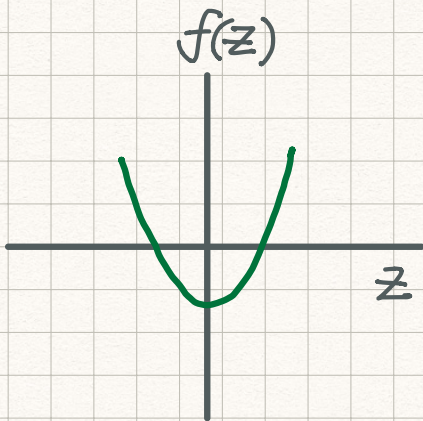
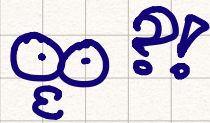


Complex number

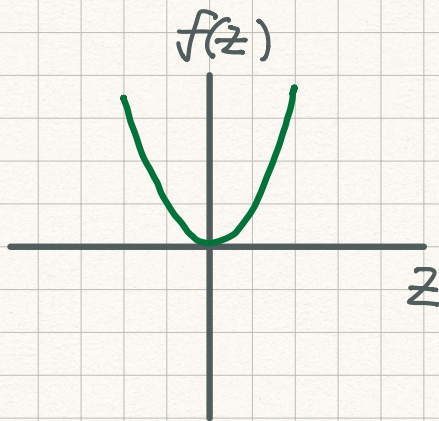
Why do we need complex numbers?



$$z^2 - 1 = 0$$

two solutions

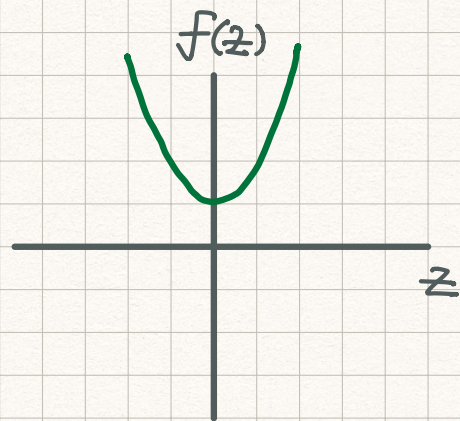
$$z = 1, -1$$



$$z^2 = 0$$

one solution

$$z = 0$$



$$z^2 + 1 = 0$$

NO solution



But, one can also introduce an imaginary number $i \equiv \sqrt{-1}$ so that $i^2 = -1$

$$\text{Thus, } z^2 + 1 = 0 \rightarrow z^2 = -1$$

$$z = \pm \sqrt{-1} = \pm i$$

The imaginary number i extends the scope of algebra.

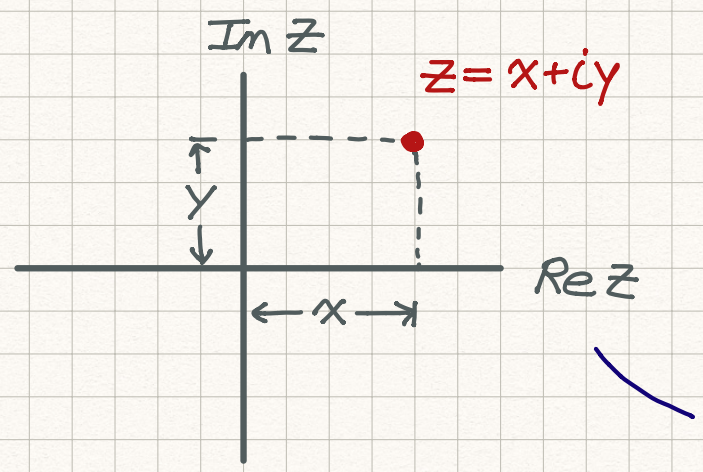
$$i^2 = -1, \quad i^3 = i^2 \cdot i = -i$$

$$i^4 = i^2 \cdot i^2 = -1 \cdot -1 = 1$$

Complex plane From the multiplication pattern of the imaginary number i , one can construct

a complex number $z = x + iy$

↓
real part
↘
imaginary part



The complex number can be represented on the 2D complex plane \mathbb{C}

The algebra of the complex number is simple.

