

# Complex Functions

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# **1 Lecturer Information**

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# **2 Recommended Reading**

1. James Ward Brown & Ruel V. Churchill, “Complex Variables and Applications”, McGraw-Hill, Inc. 1996.
2. D. Zill, P. Shanahan, “Complex Variables with Applications”, Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

# **3 Additional Reading**

1. Saff, Edward B., and Arthur David Snider. Fundamentals of Complex Analysis with Applications to Engineering, Science, and Mathematics. 3rd ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2002. ISBN: 0139078746.
2. Sarason, Donald. Complex Function Theory. American Mathematical Society. ISBN: 0821886223
3. Alfhors, Lars. Complex Analysis: An Introduction to the Theory of Analytic Functions of One Complex Variable. McGraw-Hill Education, 1979. ISBN: 0070006571.

# Part I

## Complex Numbers

**Definition 1.** A number of the form

$$z = x + iy$$

where

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$y \in \mathbb{R}$$

is called a complex number.

**Definition 2** (Real part of a complex number). If

$$z = x + iy$$

then  $x$  is called the real part of  $z$ , and is denoted as

$$x = \Re(z)$$

**Definition 3** (Imaginary part of a complex number). If

$$z = x + iy$$

then  $y$  is called the imaginary part of  $z$ , and is denoted as

$$x = \Im(z)$$

**Definition 4** (Complex conjugate). If

$$z = x + iy$$

then

$$\bar{z} = x - iy$$

is called the complex conjugate of  $z$ .

**Theorem 1.**

$$z\bar{z} = |z|^2$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}z &= x + iy \\ \therefore \bar{z} &= x - iy\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}z\bar{z} &= (x + iy)(x - iy) \\ &= x^2 - ixy + ixy + y^2 \\ &= x^2 + y^2 \\ &= |z|^2\end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 5** (Polar representation). If

$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta\end{aligned}$$

then  $(r, \theta)$  is called the polar representation of  $(x, y)$ .

**Theorem 2** (Euler's Formula).

$$r \cos \theta + ir \sin \theta = re^{i\theta}$$

**Definition 6** (Absolute value or Norm).

$$\begin{aligned}|z| &= |x + iy| \\ &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\end{aligned}$$

is called the absolute value, or the norm of  $z$ .

**Theorem 3.**

$$|z| \leq |\Re(z)| + |\Im(z)| \leq \sqrt{2}|z|$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} &\leq |x| + |y| \leq \sqrt{2x^2 + 2y^2} \\ \iff x^2 + y^2 &\leq x^2 + y^2 + 2|x||y| \leq 2x^2 + 2y^2 \\ \iff x^2 + y^2 - 2|x||y| &\geq 0 \\ \iff (|x| - |y|)^2 &\geq 0\end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 7** (Argument). Let  $z$  be a complex number. Then,  $\theta$ , such that  $\theta \in (-\pi, \pi]$ , and

$$z = (r, \theta)$$

is called the argument of  $z$ . It is denoted as

$$\theta = \text{Arg}(z)$$

If  $\theta \notin (-\pi, \pi]$ , but

$$z = (r, \theta)$$

then

$$\theta = \arg(z)$$

**Theorem 4.**

$$z^n = |z|^n e^{in \text{Arg}(z)}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} z &= |z| e^{i \text{Arg}(z)} \\ \therefore z^n &= \left( |z| e^{i \text{Arg}(z)} \right)^n \\ &= (|z|)^n \left( e^{i \text{Arg}(z)} \right)^n \\ &= |z|^n e^{in \text{Arg}(z)} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 5.** *Let*

$$\begin{aligned} z &= r e^{i\theta} \\ w &= \rho e^{i\varphi} \end{aligned}$$

*The solutions to*

$$w = \sqrt[n]{z}$$

*are*

$$\varphi_k = \frac{\theta}{n} + \frac{2\pi k}{n}$$

*where  $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ .*

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}w &= \sqrt[n]{z} \\ \therefore w^n &= z\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\rho^n e^{in\varphi} = re^{i\theta}$$

Therefore, for  $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= \sqrt[n]{r} \\ n\varphi &= \theta + 2\pi k \\ \therefore \varphi &= \frac{\theta}{n} + \frac{2\pi k}{n}\end{aligned}$$

□



## Part II

# Complex Sequences and Series

**Definition 8** (Convergence of complex sequences). Let

$$z_n = x_n + iy_n$$

The sequence  $\{z_n\}$  is said to converge to the limit  $z = x + iy$ , if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N$ , such that  $\forall n > N$ ,  $|z_n - z| < \varepsilon$ , i.e. there is a circular region of radius  $\varepsilon$ , centred at  $z$ , in which  $z_n$  lies.

