
COMPLEX ANALYSIS: A COMPLETE GUIDE

COMPLEX ANALYSIS

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Solo Pursuit of Learning



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Part I

Part 1

Chapter 1

The Complex Plain and Basic Functions

1.1.0 Complex Numbers

The complex numbers, \mathbb{C} , consist of all formul sums $z = x + iy$, for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, where $i^2 = -1$ is the root of $x^2 + 1 = 0$. Then, for multiplication we proceed by $z \cdot w = (a + ib)(x + iy) = (ax - by) + i(xb + ay)$.

Gauss concieved of \mathbb{C} as \mathbb{R}^2 with a binary operation $*$, where $(a, b) * (x, y) = (ax - by, xb + ay)$. Then, we observe that $(1, 0) * (a, b) = (a, b)$, so $(1, 0)$ acts as 1. Moreover, $(0, 1) * (0, 1) = (-1, 0) = -(1, 0)$.

The matrix model of \mathbb{C} is

$$\mathbb{C} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

In terms of extension fields, we can consider \mathbb{C} to be $\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 + 1)$.

Definition 1.1.1. If $z = x + iy$, with $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then we define $\mathcal{R}e(z) = x$ and $\mathcal{I}m(z) = y$.

Definition 1.1.2. If $z = x + iy$, we define the conjugate of z to be $\bar{z} = x - iy$.

Properties 1.1.3. Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$.

- $\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$
- $\overline{zw} = \bar{z} \cdot \bar{w}$
- $\overline{\bar{z}} = z$
- $\bar{z} = 0$ if and only if $z = 0$
- $\mathcal{R}e(z) = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}$
- $\mathcal{I}m(z) = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} = \frac{i(\bar{z} - z)}{2}$

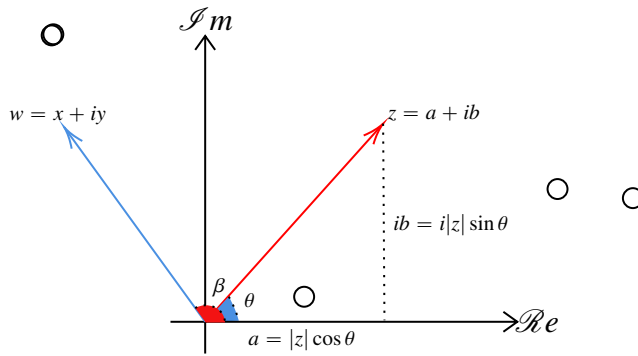
Proposition 1.1.1. *If $z \neq 0$, then $z^{-1} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z\bar{z}}$.*

Definition 1.1.4. *Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then the modulus, $|\cdot|$ of $z = a + ib$ (the norm), is the length of z as a vector:*

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

Geometry of the Complex Numbers

The complex numbers, $\mathbb{C} = \{a + ib : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$, can be considered as a plane of points, or we can consider the complex numbers as vectors in the plane emanating from 0.



Noting this geometric picture, we can write $z = |z| \cos \theta + i|z| \sin \theta = |z|(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$. Suppose we had another complex number $w = |w|(\cos \beta + i \sin \beta)$. Then we observe that

$$\begin{aligned} zw &= |z||w|(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)(\cos \beta + i \sin \beta) \\ &= |zw|(\cos \theta \cos \beta - \sin \theta \sin \beta + i(\sin \theta \cos \beta + \cos \theta \sin \beta)) \\ &= |zw|(\cos(\theta + \beta) + i \sin(\theta + \beta)) \end{aligned}$$

so complex multiplication aligns with angle addition in the plane.

