The background image is an aerial photograph of a dense urban skyline, likely Pittsburgh, featuring numerous skyscrapers of varying heights and architectural styles. In the foreground, a wide river flows through the city, with several boats visible on the water. A bridge spans the river across the middle ground. The overall scene is a mix of industrial and residential/commercial architecture.

MAT389H1 Fall 2024

Complex Analysis

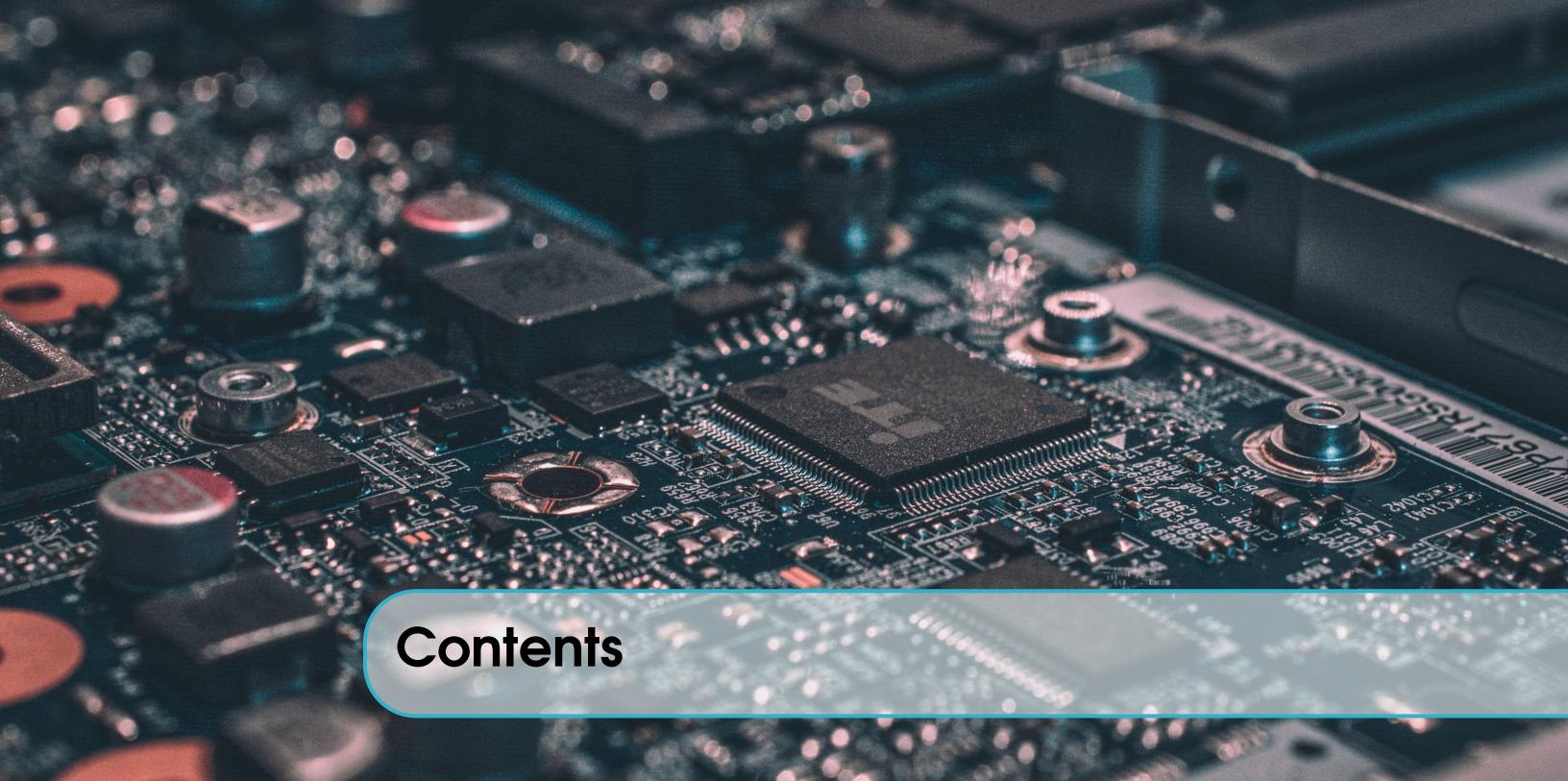
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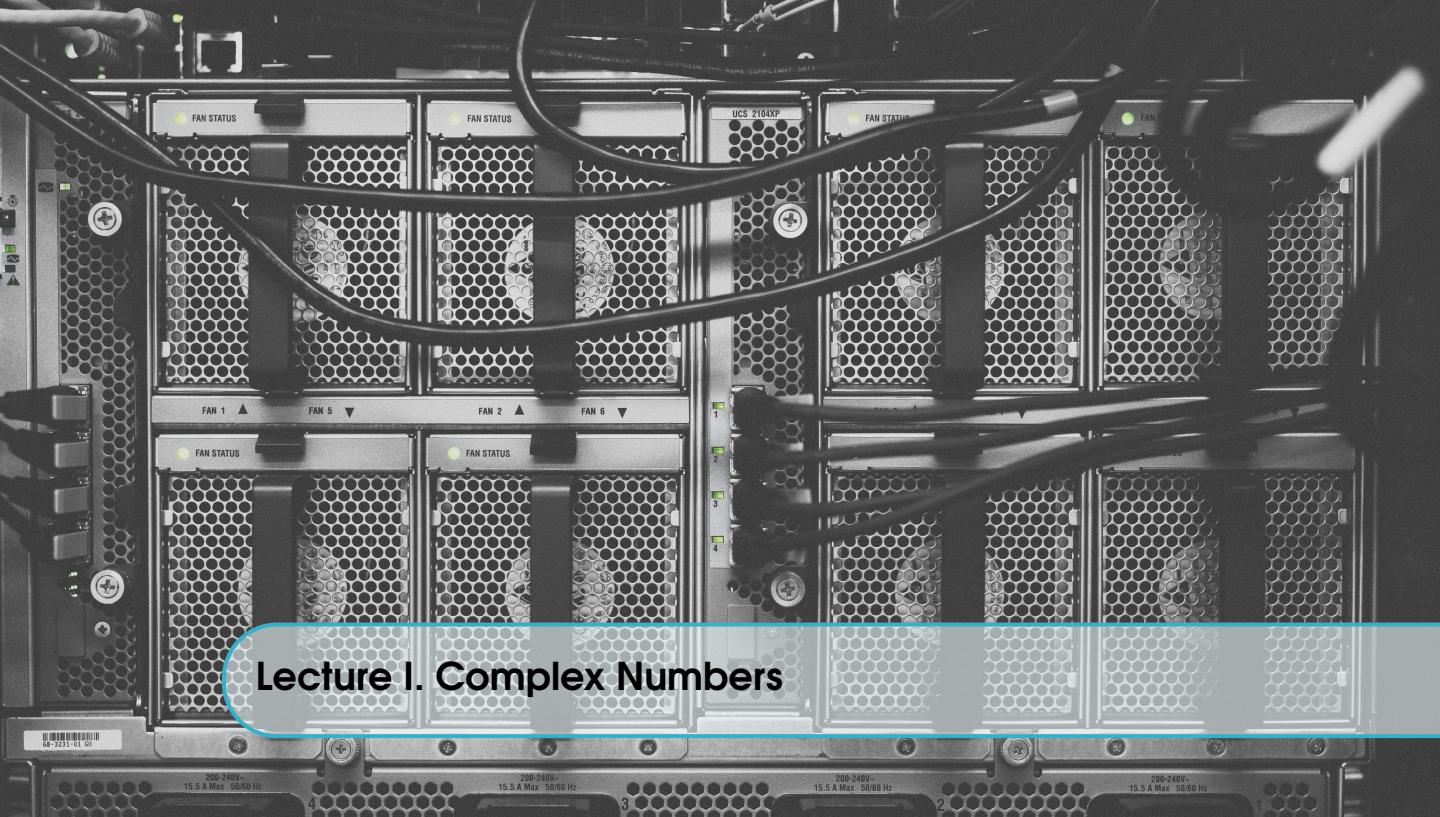
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I.I Introduction