**Theorem 6.**  $\{z_n\} \rightarrow z$ , i.e.  $\{z_n\}$  converges to  $z$  if and only if all subsequences of  $\{z_n\}$  converge to  $z$ .

**Exercise 1.**

Find the limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+i}{2n-i}$ .

**Solution 1.**

$$\begin{aligned} z_n &= \frac{n+i}{2n-i} \\ &= \frac{(n+i)(2n+i)}{4n^2+1} \\ &= \frac{2n^2+1}{4n^2+1} + i \frac{3n}{4n^2+1} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^2+1}{4n^2+1} + i \frac{3n}{4n^2+1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 2.**

Show that for

$$z_n = -2 + \frac{(-1)^n}{n}i$$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}(z_n)$  does not exist, but  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |z_n|$  exists.

**Solution 2.**

The magnitude of  $z_n$  is

$$\begin{aligned}|z_n| &= \left| -2 + \frac{(-1)^n}{n}i \right| \\ &= \sqrt{4 + \frac{(-1)^{2n}}{n^2}} \\ &= \sqrt{4 + \frac{1}{n^2}}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |z_n| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{4 + \frac{1}{n^2}} \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

The argument of  $z_{2n}$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Arg}(z_{2n}) &= \text{Arg}\left(-2 + \frac{(-1)^{2n}}{2n}i\right) \\ \therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}(z_{2n}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}\left(-2 + \frac{i}{2n}\right) \\ &= \pi\end{aligned}$$

The argument of  $z_{2n+1}$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Arg}(z_{2n+1}) &= \text{Arg}\left(-2 + \frac{(-1)^{2n+1}}{2n+1}i\right) \\ \therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}(z_{2n}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}\left(-2 - \frac{i}{2n}\right) \\ &= -\pi\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, as the limit of two subsequences are not equal, the limit does not exist.

## Part III

# Topology on the Complex Plane

**Definition 9** (Neighbourhood of a complex number). A circular region of radius  $\varepsilon$  centred at  $z$ , is called the  $\varepsilon$  neighbourhood of  $z$ .

$$B(z, \varepsilon) = D(z, \varepsilon) = \{w \in \mathbb{C} : |w - z| < \varepsilon\}$$

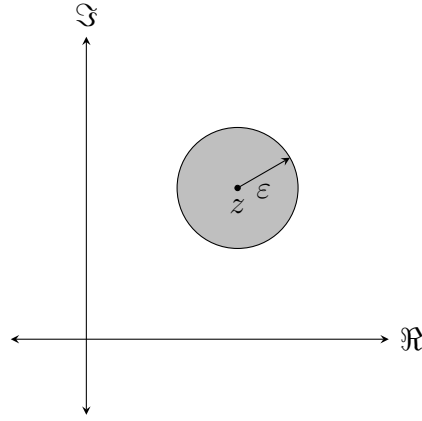


Figure 1: Neighbourhood of a complex number

**Definition 10** (Interior point). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

$z \in \mathbb{C}$  is called an inner or interior point of  $A$  if there exists at least one  $\varepsilon_z > 0$ , such that  $B(z, \varepsilon_z) \subset A$ .

The set of all interior points of  $A$  is denoted by  $\text{Int}(A)$  or  $A^\circ$ .

**Definition 11** (Exterior point). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

$z \in \mathbb{C}$  is called an outer or exterior point of  $A$  if there exists at least one  $\varepsilon_z > 0$ , such that  $B(z, \varepsilon_z) \subset (\mathbb{C} \setminus A)$ . The set of all exterior points of  $A$  is denoted by  $\text{Ext}(A)$ .

**Definition 12** (Edge point). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

$z \in \mathbb{C}$  is called an edge or boundary point of  $A$  if it is neither an inner point of  $A$ , nor an outer point of  $A$ . The set of all boundary points of  $A$  is denoted by  $\partial(A)$ .

