0.1 Complex Numbers and the Complex Plane

0.1.1 Review of Complex Numbers

- A complex number takes the form z = x + iy where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and that $i^2 = -1$. We denote this set of numbers as \mathbb{C} .
- The **real** and **imaginary** part of z is defined as follows:

$$x = \Re(z)$$
 and $y = \Im(z)$.

- Real numbers like x have $\Im(x) = 0$, while numbers like y have $\Re(y) = 0$. In other words, y is said to be **purely imaginary**.
- Each complex number can be represented as a point in \mathbb{R}^2 with the x- axis representing the **real axis** and the y-axis representing the **imaginary axis**.
- The operations that are used with complex numbers works similarly to how we would treat real numbers; that is, they follow commutativity, associativity, and distributivity.
- The addition of two complex numbers works like adding two corresponding vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 where you add up each component.
- Multiplication of complex numbers produces a rotation (around the unit circle) and a dilation of said vector. This is seen using the polar form of a complex number.

0.1.2 Notion of Length and Inequalities

• The notion of length in \mathbb{R}^2 is also similar to the complex plane. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, we can see that the **absolute value** of a complex number z = x + iy is

$$|z| = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}.$$

This is the distance from the origin to the point (x, y).

• Like in \mathbb{R} , the triangle inequality for \mathbb{C} also holds:

$$|z+w| \le |z| + |w|$$
 for all $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$.

• Some other inequalities in C include:

$$|\Re(z)| \le |z|$$
 and $|\Im(z)| \le |z|$.

Furthermore, the reverse triangle inequality holds:

$$||z| - |w|| \le |z - w|.$$

• The **complex conjugate** of z = x + iy is defined by

$$\overline{z} = x - iy$$
.

Geometrically, this is seen as a reflection of z over the real axis.

• Furthermore, we say that $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is a real number if and only if $z = \overline{z}$. On the other hand, we say that $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is purely imaginary if and only if $z = -\overline{z}$.

0.1.3 Other Properties and Polar Form

• On top of defining our real and imaginary parts of a complex number, it should be straightforward to prove that

$$\Re(z) = \frac{z + \overline{z}}{2}$$
 and $\Im(z) = \frac{z - \overline{z}}{2i}$.

• We also see that $|z|^2 = z\overline{z}$ implies that

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{\overline{z}}{|z|^2}$$

whenever $z \neq 0$.

• The **polar form** of $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is

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

for r > 0 and $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$. We denote θ as the **argument** of z; that is, $\theta = \arg(z)$. Note that θ is defined uniquely up to a multiple of 2π .

• Recall that

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

and that $|e^{i\theta}| = 1$ as well as r = |z|.

• Finally, with these properties, we can see that multiplying $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ results in

$$zw = rse^{i(\theta + \varphi)}$$

where $z = re^{i\theta}$ and $w = se^{i\varphi}$. The rs is corresponds to the dialation of zw and $\theta + \varphi$ corresponds to a rotation.

0.1.4 Convergence

Definition 0.1.1 (Convergence in \mathbb{C}). A sequence $(z_n) \subset \mathbb{C}$ is said to **converge** to $w \in \mathbb{C}$ if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} |z_n - w| = 0$$

and we write

$$w = \lim_{n \to \infty} z_n.$$

The two formulae above are equivalent to each other.

- In other words, (z_n) converges to w if and only if the corresponding sequence of points in the complex plane converges to the point that corresponds to w.
- We can check that $(z_n) \to w$ if and only if for w = a + bi, we have $(a_n) \to a$ and $(b_n) \to b$; that is, the real and imaginary parts of the sequence of complex numbers converges, respectively.

Definition 0.1.2 (Cauchy Sequence). A sequence (z_n) is said to be a Cauchy sequence if

$$|z_n - z_m| \to 0$$

as $n, m \to \infty$.

- In other words, given any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists an integer N > 0 such that $|z_n z_m| < \varepsilon$ whenever n, m > N.
- Similarly to how \mathbb{R} is complete and how all $z \in \mathbb{C}$ are made up of a tuple of real numbers in \mathbb{R}^2 , we see that if (z_n) is Cauchy, then every Cauchy complex sequence converges to a limit that is in \mathbb{C} .

