

# Foundation of Complex Numbers

## 1 Introduction and Historical Context

Complex numbers are a principal extension of our classical number system, introducing a new dimension to numerical understanding and calculations. Initially arising from mathematical necessity—specifically, the need to find solutions to equations such as  $x^2 + 1 = 0$ , which have no real solutions—complex numbers have evolved to become a linchpin of modern mathematics, engineering, and physics.

### 1.1 The Birth of Complex Numbers

The early history of complex numbers involved both initial skepticism and gradual advancements. The concept of square roots of negative numbers first appeared in the 16th century through Gerolamo Cardano's work on solving cubic equations. In his *Ars Magna* (1545), Cardano acknowledged solutions involving these “imaginary” quantities, although their practical or geometric significance was not yet fully understood. In the following decades, Rafael Bombelli systematically developed rules of arithmetic for these numbers, laying the groundwork for their algebraic manipulation.

René Descartes coined the term “imaginary” for these numbers in the 17th century, a label that reflected the challenges mathematicians faced in relating them to physical or geometric concepts at the time. However, the necessity of complex numbers became obvious with the emergence of the *Fundamental Theorem of Algebra*, which states that every nonconstant polynomial equation has as many roots as its degree when considered over the complex numbers.

By the 18th century, the concept of complex numbers had become well-established, largely due to Leonhard Euler's significant role in popularizing both the imaginary unit,  $i$ , and the exponential form of complex numbers. Caspar Wessel and Jean-Robert Argand later gave complex numbers a clear geometric interpretation by plotting them on the Euclidean plane—the so-called Argand plane or Argand diagram.

The subsequent centuries saw complex numbers become foundational in mathematics, physics, engineering, and, more recently, fields like quantum computing and computer graphics.

| Year | Mathematician        | Contribution                                                 |
|------|----------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1545 | Gerolamo Cardano     | First use of complex numbers in solving cubics               |
| 1572 | Rafael Bombelli      | Developed arithmetic rules for complex numbers               |
| 1637 | René Descartes       | Termed them "imaginary" numbers                              |
| 1748 | Leonhard Euler       | Introduced use of $i$ , Euler's formula, exponential form    |
| 1797 | Caspar Wessel        | Geometric interpretation (complex plane)                     |
| 1806 | Jean-Robert Argand   | Formalized Argand diagram                                    |
| 1831 | Carl Friedrich Gauss | Proved Fundamental Theorem of Algebra; term "complex number" |

Table 1: Timeline of Key Contributions

## 2 The Hierarchy of Number Systems and Motivation for Complex Numbers

The real number system itself grew out of the limitations of earlier systems—integers, rationals, irrationals—each resolving mathematical gaps that preceded it. Yet even the real numbers leave certain equations, like  $x^2 + 9 = 0$ , unsolvable. The drive to overcome this led naturally to complex numbers.

### 2.1 Relationships Between Number Sets

- **Natural Numbers** ( $\mathbb{N}$ ): Counting numbers  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ .
- **Whole Numbers**: Natural numbers plus zero  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ .
- **Integers** ( $\mathbb{Z}$ ): All positive and negative whole numbers, including zero  $\{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3\}$ .
- **Rational Numbers** ( $\mathbb{Q}$ ): Numbers expressible as  $\frac{p}{q}$ ,  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $q \neq 0$ .
- **Irrational Numbers** ( $\mathbb{Q}^c$ ): Numbers not expressible as rational numbers. For example,  $\pi$ ,  $\sqrt{2}$ , etc.
- **Real Numbers** ( $\mathbb{R}$ ): Combination of rationals and irrationals.
- **Complex Numbers** ( $\mathbb{C}$ ): Numbers of the form  $a + ib$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .

Complex numbers thus arise as a natural and necessary extension of real numbers, removing algebraic barriers, and enabling a full solution set for every polynomial.

