

Further Complex Methods

Course given by Prof. M.Perry
L^AT_EX by Dominic Skinner
Dom-Skinner@github.com

January 18, 2016

Books: “Complex Variables,” M.J Ablowitz & A. Fokes (CUP)
“A Course in Modern Analysis,” Whittaker & Watson

Any function of x, y can be written as a function of z, \bar{z} for $z = x + iy$.

Functions of a complex variable are defined to be those functions of x and y that can be written entirely in terms of z only.

A function of a complex variable is continuous if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0) \quad (\text{as in real analysis})$$

The derivative of a function of a complex variable is

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + \delta z) - f(z)}{\delta z}$$

For a function to be differentiable, the limit must be independent of the direction that the limit is taken.

If this is true, then the function is said to be differentiable at z . If $f'(z)$ exists, then $f(z)$ is continuous (converse not true).

Write $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ with u, v both real. Then

$$dz f'(z) = \lim_{\delta z = \delta x + i\delta y \rightarrow 0} (u(x + \delta x, y + \delta y) + iv(x + \delta x, y + \delta y) - u(x, y) - iv(x, y))$$

If $\delta y = 0$, $dz = dx$ and we get that

$$f'(z) = u_x + iv_x$$

Suppose now that $\delta x = 0$.

$$i\delta y f'(z) = u_y + iv_y$$

$$\implies f'(z) = v_y - iu_y$$

$$\implies v_y - iu_y = u_x + iv_x$$

$$\implies \left. \begin{array}{l} v_y = u_x \\ v_x = -u_y \end{array} \right\} \text{The Cauchy-Riemann equations}$$

If the Cauchy-Riemann equations hold, the derivatives exist and are continuous, then $f(z)$ is differentiable. If the Cauchy-Riemann equations hold then u, v are harmonic.

$$u_{xx} = v_{xy} = -u_{yy} \implies u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$$

A similar equation holds with v .

Consider surfaces of $u = \text{const}$, $v = \text{const}$. These surfaces are orthogonal.

$$\nabla u = (u_x, u_y) - \text{normal to } u = \text{const}$$

$$\nabla v = (v_x, v_y) - \text{normal to } v = \text{const}$$

and so

$$\nabla u \cdot \nabla v = u_x v_x + u_y v_y = 0 \text{ from C-R}$$

Definition: Analytic function

$f(z)$ is analytic at z_0 if $f(z)$ is differentiable in some neighbourhood of z_0 . $f(z)$ is analytic in a region if a similar condition applies.

Examples:

(i) e^z is analytic in the finite complex z -plane

(ii) \bar{z} is analytic nowhere

(iii) $1/z^3$ is analytic everywhere except at $z = 0$

Definition: Entire functions

A function is entire if it is analytic in the finite complex plane

Examples:

(i) e^z , this only fails to be analytic at ∞

(ii) $\sin z$

(iii) z^2

Definition: Isolated singularity

A function is said to have an isolated singularity if it fails to be analytic at a point.

Example: $1/z^3$ has an isolated singularity at the origin.

Suppose that a function has an isolated singularity at $z = z_0$. Then it can be expanded as a Laurent series around z_0 .

$$f(z) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_n (z - z_0)^n$$

Note that this sum is over all positive and negative powers.

Suppose that $c_n = 0$ for all $n < -N$ where $N > 0$.

- If $c_n = 0 \forall n > 0$ then it is not singular.
- If $c_n = 0$ for all $n < -N$ for $N > 0$, then one has a pole of order N .

Example: $1/z^3$ has a pole of order 3 at $z = 0$.

The coefficient c_{-1} is special, it is the residue of the pole at z_0 .

Definition: Removable singularities

Fake singularities where the building blocks of $f(z)$ have isolated singularities, but $f(z)$ does not.

Example:

$$f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z} = \frac{1}{z} \left(z - \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots \right) = 1 - \frac{z^2}{6}$$

$f(z)$ has a removable singularity at $z = 0$.

Example:

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{z + z^2} = \frac{1}{1 + z}$$

so $f(z)$ has a removable singularity at the origin.