Definition I.I.I — Complex Numbers. z is a complex number iff $z = a + bi$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $i^2 = -1$.

The set of complex numbers is denoted by \mathbb{C} .

Definition I.I.II — Real and Imaginary Parts. If $z = a + bi$, then $\Re(z) = a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\Im(z) = b \in \mathbb{R}$, where $\Re(z)$ is the real part of z and $\Im(z)$ is the imaginary part of z .

Definition I.I.III — Modulus. If $z = a + bi$, then $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$. $|z|$ is the modulus of z .

Definition I.I.IV — Conjugate. If $z = a + bi$, then $\bar{z} = a - bi$. \bar{z} is the conjugate of z .

I.II Operations

Definition I.II.I — Addition and Subtraction. If $z_1 = a_1 + b_1i$ and $z_2 = a_2 + b_2i$, then $z_1 + z_2 = (a_1 + a_2) + (b_1 + b_2)i$.

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

Definition I.II.II — Multiplication. If $z_1 = a_1 + b_1i$ and $z_2 = a_2 + b_2i$, then $z_1 \cdot z_2 = (a_1a_2 - b_1b_2) + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)i$.

Note that $|z_1 \cdot z_2| = |z_1| \cdot |z_2|$.

Definition I.II.III — Inversion. If $z = a + bi$, then $z^{-1} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2} = \frac{a}{a^2+b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2+b^2}i$.

Proof. Let's multiply by 1 in the form of the conjugate of z :

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{z} \times \frac{\bar{z}}{\bar{z}} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z\bar{z}} = \frac{a - bi}{(a + bi)(a - bi)} = \frac{a - bi}{a^2 + b^2} = \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}i$$



Definition I.II.IV — Division. For $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$, $\frac{w}{z} = w \cdot z^{-1} = \frac{w\bar{z}}{|z|^2}$.