Definition 1.1.5. *Define Euler's Formula*

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

From our above work we have that

$$zw = (|z|e^{i\theta})(|w|e^{i\beta}) = |zw|e^{i(\theta+\beta)}$$

so

$$e^{i\theta} e^{i\beta} = e^{i(\theta+\beta)}$$

The conjugate of $e^{i\theta}$ is

$$\overline{e^{i\theta}} = \overline{\cos \theta + i \sin \theta} = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta = \cos(-\theta) + i \sin(-\theta) = e^{-i\theta}$$

Proposition 1.1.2. $e^{i\theta} = e^{i\beta}$ if and only if $\theta = \beta + 2\pi k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then we have that $e^{i\theta} = e^{-i\theta}$ if and only if $\theta = \pi k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 1.1.6. Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$. The **argument** of $z = |z|e^{i\theta}$ is $\arg(z) = \{\theta + 2\pi k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, and the **principal argument** of z , $\text{Arg}(z) = \theta_0$, where $z = |z|e^{i\theta_0}$ and $\theta_0 \in (-\pi, \pi]$.

Example 1.1.1. Consider $z = -42 - 42i$. Then $|z| = 42\sqrt{2}$, and $\text{Arg}(z) = -\frac{3\pi}{4}$, so $z = 42\sqrt{2}e^{-i\frac{3\pi}{4}}$, and $\arg(z) = -\frac{3\pi}{4} + 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$.

Properties 1.1.7. For $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$, $\arg(zw) = \arg(z) + \arg(w)$, but $\text{Arg}(zw) \neq \text{Arg}(z) + \text{Arg}(w)$.

Theorem 1.1.3 (DeMoivre's Theorem). For all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$(e^{i\theta})^n = e^{in\theta}$$

Proof. We proceed by induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $n = 1$ then $(e^{i\theta})^1 = e^{i1\theta}$, so the base case holds. Now, suppose that the claim holds for some $n \geq 1$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} (e^{i\theta})^{n+1} &= (e^{i\theta})^1 (e^{i\theta})^n \\ &= e^{i\theta} e^{in\theta} && \text{(by I.H)} \\ &= e^{i(\theta+n\theta)} \\ &= e^{i(n+1)\theta} \end{aligned}$$

completing the proof. ■

Definition 1.1.8. Suppose that $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $w, z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $z^n = w$, then z is said to be an n th root of w . Moreover, the set of all n th roots is denoted $w^{1/n} \neq \sqrt[n]{w}$.

Let $z^n = w$, where $z = \rho e^{i\theta}$. Then it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} (\rho e^{i\theta})^n &= w \\ \rho^n e^{in\theta} &= |w| e^{i\text{Arg}(w)} && \text{(by 1.1.3)} \end{aligned}$$

This gives the two equations $\rho^n = |w|$ and $e^{in\theta} = e^{i\text{Arg}(w)}$, so $\rho = \sqrt[n]{|w|}$, and

$$\begin{aligned} n\theta &= \text{Arg}(w) + 2\pi k \\ \theta &= \frac{\text{Arg}(w)}{n} + \frac{2\pi k}{n} \end{aligned}$$

This gives the following result:

Corollary 1.1.4.

$$w^{1/n} = \left\{ \sqrt[n]{|w|} e^{i \frac{\text{Arg}(w)}{n}} e^{i \frac{2\pi k}{n}} : k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

Definition 1.1.9. If $w = 1$, we have that

$$1^{1/n} = \left\{ e^{i \frac{2\pi k}{n}} : k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

These are the n th roots of unity.

Then we observe that for any $w \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$w^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{|w|} e^{i \frac{\text{Arg}(w)}{n}} 1^{1/n}$$

Example 1.1.2. Consider the fourth roots of $81i$, so $(81i)^{1/4}$. Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} (81i)^{1/4} &= \sqrt[4]{81} e^{i \frac{\pi}{8}} 1^{1/4} \\ &= 3e^{i \frac{\pi}{8}} \{1, i, -1, -i\} \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.1.3. Let $w = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{6}\right)$. Then

$$1^{1/6} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z^6 = 1\} = \{w, w^2, w^3, w^4, w^5, w^6 = 1\}$$

Note $w = e^{i\pi/3} = \cos(\pi/3) + i \sin(\pi/3) = \frac{1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$. Now, if we consider the polynomial $f(z) = z^6 - 1$, we now know six roots for this polynomial. Then we can factor

$$f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^6 (z - w^i)$$

In short, to solve $z^n = \rho$, we take the n th roots of ρ , $\rho^{1/n}$.