**Definition 13** (Open set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  is called an open set if  $A = A^\circ$ , i.e. for any point  $z \in A$ ,  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ , such that  $D(z, \varepsilon) \subset A$ .

**Definition 14** (Closur of a set). The closer of  $A$  is defined to be

$$\overline{A} = A^\circ \cup \partial A$$

**Definition 15** (Closed set). A set  $A$  is called a closed set if  $\partial A \subset A$ , i.e.  $A = \overline{A}$ .

**Definition 16** (Connected set). A set  $A$  is called a connected set if for any  $z_1, z_2 \in A$ , there exists a polygonal path, i.e. a finite set of connected straight lines, which connects  $z_1$  and  $z_2$ , and belongs to  $A$ .

**Definition 17** (Domain). An open connected set is called a domain.

**Definition 18** (Bound set). A set  $A$  is said to be a bound set if it is bound inside a disk.

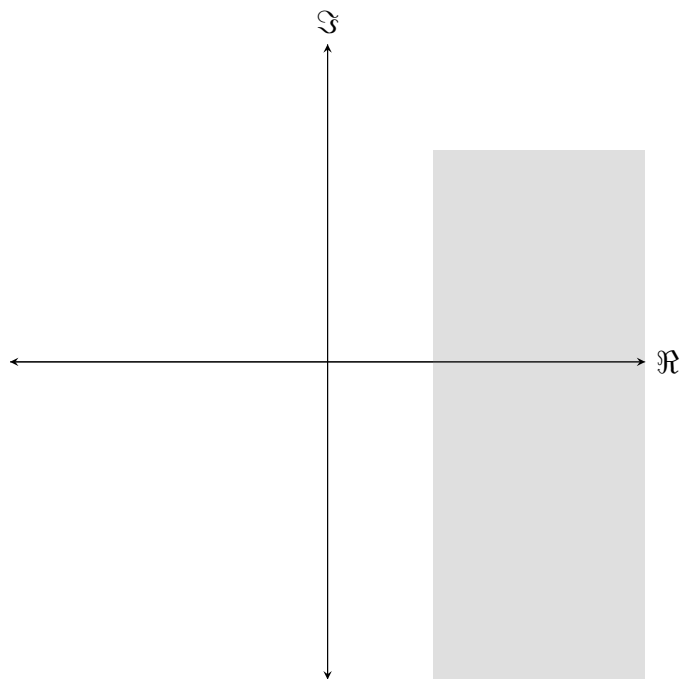
**Exercise 3.**

Describe geometrically and list the properties of the following sets.

1.  $A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \Re(z) \geq 2, \Im(z) \leq 4\}$
2.  $B = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - 1 + 3i| > 3\}$

