A.5 Complex Numbers

Complex numbers are expressions of the form $a + ib$, where a and b are real numbers and i is a symbol for $\sqrt{-1}$. Unfortunately, the words "real" and "imaginary" have connotations that somehow place $\sqrt{-1}$ in a less favorable position in our minds than $\sqrt{2}$. As a matter of fact, a good deal of imagination, in the sense of *inventiveness*, has been required to construct the *real* number system, which forms the basis of the calculus (see Appendix A.4). In this appendix we review the various stages of this invention. The further invention of a complex number system is then presented.

The Development of the Real Numbers

The earliest stage of number development was the recognition of the **counting numbers** $1, 2, 3, \ldots$, which we now call the **natural numbers** or the **positive integers**. Certain simple arithmetical operations can be performed with these numbers without getting outside the system. That is, the system of positive integers is **closed** under the operations of addition and multiplication. By this we mean that if m and n are any positive integers, then

$$m + n = p \qquad \text{and} \qquad mn = q \tag{1}$$

are also positive integers. Given the two positive integers on the left side of either equation in (1), we can find the corresponding positive integer on the right side. More than this, we can sometimes specify the positive integers m and p and find a positive integer n such that $m + n = p$. For instance, $3 + n = 7$ can be solved when the only numbers we know are the positive integers. But the equation $7 + n = 3$ cannot be solved unless the number system is enlarged.

The number zero and the negative integers were invented to solve equations like $7 + n = 3$. In a civilization that recognizes all the **integers**

$$\ldots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots, \tag{2}$$

an educated person can always find the missing integer that solves the equation $m + n = p$ when given the other two integers in the equation.

Suppose our educated people also know how to multiply any two of the integers in the list (2). If, in Equations (1), they are given m and q, they discover that sometimes they can find n and sometimes they cannot. Using their imagination, they may be

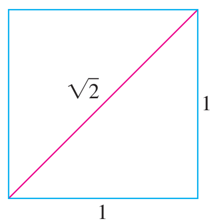

FIGURE A.3 With a straightedge and compass, it is possible to construct a segment of irrational length.

inspired to invent still more numbers and introduce fractions, which are just ordered pairs m/n of integers m and n. The number zero has special properties that may bother them for a while, but they ultimately discover that it is handy to have all ratios of integers m/n, excluding only those having zero in the denominator. This system, called the set of **rational numbers**, is now rich enough for them to perform the **rational operations** of arithmetic:

1. (a) addition
(b) subtraction

2. (a) multiplication
(b) division

on any two numbers in the system, *except that they cannot divide by zero* because it is meaningless.

The geometry of the unit square (Figure A.3) and the Pythagorean theorem showed that they could construct a geometric line segment that, in terms of some basic unit of length, has length equal to $\sqrt{2}$. Thus they could solve the equation

$$x^2 = 2$$

by a geometric construction. But then they discovered that the line segment representing $\sqrt{2}$ is an incommensurable quantity. This means that $\sqrt{2}$ cannot be expressed as the ratio of two *integer* multiples of some unit of length. That is, our educated people could not find a rational number solution of the equation $x^2 = 2$.

There *is* no rational number whose square is 2. To see why, suppose that there were such a rational number. Then we could find integers p and q with no common factor other than 1, and such that

$$p^2 = 2q^2. \tag{3}$$

Since p and q are integers, p must be even; otherwise its product with itself would be odd. In symbols, $p = 2p_1$, where p_1 is an integer. This leads to $2{p_1}^2 = q^2$ which says q must be even, say $q = 2q_1$, where q_1 is an integer. This makes 2 a factor of both p and q, contrary to our choice of p and q as integers with no common factor other than 1. Hence there is no rational number whose square is 2.

