

Complex Analysis

Kexing Ying

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1 Complex Numbers

We recall some properties about the complex numbers \mathbb{C} .

From **Analysis II** we recall the topological properties of \mathbb{R}^2 . As there exists a natural homeomorphism from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{C} , we conclude that the complex numbers also has these properties.

Proposition 1. The set of complex numbers \mathbb{C} forms a metric space with the induced metric from the Pythagorean norm, that is, the metric

$$d : \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : (z, w) \mapsto |z - w|.$$

Proof. One can trivially show that the Pythagorean norm is a norm on \mathbb{C} , and hence, the induced metric is a metric on \mathbb{C} . \square

Theorem 1. The complex numbers equipped with the distance as defined above is Lipschitz equivalent to \mathbb{R}^2 equipped with Euclidean metric; so, they are also homeomorphic.

Proof. Trivial. \square

Corollary 1.1. The complex numbers is complete and a subset of \mathbb{C} is compact if and only if \mathbb{C} is closed and bounded.

Proof. Follows from the Heine-Borel theorem and the fact that \mathbb{R}^2 is complete. \square

Certain definitions are also induced for the complex numbers by the fact that it is a metric space. We shall define them here again for referencing.

Definition 1.1. An open disk (ball) in \mathbb{C} centred at $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ with radius $r > 0$ is the set

$$D_r(z_0) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - z_0| < r\}.$$

The boundary of a disk is the set

$$C_r(z_0) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - z_0| = r\}.$$

Lastly, we write $\mathbb{D} := D_1(0)$ for shorthand.

Definition 1.2. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ and $z_0 \in S$. We call z_0 an interior point of S if and only if there exists some $r > 0$ such that $D_r(z_0) \subseteq S$. We call the set of interior points of S , S° – the interior of S and we call S open if and only if every element of S is an interior point of S , i.e. $S = S^\circ$.

We see that the above definition for open is equivalent to that which is induced by the metric space.

Definition 1.3. Let S be a subset of \mathbb{C} , then

- S is closed if and only if S^c is open, or, equivalently, S is closed if and only if for all convergent sequences $(x_n) \subseteq S$, (x_n) converges in S .

- the closure of S , \overline{S} is the smallest closed set containing S , or equivalently, the union of S and its limit points.
- the boundary of S is defined to be $\partial S = \overline{S} \setminus S^\circ$.
- if S is bounded, then the diameter of S is

$$\text{diam}(S) = \sup_{z, w \in S} |z - w|.$$

- S is (path) connected if and only if for all $z, w \in S$, there exists some continuous function $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow S$ such that $\gamma(0) = z$ and $\gamma(1) = w$.

We remark that there is no confusion regarding the definition of connectedness in \mathbb{C} since path-connectedness is a stronger notion than connectedness in arbitrary topological spaces while in \mathbb{R}^n , open sets are path-connected if they are connected, and so, by traversing the homeomorphism, an open set $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is connected if and only if it is path-connected.

As \mathbb{C} is complete the following proposition follows as compact sets in \mathbb{C} are closed and bounded.

Proposition 2. Let (S_n) be a sequence of non-empty decreasing subsets of \mathbb{C} such that $\text{diam}(S_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then there exists a unique point $w \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $w \in \bigcap_n S_n$.

Proof. This result was previously proved for closed and bounded sets in arbitrary complete metric spaces and so, this result follows as an application of that. \square

For good measure, let us also recall some lemmas from school regarding algebraic manipulations of the complex numbers.

Theorem 2. Let $z_1 = r_1(\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1)$ and let $z_2 = r_2(\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2)$, then

$$z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)).$$

Corollary 2.1 (De Moivre's Formula). Let $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$, then

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

We note that the above implies $\arg z_1 + \arg z_2 = \arg z_1 z_2$ but it is in general **not** true that $\text{Arg } z_1 + \text{Arg } z_2 = \text{Arg } z_1 z_2$ where $\text{Arg } z$ denote the principle argument of z .

2 Complex Functions

As with all spaces, we would like to study the properties of mappings between the complex numbers.

Definition 2.1 (Mapping). Let $\Omega_1, \Omega_2 \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. Then,

$$f : \Omega_1 \rightarrow \Omega_2$$

is said to be a mapping from Ω_1 to Ω_2 if for any $z = x + iy \in \Omega_1$, there exists only one complex number $w = u + iv$ such that $w = f(z)$.

In this case, we denote $w = f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$.

We define a special mapping – the Möbius transformation.

Definition 2.2 (The Möbius Transformation). The Möbius transformation is a mapping such that

$$w = f(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d},$$

for some $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$ where $cz + d \neq 0$ on the domain.

As the complex plane is a metric space, we again have the induces notion of continuity.

Definition 2.3 (Continuity). Let $f : \Omega_1 \rightarrow \Omega_2$ be some complex mapping and let $z_0 \in \Omega_1$. We say f is continuous at z_0 if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists some $\delta > 0$ such that for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $|z - z_0| < \delta$, we have $|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon$.

We say f is continuous on Ω_1 if it is continuous at every point in Ω_1 .

