

# Complex-Order and Fractional Derivatives: A First Exploration II

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November 2025

## 1 Introduction

## 2 The Field of orders

### 2.1 more identities and operations

### 2.2 Taylor series memory

## 3 More to the Imagination

### 3.1 The imaginary derivative order polar form

from what we know about  $D^z$  we can say that

$D^1$  and  $D^{-1}$  represents a half turn on the  $D(i)$  plane

$D^i$  and  $D^{-i}$  represents a quarter turn on the  $D(i)$  plane

So if we want to get the generalized form of this, we need to use the polar form instead of the Cartesian form, so

$$D^i f(x) = D^{e^{\frac{i\pi}{2}}} f(x) \quad D^{-1} f(x) = D^{e^{i\pi}} f(x)$$

and generally speaking, for the unit circle around  $D^0$ (the function itself)

$$D^z f(x) = D^{e^{i\theta}} f(x)$$

And to make this formula for the whole complex plane, we write it like this

$$D^z f(x) = D^{re^{i\theta}} f(x)$$

where  $r$  is the length from  $D^0$  to the wanted function

**3.2 exploring more about Imaginary derivatives**  
**3.3 complex functions with  $D^z$**   
**3.4 Complex derivative of a complex function is complex**  
**3.5 Infinite series and complex derivatives**  
**4 Multi variable  $D^z$**   
**5 functional order  $D^{f(\alpha)}$**   
**6 Yes, the whole space is a matrix system**

As we have explored in the first paper, the possibility of matrix order derivative with this simple formula

$$D^A = \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n-A+1)} x^{n-A} = \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n-A+1)} x^n e^{-A \ln(x)} = \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n-A+1)} x^n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k \ln(x)^k}{k!} A^k$$

But let's refine it a little to make it fully clear by changing all the scalers to matrices

$$\begin{aligned} D^A &= \frac{\Gamma((n+1)I)}{\Gamma((n+1)I - A)} x^{nI-A} = \frac{\Gamma((n+1)I)}{\Gamma((n+1)I - A)} x^{nI} e^{-A \ln(x)} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma((n+1)I)}{\Gamma((n+1)I - A)} x^{nI} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k \ln(x)^k}{k!} A^k \end{aligned}$$

For now, to define  $\Gamma(A)$  we are going to use eigenvalues, although Cuchy Integrals are better, but for the sake of intuition and understanding, we are going to discuss them in later sections

This means that the formula only works for **square matrices** for now

We can see a simple example with the matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ; the rotation matrix

for a function  $f(x) = x^2$  we are going to take the  $A$ -th derivative like this

$$D^A f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(3)}{\Gamma(\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix})} x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln(x)^n}{n!} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n$$

The matrix  $A$  returns back at the  $4n$ -th powers, and the Gamma expression is  $\Gamma(\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix})$ , but to continue, we need to find the eigenvalues of this matrix

$$\det \left( \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \right) = \det \left( \begin{pmatrix} 3-\lambda & 1 \\ -1 & 3-\lambda \end{pmatrix} \right) \quad (3-\lambda)(3-\lambda)+1 = 0$$

$$(3 - \lambda)^2 + 1 = 0 \implies 3 - \lambda = \pm i \quad \lambda = 3 - i, 3 + i$$

This equation doesn't have any real roots but only complex roots that are  $-3 - i$  and  $-3 + i$

We are going to find the eigenvectors for all roots

$$((3I - A) - \lambda_1 I)v_1 = 0, \begin{pmatrix} 3 - (3 - i) & 1 \\ -1 & 3 - (3 - i) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} i & 1 \\ -1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

then  $ix + y = 0$  so  $y = -ix$ , let  $x = 1, y = -i$ , the first vector  $= v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$

doing the same for the other root, we get the second vector  $v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$

We are going to let the Model matrix  $P = [v_1 | v_2] = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{pmatrix}$  and the diagonal matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} (3 - i) & 0 \\ 0 & (3 + i) \end{pmatrix}$  so we can calculate  $f(3I - A) = Pf(\Lambda)P^{-1}$   
we can calculate  $P^{-1}$  using the inverse of  $2 \times 2$  matrix formula