Although our educated people could not find a rational solution of the equation $x^2 = 2$, they could get a sequence of rational numbers

$$\frac{1}{1}, \quad \frac{7}{5}, \quad \frac{41}{29}, \quad \frac{239}{169}, \quad \ldots, \tag{4}$$

whose squares form a sequence

$$\frac{1}{1}, \quad \frac{49}{25}, \quad \frac{1681}{841}, \quad \frac{57{,}121}{28{,}561}, \quad \ldots, \tag{5}$$

that converges to 2 as its limit. This time their imagination suggested that they needed the concept of a limit of a sequence of rational numbers. If we accept the fact that an increasing sequence that is bounded from above always approaches a limit (Theorem 6, Section 11.1) and observe that the sequence in (4) has these properties, then we want it to have a limit L. This would also mean, from (5), that $L^2 = 2$, and hence L is *not* one of our rational numbers. If to the rational numbers we further add the limits of all bounded increasing sequences of rational numbers, we arrive at the system of all "real" numbers. The word *real* is placed in quotes because there is nothing that is either "more real" or "less real" about this system than there is about any other mathematical system.

The Complex Numbers

Imagination was called upon at many stages during the development of the real number system. In fact, the art of invention was needed at least three times in constructing the systems we have discussed so far:

1. The *first invented* system: the set of *all integers* as constructed from the counting numbers.
2. The *second invented* system: the set of *rational numbers* m/n as constructed from the integers.
3. The *third invented* system: the set of all *real numbers* x as constructed from the rational numbers.

These invented systems form a hierarchy in which each system contains the previous system. Each system is also richer than its predecessor in that it permits additional operations to be performed without going outside the system:

1. In the system of all integers, we can solve all equations of the form
$$x + a = 0, \tag{6}$$
where a can be any integer.
2. In the system of all rational numbers, we can solve all equations of the form
$$ax + b = 0, \tag{7}$$
provided a and b are rational numbers and $a \neq 0$.
3. In the system of all real numbers, we can solve all of Equations (6) and (7) and, in addition, all quadratic equations
$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \quad \text{having} \quad a \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad b^2 - 4ac \geq 0. \tag{8}$$

You are probably familiar with the formula that gives the solutions of Equation (8), namely,

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}, \tag{9}$$

and are familiar with the further fact that when the discriminant, $b^2 - 4ac$, is negative, the solutions in Equation (9) do *not* belong to any of the systems discussed above. In fact, the very simple quadratic equation

$$x^2 + 1 = 0$$

is impossible to solve if the only number systems that can be used are the three invented systems mentioned so far.

Thus we come to the *fourth invented* system, the set of *all complex numbers* $a + ib$. We could dispense entirely with the symbol i and use the ordered pair notation (a, b). Since, under algebraic operations, the numbers a and b are treated somewhat differently, it is essential to keep the *order* straight. We therefore might say that the **complex number system** consists of the set of all ordered pairs of real numbers (a, b), together with the rules by which they are to be equated, added, multiplied, and so on, listed below. We will use both the (a, b) notation and the notation $a + ib$ in the discussion that follows. We call a the **real part** and b the **imaginary part** of the complex number (a, b).

We make the following definitions.

Equality	
$a + ib = c + id$ if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$.	Two complex numbers (a, b) and (c, d) are *equal* if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$.
Addition	
$(a + ib) + (c + id) = (a + c) + i(b + d)$	The *sum* of the two complex numbers (a, b) and (c, d) is the complex number $(a + c, b + d)$.
Multiplication	
$(a + ib)(c + id) = (ac - bd) + i(ad + bc)$	The *product* of two complex numbers (a, b) and (c, d) is the complex number $(ac - bd, ad + bc)$.
$c(a + ib) = ac + i(bc)$	The product of a real number c and the complex number (a, b) is the complex number (ac, bc).

The set of all complex numbers (a, b) in which the second number b is zero has all the properties of the set of real numbers a. For example, addition and multiplication of $(a, 0)$ and $(c, 0)$ give

$$(a, 0) + (c, 0) = (a + c, 0),$$

$$(a, 0) \cdot (c, 0) = (ac, 0),$$

which are numbers of the same type with imaginary part equal to zero. Also, if we multiply a "real number" $(a, 0)$ and the complex number (c, d), we get

$$(a, 0) \cdot (c, d) = (ac, ad) = a(c, d).$$

In particular, the complex number (0, 0) plays the role of *zero* in the complex number system, and the complex number (1, 0) plays the role of *unity* or *one*.