Example 1.1.4. Consider $z^2 + bz + c = 0$. Then completing the square we obtain $z \in \left\{ \frac{-b + (b^2 - 4c)^{1/2}}{2} \right\}$, where

$$\left(\frac{b^2 - 4c}{2} \right)^{1/2} = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\left| \frac{b^2 - 4c}{2} \right|} & -\sqrt{\left| \frac{b^2 - 4c}{2} \right|} & \text{if } b^2 - 4c \geq 0 \\ \sqrt{\left| \frac{b^2 - 4c}{2} \right|} i & -\sqrt{\left| \frac{b^2 - 4c}{2} \right|} i & \text{if } b^2 - 4c < 0 \end{cases}$$

1.2.0 Local Inverses and Branch-cut

Definition 1.2.1. Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$, then the line segment from z to w is

$$[z, w] = \{z + t(w - z) : 0 \leq t \leq 1\}$$

where we also allow z or w to be plus or minus infinity.

Definition 1.2.2. The **negative slit plane**, \mathbb{C}^- , is defined by $\mathbb{C}^- = \mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$, and the **positive slit plane**, \mathbb{C}^+ , is defined by $\mathbb{C}^+ = \mathbb{C} \setminus [0, \infty)$. In general, we define

$$C^\alpha = \mathbb{C} \setminus [0, e^{i\alpha}\infty)$$

to denote the exclusion of the ray along the α th angle from the positive real axis.

Question 1.2.1. What is a function?

Definition 1.2.3. If $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a function, and $U \subseteq S$, then $f|_U : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is defined by $f|_U(z) = f(z)$ for all $z \in U$.

We may have the case that f is not injective (so it cannot be inverted). But, for a smart choice of U , we may have that $f|_U$ is one-to-one, and hence invertible. Such a restriction is known as a **local inverse** for f .

Rigourously, a **branch cut** is a curve in the complex plane such that it is possible to define a single analytic branch (sheets of a multivalued function) of a multivalued function on the plane minus that curve. That is, a branch is a way of making the multivalued function single valued, and in the context of determining inverses a branch is a choice of inverse.

Example 1.2.1. For $f(z) = z^n$, then for $U = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : -\frac{\pi}{n} < \text{Arg}(z) < \frac{\pi}{n}\}$, $f|_U$ is invertible, and $f|_U^{-1}$ is called the **principal branch**. $f|_U^{-1}$ is a choice of the n th root of $w \in \mathbb{C}^-$.

Definition 1.2.4. The **α -argument** for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is denoted $\text{Arg}_\alpha : \mathbb{C}^\times \rightarrow (\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi)$. In particular, for each $z \in \mathbb{C}^\times$ we define $\text{Arg}_\alpha \in \arg(z)$ such that $z \in (\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi)$

We can give branch cuts for the n th root function which delete the ray at standard angle α . These correspond to local inverse functions $f(z) = z^n$ restricted to $\{z \in \mathbb{C}^\times : \arg(z) = (\alpha/n, (\alpha + 2\pi)/2) + 2\pi\mathbb{Z}\}$.

Square-Root Function

If we have $z^2 = w$, this is equivalent to $(|z|e^{i\theta})^2 = |w|e^{i\beta}$, so $|z|^2 = |w|$ and $e^{i2\theta} = e^{i\beta}$. Then $|z| = \sqrt{|w|}$, and $\theta = \frac{\beta}{2} + \pi k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then our solutions are

$$z = \sqrt{|w|}e^{i(\beta/2 + \pi k)} = \sqrt{|w|}e^{i\beta/2}e^{i\pi k} = \sqrt{|w|}e^{i\beta/2}\cos(\pi k)$$

Thus, in general

$$z = \sqrt{|w|}e^{i\text{Arg}(w)/2}(-1)^k = \pm \sqrt{|w|}e^{i\text{Arg}(w)/2}$$

and

$$w^{1/2} = \{\sqrt{|w|}e^{i\text{Arg}(w)/2}, -\sqrt{|w|}e^{i\text{Arg}(w)/2}\}$$