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} \implies P^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(P)} \begin{pmatrix} i & -1 \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the determinant of  $P$  is  $(1)(i) - (1)(-i) = i + i = 2i$ , therefore we have the expression  $P^{-1} = \frac{1}{2i} \dots$ , for simplification we multiply the scalar by  $\frac{-i}{-i}$

$$P^{-1} = \frac{-i}{2} \begin{pmatrix} i & -1 \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} (-i)i & (-i)(-1) \\ (-i)i & (-i)1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Since the original gamma function is in the denominator, we can calculate } \Gamma(3I - A)^{-1} \text{ to get a direct result. We can so } \Gamma(3I - A) &= P\Gamma(\Lambda)^{-1}P^{-1} = \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\Gamma(3-i)} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\Gamma(3+i)} \end{pmatrix}^{\frac{1}{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.354 + 0.492i & 0 \\ 0 & 0.354 - 0.492i \end{pmatrix} \right] \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0.354 + 0.492i & 0.354 - 0.492i \\ -i(0.354 + 0.492i) & i(0.354 - 0.492i) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0.354 + 0.492i & 0.354 - 0.492i \\ 0.492 - 0.354i & 0.492 + 0.354i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0.354 + 0.492i + 0.354 - 0.492i & i(0.354 + 0.492i - 0.354 + 0.492i) \\ -i(0.354 + 0.492i - 0.354 - 0.492i) & 0.354 + 0.492i + 0.354 - 0.492i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0.708 & -0.984 \\ 0.984 & 0.708 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

which at the end results  $\begin{pmatrix} 0.354 & -0.492 \\ 0.492 & 0.354 \end{pmatrix}$ , substituting it back to the original derivative formula we get

$$D^A f(x) = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 0.354 & -0.492 \\ 0.492 & 0.354 \end{pmatrix} x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln(x)^n}{n!} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n$$

Note that the infinite sum acts like the imaginary unit (because it's the matrix representation for it ), in which we can replace this sum with  $\begin{pmatrix} \cos(\ln(x)) & \sin(\ln(x)) \\ -\sin(\ln(x)) & \cos(\ln(x)) \end{pmatrix}$

We will test this for some values

$$D^A f(x)|_e = \begin{pmatrix} 8.941 & 0.473 \\ -0.473 & 8.941 \end{pmatrix} \quad D^A f(x)|_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.708 & -0.984 \\ 0.984 & 0.708 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D^A f(x)|_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 10.785 & 1.647 \\ -1.647 & 10.785 \end{pmatrix}$$

We can see that first of all, and as expected, the matrix order changes the type of the function from a scalar to  $2 \times 2$  matrix in this example

We can also see that in this example that the main diagonal of the matrix is equal in sign and value to a quicker increasing value rather than the other diagonal

We can also see that for some value of  $x$  , the second diagonal reaches zero and changes sign of its elements

This is supposed to be similar to  $D^i x^2$  since the matrix we used is isomorphic to the imaginary unit; we know that they have some sort of relationship, nonetheless

## **6.1 exploring more about Matrix derivatives**

### **6.2 Term-wise matrix order**

## **7 To the third dimension**

### **7.1 Modeler differentiation**

### **7.2 Set order derivatives**

### **7.3 group order derivatives**

### **7.4 Vector order derivatives**

## **8 Structural series analysis**

Up till this point in this research series, we have always been using series to identify derivatives, which isn't bad by itself, but the problem arises; these are good for calculation, but we can't get any information about the function from the series, we can't get identities or similarities or any information at all.

This makes the identity of the function hidden for  $D^z$

And in this section, we will analyze some series and try to make them informative by any means

## 8.1 The similarities between functions

Functions can be expressed using summation series, which makes them look easy to identify and see the secrets between them.

For example, we have a function  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ , this function is responsible for cyclic derivatives and have some key properties like it's natural logarithm is 1 which makes it very good for hyper operations that changes addition and multiplication to powers

On the other side, we have a function that has no connection to  $e^x$ , that is  $\frac{1}{1-x}$  with its series being  $1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$

These two functions are very similar, although they aren't connected, we can use the  $D^z$  operator on both of them to understand more about them

$$D^\alpha e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n-\alpha}}{\Gamma(n-\alpha+1)} \quad D^\alpha \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(k+1)}{\Gamma(k-\alpha+1)} x^{k-\alpha}$$

We can see that both functions are very similar, except that  $e^x$  doesn't have a gamma term in the denominator