The number pair (0, 1), which has real part equal to zero and imaginary part equal to one, has the property that its square,

$$(0, 1)(0, 1) = (-1, 0),$$

has real part equal to minus one and imaginary part equal to zero. Therefore, in the system of complex numbers (a, b) there is a number $x = (0, 1)$ whose square can be added to unity $= (1, 0)$ to produce zero $= (0, 0)$, that is,

$$(0, 1)^2 + (1, 0) = (0, 0).$$

The equation

$$x^2 + 1 = 0$$

therefore has a solution $x = (0, 1)$ in this new number system.

You are probably more familiar with the $a + ib$ notation than you are with the notation (a, b). And since the laws of algebra for the ordered pairs enable us to write

$$(a, b) = (a, 0) + (0, b) = a(1, 0) + b(0, 1),$$

while (1, 0) behaves like unity and (0, 1) behaves like a square root of minus one, we need not hesitate to write $a + ib$ in place of (a, b). The i associated with b is like a tracer element that tags the imaginary part of $a + ib$. We can pass at will from the realm of ordered pairs (a, b) to the realm of expressions $a + ib$, and conversely. But there is nothing less "real" about the symbol $(0, 1) = i$ than there is about the symbol $(1, 0) = 1$, once we have learned the laws of algebra in the complex number system of ordered pairs (a, b).

To reduce any rational combination of complex numbers to a single complex number, we apply the laws of elementary algebra, replacing i^2 wherever it appears by -1. Of course, we cannot divide by the complex number $(0, 0) = 0 + i0$. But if $a + ib \neq 0$, then we may carry out a division as follows:

$$\frac{c + id}{a + ib} = \frac{(c + id)(a - ib)}{(a + ib)(a - ib)} = \frac{(ac + bd) + i(ad - bc)}{a^2 + b^2}.$$

The result is a complex number $x + iy$ with

$$x = \frac{ac + bd}{a^2 + b^2}, \qquad y = \frac{ad - bc}{a^2 + b^2},$$

and $a^2 + b^2 \neq 0$, since $a + ib = (a, b) \neq (0, 0)$.

The number $a - ib$ that is used as multiplier to clear the i from the denominator is called the **complex conjugate** of $a + ib$. It is customary to use $\bar{z}$ (read "z bar") to denote the complex conjugate of z; thus

$$z = a + ib, \qquad \bar{z} = a - ib.$$

Multiplying the numerator and denominator of the fraction $(c + id)/(a + ib)$ by the complex conjugate of the denominator will always replace the denominator by a real number.

EXAMPLE 1 Arithmetic Operations with Complex Numbers

(a) $(2 + 3i) + (6 - 2i) = (2 + 6) + (3 - 2)i = 8 + i$

(b) $(2 + 3i) - (6 - 2i) = (2 - 6) + (3 - (-2))i = -4 + 5i$

(c) $(2 + 3i)(6 - 2i) = (2)(6) + (2)(-2i) + (3i)(6) + (3i)(-2i)$

$$= 12 - 4i + 18i - 6i^2 = 12 + 14i + 6 = 18 + 14i$$

(d)
$$\frac{2 + 3i}{6 - 2i} = \frac{2 + 3i}{6 - 2i}\,\frac{6 + 2i}{6 + 2i} = \frac{12 + 4i + 18i + 6i^2}{36 + 12i - 12i - 4i^2} = \frac{6 + 22i}{40} = \frac{3}{20} + \frac{11}{20}i$$

Argand Diagrams

There are two geometric representations of the complex number $z = x + iy$:

1. as the point $P(x, y)$ in the xy-plane
2. as the vector $\overrightarrow{OP}$ from the origin to P.

In each representation, the x-axis is called the **real axis** and the y-axis is the **imaginary axis**. Both representations are **Argand diagrams** for $x + iy$ (Figure A.4).

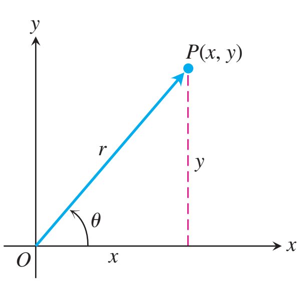

FIGURE A.4 This Argand diagram represents $z = x + iy$ both as a point $P(x, y)$ and as a vector $\overrightarrow{OP}$.