Table I.I: Properties of the Complex Conjugate

Property	Description
Conjugate of the Sum	$\overline{z_1 + z_2} = \overline{z_1} + \overline{z_2}$
Conjugate Modulus	$z \cdot \bar{z} = z ^2$
Conjugate of a Conjugate	$\overline{\bar{z}} = z$
Product of Conjugates	$\overline{z_1 \cdot z_2} = \overline{z_1} \cdot \overline{z_2}$
Conjugate of a Quotient	$\overline{\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right)} = \frac{\overline{z_1}}{\overline{z_2}}$
Real Part Conjugate	$Re(z) = \frac{z+\bar{z}}{2}$
Imaginary Part Conjugate	$Im(z) = \frac{z-\bar{z}}{2i}$
Real Number Check	$z = \bar{z} \iff z \in \mathbb{R}$
Imaginary Number Check	$z = -\bar{z} \iff z \in \mathbb{I}$
Function Linearity	If $\alpha = f(z)$ then $\overline{\alpha} = \overline{f(z)} = f(\bar{z})$

Table I.II: Properties of the Modulus in Complex Numbers

Property	Description
Positivity	$ z \geq 0$, with equality if and only if $z = 0$
Triangle Inequality	$ z_1 - z_2 \leq z_1 \pm z_2 \leq z_1 + z_2 $
Multiplicative Property	$ z_1 \cdot z_2 = z_1 \cdot z_2 $
Division Property	$\left \frac{z_1}{z_2}\right = \frac{ z_1 }{ z_2 }$, for $z_2 \neq 0$
Conjugate	$ z = \bar{z} $
Component Property	$- z \leq Re(z) \leq z $ $- z \leq Im(z) \leq z $
Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality	$ z_1 w_1 + \dots + z_n w_n ^2 \leq \sum_{j=1}^n z_j ^2 \sum_{j=1}^n w_j ^2$

Proof. Proof of the Multiplicative Property of the Modulus:

$$\begin{aligned} |z_1 \cdot z_2|^2 &= (z_1 \cdot z_2) \cdot (\bar{z}_1 \cdot \bar{z}_2) \\ &= z_1 \cdot \bar{z}_1 \cdot z_2 \cdot \bar{z}_2 \\ &= |z_1|^2 \cdot |z_2|^2 \end{aligned}$$

■

I.III Polar Representation

A complex number are vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 , as such, they can be represented by a magnitude and a direction.

Definition I.III.I — Polar Form.

$$z = r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta)) \quad (\text{I.I})$$

$|z| = r \in \mathbb{R}^+$

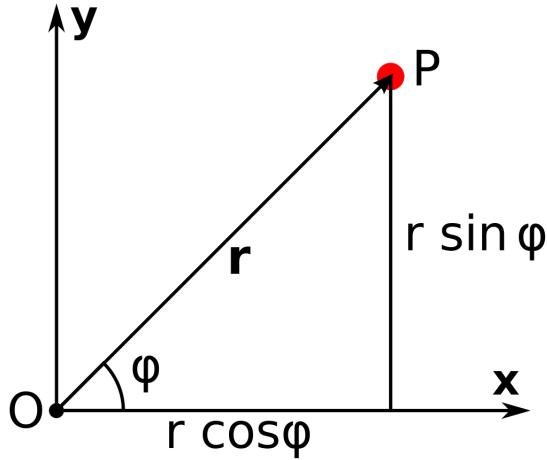


Figure Lecture I.1: Polar Coordinate Components

■ **Example I.I — Multiplying Complex Numbers in Polar Form.** Let $z_1 = r_1(\cos(\theta_1) + i \sin(\theta_1))$ and $z_2 = r_2(\cos(\theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_2))$. Then:

$$z_1 \cdot z_2 = r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1) \cos(\theta_2) - \sin(\theta_1) \sin(\theta_2) + i(\cos(\theta_1) \sin(\theta_2) + \sin(\theta_1) \cos(\theta_2))) \quad (\text{I.II})$$

$$= r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)) \quad (\text{I.III})$$

Using the trig addition formula:

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos(\alpha) \cos(\beta) - \sin(\alpha) \sin(\beta) \text{ and } \sin(\alpha + \beta) = \cos(\alpha) \sin(\beta) + \sin(\alpha) \cos(\beta).$$

■

Theorem I.III.I — De Moivre's Theorem. if $z = r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$

$$z^n = r^n(\cos(\theta n) + i \sin(\theta n)) \quad (\text{I.IV})$$

Proof. The following proof will illustrate the steps to inductive reasoning

Case of $n = 1$: $z^n = r^n(\cos(\theta n) + i \sin(\theta n)) = z = r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$

This is true by definition.

Assume that:

$$z^{n-1} = r^{n-1}(\cos(\theta(n-1)) + i \sin(\theta(n-1)))$$

Then from Equation (I.III) we can verify:

$$\begin{aligned} z z^{n-1} &= r r^{n-1}(\cos(\theta(n-1) + \theta) + i \sin(\theta(n-1) + \theta)) \\ z^n &= r^n(\cos(\theta n) + i \sin(\theta n)) \end{aligned}$$

■

Definition I.III.II — Argument. The argument of a complex number $z = r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$ is any angle, $\arg(z) = \theta$, such that $z = r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$.

From Equation (I.I), we observe that r is unique (because we constrained it to just positive values). θ , however, is not unique.

Definition I.III.III — Principle Orientation. We say θ is the principle orientation of z if $\theta \in [-\pi, \pi)$

In this range, θ is unique.