## 3 The Imaginary Unit, Real and Imaginary Parts

### 3.1 Definition of the Imaginary Unit

The imaginary unit is denoted by  $i$  and is defined by the equation:

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

| Power | Value       |
|-------|-------------|
| $i^1$ | $\sqrt{-1}$ |
| $i^2$ | $-1$        |
| $i^3$ | $-i$        |
| $i^4$ | $1$         |

Table 2: Values of Powers of  $i$

This definition allows us to give meaning to the square roots of negative numbers. For example:

$$\sqrt{-36} = \sqrt{36} \times \sqrt{-1} = 6i$$

. The properties of powers of  $i$  are cyclic and foundational.

### 3.2 Notation and General Form

A complex number is an expression:

$$z = a + ib$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are real numbers, with  $a$  termed the real part and  $b$  the imaginary part.

$$\operatorname{Re}(z) = a$$

$$\operatorname{Im}(z) = b$$

**Examples:**

1.  $z = 3 - 4i$ , then  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = 3$  and  $\operatorname{Im}(z) = -4$ .
2.  $z = 7$ , then  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = 7$  and  $\operatorname{Im}(z) = 0$ .
3.  $z = -5i$ , then  $\operatorname{Re}(z) = 0$  and  $\operatorname{Im}(z) = -5$ .

## 4 Algebraic Form and Representation on the Argand Plane

### 4.1 Algebraic (Rectangular or Cartesian) Form

The algebraic form writes a complex number as  $z = a + ib$  treating it much like a two-dimensional vector in the plane. This facilitates operations like addition and subtraction using component-wise arithmetic.

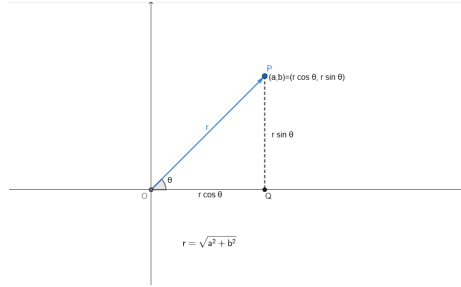


Figure 1: Complex number  $z = a + ib$  on the Argand plane, with modulus  $|z|$  and argument  $\theta$

| Quadrant | Signs          | Description                            |
|----------|----------------|----------------------------------------|
| I        | $a > 0, b > 0$ | Both real and imaginary parts positive |
| II       | $a < 0, b > 0$ | Real negative, imaginary positive      |
| III      | $a < 0, b < 0$ | Both negative                          |
| IV       | $a > 0, b < 0$ | Real positive, imaginary negative      |

Table 3: Quadrants in the Argand Plane

## 4.2 The Argand Plane (Complex Plane)

Geometric representation is a profound aspect of complex numbers. By plotting the real part along the horizontal axis and the imaginary part along the vertical axis, any complex number  $z = a + ib$  is represented as the point  $(a, b)$  in the Argand diagram.

This structure (fig. 1) directly aids visualization and interpretation of arithmetic and geometry with complex numbers.

# 5 Basic Operations with Complex Numbers

Operations with complex numbers parallel those on real numbers, but with additional considerations due to the involvement of  $i$ .

## 5.1 Addition and Subtraction

For  $z_1 = a_1 + ib_1$  and  $z_2 = a_2 + ib_2$ ,

- **Addition:**

$$z_1 + z_2 = (a_1 + a_2) + i(b_1 + b_2)$$

- **Subtraction:**

$$z_1 - z_2 = (a_1 - a_2) + i(b_1 - b_2)$$

**Example:** Given  $z_1 = 2 + 3i$  and  $z_2 = 4 - 2i$ . Then,

$$z_1 + z_2 = (2 + 4) + i(3 - 2) = 6 + i$$

and

$$z_1 - z_2 = (2 - 4) + i(3 - (-2)) = -2 + 5i$$

. Both operations are performed component-wise, treating the real and imaginary parts separately.