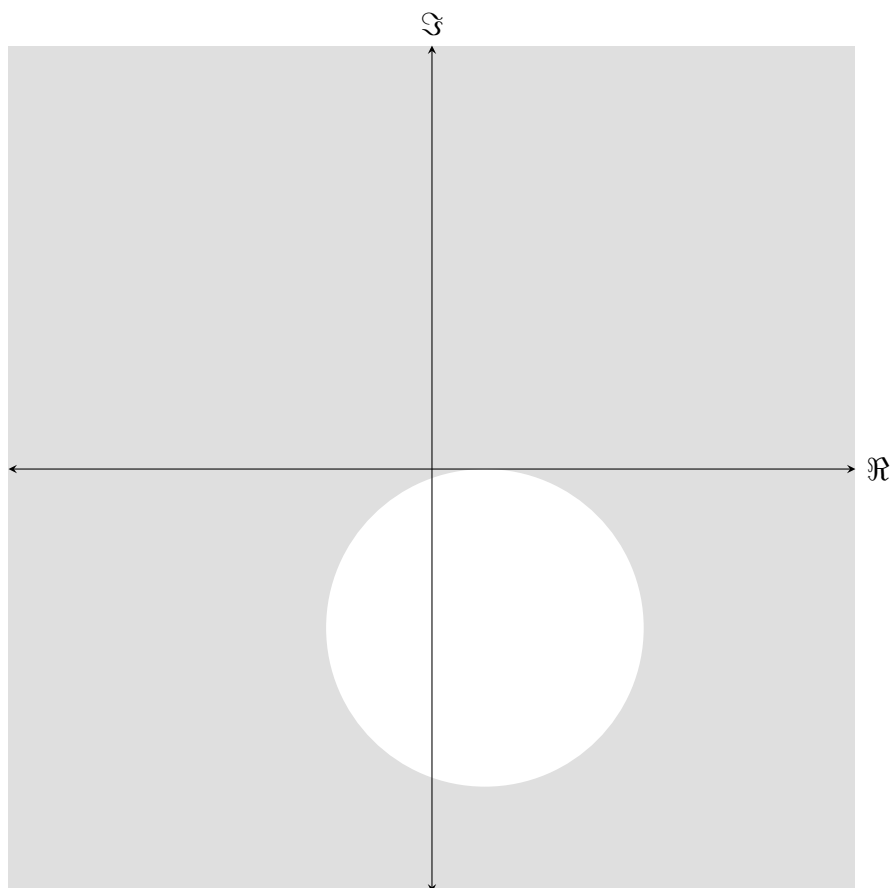
**Solution 3.**

1.  $A$  is the union of the bottom half plane with respect to the line  $y = 4$ , and the right half plane with respect to the line  $x = 2$ .



Therefore, as  $A = A^\circ + \partial A$ , it is a closer, unbounded set.

2.  $A$  is the complement of a disk, centred at  $1 - 3i$ , with radius 3.



Therefore, it is an open, unbounded set.

**Exercise 4.**

Prove that the upper half plane  $U = \{z : \Im(z) > 0\}$  is open.

**Solution 4.**

Let

$$z = x + iy$$

Therefore, as  $z \in U$ ,  $y > 0$ .

Therefore, consider the disk  $D\left(z, \frac{y}{2}\right)$ .

Let  $w \in D\left(z, \frac{y}{2}\right)$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |w - z| &< \frac{y}{2} \\ \therefore |\Im(w - z)| &\leq |w - z| \\ &\leq \frac{y}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{y}{2} &\leq \Im(w) - \Im(z) \leq \frac{y}{2} \\ \therefore -\frac{y}{2} &\leq \Im(w) - y \leq \frac{y}{2} \\ \therefore \Im(w) &\geq \frac{y}{2} > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, as  $\Im(w) > 0$ ,  $w \in U$ . Therefore,  $U$  is open. □

## Part IV

# Complex Functions

## 1 Complex Functions

**Definition 19** (Complex function). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called a complex function, which matches  $z \in A$  to  $f(z) \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Theorem 7.** Any complex function  $f$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + iy) &= \Re f(x + iy) + i\Im f(x + iy) \\ &= u(x, y) + iv(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

## 2 Limits

**Definition 20** (Limit of a function). Let  $f$  be a complex function defined on a neighbourhood of  $z_0$ , but may or may not be defined at  $z_0$ . Then, the limit of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$  is defined as

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

if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$ , such that  $\forall z \in \mathbb{X}$  such that  $|z - z_0| < \delta$ ,  $|f(z) - w| < \varepsilon$ .

### Exercise 5.

Show that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{iz}{2} = \frac{i}{2}$$

### Solution 5.

Let  $|z - 1| < \delta$ . Therefore, for  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| f(z) - \frac{i}{2} \right| &= \left| \frac{iz}{2} - \frac{i}{2} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{i}{2} \right| |z - 1| \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |z - i| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, for  $\delta \leq 2\varepsilon$ ,  $\left| f(z) - \frac{i}{2} \right| < \varepsilon$ . □

**Theorem 8.** *If*

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= f(x + iy) \\ &= u(x, y) + iv(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

*then*

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = u_0 + iv_0$$

*if and only if*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} u(x, y) &= u_0 \\ \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} v(x, y) &= v_0 \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 9** (Limit arithmetics). *If*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) &= w_1 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} g(z) &= w_2 \end{aligned}$$

*then, as long as all quantities are defined,*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) \pm g(z) &= w_1 \pm w_2 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)g(z) &= w_1w_2 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} &= \frac{w_1}{w_2} \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 6.**