We can try to find a function in the middle of them constructively

The reason  $e^x$  doesn't have a  $\Gamma(n+1)$  is that it cancels out with the denominator, so if them were both different slightly, we could see more structure, in which we are asking for this coefficient  $\frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(m+1)\Gamma(n-\alpha+1)}$  or something similar of it, and we can find this in  ${}^n C_m$ , which can be found in the series of  $(1+x)^m = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} {}^m C_n x^n$

$$D^\alpha (1+x)^m = \frac{\Gamma(m+1)}{\Gamma(m-\alpha+1)} (1+x)^{m-\alpha} = \frac{\Gamma(m+1)}{\Gamma(m-\alpha+1)} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} {}^n C_{m-\alpha} x^n = \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(m-\alpha+1)}{\Gamma(n+1)\Gamma(m-\alpha-n+1)} \frac{\Gamma(m+1)}{\Gamma(m-\alpha+1)} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(m+1)}{\Gamma(n+1)\Gamma(m-\alpha-n+1)} x^n$$

This function acts like  $e^x$  only when  $m = n$  as they will cancel it and leave for use  $\frac{x^n}{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}$  and when  $m$  approaches  $\infty$  the fraction diverges leaving only  $x^n$  acting like  $\frac{1}{1-x}$

## 8.2 construction from functions

## 8.3 convergence and divergence

There are some functions

## 8.4 product and fractal representation

## 9 variable order derivatives

since  $D^\alpha$  operator extends to linear input, which is  $\alpha$ , we can go further and extend it to different inputs as functions

## 9.1 function order derivatives

The simple function derivative is a function of another variable rather than the differentiated function variable,. The fundamental function is the linear function of alpha  $D^\alpha x^n = \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n+1-\alpha)} x^{n-\alpha}$ , of course, this function is what defines what type of differentiation we are doing, in other words in which direction we are going, as the main linear function  $\alpha$  is for derivatives, when multiplied by negatives gives us  $-\alpha$  which is for integrals. There exists  $\alpha i$ , which represents imaginary differentiation. Then, we have  $\alpha + \beta i$  for complex differentiation, which is a simple multivariable linear function.

So we know functional orders exist and change like the function depending on its type, and we can write their general formula like this

$$D^{g(\alpha)} x^n = \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n-g(\alpha)+1)} x^{n-g(\alpha)}$$

We can try a simple example on this formula

$$g(\alpha) = \alpha^2, f(x) = x^2 \quad D^{g(\alpha)} f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(2+1)}{\Gamma(2-\alpha^2+1)} x^{2-\alpha^2} = \frac{2}{\Gamma(3-\alpha^2)} x^{2-\alpha^2}$$

if we want to see when this function hits gamma pole we can put it in test

$$3 - \alpha^2 \leq 0 \quad \alpha^2 \geq 3 \quad \sqrt{3} \geq \alpha \geq -\sqrt{3} \quad \{3 - \alpha^2 \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

so this function has gamma poles when  $\alpha \in \{\pm\sqrt{3}, \pm 2, \pm\sqrt{5}, \pm\sqrt{6}, \dots\}$ , other than that, there will be no gamma pole, so the expression is defined like this

$$D^{g(x)} f(x) = \frac{2}{\Gamma(\alpha^2 - 3)} x^{2-\alpha^2} \quad \{\alpha \in [-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3}]\}$$

We can see that in general, the function isn't defined only when

$$n+1 - g(\alpha) \leq 0 \quad n+1 \leq g(\alpha) \quad \{n+1 - g(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

another example that we can test on

$$g(\alpha) = \sin(\alpha), f(\alpha) = x^2 \quad D^{g(\alpha)} f(\alpha) = \frac{2}{\Gamma(3 - \sin(\alpha))} x^{2-\sin(\alpha)}$$

This function is actually defined for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  as the range of this function is between  $[-1, 1]$ , the expression  $D^{g(\alpha)} f(\alpha)$  ranges between the first derivative and the second derivative

## 9.2 self variable order derivatives

We can define a simple self variable order derivative as

$$D^x x^n = \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n+1-x)} x^{n-x}$$

However, we need to refine this expression further.

first we write  $x^{n-x}$  as  $x^n e^{-x \ln(x)}$  for simpler calculations.

now we can use the series expansion for  $e^{-x \ln(x)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^k (\ln(x))^k}{k!}$  then we substitute it back

$$D^x x^n = \frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n+1-x)} x^n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^k (\ln(x))^k}{k!}$$