Theorem 0.1.1. The set of complex numbers $\mathbb C$ is complete.

0.1.5 Sets in the complex plane

• If $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and r > 0, we denote the **open disc** $D_r(z_0)$ **of radius** r **centered at** z_0 to be the set

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

• If $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and r > 0, we denote the closed disc $\overline{D_r}(z_0)$ of radius r centered at z_0 to be the set

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

• The **boundary** of either a closed disc or an open disc is given by the set

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

• We denote the **unit disc** as the set

$$\mathbf{D} = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1 \}.$$

• Given a set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$, a point $z_0 \in \Omega$ is called an **interior point** of Ω if there exists r > 0 such that

$$D_r(z_0) \subset \Omega$$
.

- A set Ω is **open** if every point in that set is an interior point of Ω .
- A point $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is said to be a **limit point** of the set Ω if there exists a sequence of points $z_n \in \Omega$ such that $z_n \neq z$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} z_n = z$.
- The **boundary** of a set Ω is equal to its closure minus its interior, and is often denoted by $\partial\Omega$.
- A set Ω is **bounded** if there exists M > 0 such that |z| < M whenever $z \in \Omega$; that is, Ω is contained in some large disc.
- If Ω is bounded, we define its **diameter** by

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

• A set Ω is said to be **compact** if it is closed and bounded.

Theorem 0.1.2. The set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is compact if and only if every sequence $\{z_n\} \subset \Omega$ has a subsequence that converges to a point in Ω .

Theorem 0.1.3. A set Ω is compact if and only if every open covering of Ω contains a finite subcovering.

The next result will be used to prove Goursat's Theorem (in our study of complex function theory) in a later section.

Proposition 0.1.1. If $\Omega_1 \supset \Omega_2 \supset \cdots \supset \Omega_n \supset \cdots$ is a sequence of non-empty compact sets in \mathbb{C} with the property that

$$\operatorname{diam}(\Omega_n) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$

there exists a unique point $w \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $w \in \Omega_n$ for all n.

Proof. Choose a point $z_n \in \Omega_n$ for each n. Since we have sequence of non-empty compact sets in \mathbb{C} such that $\dim(\Omega_n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, we have that (z_n) is Cauchy. Thus, $(z_n) \to w$ and that $w \in \Omega_n$ since each Ω_n for all n is closed. To prove uniqueness, suppose w' is another point that satisfies the same properties as w such that $w \neq w'$. Then this would violate our assumption that $\dim(\Omega_n) \to 0$ because we would have |w - w'| > 0. Thus, we must have w = w', proving that w is unique.

• We say that an open set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is **connected** if it is not possible to find two disjoint non-empty open sets Ω_1 and Ω_2 such that

$$\Omega = \Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2$$
.

- A connected open set in \mathbb{C} is called a **region**.
- A closed set F is connected if one cannot write $F = F_1 \cup F_2$ where F_1 and F_2 are disjoint non-empty closed sets.

0.1.6 Functions on the Complex plane

Continuous Functions

Definition 0.1.3 (Continuity). Let f be a function defined on a set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$. We say that f is **continuous** at the point $z_0 \in \Omega$ if for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that whenever $z \in \Omega$ and $|z - z_0| < \delta$, then

$$|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon$$
.

Definition 0.1.4 (Sequential Definition of Continuity). The function f is said to be continuous on Ω if for every $(z_n) \subset \Omega$ such that $\lim z_n = z_0$, then $\lim f(z_n) = f(z_0)$.

- Recall that sums of continuous and products of continuous functions are continuous.
- A complex function is continuous if and only if the corresponding real and imaginary parts
 of f is continuous.

Definition 0.1.5 (Maximums/Minimums of Complex Functions). We say that f attains a **maximum** at the point $z_0 \in \Omega$ if

$$|f(z)| \le |f(z_0)|$$
 for all $z \in \Omega$,

with the inequality reversed for the definition of a **minimum**.

Theorem 0.1.4 (Continuous Functions on Compact Sets). A continuous function on a compact set Ω is bounded and attains a maximum and minimum on Ω .

0.1.7 Holomorphic Functions

Definition 0.1.6 (Holomorphic at a point). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ be an open set and f is a complex-valued function on Ω . The function f is **holomorphic at the point** $z_0 \in \Omega$ if the quotient

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

converges to a limit when $h \to 0$. When this limit exists, we denote

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

as the derivative of f at z_0 .

