Complex Analysis TSC - 1

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https://aryamanmaithani.github.io/tuts/ma-205

IIT Bombay

18th September, 2020

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You can find a link to this document on bit.ly/ca-205. Both with and without pauses. You may keep it open alongside for quick reference.

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Definition 1 (Some notation)

Given $z_0\in\mathbb{C}$ and $\delta>0$, the δ -neighbourhood of z_0 , denoted by $B_\delta(z_0)$ is the set

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Definition 2 (Open sets)

A set $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ is said to be open if: for *every* $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$, there exists *some* $\delta > 0$ such that

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Definition 3 (Path-connected sets)

A set $P \subset \mathbb{C}$ is said to be path-connected if any two points in P can be joined by a path in P. (A continuous function from [0,1] to P.)

Definition 4 (Differentiable)

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exists. In this case, it is denoted by $f'(z_0)$.



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For sets, however, there is no difference.



End of Lecture 1

Any questions?

Notation

From this point on, Ω be always denote an open subset of \mathbb{C} .

Whenever I write some complex number z as $z = x + \iota y$, it will be assumed that $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Similarly for $f(z) = u(z) + \iota v(z)$.

Lecture 2: CR Equations

Let $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ be a function. We can decompose f as

$$f(z) = u(z) + \iota v(z),$$

where $u, v : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ are real valued functions.

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The idea now is to consider u and v as functions of two variables. We can do so by simply considering $u(x,y) = u(x + \iota y)$ and similarly for v. Now, if we know that f is holomorphic, then we have the following result.

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Existence of u_x , u_y , v_x , v_y is part of the theorem.

Note the subscript is x for both in the above.

Also note that all the equalities are only at the point z_0 . In particular, we are only assuming differentiability at z_0 .



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An example for you to check is

$$f(z) := \begin{cases} \frac{\overline{z}^2}{z} & z \neq 0, \\ 0 & z = 0. \end{cases}$$

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$$f(z) := \begin{cases} \frac{\overline{z}^2}{z} & z \neq 0, \\ 0 & z = 0. \end{cases}$$

Check that u and v satisfy the CR equations at (0,0) but f is not differentiable at $0 + 0\iota$. (Page 23 of slides.)

We recall MA 105 now.

Definition 6 (Total derivative)

If $f:\Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ is a function, we may view it as a function

$$f:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}^2$$
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Recall that f is said to be real differentiable at $(x_0, y_0) \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ if

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$$\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)} \frac{\left\| f(x_0+h,y_0+k) - f(x_0,y_0) - A \begin{bmatrix} h \\ k \end{bmatrix} \right\|}{\|(h,k)\|} = 0.$$

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The matrix A was called the total derivative of f at (x_0, y_0) .



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Take the example $f(z) = \bar{z}$. Thus, we have seen two sufficient conditions for complex differentiability so far. Neither is individually sufficient. However, together, they are.

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Check the second last slide of this lecture to find the algorithm for finding a harmonic conjugate.



End of Lecture 2

Any questions?

Lecture 3: Power Series

Definition 8 (Convergence of series)

A series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$$

of complex numbers is said to converge if the sequence of partial sums

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"Divergent" is simply used to mean "not convergent." Check that $\sum (-1)^n$ and $\sum n$ both diverge.



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If $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$ itself exists, then it equals the lim sup as well.



We will be interested in discussing radius of convergence of *power* series. We all know what that is. It is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n \qquad (*)$$

where $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and each $a_n \in \mathbb{C}$.

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What is the radius of convergence, though? (The definition, that is.)

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We would now like to be able to calculate the radius of convergence.

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If $\alpha = 0$, then $R = \infty$ and vice-versa.



We have another test. This is simpler (to calculate) but mightn't always work.

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Note that I'm not taking any inverse here but also note the way the ratio is taken. We have a_n/a_{n+1} .



Differentiability of power series is what one should expect.

Theorem 7 (Differentiability)

Let $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ be a power series with radius of convergence R > 0. On the open disc of radius R, let f(z) denote this sum. Then, on this disc, we have

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Note that this is again a power series with the same radius of convergence. Thus, we may repeat the process indefinitely. In other words, power series are infinite differentiable.



End of Lecture 3

Any questions?

I shall just recall the facts from the lecture.

Definition 10 (Exponential function)

The power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$$

converges on all of \mathbb{C} . This sum is denoted by $\exp(z)$.

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- \bullet exp(z) is always nonzero.



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Theorem 10 (Final fact)

Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$, then

$$\exp(z+w)=\exp(z)\cdot\exp(w).$$

Definition 11 (Domain)

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The above is saying that around every zero of f, we can draw a (sufficiently small) circle such that f has no other zero in that disc. This is the same as saying that the set of zeroes is *discrete*.

End of Lecture 4

Any questions?