For the function  $f(z) = \bar{z}^2$ , prove

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) &= f(z_0) \\ &= \bar{z}_0^2 \end{aligned}$$

**Solution 6.**

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{z} &= \overline{(x + iy)}^2 \\ &= (x - iy)^2 \\ &= x^2 - y^2 - 2xyi \end{aligned}$$



Therefore, let

$$\begin{aligned}u(x, y) &= x^2 - y^2 \\v(x, y) &= -2xy\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} u(x, y) &= x_0^2 - y_0^2 \\ \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} v(x, y) &= -2x_0y_0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) &= u_0 + iv_0 \\ &= x_0^2 - y_0^2 - 2x_0y_0i \\ &= \overline{z_0}^2\end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 21** (Infinite limit). The limit of  $f(z)$  is said to be infinite, i.e.

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

if and only if

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

if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{1}{f(z)} = 0$$

**Definition 22** (Limit at infinity). The limit of a function  $f(z)$ ,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = w$$

if

$$\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = w$$

Alternatively,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists R > 0$ , such that for  $|z| > R$ ,  $|f(x) - w| < \varepsilon$ .

**Exercise 7.**

Show that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{z^2} = 0$$

**Solution 7.**

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $R > 0$ , such that  $\frac{1}{R^2} < \varepsilon$ .

Therefore, if  $|z| > R$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z) - 0| &= \left| \frac{1}{z^2} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{|z^2|} \\ &= \frac{1}{|z|^2} \\ &< \frac{1}{R^2} \\ &< \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{z^2} = 0$ .

### 3 Continuity

**Definition 23** (Continuous function).  $f(z)$  is said to be continuous at  $z_0$  if  $f(z)$  is defined at  $z_0$  and

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

**Theorem 10** (Continuity arithmetics). *If*

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

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

*then, as long as all quantities are defined,*

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

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

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

## 4 Differentiability

**Definition 24** (Differentiable function). Let  $f(z)$  be defined in a neighbourhood of  $z_0$ .  $f$  is said to be differentiable at  $z_0$  if the limit  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$  exists.

**Theorem 11** (Differentiation arithmetics). If  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  are differentiable, then, as long as all quantities are defined,

$$\begin{aligned}(f(z) \pm g(z))' &= f'(z) \pm g'(z) \\ (f(z)g(z))' &= f'(z)g(z) + f(z)g'(z) \\ \left(\frac{f(z)}{g(z)}\right)' &= \frac{f'(z)g(z) - f(z)g'(z)}{g(z)^2}\end{aligned}$$

## 5 Cauchy-Riemann Equations

**Theorem 12** (Cauchy-Riemann Equations).  $u(x, y)$  and  $v(x, y)$  are said to be satisfying Cauchy-Riemann Equations at a point  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , if

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(a, b) &= v_y(a, b) \\ u_y(a, b) &= -v_x(a, b)\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 13.** Let

$$f(x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$$

Then,  $u$  and  $v$  satisfying the Cauchy-Riemann Equations is a necessary condition for  $f$  to be differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

**Theorem 14.** If  $f = u + iv$  is differentiable at  $z_0 = a + ib$ , then  $(u, v)$  satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann Equations at  $(a, b)$ .

**Definition 25** (Analytic functions). If  $f = u + iv$  is differentiable at any  $z \in W$ , where  $W$  is a neighbourhood of  $z_0$  except maybe at  $z_0$ , then  $f$  is said to be analytic at  $z_0$ . If  $f$  is analytic at all  $z \in W$ , then it is said to be analytic in  $W$ .

**Exercise 8.**

Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function in  $U$ , such that  $\bar{f}$  is also analytic in  $U$ . Show that  $f' = 0$ , i.e.  $f = c$ .

**Solution 8.**

As  $f = u + iv$  is analytic, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations, for  $(x, y) \in U$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(x, y) &= v_y(x, y) \\u_y(x, y) &= -v_x(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

As  $\bar{f} = u - iv$  is analytic, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations, for  $(x, y) \in U$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(x, y) &= -v_y(x, y) \\u_y(x, y) &= v_x(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}v_y &= -v_y \\&= 0 \\v_x &= -v_x \\&= 0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(x, y) &= 0 \\u_y(x, y) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $u$  and  $v$  are constant functions.