Definition I.III.IV — Vector Dot Product. The dot product of two complex numbers $z = x + iy$ and $w = s + it$ is defined as:

$$z \cdot w = x \cdot s + y \cdot t = \Re(z\bar{w}) \quad (\text{I.V})$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{a \cdot b}{|a||b|} \quad (\text{I.VI})$$

Corollary I.III.II — Perpendicular Vectors. Complex variables z and w are perpendicular if $\Re(z\bar{w}) = 0$.

 [Complex Numbers to Solve Polynomial Equations] Over \mathbb{C} , every equation of the form $z^n = a$ has n solutions.

■ **Example I.II — Solving** $z^n = -1$. Let $z = r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} z^n &= r^n(\cos(\theta n) + i \sin(\theta n)) = -1 \\ \implies r^n &= 1 \text{ and } \cos(\theta n) + i \sin(\theta n) = -1 \\ \implies r &= 1 \text{ and } \cos(\theta n) = -1 \text{ and } \sin(\theta n) = 0 \\ \implies \theta n &= \pi + 2\pi k \text{ for } k \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \implies \theta &= \frac{\pi + 2\pi k}{n} \text{ for } k \in \mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

We can now find the principle solutions for Z

$$\therefore \theta_0 = \frac{\pi}{n}, \theta_1 = \frac{3\pi}{n}, \dots, \theta_{n-1} = \frac{(2n-1)\pi}{n}$$

■

 Roots of Unity The solutions to $z^n = 1$ are called the n th roots of unity. Plotting these solutions splits the complex plane into n equal parts.

I.IV Subsets of the Plane

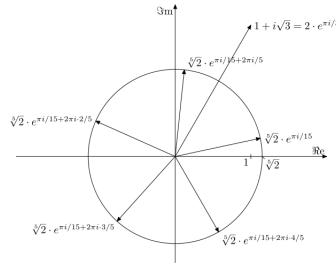


Figure Lecture I.2: Complex Fifth Roots of Unity

Definition I.IV.I — Open Disc. An open disc of radius R centered at z_0 is the set of all z such that $D_R(z_0) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < R\} \subset \mathbb{C}$.

Definition I.IV.II — Interior Point. A point z_0 is an interior point of a set $A \subset \mathbb{C}$ if there exists an open disc centered at z_0 that is contained in A .

z_0 is an interior point of A if $\exists D_{>0}(z_0) \subset A$

Definition I.IV.III — Open Set. A set $A \subset \mathbb{C}$ is open if every point in A is an interior point.
I.e. there are no 'hard lines' in the set.

■ **Example I.III — Open Disc.** Show that the disc $D_R(z_0) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < R\}$ is an open set.

Proof. Let $z_1 \in D$. Then $|z_1 - z_0| < R$. Let $r = R - |z_1 - z_0|$. Then $r > 0$.
Let $z_2 \in D$ be any point in D , such that $|z_2 - z_1| < r$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned}|z_2 - z_0| &\leq |z_2 - z_1| + |z_1 - z_0| \\ &< r + R - r = R\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $z_2 \in D$ and D is open. ■

Definition I.IV.IV — Boundary (∂D). The boundary of a set A is the set of all points z such that every open disc centered at z , no matter how small, contains points in A and points not in A .
The boundary of A is denoted by ∂A and a boundary point z is denoted by $z \in \partial A$.

z_0 is an boundary point of A if $\exists z \in D_R(z_0) : z \notin A \forall R > 0$

Definition I.IV.V — Closed Set. A set D is closed if it contains all its boundary points.

(R)

A set can be both open and closed (\mathbb{C}, \emptyset), open and not closed, closed and not open, or neither open nor closed (contains part, but not all of their boundary).

Theorem I.IV.I — Properties of Open and Closed Sets.

1. D is open iff $\mathbb{C} \setminus D$ is closed.
2. D is closed iff $\mathbb{C} \setminus D$ is open.
3. D is open if and only if it contains none of its boundary points.

I.V Lines and Circles (Not done in class, Fisher 1.3)

Definition I.V.I — Line in the Complex Plane. A line of the form $y = mx + b$ can be formulated as:

$$0 = \Re\{(m + i)z + b\}$$

Such that when the real part of the complex number is zero, the line is satisfied. The general form is:

$$0 = \Re\{az + b\}, \quad a, b, z \in \mathbb{C} \quad (\text{I.VII})$$

where $a = A + iB$ such that: $Ax - By + \Re b = 0$ (\text{I.VIII})

$$Ax - By + \Re b = 0 \quad (\text{I.IX})$$

Note that the imaginary part of b does not affect the line.

Definition I.V.II — Simple Circle in the Complex Plane. Circles in the complex plane can be formulated as:

$$|z - z_0| = R \quad (\text{I.X})$$

Where z_0 is the *locus* of the circle and R is the radius.