Definition: Essential Singularity

An essential singularity is where the order of the pole of an isolated singularity is infinite.

Example: $f(z) = e^{1/z}$, $z = 0$ is an isolated singularity, as a Laurent series

$$f(z) = \sum_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{(-n)!} z^n$$

Note that in this example, $f(z)$ is not even continuous at $z = 0$, its value depends on how one approaches $z = 0$.

Definition: Meromorphic functions

These are functions of z that only have poles of any finite order in the finite complex plane.

Examples:

(a) $1/z^2$ has a pole of order 2 at the origin.

(b) $\cot z$ has poles of order 1 at $z = n\pi$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Theorem: Cauchy's Theorem

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \left(\sum \text{Residues of the poles enclosed by } C \right)$$

The integral is taken around C in the anti-clockwise direction, and $f(z)$ is meromorphic.

The complex plane is really a sphere, the Riemann sphere.

w is the perpendicular distance from the $x - y$ plane. The north pole corresponds to infinity, and all of infinity has become a point.

Definition: Stereographic projection

Construct a straight line starting at N , through P to meet the complex plane at C .

$$N = (0, 0, 2), \quad P = (X, Y,)$$

Construct this line by saying that s is a parameter along the line such that $s = 0$ at the north pole and $s = 1$ at P .

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x = X_s \\ y = Y_s \end{array} \right\} \text{What about } w?$$

$$w = 2 - (1 \pm \sqrt{1 - X^2 - Y^2})s$$

at C , $w = 0$

$$\implies s = \frac{2}{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - X^2 - Y^2}} \text{ at } C$$

Hence the coordinates of the point C are

$$x = \frac{2X}{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - X^2 - Y^2}}, \quad y = \frac{2Y}{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - X^2 - Y^2}}$$

Thus if X, Y both $\rightarrow 0$, then $x, y \rightarrow \infty$ with the choice of sign. All of infinity gets mapped to the north pole of the Riemann sphere. This motivates how to think about infinity.

$$z \mapsto 1/z = w \text{ maps infinity to the origin}$$

Suppose $f(z) = z$, then $f(w) = 1/w$. $f(w)$ has a simple pole of residue 1 at $w = 0 \implies f(z) = z$ has a simple pole of residue 1 at infinity.

This holds true for any function of a complex variable; to examine the behaviour of a function at ∞ , send $z \mapsto 1/z = w$ and ask what happens at $w = 0$.

Example: $f(z) = e^z = e^{1/w}$ has an essential singularity at $w = 0$.

Theorem: Liouville's theorem

If f is analytic everywhere including ∞ then it must be a constant.

Multi-valued functions

For a real variable, the square root of a positive number has two forms $\pm\sqrt{x}$. Now consider $z^{1/2}$ and decompose into modulus and argument.

$$z^{1/2} = \rho^{1/2} e^{i\theta/2}$$

As one moves around the circle,

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &\mapsto \theta + 2\pi \\ z^{1/2} &\mapsto \rho^{1/2} e^{i(\theta+2\pi)/2} = -\rho^{1/2} e^{i\theta/2} \end{aligned}$$

So $f(z)$ changes sign. If one goes around the circle twice then $\theta \mapsto \theta + 4\pi$, and so $f(z)$ is invariant.

The effect of going around the circle is usually called the monodromy, and for the case $f(z) = z^{1/2}$ this is $(-1)^n$.

The monodromy always forms a group. So in this case, the monodromy group is just \mathbb{Z}_2 ,

A point where the monodromy is not 1 is called a branch point

For $f(z) = z^{1/2}$, the origin is a branch point. Around z_0 the function returns to its starting point. This holds for any $z_0 \neq 0$ in the finite complex plane.

Infinity is also a branch point.

$$z \mapsto 1/w, \quad w^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mapsto (\rho')^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{i\theta'}{2}}$$

and so when $\theta \mapsto \theta + 2\pi$, $w^{-1/2}$ changes sign. Therefore $z = \infty$, $w = 0$ is also a branch point.

There is always more than one branch point, so always look at infinity. Branch points represent a failure of analyticity.