## 6 Harmonic Functions

**Definition 26** (Laplacian). Let  $u$  be an equation in  $x$  and  $y$ . The Laplacian is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta u &= \nabla^2 u \\&= u_{xx} + u_{yy}\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 27** (Harmonic function). A real function in two variables,  $u(x, y)$ , which is twice differentiable, is called a harmonic function if it satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta u &= u_{xx} + u_{yy} \\&= 0\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 15.** *If  $u$  and  $v$  are twice differentiable, and satisfy Cauchy-Riemann Equations, then  $(u, v)$  are harmonic.*

**Theorem 16.** *Let  $f = u + iv$  be defined in a neighbourhood of  $z_0 = a + ib$ . Assume that  $u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y$  exist in this neighbourhood and are continuous at the point  $(a, b)$ . If  $(u, v)$  satisfying Cauchy-Riemann Equations at  $(a, b)$  then  $f'(z_0)$  exists.*

**Definition 28** (Harmonic conjugate). Let  $u : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a harmonic function. Its harmonic conjugate is defined to be  $v : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $f = u + iv$  is analytic.

## 7 Analytic Functions

**Definition 29.**  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is said to be differentiable on  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ , if  $f$  is differentiable at any  $z \in D$ .

**Definition 30** (Analytic functions). If  $f = u + iv$  is differentiable at any  $z \in W$ , where  $W$  is a neighbourhood of  $z_0$  except maybe at  $z_0$ , then  $f$  is said to be analytic at  $z_0$ . If  $f$  is analytic at all  $z \in W$ , then it is said to be analytic in  $W$ .

**Theorem 17.** *Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$  be an open set. Then,  $f$  is differentiable on  $D$  if and only if  $f$  is analytic on  $D$ .*

**Theorem 18.** *Let  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a domain. Assume that  $f$  is analytic on  $D$ , and for any  $z \in D$ ,  $f'(z) = 0$ . Then,  $f$  is constant.*

**Theorem 19.** *Let  $u(x, y) : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function such that  $\nabla u = 0$  in a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then,  $u$  is constant in  $D$ .*

### Exercise 9.

1. Prove that

$$v(x, y) = \ln \left( (x - 1)^2 + (y - 2)^2 \right)$$

is harmonic in any domain that does not include the point  $(1, 2)$ .

2. Find  $u(x, y)$  such that  $u + iv$  is analytic in some domain. Note:  $v$  is the conjugate harmonic of  $u$ .
3. Express  $u + iv$  as a function of  $z$ .

**Solution 9.**

1.

$$v_x = \frac{2(x-1)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2}$$

$$v_y = \frac{2(y-2)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2}$$

Therefore,

$$v_{xx} = \frac{2 \left( (x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 \right) - (2(x-1))^2}{((x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2)^2}$$

$$v_{yy} = \frac{2 \left( (x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 \right) - (2(y-2))^2}{((x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2)^2}$$

2. For  $u + iv$  to be analytic, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations,

$$u_x = v_y$$

$$u_y = -v_x$$

Therefore,

$$u_x = v_y$$

$$= \frac{2(y-2)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2}$$

Therefore,

$$u = \int \frac{2(y-2)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{2(y-2)}{(y-2)^2} \int \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-1}{y-2}\right)^2} dx$$

$$= 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + g(y)$$

Therefore,

$$u_y = -v_x$$

$$\therefore -\frac{2(x-1)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2} = \frac{2}{1 + \frac{(x-1)^2}{(y-2)^2}} \left( -\frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + g'(y)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} g'(y) &= 0 \\ \therefore g(y) &= c \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$u = 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + c$$

3.

$$\begin{aligned} u + iv &= \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + i \ln \left( (x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 \right) \\ &= 2i \operatorname{Log} (-i(x-1) + (y-2)) \\ &= 2i \operatorname{Log} (-iz - 2 + i) \end{aligned}$$

### Exercise 10.

Prove that there is no  $f = u + iv$  analytic in the unit disk, such that

$$xu(x, y) = yv(x, y) + 2013$$

Hint: Use the function  $zf(z)$ .