Note that we're assuming that $h \in \mathbb{C}$ and that $h \neq 0$ with $z_0 + h \in \Omega$, so that the quotient is well-defined.

Note that h is a complex number that may approach 0 from any direction.

Definition 0.1.7 (Holomorphic on a subset of \mathbb{C}). \bullet The function f is said to be holomorphic on Ω if f is holomorphic at every point of Ω .

- If C is a closed subset of \mathbb{C} , we say that f holomorphic on \mathbb{C} .
- If C is an open subset, then we say f is **entire**.
- Holomorphic functions have nicer properties than differentiable functions of real variable.
- Differentiability of complex functions imply infinite differentiability.
- Every holomorphic function is analytic; that is, we can power series expansion at every point.
- This is much nicer than real-valued functions, which often have more restrictive properties.

Proposition 0.1.2. A function f is holomorphic at $z_0 \in \Omega$ if and only if there exists $a \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

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

where ψ is a function defined for all h and $\lim_{h\to 0} \psi(h) = 0$.

Proposition 0.1.3. If f and g are holomorphic in Ω , then:

- (i) f + g is holomorphic in Ω and (f + g)' = f' + g'.
- (ii) fg is hoolomorphic in Ω and (fg)' = f'g + fg'.

(iii) 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 $f:\Omega\to U$ and $g:U\to\mathbb{C}$ are holomorphic, the chain rule holds

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

Complex-valued Functions as Mappings

- Notion of complex differentiability is significantly more different than real differentiability of two variables.
- The existence of the real derivative does not necessarily guarantee that f will be holomorphic.

Proposition 0.1.4. If f is holomorphic at z_0 , then

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \overline{z}}(z_0) = 0$$
 and $f'(z_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(z_0) = 2\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}(z_0)$.

Also, if we write F(x,y) = f(z), then F is differentiable in the sense of real variables, and

$$\det J_F(x_0, y_0) = |f'(z_0)|^2.$$

Integration along Curves

Definition 0.1.8 (Parametrization). • We call a **parametrized curve** as a function z(t) that maps a closed interval $[a,b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ to \mathbb{C}^2 .

- We say that a parametrized curve is **smooth** if z'(t) exists and is continuous on [a, b], and $z'(t) \neq 0$ for $t \in [a, b]$.
- At the endpoints t = a and t = b, the quantities z'(a) and z'(b) are **left-handed** derivative/right-handed derivative; that is,

$$z'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{z(a+h) - z(a)}{h}$$
 and $z'(b) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{z(b+h) - z(b)}{h}$

with the limit in z'(a) approaching for values h > 0 and the limit in z'(b) approaching for values h < 0.

• We say that the parametrized curve is **piecewise-smooth** if z is continuous on [a, b], and if there exists points

$$a = a_0 < a_1 < \dots < a_n = b$$
,

where z(t) is smooth in the intervals $[a_k, a_{k+1}]$.

Definition 0.1.9. • The family of parametrizations that are equivalent to z(t) determines a **smooth curve** $\gamma \subset \mathbb{C}$; that is, the image of [a, b] under z with the orientation given by z as t travels from a to b.

- The points z(a) and z(b) are called the **end-points** of the curve and are independent on the parametrization. Since γ carries an orientation, it is natural to say that γ begins at z(a) and ends at z(b).
- We call a smooth or piecewise-smooth curve **closed** if z(a) and z(b) for any parametrization.
- We call a piecewise-smooth curve **simple** if it is **NOT** self-intersecting; that is, $z(t) \neq z(t)$ unless s = t.
- We call curves that are closed to begin with simple whenever $z(t) \neq z(s)$ unless s = t or that s = a and t = b.
- The endpoints of a curve are independent of parametrization.
- We will call any piecewise-smooth curve as a **curve**.

Definition 0.1.10 (Orientation). • The **positive orientation** (counterclockwise) is the one that is given by the standard parametrization

$$z(t) = z_0 + re^{it}$$
, where $t \in [0, 2\pi]$.