Definition 12

Let $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$ be a piecewise continuous function. Writing $f=u+\iota v$ as usual, we define

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt := \int_a^b u(t) dt + \iota \int_a^b v(t) dt.$$

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Suppose that

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Then, we have

$$\left|\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d}z\right| \leq ML.$$

Theorem 13 (Primitives and integrals)

Suppose $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ has a *primitive* on Ω .

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Now, we come to Cauchy's theorem.

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$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d}z = 0.$$

If Ω is simply-connected, then the interior condition is automatically met. This gives us the next result.



Theorem 15 ("General" Cauchy Theorem)

Let Ω be a simply-connected domain. Let $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$ be a simple, closed contour and $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ holomorphic. Then,

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d}z = 0.$$

End of Lecture 5

Any questions?

Theorem 16 (Cauchy Integral Formula)

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Let f be holomorphic everywhere on an open set Ω . Let γ be a simple closed curve in Ω , oriented positively. If z_0 is interior to γ and Ω contains the interior of γ , then

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi\iota} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} \mathrm{d}z$$

We then saw a consequence of CIF which I state as a theorem below.

Theorem 17 (Holomorphic \implies Analytic)

Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ be open and $f:\Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ be holomorphic. Pick any $z_0 \in \Omega$.

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$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi\iota} \int_{|w-z_0|=r} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^{n+1}} \mathrm{d}w.$$



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where f is a function which is holomorphic on an open disc $B_R(z_0)$ and r < R.

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Remark 3

Note that, as usual, we require f to be holomorphic within the circle as well.



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An easy application of this give us:

Theorem 20 (Liouville's Theorem)

Let $f: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ be holomorphic. If f is bounded, then f is constant!



End of Lectures 6 and 7

Any questions?

We discuss logarithm a bit.

Definition 14 (Branch of the logarithm)

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Theorem 21 (Uniqueness of branches)

Assume that $f,g:\Omega \to \mathbb{C}$ are two branches of the logarithm.

We discuss logarithm a bit.

Definition 14 (Branch of the logarithm)

Let $\Omega\subset\mathbb{C}$ be a domain. Let $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ be a continuous function such that

$$\exp(f(z)) = z$$
, for all $z \in \Omega$.

Then, f is called a branch of the logarithm.

Theorem 21 (Uniqueness of branches)

Assume that $f,g:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ are two branches of the logarithm. Then, f-g is a constant function.



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The last theorem also assumed that Ω is a domain.



The previous theorem talked about uniqueness of branches (up to a constant) assuming the existence of such a branch. Now, we see when a branch is actually possible.

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Let Ω be a simply-connected domain in $\mathbb C.$ Assume that $1\in\Omega$ and $0\notin\Omega.$

There exists a unique function $F:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ such that

- F(1) = 0,
- 2 F'(z) = 1/z,
- $F(r) = \log(r)$ for all $r \in \Omega \cap \mathbb{R}^+$.

The log in the last point is the usual log for real numbers as seen in 105.



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Definition 15 (Singularities)

Let $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ be a function. A point $z_0\in\mathbb{C}$ is said to be a singularity of f if

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Compare this "isolation" with what we saw earlier when we said that "zeroes are isolated."



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Remark 4

The above classification is only for isolated singularities.



Definition 18 (Removable singularity)

If an isolated singularity can be removed by defining the function by assigning a certain value at that point, we say that the singularity is removable.

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$$f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z}$$

defined on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ has 0 as a removable singularity.



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An isolated singularity z_0 is a pole of f iff $\lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{1}{f(z)} = 0$.

Theorem 25 (Order of a pole)

If z_0 is a pole of f, then there exists an integer m > 0 such that

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^{-m} f_1(z)$$

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If z_0 is a pole of f, then there exists an integer m > 0 such that

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on a punctured neighbourhood of z_0 , for some function f_1 which is holomorphic on the complete neighbourhood.



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If the order is 1, then z_0 is said to be *simple* pole.

Definition 20 (Essential singularity)

An isolated singularity is called an essential singularity if it is neither a removable singularity nor a pole.

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Theorem 26 (Casorati-Weierstrass Theorem)

If z_0 is an isolated singularity, then it is essential iff the values of f come arbitrarily close to every complex number in a neighborhood of z_0 .

End of Lecture 8

Any questions?

Theorem 27 (Modified CIF)

Suppose that z_0 is an isolated singularity of f.

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Just like how the usual CIF gave us the power series, this CIF gives us the Laurent series.



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With the same setup as earlier, for $z \in A$, we can write f(z) as

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Note that the above is valid for n < 0 as well.



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$$a_{-1}=\operatorname{Res}(f;z_0).$$

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Note that the above is implicitly implying that f is holomorphic at all other points within γ .





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Theorem 30 (Isolated singularities and their principal parts)

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- essential iff the principal part has infinitely many terms.

In particular, the residue at a removable singularity is 0.



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Thus,

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$$a_{-1} = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} g^{(m-1)}(z_0).$$



The End

Doubts?