In terms of the polar coordinates of x and y, we have

$$x = r\cos\theta, \qquad y = r\sin\theta,$$

and

$$z = x + iy = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta). \tag{10}$$

We define the **absolute value** of a complex number $x + iy$ to be the length r of a vector $\overrightarrow{OP}$ from the origin to $P(x, y)$. We denote the absolute value by vertical bars; thus,

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

If we always choose the polar coordinates r and θ so that r is nonnegative, then

$$r = |x + iy|.$$

The polar angle θ is called the **argument** of z and is written $\theta = \arg z$. Of course, any integer multiple of 2π may be added to θ to produce another appropriate angle.

The following equation gives a useful formula connecting a complex number z, its conjugate $\bar{z}$, and its absolute value $|z|$, namely,

$$z \cdot \bar{z} = |z|^2.$$

Euler's Formula

The identity

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

called **Euler's formula**, enables us to rewrite Equation (10) as

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

This formula, in turn, leads to the following rules for calculating products, quotients, powers, and roots of complex numbers. It also leads to Argand diagrams for $e^{i\theta}$. Since $\cos\theta + i\sin\theta$ is what we get from Equation (10) by taking $r = 1$, we can say that $e^{i\theta}$ is represented by a unit vector that makes an angle θ with the positive x-axis, as shown in Figure A.5.

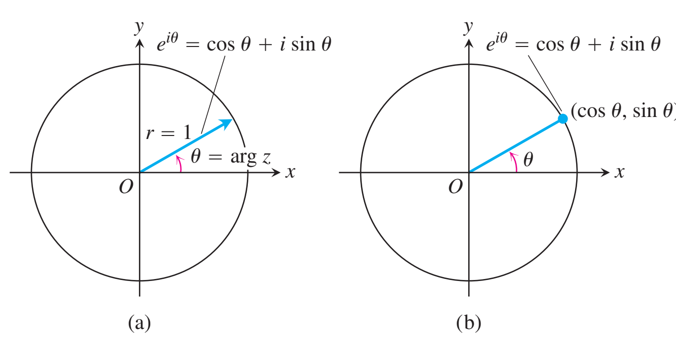

FIGURE A.5 Argand diagrams for $e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$ (a) as a vector and (b) as a point.

Products

To multiply two complex numbers, we multiply their absolute values and add their angles. Let

$$z_1 = r_1e^{i\theta_1}, \qquad z_2 = r_2e^{i\theta_2}, \tag{11}$$

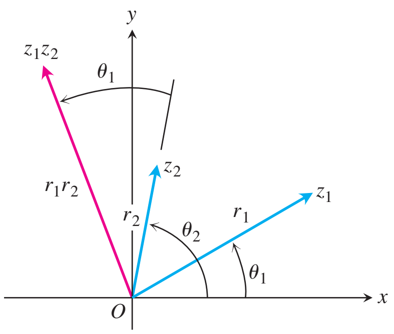

FIGURE A.6 When z_1 and z_2 are multiplied, $|z_1 z_2| = r_1 \cdot r_2$ and $\arg(z_1 z_2) = \theta_1 + \theta_2$.

so that

$$|z_1| = r_1, \qquad \arg z_1 = \theta_1; \qquad |z_2| = r_2, \qquad \arg z_2 = \theta_2.$$

Then

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

and hence

$$\begin{aligned} |z_1 z_2| &= r_1 r_2 = |z_1| \cdot |z_2| \\ \arg(z_1 z_2) &= \theta_1 + \theta_2 = \arg z_1 + \arg z_2. \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Thus, the product of two complex numbers is represented by a vector whose length is the product of the lengths of the two factors and whose argument is the sum of their arguments (Figure A.6). In particular, from Equation (12) a vector may be rotated counterclockwise through an angle θ by multiplying it by $e^{i\theta}$. Multiplication by i rotates 90°, by -1 rotates 180°, by $-i$ rotates 270°, and so on.