### Solution 10.

If possible, let there exist  $f(z)$  such that

$$xu(x, y) = yv(x, y) + 2013$$

Therefore, as  $zf(z)$  is analytic,

$$\begin{aligned} zf(z) &= (x + iy)(u + iv) \\ &= xu - yv + i(yu + xv) \\ &= 2013 + i(yu + xv) \end{aligned}$$

By the polar form of Cauchy-Riemann Equations,  $yu + xv$  is constant.

Therefore,  $zf(z)$  is constant.

Therefore, this contradicts the assumption.

Therefore, such a  $f$  does not exist.

## 8 Elementary Functions

### 8.1 Exponential Functions

**Theorem 20.**

$$|e^z| = e^{\Re(z)}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} |e^z| &= \left| e^{\Re(z)} \right| \left| e^{\Im(z)} \right| \\ &= \left| e^{\Re(z)} \right| \left| \cos(\Im(z)) + i \sin(\Im(z)) \right| \\ &= e^{\Re(z)} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 21.** *Let  $z$  and  $w$  be complex. Then*

$$e^{z+w} = e^z e^w$$

**Theorem 22.**  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$(e^z)^n = e^{nz}$$

**Theorem 23.** *The function  $e^z$  is onto with respect to  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .*

### 8.2 Trigonometric Functions

**Definition 31** (Trigonometric functions of complex numbers). Trigonometric functions of complex numbers are defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(z) &= \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \\ \sin(z) &= \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} \\ \cosh(z) &= \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2} \\ \sinh(z) &= \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2} \end{aligned}$$



### 8.3 Logarithmic Functions

**Definition 32** (Power set). The set of all subsets of a set is called the power set of the set. The power set of a set  $A$  is denoted as  $P(A)$ .

**Definition 33** (Multiple valued function). A set which maps a set  $A$  to its power set  $P(A)$  is called a multiple valued set.

A multiple valued function gets over  $\mathbb{C}$  gets a complex number as input and returns a set of complex numbers as output.

**Definition 34** (Natural logarithmic function). The natural logarithmic function over the complex plane is defined to be

$$\log w = \{z : e^z = w\}$$

**Theorem 24.**

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

*Proof.* Let

$$\begin{aligned} e^z &= w \\ &= |w|e^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\theta = \arg(w)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\Re(z)+i\Im(z)} &= |w|e^{i\theta} \\ \therefore e^{\Re(z)}e^{i\Im(z)} &= |w|e^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\Re(z)} &= |w| \\ \Im(z) &= \theta + 2\pi k \end{aligned}$$

where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \ln e^{\Re(z)} &= \ln |w| \\ \therefore \Re(z) &= \ln |w| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \log w &= \{z : e^z = w\} \\ &= \{\ln |w| + iy : y = \arg(w)\} \end{aligned}$$

For any  $w \in \log z$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} e^w &= e^{\ln|z| + i(\operatorname{Arg} z + 2\pi k)} \\ &= e^{\ln|z|} e^{i(\operatorname{Arg} z + 2\pi k)} \\ &= |z| e^{i \operatorname{Arg} z} \\ &= z \end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 35** (Branch of  $\log z$ ). A branch of  $\log z$  is a continuous function  $L(z)$  defined on a  $U$ , a connected open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  such that  $L(z)$  is a logarithm of  $z$  for each  $z \in U$ .

**Definition 36** ( $\operatorname{Log} z$ ).  $\operatorname{Log} z$  is defined to be

$$\operatorname{Log} z = \ln|z| + i \operatorname{Arg} z$$

As  $\operatorname{Arg} z$  is not continuous on the negative real axis, in order to make it continuous, the line  $\operatorname{Arg} z = \pi$  is excluded. Hence,  $\log z$  is continuous on  $U = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^-$ , and is a branch of  $\log z$ .

Similarly, any other ray can be excluded in order to get a branch of  $\log z$ .

**Definition 37.** For any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\operatorname{Log}_\alpha z$  is defined to be

$$\operatorname{Log}_\alpha z = \ln|z| + i \operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z$$

where  $\operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z = \theta$ , such that  $\theta \in (\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi]$  and  $\theta = \arg z$ .

Any choice of  $\operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z$  defines a branch of logarithm.

**Definition 38** (Branch cut). The boundary of the domain of a branch is called a branch cut.

**Definition 39** (Principal value). The value returned by  $\operatorname{Log} z = \operatorname{Log}_{-\pi} z$  is called the principal value.