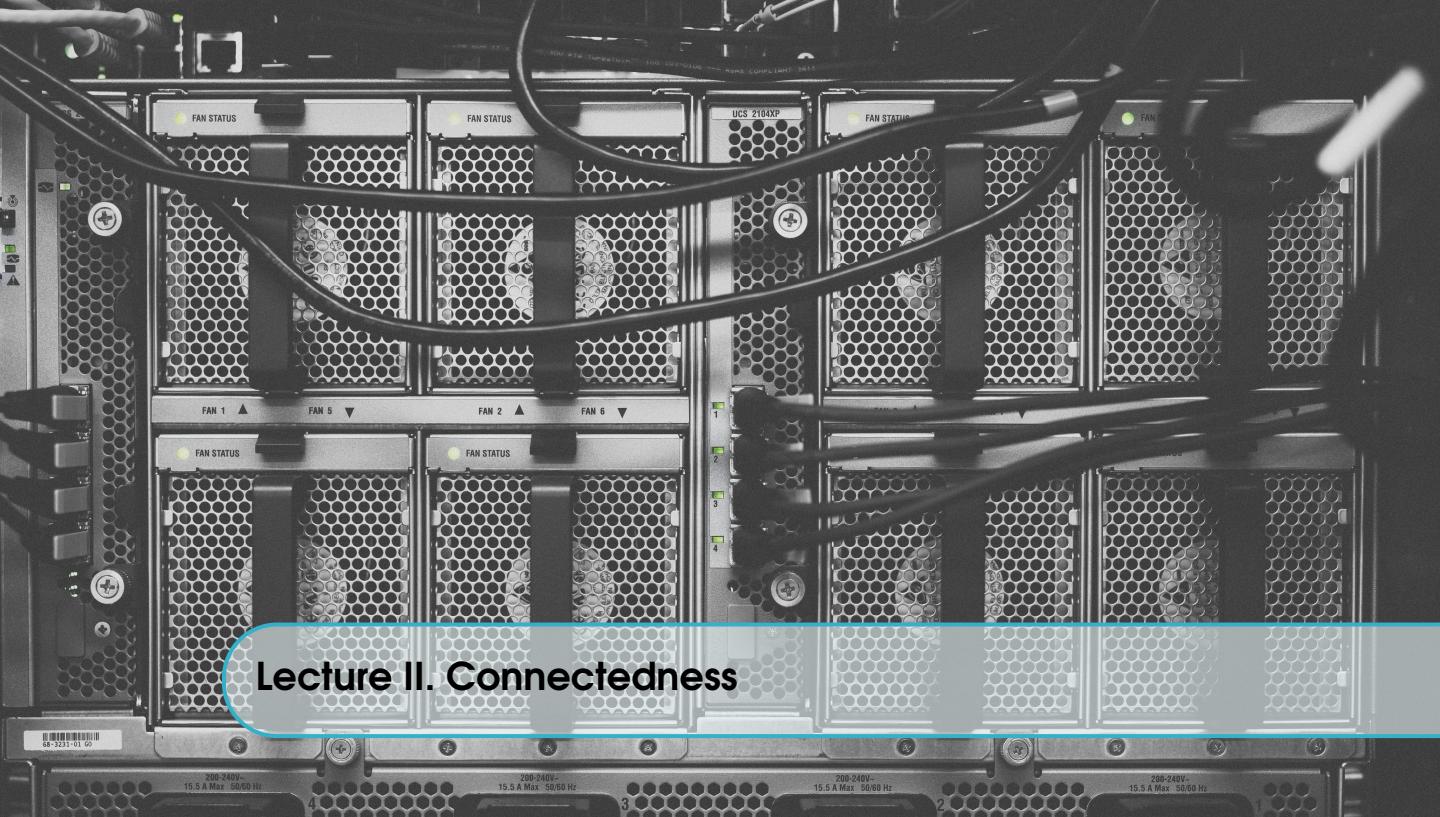
Definition I.V.III — Perpendicular Bisector. The perpendicular bisector of the line segment between p and q is the set of all points z such that

$$|z - p| = |z - q|$$

Corollary I.V.I — Apollonian Circles. If p and q are distinct complex numbers then a circle can be formulated as:

$$|z - p| = \rho|z - q| \quad 0 < \rho \in \mathbb{R}, \rho \neq 1 \quad (\text{I.XI})$$

$$\rightarrow \text{ Where } z_0 = \frac{p - \rho^2 q}{1 - \rho^2} \text{ and } R = \frac{|p - q|\rho}{1 - \rho^2} \quad (\text{I.XII})$$



III.1 Connected Sets

Definition III.1.1 — Connected Set. An *open* set D is connected if each pair of points $p, q \in D$ can be joined by a polygonal path lying entirely in D . That is:

$$\exists P_2, P_3, \dots, P_n \in D \quad \text{such that} \quad pP_1, P_1P_2, \dots, P_nq \in D$$

(R)

The set doesn't *have* to be open, but it is easier to prove connectedness for open sets.

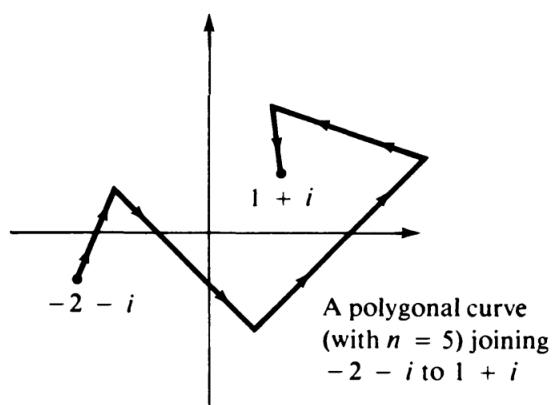


Figure Lecture II.1: Polygonal Path

Definition III.1.2 — Domain. A domain is a set that's

- Open
- Connected
- Not empty

Definition II.I.III — Convex Set. A set D is convex if for each pair of points $p, q \in D$, the line segment pq lies entirely in D .