• On the other hand, the **negative orientation** (clockwise) is give by

$$z(t) = z_0 + re^{-it}$$
, where $t \in [0, 2\pi]$.

Proposition 0.1.5. Integration of continuous functions over curves satisfies the following properties:

(i) It is linear, that is, if $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$, then

$$\int_{\gamma} (\alpha f(z) + \beta g(z)) \ dz = \alpha \int_{\gamma} f(z) \ dz + \beta \int_{\gamma} g(z) \ dz.$$

(ii) If γ^- is γ with the reverse orientation, then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) \ dz = -\int_{\gamma^{-}} f(z) \ dz.$$

(iii) One has the inequality

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) \ dz \right| \le \sup_{z \in \gamma} |f(z)| \cdot \operatorname{length}(\gamma).$$

0.1.8 Exercises

1. Suppose U and V are open sets in the complex plane. Prove that if $f:U\to V$ and $g:V\to\mathbb{C}$ are two functions that are differentiable (in the real sense, that is, as functions of the two real variables x and y), and $h=g\circ f$, then

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial z} \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial \overline{z}} \frac{\partial \overline{f}}{\partial z}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial \overline{z}} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial z} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \overline{z}} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial \overline{z}} \frac{\partial \overline{f}}{\partial \overline{z}}.$$

This is the complex version of the chain rule.

Proof.

2. Show that in polar coordinates, the Cauchy-Riemann equations take the form

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta}$$
 and $\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial r}$.

Use these equations to show that the logarithm function defined by

$$\log z = \log r + i\theta$$
 where $z = re^{i\theta}$ with $-\pi < \theta < \pi$

is holomorphic in the region r > 0 and $-\pi < \theta < \pi$.

Proof. Note that we have f = u + iv and that $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$. Note that

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} = \cos \theta$$
 and $\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} = \sin \theta$

and

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} = -r \sin \theta$$
 and $\frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} = r \cos \theta$.

Using the partial chain rule for real valued functions and using the Cauchy-Riemann equations, we can see that

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \\ &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \sin \theta \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \Big(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} r \cos \theta - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} r \sin \theta \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \Big(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} \end{split}$$

which proves our first equation. Similarly, we have

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{r}\Big(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta}\Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{r}\Big(-\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}r\sin\theta + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}r\cos\theta\Big) \\ &= -\frac{1}{r}\Big(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}r\sin\theta\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}r\cos\theta\Big) \\ &= -\Big(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial r}\Big) \\ &= -\frac{\partial v}{\partial r}. \end{split}$$

3. Show that

$$4\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}} = 4\frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}}\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \Delta$$

where Δ is the **Laplacian**

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}.$$

Proof. Note that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right).$$

Thus, we have

$$\begin{split} 4\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}} &= \Big(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{i}\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\Big)\Big(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{i}\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\Big) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{i^2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \\ &= \Delta. \end{split}$$

Similarly, we can derive the same result with $4\frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}}\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$. Thus, we have

$$4\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}} = 4\frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}}\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \Delta$$

4. Use Exercise 10 to prove that if f is holomorphic in the open set Ω , then the real and imaginary parts of f are **harmonic**; that is, their Laplacian is zero.

Proof. To show that the real and imaginary parts of f are **harmonic**, we need to show that

$$\Delta u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

and

$$\Delta v = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

where u and v are the real and imaginary parts of f, respectively. Since f is holomorphic in the open set Ω , then the Cauchy-Riemann equations must hold; that is,

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

Thus, using Clairaut's Theorem we can see that

$$\Delta u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$
$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(-\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)$$
$$= \frac{\partial v^2}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial v^2}{\partial y \partial x}$$
$$= 0.$$

By a similar argument, we have that

$$\Delta v = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} = -\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial x} = 0.$$

Thus, the real and imaginary parts of f are harmonic.

5. Consider the function defined by

$$f(x+iy) = \sqrt{|x||y|}$$
, whenever $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Show that f satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations at the origin, yet f is not holomorphic at 0.

Proof.

- 6. Suppose that f is holomorphic in an open set Ω . Prove that in any one of the following cases:
 - (a) $\Re(f)$ is constant;
 - (b) $\Im(F)$ is constant;
 - (c) |f| is constant;

one can conclude that f is constant.

Proof.