+ : $z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1) + (x_2 + iy_2)$
 $= (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)$

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

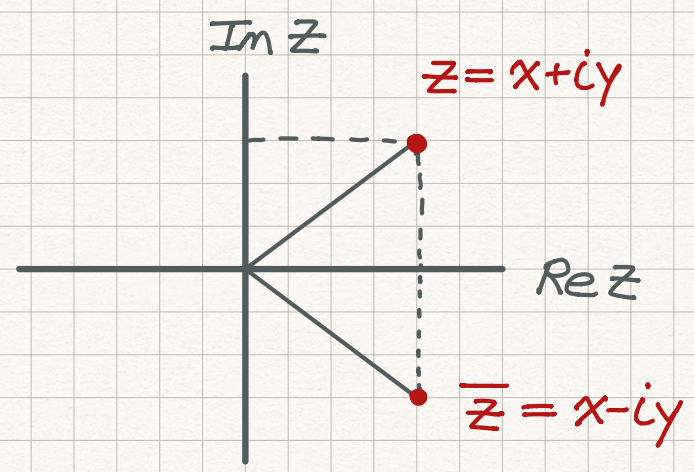
x : $z_1 z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2)$
 $= (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 + y_1 x_2)$

$$\div \circ \quad \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{x_1 + iy_1}{x_2 + iy_2} = \frac{(x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 - iy_2)}{(x_2 + iy_2)(x_2 - iy_2)}$$

$$= \frac{(x_1x_2 + y_1y_2) + i(y_1x_2 - x_1y_2)}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

Finally, $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \underbrace{\frac{x_1x_2 + y_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}}_{\text{real part}} + i \underbrace{\frac{y_1x_2 - x_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}}_{\text{imaginary part}}$

The above calculation inspires a useful notion ~
 complex conjugate $\bar{z} = x - iy$



$$\bar{z}z = (x - iy)(x + iy)$$

$$= \underline{x^2 + y^2}$$

(distance to origin)²

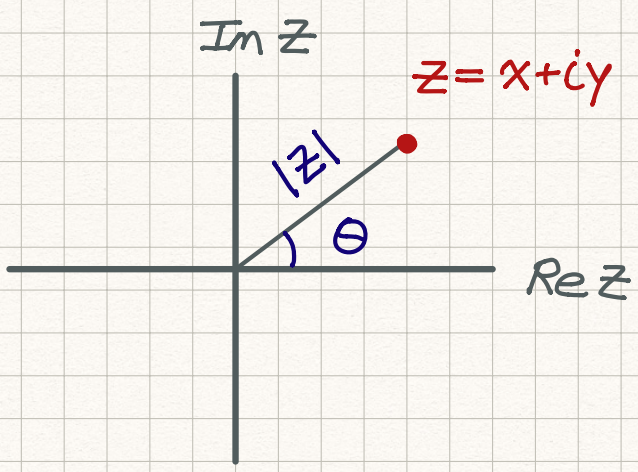
"complex conjugate" corresponds to mirror reflection with respect to the real axis ☺

Polar coordinates

modulus & argument

$|z|$

$\arg z$



It is easy to show that

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

$$= \sqrt{\bar{z}z}$$

The argument θ is more subtle ...

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \rightarrow \arg z = \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$$

For instance, $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1 = 1 + i$

$$\tan \theta_1 = \frac{y_1}{x_1} = 1$$

Because both x_1, y_1 are positive, $\arg z_1$ is in the 1st quadrant.

On the other hand,

$$z_2 = x_2 + iy_2 = -1 - i$$

$$\tan \theta_2 = \frac{y_2}{x_2} = 1$$

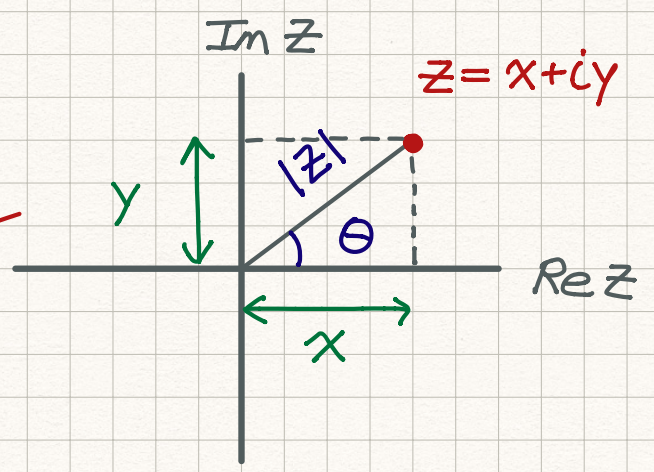
BUT! Because x_2, y_2 are both negative, $\arg z_2$ is in the 3rd quadrant.

equation looks the same ...