In general we have

$$w^{1/n} = \{\sqrt[n]{|w|}, \zeta \sqrt[n]{|w|}, \dots, \zeta^{n-1} \sqrt[n]{|w|}\}$$

where $\sqrt[n]{w} = \sqrt[n]{|w|} \exp\left(\frac{i \operatorname{Arg}(w)}{n}\right)$ is the principal root, and $\zeta = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}}$ is an n th root of unity. The principal root is the local inverse for the principal branch $U = \{z : -\pi/n < \operatorname{Arg}(z) < \pi/n\}$.

1.3.0 Complex Exponential

Definition 1.3.1. We define the complex exponential for $z \in \mathbb{C}$ to be

$$e^z = e^{\operatorname{Re}(z)} e^{i \operatorname{Im}(z)} = e^{\operatorname{Re}(z)} (\cos(\operatorname{Im}(z)) + i \sin(\operatorname{Im}(z)))$$

Properties 1.3.2. Let $z = x + iy, w = a + ib \in \mathbb{C}$.

- $e^z e^w = e^{z+w}$
- $|e^{x+iy}| = |e^x| |e^{iy}| = e^x$, which is never zero so the complex exponential is never zero. that is,
- $e^z \neq 0$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.
- $\arg(e^z) = \arg(e^x e^{iy}) = y + 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$.

Failure to Inject

If $e^{z_1} = e^{z_2}$, then $e^{x_1} e^{iy_1} = e^{x_2} e^{iy_2}$, so $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 \in y_2 + 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$. Thus, e^z has a $2\pi i$ -periodicity; $e^z = e^{z+2\pi i k}$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. To make the complex exponential, we must restrict the domain to some horizontal strip of height at most 2π (with endpoints not included). In particular, if we take $U = \{x + iy : -\pi < y < \pi\}$ we obtain the branch \mathbb{C}^- , and branch cut $(-\infty, 0]$. Then, suppose we write $e^z = w = |w| e^{i \operatorname{Arg}(w)}$. Then a solution is $e^x = |w|$, and $y = \operatorname{Arg}(w)$. We can then define

$$\operatorname{Log}(w) = \ln |w| + i \operatorname{Arg}(w) = z = x + iy$$

for $w \in \mathbb{C}^-$, which is the branch cut to the multivalued log

$$\log(z) = \ln |z| + i \arg(z)$$

taking the restriction U in the range.

1.4.0 Sine, Cosine, Cosh, Sinh

Recall $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ and $e^{-i\theta} = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$. Then we have that

$$e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta} = 2 \cos \theta$$

and

$$e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta} = 2i \sin \theta$$

Thus, we can obtain formulas for \sin and \cos , $\theta \in \mathbb{C}$:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2}$$

and

$$\sin \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2i}$$

Then we define:

Definition 1.4.1. We define the complex sine and cosine, $z \in \mathbb{C}$, by

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \quad (1.4.1)$$

and

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} \quad (1.4.2)$$

Observe that

$$e^x = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})}_{\cosh(x)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})}_{\sinh(x)}$$

Definition 1.4.2. We define the complex hyperbolic sine and hyperbolic cosine, $z \in \mathbb{C}$, by

$$\cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2} \quad (1.4.3)$$

and

$$\sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2} \quad (1.4.4)$$

Then we have the identities

$$\cosh z = \cos(iz), \sinh z = -i \sin(iz)$$

and

$$\cos(z) = \cosh(iz), \sin z = -i \sinh(iz)$$

Complex Cosine is Not Bounded

Observe

$$\cos(z) = \cos(x + iy) = \frac{e^{ix-y} + e^{-ix+y}}{2} = \frac{e^{ix}e^{-y} + e^{-ix}e^y}{2}$$

Now, using angle formulas we have

$$\cos(z) = \cos(x + iy)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \cos(x) \cos(iy) - \sin(x) \sin(iy) \\
 &= \cos(x) \cosh(y) - i \sin(x) \sinh(y)
 \end{aligned}$$

so

$$|\cos z|^2 = \cos^2 x \cosh^2 y + \sin^2 x \sinh^2 y = \cos^2 x + \sinh^2 y$$

so as \cosh and \sinh are unbounded, so is complex \cos .