EXAMPLE 2 Finding a Product of Complex Numbers

Let $z_1 = 1 + i$, $z_2 = \sqrt{3} - i$. We plot these complex numbers in an Argand diagram (Figure A.7) from which we read off the polar representations

$$z_1 = \sqrt{2} e^{i\pi/4}, \qquad z_2 = 2e^{-i\pi/6}.$$

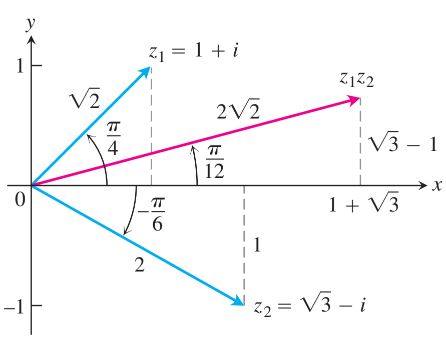

FIGURE A.7 To multiply two complex numbers, multiply their absolute values and add their arguments.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 z_2 &= 2\sqrt{2} \exp\left(\frac{i\pi}{4} - \frac{i\pi}{6}\right) = 2\sqrt{2} \exp\left(\frac{i\pi}{12}\right) \\ &= 2\sqrt{2}\left(\cos\frac{\pi}{12} + i \sin\frac{\pi}{12}\right) \approx 2.73 + 0.73i. \end{aligned}$$

The notation $\exp(A)$ stands for e^A. ■

Quotients

Suppose $r_2 \neq 0$ in Equation (11). Then

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

Hence

$$\left|\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right| = \frac{r_1}{r_2} = \frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|} \quad \text{and} \quad \arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \theta_1 - \theta_2 = \arg z_1 - \arg z_2.$$

That is, we divide lengths and subtract angles for the quotient of complex numbers.

EXAMPLE 3 Let $z_1 = 1 + i$ and $z_2 = \sqrt{3} - i$, as in Example 2. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{3} - i} &= \frac{\sqrt{2} e^{i\pi/4}}{2e^{-i\pi/6}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} e^{5\pi i/12} \approx 0.707\left(\cos\frac{5\pi}{12} + i \sin\frac{5\pi}{12}\right) \\ &\approx 0.183 + 0.683i. \end{aligned}$$

■

Powers

If n is a positive integer, we may apply the product formulas in Equation (12) to find

$$z^n = z \cdot z \cdot \cdots \cdot z. \qquad n \text{ factors}$$

With $z = re^{i\theta}$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} z^n = (re^{i\theta})^n &= r^n e^{i(\theta+\theta+\cdots+\theta)} \qquad n \text{ summands} \\ &= r^n e^{in\theta}. \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

The length $r = |z|$ is raised to the nth power and the angle $\theta = \arg z$ is multiplied by n.

If we take $r = 1$ in Equation (13), we obtain De Moivre's Theorem.

De Moivre's Theorem

$$(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i\sin n\theta. \tag{14}$$

If we expand the left side of De Moivre's equation above by the Binomial Theorem and reduce it to the form $a + ib$, we obtain formulas for $\cos n\theta$ and $\sin n\theta$ as polynomials of degree n in $\cos\theta$ and $\sin\theta$.

EXAMPLE 4 If $n = 3$ in Equation (14), we have

$$(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^3 = \cos 3\theta + i\sin 3\theta.$$

The left side of this equation expands to

$$\cos^3\theta + 3i\cos^2\theta\sin\theta - 3\cos\theta\sin^2\theta - i\sin^3\theta.$$

The real part of this must equal $\cos 3\theta$ and the imaginary part must equal $\sin 3\theta$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 3\theta &= \cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta\sin^2\theta, \\ \sin 3\theta &= 3\cos^2\theta\sin\theta - \sin^3\theta. \end{aligned}$$

■

Roots

If $z = re^{i\theta}$ is a complex number different from zero and n is a positive integer, then there are precisely n different complex numbers $w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_{n-1}$, that are nth roots of z. To see why, let $w = \rho e^{i\alpha}$ be an nth root of $z = re^{i\theta}$, so that

$$w^n = z$$

or

$$\rho^n e^{in\alpha} = re^{i\theta}.$$

Then

$$\rho = \sqrt[n]{r}$$

is the real, positive nth root of r. For the argument, although we cannot say that $n\alpha$ and θ must be equal, we can say that they may differ only by an integer multiple of 2π. That is,

$$n\alpha = \theta + 2k\pi, \qquad k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots.$$

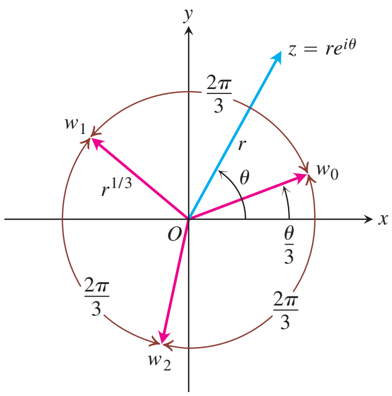

FIGURE A.8 The three cube roots of $z = re^{i\theta}$.

