)z - 13i = (z - i)(az^{2} + bz + c).$
- 3) Solve the equation.
- 1) Find all check that *i* is indeed a solution to the equation :  $i^3 - (4+i)i^2 + (13+4i)i - 13i = -i + 4 + i + 13i - 4 - 13i = 0$ The quantity (z - i) can therefore be factored out, *i* being a solution to the equation.
- 2) The coefficients can be identified by expanding the expression into its initial form :

$$(z-i)(az^2+bz+c) = az^3+bz^2+cz-iaz^2-ibz-ic$$
  
=  $az^3+(b-ia)z^2+(c-ib)z-ic$ 

The following system of equations is obtained :

$$\begin{cases} a = 1 \\ b - ia = -4 - i \\ c - ib = 13 + 4i \\ -ic = -13i \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a = 1 \\ b = -4 \\ c = 13 \end{cases}$$

3) The equation becomes :  $(z - i)(z^2 - 4z + 13) = 0$ So therefore z = i or  $z^2 - 4z + 13 = 0$ .

 $\Delta = 16 - 52 = -36 = (6i)^2$ 

Two conjugate complex solutions are obtained :

$$z_1 = \frac{4+6i}{2} = 2+3i$$
 or  $z_2 = \frac{4-6i}{2} = 2-3i$ 

Conclusion :  $S = \{i ; 2 - 3i ; 2 + 3i\}$ 

# 4 Polar and exponential form

### 4.1 Polar form

### 4.1.1 Definition



**Note** : The polar form is related to the polar coordinates of a point.

### Examples :

1) Find the polar form of z = 1 - iFirst determine the modulus :  $|z| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{2}$ We determine an argument :  $\cos \theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$  and  $\sin \theta = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$ It can then be deduced that  $\theta = -\frac{\pi}{4}$  [ $2\pi$ ], hence :  $z = \sqrt{2} \left[ \cos \left( \frac{-\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left( \frac{-\pi}{4} \right) \right]$ 2) Find Cartesian form of  $z = \sqrt{3} \left[ \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{3} \right) \right]$ We find that  $z = \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} + i \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{3}{2}i$ 

### 4.1.2 Properties of the modulus and argument

**Property 2**: For all complex numbers z other than 0, the following relations apply: |-z| = |z| and  $\arg(-z) = \arg(z) + \pi$  [ $2\pi$ ]  $|\overline{z}| = |z|$  et  $\arg(\overline{z}) = -\arg(z)$  [ $2\pi$ ]

**Theorem 4** : For all complex numbers z and z' other than 0, the following relations apply :

$$|z z'| = |z| |z'| \quad \text{and} \quad \arg(z z') = \arg(z) + \arg(z') \quad [2\pi]$$
$$|z^n| = |z|^n \quad \text{and} \quad \arg(z^n) = n \arg(z) \quad [2\pi]$$
$$\left|\frac{z}{z'}\right| = \frac{|z|}{|z'|} \quad \text{and} \quad \arg\left(\frac{z}{z'}\right) = \arg(z) - \arg(z') \quad [2\pi]$$

**Proof** :  $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$  and  $z' = r'(\cos \theta' + i \sin \theta')$ . we deduce that :

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

By identification, it can then be deduced that :

$$|z\,z'|=r\,r'=|z|\,|z'|\quad\text{and}\quad\arg(z\,z')=\arg(z)+\arg(z')\quad[2\pi]$$

The equalities  $|z^n| = |z|^n$  and  $\arg(z^n) = n\arg(z)$  are proven by induction of the properties of the product.

As for the quotient, let  $Z = \frac{z}{z'}$ , therefore  $z = Z \times z'$ , and according to the properties of the product we find that :

$$\begin{aligned} |z| &= |Z| \times |z'| \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad |Z| = \frac{|z|}{|z'|} \\ \arg(z) &= \arg(Z) + \arg(z') \quad [2\pi] \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \arg(Z) = \arg(z) - \arg(z') \quad [2\pi] \end{aligned}$$

### 4.2 Exponential form

### 4.2.1 Definition

Let us define the function f whose domain is  $\mathbb{R}$  and codomain is  $\mathbb{C}$  such that :  $f(\theta) = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ .

Let us calculate  $f(\theta)f(\theta')$ 

$$f(\theta)f(\theta') = (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)(\cos \theta' + i \sin \theta')$$
  
=  $(\cos \theta \cos \theta' + i \cos \theta \sin \theta' + i \sin \theta \cos \theta' - \sin \theta \sin \theta')$   
=  $(\cos \theta \cos \theta' - \sin \theta \sin \theta' + i (\cos \theta \sin \theta' + \sin \theta \cos \theta'))$   
=  $(\cos(\theta + \theta') + i \sin(\theta + \theta'))$   
=  $f(\theta + \theta')$ 

We therefore find that  $f(\theta + \theta') = f(\theta)f(\theta')$ . This is a characteristic property of exponential function. Indeed, the only functions differentiable in  $\mathbb{R}$  which transform a sum into a product are those that satisfy  $f(x) = e^{kx}$  or else the zero function. Here we have  $f(0) = \cos 0 = 1$ , so f cannot be the zero function , we therefore have  $f(x) = e^{kx}$ 

Let's take the derivative of the function f to determine k:

$$f'(\theta) = -\sin\theta + i\cos\theta$$
$$= i^2\sin\theta + i\cos\theta$$
$$= i(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$$
$$= if(\theta)$$

we then find k = i because  $(e^{kx})' = ke^{kx}$ We obtain the following equality from these two properties :  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ .

**Definition** 4: The exponential form of a complex number  $z \neq 0$ , is:  $z = re^{i\theta}$  with r = |z| and  $\theta = \arg(z) [2\pi]$ 

**Note** : We can now sit back and admire the expression :  $e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$ .

This expression contains the most important numbers in the history of mathematics :

- 0 and 1 for arithmetic
- $\pi$  for geometry
- *e* for analysis
- *i* for complex numbers

# 5 Complex numbers and vectors

# 5.1 Definition

**Definition**  $\leq$ : Consider the complex plane with an orthonormal basis  $(O, \overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v})$ , the following relations apply to point M(z) $z_{\overrightarrow{OM}} = z$  and OM = |z| and  $(\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{OM}) = \arg(z)$ 

### 5.2 Affix of a vector

For A(*z*<sub>A</sub>) and B(*z*<sub>B</sub>), we have :  $\overrightarrow{AB} = \overrightarrow{OB} - \overrightarrow{OA} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad z_{\overrightarrow{AB}} = z_B - z_A$ 

**LAW 2**: For all points A et B in the complex plane :  

$$z_{\overrightarrow{AB}} = z_B - z_A$$
  $AB = |z_B - z_A|$   $(\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{AB}) = \arg(z_B - z_A)$ 

**Example**: Given : A(2 + i) and B(-1 - 2i), determine the coordinates of the vector  $\overrightarrow{AB}$ , the distance AB and the angle  $(\vec{u}, \overrightarrow{AB})$ .

- We have :  $z_{\overrightarrow{AB}} = z_B z_A = -1 2i 2 i = -3 3i$  then  $\overrightarrow{AB} = (-3; -3)$
- We have :  $AB = |z_B z_A| = \sqrt{9+9} = 3\sqrt{2}$  then  $AB = 3\sqrt{2}$

• We have : 
$$\begin{aligned} \cos\theta &= -\frac{3}{3\sqrt{2}} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \sin\theta &= -\frac{3}{3\sqrt{2}} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{aligned} \qquad \theta = -\frac{3\pi}{4} \ [2\pi] \qquad \text{then} \quad (\vec{u}, \overrightarrow{AB}) = \\ -\frac{3\pi}{4} \ [2\pi] \end{aligned}$$

# 5.3 Set of points

Let us determine a set  $\mathscr{E}$  of points M satisfying a property with the affix *z* of M.