Claim 1.4.1.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cos(z + w) &= \cos(z) \cos(w) - \sin(z) \sin(w) \\
 \sin(z + w) &= \sin(z) \cos(w) + \sin(w) \cos(z)
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cosh(z + w) &= \sinh z \sinh w + \cosh z \cosh w \\
 \sinh(z + w) &= \sinh z \cosh w + \cosh z \sinh w
 \end{aligned}$$

Claim 1.4.2. $\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z = 1$

Proof. First, observe

$$\cos^2 z = \left[\frac{1}{2}(e^{iz} + e^{-iz}) \right]^2 = \frac{1}{4}(e^{2iz} + 2 + e^{-2iz})$$

and

$$\sin^2 z = \left[\frac{1}{2i}(e^{iz} - e^{-iz}) \right]^2 = \frac{-1}{4}(e^{2iz} - 2 + e^{-2iz})$$

Hence, indeed, $\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z = 1$. ■

1.5.0 Power Functions

Definition 1.5.1. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be arbitrary. For $z \in \mathbb{C}^\times$ we define the power function z^α to be the multivalued function

$$z^\alpha = e^{\alpha \log z}$$

Thus, the values of z^α are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 z^\alpha &= e^{\alpha(\log |z| + i \arg(z))} \\
 &= e^{\alpha \operatorname{Log}(z)} e^{2\pi i \alpha m}, m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, the various values of z^α are obtained by multiplying the principal value $e^{\alpha \operatorname{Log}|z|}$ by the integer power of $e^{2\pi i \alpha}$. Consequently, if α is itself an integer $e^{2\pi i \alpha} = 1$, and the power function is single valued and equal to the principal value, $e^{\alpha \operatorname{Log}|z|}$. If $\alpha = 1/n$, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then the factor is precisely the n th roots of unity, and $z^{1/n}$ are the n th roots of unity of z .

It is important to note that the usual algebraic rules do not apply to power functions when they are multivalued.

To have the power function move continuously with z we make the branch cut $[0, \infty)$. Then we define a continuous branch on \mathbb{C}^+ to be

$$w = r^\alpha e^{i\alpha\theta}, \text{ for } z = re^{i\theta}, 0 < \theta < 2\pi$$

At the top edge of the slit, $\theta = 0$, we have the usual power function $r^\alpha = e^{\alpha \text{Log} r}$. At the bottom of the slit, $\theta = 2\pi$, we have the function $r^\alpha e^{2\pi i\alpha}$. For a fixed r , as θ ranges the values of $w = r^\alpha e^{i\alpha\theta}$ move continuously. Thus, the values of this branch of z^α on the bottom edge are $e^{2\pi i\alpha}$ times the values at the top edge. This multiple, $e^{2\pi i\alpha}$, is called the **phase factor** of z^α at $z = 0$.

For any other choice of branch, $w = r^\alpha e^{i\alpha(\theta+2\pi m)}$, the same phase factor is observed.

Lemma 1.5.1 (Phase Change Lemma). *Let $g(z)$ be a single-valued function that is defined and continuous near z_0 . For any continuously varying branch of $(z - z_0)^\alpha$ the function $f(z) = (z - z_0)^\alpha g(z)$ is multiplied by the phase factor $e^{2\pi i\alpha}$ when z traverses a complete circle about z_0 in the positive direction.*

Chapter 2

Analytic Functions

Chapter 3

Line Integrals and Harmonic Functions

Chapter 4

Complex Integration and Analyticity

Chapter 5

Power Series

Chapter 6

Laurent Series and Isolated Singularities

Chapter 7

The Residue Calculus

Part II

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Appendices