Analyzing this function, we can see that the function reaches its peaks when  $n > x$ , as then the Gamma function would be for positives, and the power would be positive, to find where it hits zero we can solve for the equation

$$\frac{\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(n+1-x)} x^{n-x} = 0$$

But looking at the function closely, there can only be one reason for it to happen. for any power of  $x$  it can never reach zero as there is no number that has a changing power will be zero, and when the numerator is zero of gamma poles, the function itself is non differentiable in the first place, leaving only the denominator, it can only reach zero when the gamma function hits zero, so we solve for the equation

$$n+1-x \leq 0 \quad n+1 \leq x \quad (n+1-x \in \mathbb{Z})$$

only when  $x$  is bigger than or equal to  $n+1$  and the result is an integer we get a gamma pole which leads to an infinity in the denominator leading to a zero , these are the zeros of the derivative

### 9.3 Nested differentiation

## 10 Integrals May I present

### 10.1 Where is the constant of integration?

As we saw from this whole paper, we can use  $D^z$  to differentiate and integrate Real, imaginary, or matrix, yet something seems to be missing.

**The constant of integration**, something so fundamental in calculus, yet seems to be missing

But here in fractional calculus, things are different; here we have a lot of "Differentiating" forward or backward, 2D or 3D, and a lot of directions that make it hard even to put it somewhere But at first, we need to understand why, not in standard terms, but in this research term

The constant of Integration is something that arises when integrating, that is, because under differentiation, we lose constants and variables according to the order

That is because of the definition of  $D^z$ , which transforms functions from one state to another.

take, for example,  $f(x) = x^5 + 14$ , from a prescriptive of stranded calculus, when we differentiate, constants are gone because they don't have any rate of change, the answer is simply

$$D^1 f(x) = 5x^4$$

But as we discussed, the rate of change isn't a core in the derivative but a side effect. To see the full picture, we need to use the whole Gamma formula with the knowledge that  $C = Cx^0$

$$D^1 f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(6)}{\Gamma(5)} x^{5-1} + 14 \frac{\Gamma(1)}{\Gamma(0)} x^{0-1} = 5x^4 + \frac{14}{\Gamma(0)} x^{-1}$$

We can see that the denominator has a Gamma pole in it, which leads the whole term to be 0, taking the constant with it

In other words, differentiation, as we discussed, loses memory; the more it differentiates, the more it's gone

Integration is the exact opposite; it retains memory, and we can see that too from the standard calculus approach

$$D^{-1}(x^2) = \frac{x^3}{3} + C$$

We see that here the constant of integration is dependent on logic, the simple logic is that if we differentiate, we lose constants, then integration, the opposite of it must return them

Let's see what happens from the fractional derivatives point of view. First, we assume that there exists a pole  $C \frac{\Gamma(1)}{\Gamma(0)} x^{-1}$  that went to zero, which is in the range of possibility

$$D^{-1}(x^2) = \frac{\Gamma(3)}{\Gamma(4)} x^{2-(-1)} + C \frac{\Gamma(1)}{\Gamma(0)} \frac{\Gamma(0)}{\Gamma(1)} x^{-1-(-1)}$$

We can see that both fractions cancel out, leaving only  $Cx^0$ , which is  $C$

$$D^{-1}(x^2) = \frac{x^3}{3} + C$$

We can see that this works mathematically here, no matter how many constants may be there, all of them will simply add up under the term  $x^0$

That is, of course, with one problem, there are infinite Gamma poles; whenever the denominator hits a non-positive integer, it hits a pole, we can't really make sure if the gamma pole was at the second derivative, or the tenth, the memory of the functions is wide, and for that we need to define two categories of derivatives

**Pure derivatives:** these are derivatives that don't hold any memory.

**Memory derivatives:** these are functions that hold memory and can be separated into three:

1. **Memory stated functions:** functions that have a stated amount of change in order of  $D^z$
2. **Always existed functions:** functions that have an infinite series of memory
3. **Application derivatives:** where the constant exists if and only if it satisfies the required equation or does not make any change to it (Although doubtful since any change in the function will lead to a change in the derivative)

## 11 Combinations

### 11.1 the fractional derivative of $x!$

### 11.2 the fractional derivative of permutations and combinations

## 12 Differential equations

### 12.1 Bessel functions

### 12.2 Hermite polynomials

### 12.3 Legendre polynomials

### 12.4 Hyper geometric functions

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