• 
$$|z - z_A| = r$$
 with  $r > 0 \iff AM = r$ 

 $\mathscr{E}$  is the circle centered at A and of radius *r* 

•  $|z - z_A| = |z - z_B| \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad AM = BM$ 

 ${\mathscr E}$  is the perpendicular bisector of segment [AB]

# 5.4 Sum of two vectors



# 5.5 Oriented angles

**Theorem 6**: For all points A, B, C and D such that  $(A \neq B)$  and  $(C \neq D)$ , we have the following equality:  $(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{CD}) = \arg\left(\frac{z_D - z_C}{z_B - z_A}\right)$ 

**Proof** : According to the rules governing oriented angles :

 $(\vec{v}, \vec{u}) = -(\vec{u}, \vec{v})$  and  $(\vec{u}, \vec{w}) = (\vec{u}, \vec{v}) + (\vec{v}, \vec{w})$ 

we can therefore deduce the following :

$$(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{CD}) = (\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{u}) + (\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{CD})$$
$$= (\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{CD}) - (\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{AB})$$
$$= \arg(z_{\overrightarrow{CD}}) - \arg(z_{\overrightarrow{AB}})$$
$$= \arg(z_{D} - z_{C}) - \arg(z_{B} - z_{A})$$
$$= \arg\left(\frac{z_{D} - z_{C}}{z_{B} - z_{A}}\right)$$

### 5.6 Collinearity and orthogonality

**Property 3**: Alignment of 3 distinct points or parallelism of two lines A, B, C aligned  $\Leftrightarrow \overrightarrow{AB}$  and  $\overrightarrow{AC}$  collinear  $(\neq \overrightarrow{0}) \Leftrightarrow \frac{z_{C} - z_{A}}{z_{B} - z_{A}} \in \mathbb{R}$ (AB) and (CD) parallel  $\Leftrightarrow \overrightarrow{AB}$  and  $\overrightarrow{CD}$  collinear  $(\neq \overrightarrow{0}) \Leftrightarrow \frac{z_{D} - z_{C}}{z_{B} - z_{A}} \in \mathbb{R}$  If  $\overrightarrow{AB}$  and  $\overrightarrow{AC}$  are collinear then :  $(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{AC}) = 0$  or  $(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{AC}) = \pi$ We deduce that  $\arg\left(\frac{z_{\rm C} - z_{\rm A}}{z_{\rm B} - z_{\rm A}}\right) = 0$  or  $\arg\left(\frac{z_{\rm C} - z_{\rm A}}{z_{\rm B} - z_{\rm A}}\right) = \pi$ 

The same technique is used with the vectors  $\overrightarrow{AB}$  and  $\overrightarrow{CD}$  for two parallel lines

**Property 4**: Proving the orthogonality of two lines. If  $A \neq B$  and  $C \neq D$ , then (AB)  $\perp$  (CD)  $\Leftrightarrow \overrightarrow{AB} \cdot \overrightarrow{CD} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{z_D - z_C}{z_B - z_A}$  purely imaginary

If  $\overrightarrow{AB}$  and  $\overrightarrow{CD}$  are orthogonal then :  $(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{CD}) = \frac{\pi}{2}$  or  $(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{CD}) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$ 

Therefore:  $\arg\left(\frac{z_{\rm D}-z_{\rm C}}{z_{\rm B}-z_{\rm A}}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2}$  or  $\arg\left(\frac{z_{\rm D}-z_{\rm C}}{z_{\rm B}-z_{\rm A}}\right) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$ 

### 5.7 Triangles in the complex plane

To prove that the triangle ABC is :

- Isosceles with vertex angle A :  $AB = AC \iff |z_B z_A| = |z_C z_A|$
- Equilateral: AB = AC = BC or AB = AC and  $(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{AC}) = \pm \frac{\pi}{3}$   $\Leftrightarrow |z_B - z_A| = |z_C - z_A| = |z_C - z_B|$  $\Leftrightarrow |z_B - z_A| = |z_C - z_A|$  et  $\arg\left(\frac{z_C - z_A}{z_B - z_A}\right) = \pm \frac{\pi}{3}$
- **Right-angled at A**:  $\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot \overrightarrow{AC} = 0 \iff \frac{z_{C} z_{A}}{z_{B} z_{A}}$  purely imaginary
- Isoceles right-angled at A: AB = AC and  $\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot \overrightarrow{AC} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{z_C z_A}{z_B z_A} = \pm i$