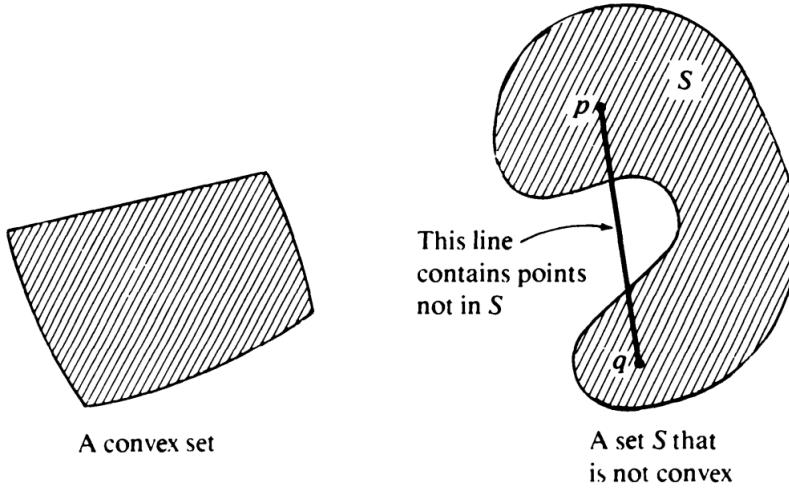


Figure Lecture II.2: Convex Set

Theorem II.I.I — Convex \implies Connected. If D is a convex open set, then D is connected.

Definition II.I.IV — Open Half-plane. A set D is an open half-plane if it is of the form

$$D = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \Re\{az + b\} \geq 0\}$$

Each open half-plane is convex and open

Definition II.I.V — Closed Half-plane. A set D is a closed half-plane if it is of the form

$$D = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \Re\{az + b\} > 0\}$$

Each closed half-plane is convex and closed

II.II Point at Infinity

Definition II.II.I — Point at Infinity. A set is said to contain the point at infinity if it contains all points z such that $|z| > R$ for some $R > 0$.

■ **Example II.I** No open Half-plane contains the point at infinity. Even though the set is unbounded, choosing R near the boundary will always give a point outside the set. ■

II.III Functions and Limits

Definition II.III.I — Limit of a Sequence of Complex Numbers.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z \quad \text{or} \quad z_n \rightarrow z \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad (\text{II.I})$$

$$\text{such that } n \geq N \implies |z_n - z| < \varepsilon \quad (\text{II.II})$$

Corollary II.III.I — Parts of a Limit. If $z_n = x_n + iy_n$ and $z = x + iy$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y$$

Theorem II.III.II — Subsequence. Suppose $\{z_n\}$ converges with limit z . Then every subsequence, $z_{m_n} = f(n)$ also converges to z . Where $1 \leq m_1 < m_2 < \dots$

Definition II.III.II — Limits of Functions.

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \quad (\text{II.III})$$

$$\text{such that } 0 < |z - z_0| < \delta \implies |f(z) - w| < \varepsilon \quad (\text{II.IV})$$