$(x, y) \leftrightarrow (|z|, \theta)$

$$x = |z| \cos \theta$$

$$y = |z| \sin \theta$$



Thus, the complex number z can be expressed as

$$z = x + iy = |z| \cos \theta + i |z| \sin \theta$$

$$= |z| (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

modulus

phase!

Euler's equation

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

6.

The exponential fn e^z can be expanded as

$$e^z = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{z^n}{n!} + \dots$$

For $z = i\theta$ (θ is real), it can be written as

$$e^{i\theta} = 1 + i\theta + \frac{1}{2!}(i\theta)^2 + \frac{1}{3!}(i\theta)^3 + \dots$$

$$= 1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \dots \quad \leftarrow \cos\theta$$

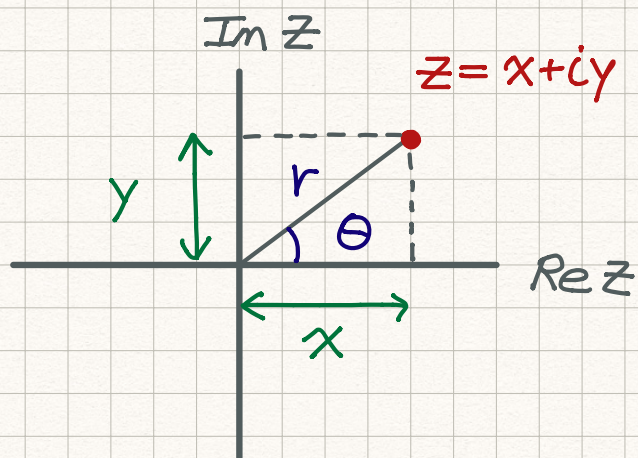
$$+ i \left(\theta - \frac{1}{3!}\theta^3 + \dots \right) \quad \leftarrow \sin\theta$$



$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

Euler's equation

This relation is surprisingly beautiful, connecting the exponential fn and sinusoidal fns together!



Two representations in the complex plane

$$z = x + iy$$

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

de Moivre's theorem

Making use of the relation $(e^{i\theta})^n = e^{in\theta}$

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

The above result is called de Moivre's thm.

It is useful in finding trigonometric identities ☺

example $\cos 3\theta = 4\cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta$

$$\underline{\underline{(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^3}} = \cos 3\theta + i\sin 3\theta$$

$$\hookrightarrow \cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta\sin^2\theta$$

$$+ i(3\cos^2\theta\sin\theta - \sin^3\theta)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \cos 3\theta &= \cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta \sin^2\theta \quad \text{--- } 1 - \cos^2\theta \\ &= 4\cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta \quad \# \quad \text{☺} \end{aligned}$$

example $\cos^3\theta = \frac{1}{4}\cos 3\theta + \frac{3}{4}\cos\theta$

$$\text{set } z = e^{i\theta}, \quad \cos\theta = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) = \frac{1}{2}\left(z + \frac{1}{z}\right)$$

$$\sin\theta = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}) = \frac{1}{2i}\left(z - \frac{1}{z}\right)$$

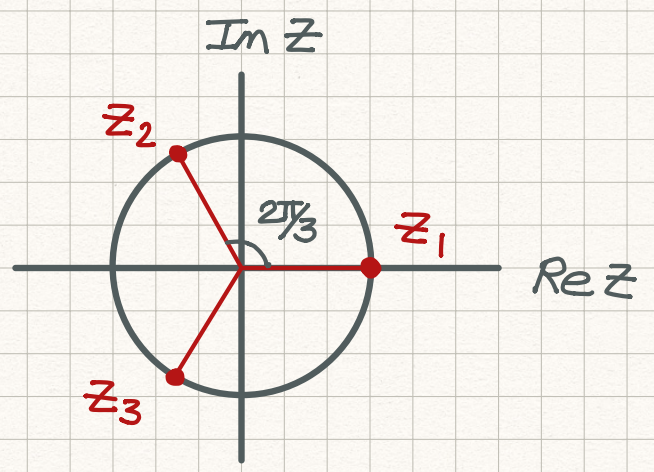
$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Thus, } \cos^3 \theta &= \frac{1}{2^3} \left(z + \frac{1}{z} \right)^3 \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \left(z^3 + 3z^2 \cdot \frac{1}{z} + 3z \cdot \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z^3} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \left(z^3 + \frac{1}{z^3} \right) + \frac{3}{8} \left(z + \frac{1}{z} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} \cos 3\theta + \frac{3}{4} \cos \theta \quad \#
 \end{aligned}$$

example

$$z^3 = 1$$

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

$$r^3 e^{i3\theta} = 1 = e^{i2n\pi}$$



Thus, the modulus \$r=1\$.