## 5.2 Multiplication

For  $z_1 = a_1 + ib_1$  and  $z_2 = a_2 + ib_2$ ,

$$z_1 z_2 = (a_1 + ib_1)(a_2 + ib_2) = (a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2) + i(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1)$$

**Example:**

$$(3+2i)(1+4i) = [(3)(1)-(2)(4)] + [(3)(4)-(1)(2)]i = (3-8) + (12+2)i = -5+14i$$

Multiplication geometrically combines scaling and rotation (see polar form).

## 5.3 Division

To divide  $z_1$  by  $z_2$ ,

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{a_1 + ib_1}{a_2 + ib_2} = \frac{(a_1 + ib_1)(a_2 - ib_2)}{(a_2 + ib_2)(a_2 - ib_2)} = \frac{(a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2) + i(b_1 a_2 - b_2 a_1)}{a_2^2 + b_2^2}$$

**Example:** For  $z_1 = 4 + 5i$  and  $z_2 = 2 - 3i$ ,

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{4 + 5i}{2 - 3i} = \frac{(4 + 5i)(2 + 3i)}{(2 - 3i)(2 + 3i)} = \frac{8 + 12i + 10i + 15i^2}{2^2 - 3^2i^2} = \frac{8 + 22i - 15}{4 - (-9)} = \frac{-7 + 22i}{13} = \frac{-7}{13} + \frac{22}{13}i$$

This uses the complex conjugate to rationalize the denominator and isolate the result in standard form.

# 6 Conjugate and Modulus of a Complex Number

## 6.1 Complex Conjugate

For any  $z = a + ib$ , the conjugate is:

$$\bar{z} = \overline{a + ib} = a - ib$$

. This operation geometrically reflects the point  $z$  over the real axis in the Argand plane. The product  $z\bar{z} = a^2 + b^2$  is always real and non-negative.

### 6.1.1 Properties

- $\overline{z_1 \pm z_2} = \overline{z_1} \pm \overline{z_2}$
- $\overline{z_1 z_2} = \overline{z_1} \cdot \overline{z_2}$
- $\overline{\overline{z}} = z$
- A complex number is real iff  $z = \overline{z}$

### 6.1.2 Example

If  $z = 2 + 3i$ , then  $\overline{z} = 2 - 3i$ .

## 6.2 Modulus

The modulus (or absolute value) of a complex number  $z = a + ib$  is given by

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

. This is the Euclidean distance of the point  $z$  from the origin in the Argand plane.

**Example** For  $z = 3 - 4i$ ,

$$|z| = \sqrt{3^2 + (-4)^2} = \sqrt{9 + 16} = \sqrt{25} = 5$$

. Some important properties of modulus:

- $|z| \geq 0$ , and  $|z| = 0$  iff  $z = 0$
- $|z_1 z_2| = |z_1| \cdot |z_2|$
- $|\overline{z}| = |z|$
- $|\frac{z_1}{z_2}| = \frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|}$  for  $z_2 \neq 0$ .

## 7 Polar Form of a Complex Number and Euler's Formula

### 7.1 Polar Coordinates

Any complex number  $z = a + ib$ , can be uniquely represented in polar form:

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

where

- $r = |z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  is the modulus,

- $\theta = \arg(z) = \tan^{-1}(\frac{b}{a})$  is the argument (angle from the positive real axis).