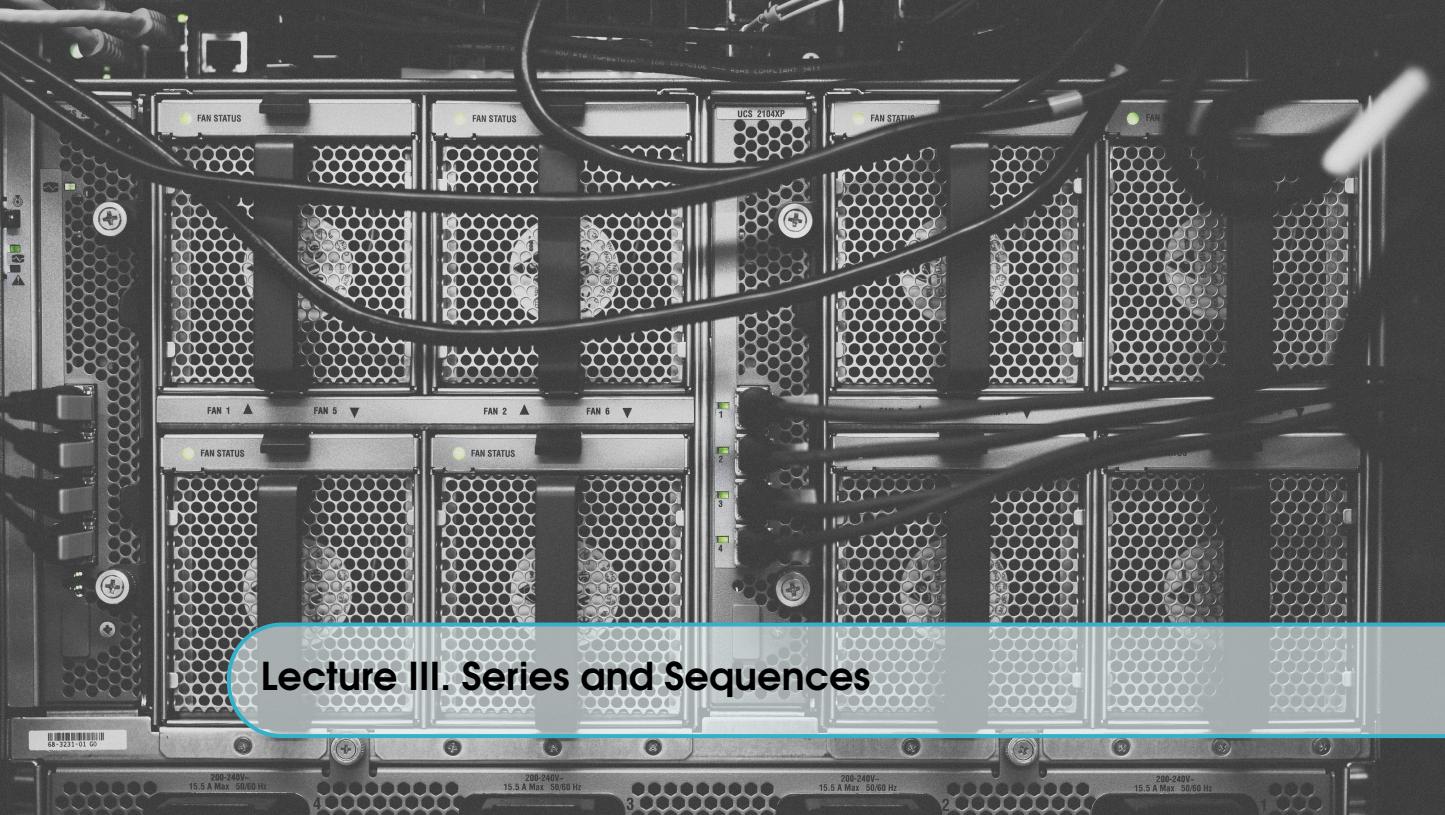
II.IV Continuity

Definition II.IV.I — Continuous Function. A function $f(z)$ is continuous at z_0 if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$$

Corollary II.IV.I — Continuous at Infinity. A function $f(z)$ can be continuous at ∞ if $f(\infty) = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = f(\infty)$. Note, $f(\infty)$ may equal ∞

This is equivalent to saying that $f(1/z)$ is continuous at $z = 0$



Lecture III. Series and Sequences

Definition III..I — infinite Series. Suppose we have a sequence:

$$z_1, z_2, z_3, \dots \quad (\text{III.I})$$

We can define the partial sum of the sequence as:

$$S_n = z_1 + z_2 + z_3 + \dots + z_n \quad (\text{III.II})$$

We say $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$ converges and has a sum S if the sequence of partial sums converges to S :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S \quad (\text{III.III})$$

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ does not exist, we say the series diverges.

Corollary III..I — Real and Imaginary Parts of a Series. If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$ converges, then the real and imaginary parts of the series also converge.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \Re(z_n) + i \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \Im(z_n) \quad (\text{III.IV})$$

III.I Tests for Convergence

Theorem III.I.I If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$ converges, then so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n|$ and:

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n \right| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n|$$

Proof. Say $z_n = x_n + iy_n$. Then:

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n \right| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n| \quad (\text{III.V})$$

And

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} y_n \right| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n| \quad (\text{III.VII})$$

So if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} y_n$ converge, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$ converges. ■

■ Example III.I

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j \left(\frac{1+2i}{3} \right)^j \quad (\text{III.VIII})$$

We can use the ratio test to determine convergence:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |z_j| = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j \left| \frac{1+2i}{3} \right|^j \quad (\text{III.IX})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j \left(\frac{\sqrt{5}}{3} \right)^j \quad (\text{III.X})$$

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{z_{j+1}}{z_j} \right| = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(j+1)(\frac{\sqrt{5}}{3})^{j+1}}{j(\frac{\sqrt{5}}{3})^j} \quad (\text{III.XI})$$

$$= \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \frac{j+1}{j} \left(\frac{\sqrt{5}}{3} \right) \quad (\text{III.XII})$$

$$= \frac{5}{3} < 1 \quad \therefore \text{The series converges} \quad (\text{III.XIII})$$

■

III.II The Exponential Function

Approach 1

Definition III.II.I — Exponential Function. If $z = x + iy$, then the exponential function is defined as:

$$e^z = e^x (\cos(y) + i \sin(y)) \quad (\text{III.XIV})$$



[Euler's Formula]

$$e^{i\theta} \triangleq \cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta) \quad (\text{III.XV})$$