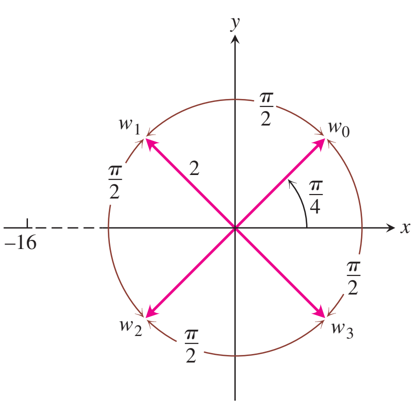

FIGURE A.9 The four fourth roots of -16.

Therefore,

$$\alpha = \frac{\theta}{n} + k\frac{2\pi}{n}.$$

Hence, all the nth roots of $z = re^{i\theta}$ are given by

$$\boxed{\sqrt[n]{re^{i\theta}} = \sqrt[n]{r}\,\exp i\left(\frac{\theta}{n} + k\frac{2\pi}{n}\right), \qquad k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots. \qquad (15)}$$

There might appear to be infinitely many different answers corresponding to the infinitely many possible values of k, but $k = n + m$ gives the same answer as $k = m$ in Equation (15). Thus, we need only take n consecutive values for k to obtain all the different nth roots of z. For convenience, we take

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, n - 1.$$

All the nth roots of $re^{i\theta}$ lie on a circle centered at the origin and having radius equal to the real, positive nth root of r. One of them has argument $\alpha = \theta/n$. The others are uniformly spaced around the circle, each being separated from its neighbors by an angle equal to $2\pi/n$. Figure A.8 illustrates the placement of the three cube roots, w_0, w_1, w_2, of the complex number $z = re^{i\theta}$.

EXAMPLE 5 Finding Fourth Roots

Find the four fourth roots of -16.

Solution As our first step, we plot the number -16 in an Argand diagram (Figure A.9) and determine its polar representation $re^{i\theta}$. Here, $z = -16$, $r = +16$, and $\theta = \pi$. One of the fourth roots of $16e^{i\pi}$ is $2e^{i\pi/4}$. We obtain others by successive additions of $2\pi/4 = \pi/2$ to the argument of this first one. Hence,

$$\sqrt[4]{16 \exp i\pi} = 2 \exp i\left(\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{5\pi}{4}, \frac{7\pi}{4}\right),$$

and the four roots are

$$w_0 = 2\left[\cos\frac{\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{4}\right] = \sqrt{2}(1 + i)$$

$$w_1 = 2\left[\cos\frac{3\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{3\pi}{4}\right] = \sqrt{2}(-1 + i)$$

$$w_2 = 2\left[\cos\frac{5\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{5\pi}{4}\right] = \sqrt{2}(-1 - i)$$

$$w_3 = 2\left[\cos\frac{7\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{7\pi}{4}\right] = \sqrt{2}(1 - i). \qquad \blacksquare$$

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

One might say that the invention of $\sqrt{-1}$ is all well and good and leads to a number system that is richer than the real number system alone; but where will this process end? Are we also going to invent still more systems so as to obtain $\sqrt[4]{-1}$, $\sqrt[6]{-1}$, and so on? But it turns out this is not necessary. These numbers are already expressible in terms of the complex number system $a + ib$. In fact, the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra says that with the introduction of the complex numbers we now have enough numbers to factor every polynomial into a product of linear factors and so enough numbers to solve every possible polynomial equation.

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Every polynomial equation of the form

$$a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0 = 0,$$

in which the coefficients $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n$ are any complex numbers, whose degree n is greater than or equal to one, and whose leading coefficient a_n is not zero, has exactly n roots in the complex number system, provided each multiple root of multiplicity m is counted as m roots.

A proof of this theorem can be found in almost any text on the theory of functions of a complex variable.