**Example:** For  $z = 1 + i\sqrt{3}$ , then

- $r = \sqrt{1^2 + (\sqrt{3})^2} = \sqrt{1+3} = \sqrt{4} = 2$
- $\theta = \tan^{-1}(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{1}) = \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{3}) = \tan^{-1}(\tan 60^\circ = 60^\circ = \frac{\pi}{3})$
- $z = 2(\cos \frac{\pi}{3} + i \sin \frac{\pi}{3})$

**Conversion formulas:**

- From rectangular to polar:  $r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ ,  $\theta = \tan^{-1}(\frac{b}{a})$
- From polar to rectangular:  $a = r \cos \theta$  and  $b = r \sin \theta$

## 7.2 Euler's Formula

A landmark result links the polar and exponential form of complex numbers:

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

Thus,

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

. This compact and elegant representation simplifies multiplication, division, and the finding of powers and roots:

- **Multiplication:**  $z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$
- **Division:**  $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)}$
- **Powers:**  $z^n = r^n e^{in\theta}$
- **Roots:**  $\sqrt[n]{z} = \sqrt[n]{r} e^{i(\theta + 2k\pi)/n}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$

This is indispensable for trigonometry, oscillations, electrical engineering, and quantum mechanics.

## 8 Applications of Complex Numbers

Complex numbers, far from being “imaginary,” have a wealth of applications in both pure and applied sciences.

## 8.1 In Mathematics

- **Polynomial Roots:** By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, every polynomial equation of degree  $n$  possesses complex roots (counting multiplicities), guaranteeing solution completeness.
- **Geometry:** Complex numbers provide elegant solutions to geometric problems, such as describing rotations, transformations, and loci (e.g., the locus  $|z| = 1$  is the unit circle).
- **Trigonometry and De Moivre's Theorem:** Facilitate calculation of multiple-angle identities and roots of unity.

## 8.2 In Engineering

- **Electrical Engineering:** Alternating current (AC) circuit analysis relies on representing voltages, currents, and impedances as complex numbers, simplifying calculations involving sinusoidal signals via phasor notation.
- **Signal Processing:** Fourier transforms use complex exponentials to decompose signals into frequency components.
- **Control Systems:** Poles and zeros are plotted on the complex plane for stability analysis.

## 8.3 In Physics

- **Quantum Mechanics:** Wave functions are complex-valued, and probability amplitudes derive from the square modulus of complex numbers.
- **Electromagnetic Theory:** Use of complex notation simplifies Maxwell's equations for oscillating fields.

## 8.4 In Computer Graphics and Computing

- **Rotations and Transformations:** Complex multiplication implements 2D geometric rotations efficiently in computer graphics and animation.
- **Fractals and Art:** The beautiful Mandelbrot and Julia sets result from iterating functions on the complex plane.
- **Signal Processing and Data Visualizations:** Spectral and spatial transformations use the full power of complex arithmetic.

## 8.5 Other Real-Life Applications

- **Design and Analysis:** Used in mechanical/civil engineering for stress analysis, vibration, and resonance.
- **Control Theory:** Complex variables are vital for representing feedback and dynamic response.



## 9 Worked Examples and Solved Problems

**Example 1: (Addition and Subtraction)** Given  $z_1 = 3 + 4i$  and  $z_2 = 1 - 2i$ ,

- $z_1 + z_2 = (3 + 1) + (4 + (-2))i = 4 + 2i$
- $z_1 - z_2 = (3 - 1) + (4 - (-2))i = 2 + 6i$

**Example 2: (Multiplication)** Given  $z_1 = 2 + i$  and  $z_2 = -4 - 5i$ ,

$$z_1 z_2 = (2 + i)(-4 - 5i) = 2(-4 - 5i) + i(-4 - 5i) = -8 - 10i - 4i - 5i^2 = -8 - 14i + 5 = -3 - 14i$$

**Example 3: (Division)** Divide  $z_1 = 5 + 6i$  by  $z_2 = 2 - 3i$ .

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{5 + 6i}{2 - 3i} = \frac{5 + 6i}{2 - 3i} \times \frac{2 + 3i}{2 + 3i} = \frac{10 + 15i + 12i + 18i^2}{4 - 9i^2} = \frac{10 + 27i - 18}{4 + 9} = \frac{-8 + 27i}{13} = \frac{-8}{13} + \frac{27}{13}i$$