$$(\text{III.XVI})$$

Test Name	Description	Conditions for Use
Ratio Test	Uses the limit of the ratio of successive terms to determine convergence. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right $	Applicable when terms are positive and the limit exists.
Root Test	Uses the limit of the nth root of the terms to determine convergence. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{ a_n }$	Applicable when terms are positive and the limit exists.
Integral Test	Compares a series to an improper integral to determine convergence. $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$	Applicable when terms are positive, continuous, and decreasing.
Comparison Test	Compares a series to a known convergent or divergent series.	Applicable when terms are positive.
Limit Comparison Test	Compares the limit of the ratio of terms to a known series. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$	Applicable when terms are positive and the limit exists.
Alternating Series Test	Determines convergence for series with alternating positive and negative terms.	Applicable when terms decrease in absolute value and approach zero.
p-Series Test	Determines convergence based on the exponent in a series of the form $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$	Applicable for series of the form $\frac{1}{n^p}$.
Geometric Series Test	Determines convergence for geometric series. $\sum ar^n$	Applicable for series of the form ar^n .
D'Alembert's Ratio Test	Similar to the Ratio Test, but specifically for series with factorial terms.	Applicable when terms involve factorials.
Cauchy's Condensation Test	Determines convergence by condensing the series. $\sum a_n \sim \sum 2^n a_{2^n}$	Applicable for series with positive, decreasing terms.

Table III.I: Common Tests for Convergence of Series

Property	Description
Periodicity	The complex exponential function is periodic with period $2\pi i$, $e^{z+2\pi i} = e^z$.
Multiplication	The exponential function satisfies $e^{z_1+z_2} = e^{z_1}e^{z_2}$ for any complex numbers z_1 and z_2 .
Derivative	The derivative of the exponential function is $\frac{d}{dz}e^z = e^z$.
Inverse	The inverse of the exponential function is the complex logarithm, $\log z$, such that $e^{\log z} = z$ for $z \neq 0$.
Magnitude	The magnitude of the exponential function is $ e^z = e^{\Re(z)}$, where $\Re(z)$ denotes the real part of z .
Argument	The argument of the exponential function is $\arg(e^z) = \Im(z) \bmod 2\pi$, where $\Im(z)$ denotes the imaginary part of z .
Conjugate	The conjugate of the exponential function is $\overline{e^z} = e^{\bar{z}}$.

Table III.II: Properties of the Complex Exponential Function

Properties of the complex Exponential Function

Approach 2: Taylor Series

Definition III.II.II — The Exponential Function. The exponential function can be defined as:

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!} \quad \text{for all } z \in \mathbb{C} \quad (\text{III.XVII})$$

Claim III.II.I — The Taylor Series for the Exponential Function Converges. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$ converges for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof. HOMEWORK ■

Problem I For $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$e^{i\theta} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\theta)^n}{n!} = \cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta)$$

III.III Approach 3: Differential Equations

Definition III.III.I — Differential Equation for the Exponential Function. The exponential function satisfies the differential equation:

$$f(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{df}{dz} = f & \text{for all } z \in \mathbb{C} \\ f(0) = 1 \end{cases} \quad (\text{III.XVIII})$$

III.IV The Logarithm Function

Definition III.IV.I — Logarithm Function. The logarithm function is defined as the inverse of the exponential function:

$$\log z = \log |z| + i\theta \quad (\text{III.XIX})$$

(R) There will be many solutions to the logarithm function, as the argument is only defined modulo 2π .

$$\log z = \log |z| + i(\arg(z) + 2\pi n) \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Definition III.IV.II — Principal Logarithm. The principal branch logarithm is defined as:

$$\text{Log}(z) = \log |z| + i \arg(z) \quad \text{for } -\pi < \arg(z) \leq \pi$$

Note: We use a capital L to denote the principal logarithm.

Definition III.IV.III — Fixed θ_0 Logarithm Function. We can fix the argument of the logarithm function by setting θ_0 and letting $D = \{te^{i\theta_0} \mid t > 0, t \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

We define:

$$\widetilde{\log}_{\theta_0} z = \log |z| + i (\widetilde{\arg}(z) + \theta_0) \quad \text{for } z \in D, \arg(z) \in [\theta_0, \theta_0 + 2\pi)$$

■ **Example III.II — Find the Values of $(-1)^i$.**

$$(-1)^i = e^{i \log(-1)} \tag{III.XX}$$

$$= e^{i(2n+1)\pi i} \tag{III.XXI}$$

$$= e^{-2n\pi} \tag{III.XXII}$$

$$\log(-1) = -(2n+1)\pi i \quad n \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{III.XXIII}$$

$$(-1)^i = e^{2n+1}\pi \tag{III.XXIV}$$

■

III.V The Trigonometric Functions

Definition III.V.I — Trigonometric Functions. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ trigonometric functions are defined as:

$$\Re e^{iz} = \cos(z) = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \tag{III.XXV}$$

$$\Im e^{iz} = \sin(z) = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} \tag{III.XXVI}$$

$$\tan(z) = \frac{\sin(z)}{\cos(z)} \tag{III.XXVII}$$

$$(III.XXVIII)$$

Lemma III.V.I

$$\begin{cases} \cos(z + \alpha) = \cos(z) \\ \sin(z + \alpha) = \sin(z) \end{cases} \tag{III.XXIX}$$

iff $\alpha = 2\pi n$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof.

$$e^{i(z+\alpha)} = e^{iz} e^{i\alpha} \tag{III.XXX}$$

$$= e^{iz} (\cos(\alpha) + i \sin(\alpha)) \tag{III.XXXI}$$

$$= e^{iz} (\cos(2\pi n) + i \sin(2\pi n)) \tag{III.XXXII}$$

$$= e^{iz} \tag{III.XXXIII}$$

■