Since the complex plane is homeomorphic to the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^2 , one might think to establish a notion of derivative on \mathbb{C} . This is achieved, however, not through the definition on general Euclidean spaces, but through another definition.

Definition 2.4 (Holomorphic). Let $\Omega_1, \Omega_2 \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be open sets and let $f : \Omega_1 \rightarrow \Omega_2$. Then we say f is holomorphic (differentiable) at some $z_0 \in \Omega_1$ if the limit

$$\lim_{h \in \mathbb{C} \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h}$$

exists. Here we restricts $z_0 + h \in \Omega_1$ which is fine since Ω_1 is open, and hence, there exists some $\delta > 0$ such that $B_\delta(z_0) \subseteq \Omega_1$. If f is holomorphic at z_0 then we call the quotient its derivative and denote it by $f'(z_0)$.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be some complex set, then, we say f is holomorphic on S if

- S is open and f is holomorphic on every point of S ;
- S is closed and f is holomorphic on some open set containing S .

If f is holomorphic on \mathbb{C} itself then we say f is entire.

We note that we are allowed to make this definition as there exists a notion of division on \mathbb{C} while the same cannot be said for general Euclidean spaces.

The function $f(z) = \bar{z}$ is not holomorphic. Indeed, the quotient

$$\frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h} = \frac{\bar{h}}{h}$$

does not have a limit as $h \rightarrow 0$ and so our claim.

Proposition 3. A function f is holomorphic at $z_0 \in \Omega$ if and only if there exists a complex number a such that

$$f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0) - ah = o(h),$$

or equivalently (without the syntactic sugar),

$$f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0) - ah = h\psi(h)$$

where $\psi : D_\epsilon(0) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a function such that $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \psi(h) = 0$ for some $\epsilon > 0$.

Proof. Straight away, by dividing both side by h , we have

$$\frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h} - a = \psi(h) \rightarrow 0$$

as $h \rightarrow 0$. □

By taking $h \rightarrow 0$ on both sides of the equation, we have $f(z) \rightarrow f(z_0)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ and so, the following corollary.

Corollary 2.2. A holomorphic function f is continuous.

As one might imagine, the normal properties of derivatives hold for this definition as well.

Proposition 4. If f, g are holomorphic in Ω then,

- $f + g$ is holomorphic in Ω and $(f + g)' = f' + g'$;
- fg is holomorphic in Ω and $(fg)' = f'g + fg'$;
- if $g(z_0) \neq 0$, then f/g is holomorphic at z_0 and $(f/g)' = \frac{f'g + fg'}{g^2}$;

Moreover, if $f : \Omega \rightarrow U$ and $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ are both holomorphic, the chain rule holds, that is

$$(g \circ f)'(z) = g'(f(z))f'(z).$$

Proof. Omitted. One can use the above proposition to make life easier. □

2.1 Cauchy-Riemann Equations

Consider the limit

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{h=h_1+ih_2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0+h) - f(z_0)}{h}.$$

Assuming that $h = h_1$, namely $h_2 = 0$ and by writing,

$$f(z_0) = f(x_0 + iy_0) = u(x_0, y_0) + iv(x_0, y_0),$$

we have,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(z_0) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0+h) - f(z_0)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h_1 \in \mathbb{R} \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x_0 + h_1, y_0) + iv(x_0 + h_1, y_0) - u(x_0, y_0) - iv(x_0, y_0)}{h_1} \\ &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) = u'_x(x_0, y_0) + iv'_x(x_0, y_0). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, if we let $g = ih_2$ by letting $h_1 = 0$, we have

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) = -iu'_y(x_0, y_0) + v'_y(x_0, y_0).$$

So, if f is holomorphic at z_0 , then the two limit should agree, and hence

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}.$$

These two equations together are called the *Cauchy-Riemann equations*.

Definition 2.5 (Cauchy-Riemann Equations). Let $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ be a mapping, then the Cauchy-Riemann equations are the system of equations

$$u'_x = v'_y; \quad u'_y = -v'_x.$$

With the Cauchy-Riemann equations, we have a necessary condition for a function to be holomorphic. As shown above, we have found that the conjugate function $f = z \mapsto \bar{z}$ is not holomorphic, and we see that as well with its Cauchy-Riemann equations since $u'_x = 1 \neq -1 = v'_y$.

The Cauchy-Riemann equations links real and complex analysis in some sense. By defining the operators

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right); \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right),$$

we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3. Let $f = u + iv$. If f is holomorphic at z_0 , then

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}}(z_0) = 0,$$

and

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(z_0) = 2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}(z_0).$$

Proof. Trivially follows by using the Cauchy-Riemann equations (except perhaps for showing $f'(z_0) = \partial u / \partial z$ which follows since we can write $f'(z_0) = u'_x(z_0) + i v'_x(z_0)$ and so, the result follows by rewriting with the Cauchy-Riemann equations). \square

Similar to the necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of derivatives for general Euclidean spaces, we would like a similar theorem for determining whether or not a complex valued function is holomorphic. This is achieved with the following theorem.

Theorem 4. Suppose $f = u + iv$ is a complex-valued function defined on some open set Ω . If u, v are continuously differentiable and satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations on Ω , then f is holomorphic on Ω and

$$f'(z) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(z).$$