**Example 4: (Modulus and Argument)** If  $z = 5 - 2i$ , find  $|z|$  and  $\arg(z)$ .

Here,  $a = 5$  and  $b = -2$ . Then we have,

- $|z| = |5 - 2i| = \sqrt{5^2 + (-2)^2} = \sqrt{25 + 4} = \sqrt{29}$
- $\arg(z) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-2}{5}\right) \approx -63.435^\circ$

**Example 5: (Polar Representation)** Express  $z = 1 - i$  in polar form.

Here,  $a = 1$  and  $b = -1$ . So,

- $r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{2}$
- $\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-1}{1}\right) = \tan^{-1}(-1) = -45^\circ$  or  $-\frac{\pi}{4}$ .
- Polar form:  $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = \sqrt{2}[\cos(-\frac{\pi}{4}) + i \sin(-\frac{\pi}{4})]$
- Exponential form:  $z = re^{i\theta} = \sqrt{2}e^{-i\pi/4}$

## 10 Geometric Interpretation and Transformations

### 1. Addition of Complex Numbers: Vector addition on the plane.

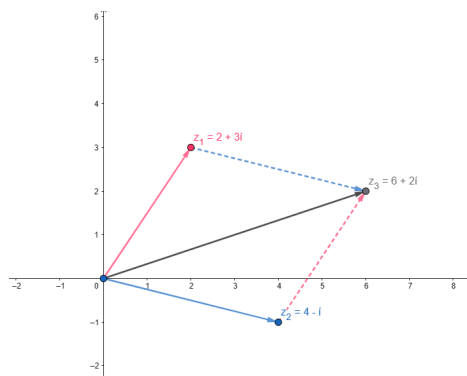


Figure 2: Addition of Complex Numbers on the Plane

### 2. Multiplication of Complex numbers: Scaling (modulus) and rotation (argument addition).

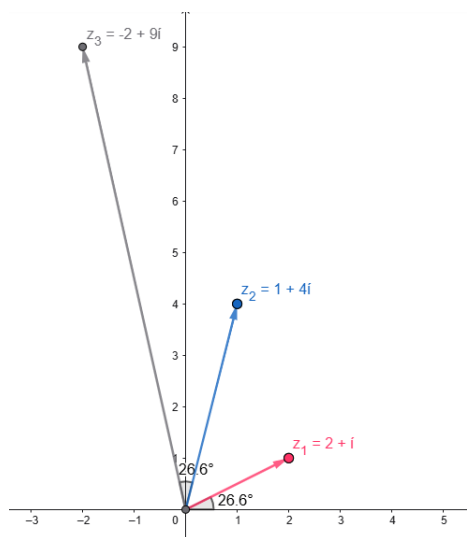


Figure 3: Multiplication of two Complex Numbers

### 3. Conjugation of a Complex Number: Reflection over the real axis.

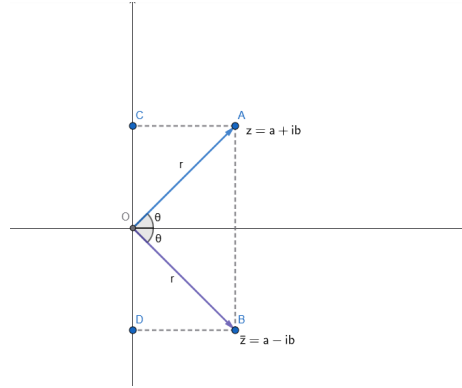


Figure 4: Conjugation of a Complex Number

## 11 Conclusion

Extending beyond the realm of ordinary real numbers, complex numbers enable us to tackle problems that were once thought impossible to solve. It has become an indispensable tool, connecting algebra and geometry, theory and application, the abstract and the concrete. Their representation, manipulation, and geometric interpretation enable students and practitioners to solve problems in mathematics, physics, engineering, and computer science. For students, engaging with complex numbers through visual, interactive, and real-world applications ensures lasting understanding and appreciation.

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