$$e^{i0} = e^{i\frac{2n\pi}{3}} = 1, e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}}, e^{i\frac{4\pi}{3}}$$

three solutions

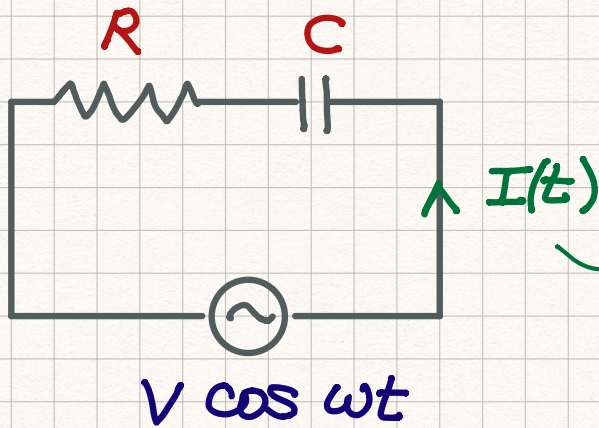
The solutions are 3 phases : $z_n = e^{i2n\pi/3}$

It's easy to see from the complex plane that

$$\begin{aligned}
 z_1 + z_2 + z_3 &= 0 \quad \text{---} \quad 1 + \cos \frac{2\pi}{3} + i \sin \frac{2\pi}{3} \\
 &\quad + \cos \frac{4\pi}{3} + i \sin \frac{4\pi}{3} \\
 &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) + i \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

electrical impedance Z — physics application

9.




One can try to solve the current $I(t)$ by ordinary differential equation.

OR, one can introduce the complex impedance Z .

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

Treating both I , V as complex numbers, it can be shown that Ohm's law still holds.

$$V = IZ \quad \rightarrow \quad I(t) = \frac{V(t)}{Z}$$

Let's see how this works 

$$V(t) = V e^{i\omega t} = \underbrace{V \cos \omega t}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{"real" voltage}}} + i V \sin \omega t$$

The RC impedance is $Z = |Z| e^{i\phi}$

$$I(t) = \frac{V(t)}{Z} = \frac{V e^{i\omega t}}{|Z| e^{i\phi}} = \frac{V}{|Z|} e^{i(\omega t - \phi)}$$

$$I(t) = \frac{V}{|Z|} \cos(\omega t - \phi) + i \frac{V}{|Z|} \sin(\omega t - \phi)$$

"real" current ☺

Now, one only need to compute the modulus and the phase.

$$|Z| = \sqrt{R^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\omega C}\right)^2} \quad \text{--- modulus.}$$

$$\tan \phi = -\frac{1}{\omega R C} \quad \text{--- phase}$$

↳ Because $Z = R - i \frac{1}{\omega C}$, the phase ϕ is in the 4th quadrant. Some people prefer defining $-\phi$ as the phase. ☹️

Q: In the high-frequency limit ($\omega \rightarrow \infty$), the impedance $Z_c = \frac{1}{i\omega C} \rightarrow 0$. Why?

In the $\omega \rightarrow \infty$ limit, the current oscillation is extremely fast and charges cannot build up in the capacitor. No charge, no voltage, no effect!

Is "z" a 2D vector?

From the addition/subtraction algebra

$$z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)$$

It looks like 2D vectors.

Introduce complex conjugate $\bar{z} \equiv x - iy$

$$\bar{z}_1 z_2 = (x_1 - iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2)$$

$$= (x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 - y_1 x_2)$$

Geometric meaning $\sim \vec{r}_1 = (x_1, y_1), \vec{r}_2 = (x_2, y_2)$

inner product $\vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{r}_2 = x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2$

outer product $\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_2 = (x_1 y_2 - y_1 x_2) \hat{k}$

$$\text{Re}(\bar{z}_1 z_2) = \vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{r}_2$$

$$\text{Im}(\bar{z}_1 z_2) = (\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_2)_z$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ x_1 & y_1 & 0 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

The complex number is a 2D vector. Furthermore, its algebra "integrates" both inner and outer products!