EXERCISES A.5

Operations with Complex Numbers

1. **How computers multiply complex numbers** Find $(a, b) \cdot (c, d) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$.
   a. $(2, 3) \cdot (4, -2)$ **b.** $(2, -1) \cdot (-2, 3)$
   c. $(-1, -2) \cdot (2, 1)$
   (This is how complex numbers are multiplied by computers.)
2. Solve the following equations for the real numbers, x and y.
   a. $(3 + 4i)^2 - 2(x - iy) = x + iy$
   b. $\left(\frac{1+i}{1-i}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{x+iy} = 1 + i$
   c. $(3 - 2i)(x + iy) = 2(x - 2iy) + 2i - 1$

Graphing and Geometry

3. How may the following complex numbers be obtained from $z = x + iy$ geometrically? Sketch.
   a. $\bar{z}$ **b.** $\overline{(-z)}$
   c. $-z$ **d.** $1/z$
4. Show that the distance between the two points z_1 and z_2 in an Argand diagram is $|z_1 - z_2|$.

In Exercises 5–10, graph the points $z = x + iy$ that satisfy the given conditions.

5. **a.** $|z| = 2$ **b.** $|z| < 2$ **c.** $|z| > 2$
6. $|z - 1| = 2$
7. $|z + 1| = 1$
8. $|z + 1| = |z - 1|$
9. $|z + i| = |z - 1|$
10. $|z + 1| \geq |z|$

Express the complex numbers in Exercises 11–14 in the form $re^{i\theta}$, with $r \geq 0$ and $-\pi < \theta \leq \pi$. Draw an Argand diagram for each calculation.

11. $\left(1 + \sqrt{-3}\right)^2$
12. $\frac{1+i}{1-i}$
13. $\frac{1 + i\sqrt{3}}{1 - i\sqrt{3}}$
14. $(2 + 3i)(1 - 2i)$

Powers and Roots

Use De Moivre's Theorem to express the trigonometric functions in Exercises 15 and 16 in terms of $\cos\theta$ and $\sin\theta$.

15. $\cos 4\theta$
16. $\sin 4\theta$
17. Find the three cube roots of 1.

18. Find the two square roots of i.

19. Find the three cube roots of $-8i$.

20. Find the six sixth roots of 64.

21. Find the four solutions of the equation $z^4 - 2z^2 + 4 = 0$.

22. Find the six solutions of the equation $z^6 + 2z^3 + 2 = 0$.

23. Find all solutions of the equation $x^4 + 4x^2 + 16 = 0$.

24. Solve the equation $x^4 + 1 = 0$.

Theory and Examples

25. Complex numbers and vectors in the plane Show with an Argand diagram that the law for adding complex numbers is the same as the parallelogram law for adding vectors.

26. Complex arithmetic with conjugates Show that the conjugate of the sum (product, or quotient) of two complex numbers, z_1 and z_2, is the same as the sum (product, or quotient) of their conjugates.

27. Complex roots of polynomials with real coefficients come in complex-conjugate pairs

a. Extend the results of Exercise 26 to show that $f(\bar{z}) = \overline{f(z)}$ if

$$f(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0$$

is a polynomial with real coefficients $a_0, \ldots, a_n$.

b. If z is a root of the equation $f(z) = 0$, where $f(z)$ is a polynomial with real coefficients as in part (a), show that the conjugate $\bar{z}$ is also a root of the equation. (*Hint:* Let $f(z) = u + iv = 0$; then both u and v are zero. Use the fact that $f(\bar{z}) = \overline{f(z)} = u - iv$.)

28. Absolute value of a conjugate Show that $|\bar{z}| = |z|$.

29. When $\mathbf{z} = \bar{\mathbf{z}}$ If z and $\bar{z}$ are equal, what can you say about the location of the point z in the complex plane?

30. Real and imaginary parts Let $\mathrm{Re}(z)$ denote the real part of z and $\mathrm{Im}(z)$ the imaginary part. Show that the following relations hold for any complex numbers z, z_1, and z_2.

a. $z + \bar{z} = 2\mathrm{Re}(z)$

b. $z - \bar{z} = 2i\mathrm{Im}(z)$

c. $|\mathrm{Re}(z)| \leq |z|$

d. $|z_1 + z_2|^2 = |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 + 2\mathrm{Re}(z_1 \bar{z}_2)$

e. $|z_1 + z_2| \leq |z_1| + |z_2|$