**Theorem 25.**  $\operatorname{Log} z$  is analytic on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^-$ .

**Exercise 11.**

Find the principal value of  $\sqrt{i}$ .

**Solution 11.**

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{pv} \left( i^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) &= e^{\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Log} i} \\ &= e^{\frac{1}{2} (\ln|i| + i \operatorname{Arg} i)} \\ &= e^{\frac{1}{2} i \frac{\pi}{2}} \\ &= e^{i \frac{\pi}{4}} \end{aligned}$$

## 8.4 Power

**Definition 40** (Power function). Let  $z, c \in \mathbb{C}$ , such that  $z \neq 0$ . The power multifunction as

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

The branch of the power multifunction for  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  is defined as

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

**Theorem 26.**

$$\operatorname{Log}_\alpha z - \operatorname{Log}_\beta z = i \left( \operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z - \operatorname{Arg}_\beta z \right)$$

## Part V

# Complex Integrals

## 1 Complex Integrals

**Definition 41** (Integral of complex functions). Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Let

$$f(t) = u(t) + iv(t)$$

Therefore, the integrals of  $u(t)$  and  $v(t)$  are defined as

$$\int_a^b u(t) \, dt = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n u(t_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $T$  is a splitting of  $[a, b]$ , such that

$$a = t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$$

and

$$\int_a^b v(t) \, dt = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n v(t_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $T$  is a splitting of  $[a, b]$ , such that

$$a = t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$$

These integrals are defined when the limit exists without depending on  $T$ .

When they exist, the integral of  $f(t)$  is defined as

$$\int_a^b f(t) \, dt = \int_a^b u(t) \, dt + i \int_a^b v(t) \, dt$$

**Theorem 27.** *All properties of real integrals are also valid for complex integrals.*

**Theorem 28.**

$$\left| \int_a^b f(t) \, dt \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(t)| \, dt$$

## 2 Curves in $\mathbb{C}$

**Definition 42.** A continuous function  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called a curve.

**Definition 43** (Parametric representation of a curve). The curve  $\gamma(t)$  can be represented as

$$\gamma(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$$

where  $t$  is a parameter.

**Definition 44** (Differentiability).  $\gamma$  is said to be differentiable if  $x$  and  $y$  are both differentiable.

**Theorem 29** (Parametric representation of a straight line). *Let  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ . The straight line passing through  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  can be represented parametrically as*

$$\gamma(t) = z_1 + t(z_2 - z_1)$$

*The slope of this line is  $z_2 - z_1$ .*

**Theorem 30** (Parametric representation of a circle). *A circle with radius  $r$ , centred at the origin, can be represented parametrically as*

$$\gamma(t) = re^{it}$$

*with  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .*

**Exercise 12.**

Parametrize the curve  $\left\{ z = x + iy : \frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 = 1 \right\}$  starting from 2, and going anti-clockwise twice.

**Solution 12.**

The curve is an ellipse centred at  $(0, 0)$ , with  $a = 2$ , and  $b = 1$ .

$$\gamma(t) = 2 \cos t + i \sin t$$

Therefore, as the curve goes anti-clockwise twice,  $t \in [0, 4\pi]$ .

**Definition 45** (Simple curve). A curve  $\gamma$  is said to be simple if it is non self-intersecting, i.e. it is one-to-one with respect to the parameter  $t$ , except maybe at the extreme values of  $t$ .

**Definition 46** (Closed curve). A curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is said to be closed, if and only if

$$\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$$

**Definition 47** (Jordan curve). A closed simple curve is called a Jordan curve.

**Theorem 31.** *A Jordan curve enclosed a region inside it.*

**Definition 48** (Piecewise differentiability).  $\gamma$  is said to be piecewise differentiable if there exists a splitting

$$a = t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$$

such that  $\gamma$  is differentiable on each segment  $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$ .

### 3 Complex Line Integrals

**Definition 49** (Complex line integral). Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a curve, and let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , where  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ , and  $\gamma([a, b]) \subset D$ . Then, the integral

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \dot{\gamma}(t) dt$$

If  $\gamma$  is piecewise differentiable, then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(\gamma(t)) \dot{\gamma}(t) dt$$