

Chapter 3

COMPLEX VARIABLES

Lecture 7

- 3.1 Complex Numbers and Functions
- 3.2 Analytic Function
- 3.3 Cauchy's Theorem



Leonard Euler

(1707-1783)

Math/Physics

Calculus, Euler-Lagrange Eq.

" i , π , e , $f(x)$, Σ "

$\cos z$, $\sin z$, $\tan z$

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$



Augustin-Louis Cauchy

(1789-1857)

Math/Physics

Complex Analysis

Stress Tensor

3.1 Complex Numbers and Functions

A complex number z is an ordered pair of two real numbers (x, y) , which is subject to a multiplication rule:

$$(a, b) \cdot (c, d) = (ac - bd, bc + ad) \quad (3.1)$$

By introducing a symbol i , where $i^2 = -1$, we can write $z = (x, y) = x + iy$. Retaining all the arithmetic rules of real numbers, the multiplication rule of complex numbers is given by that of real numbers:

$$(a + ib) \cdot (c + id) = ac - bd + i(bc + ad) \quad (3.2)$$

A complex number can also be defined in a complex polar coordinates (r, θ) :

$$z = x + iy = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = re^{i\theta} \quad (3.3)$$

where $r = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ are called the magnitude (or modulus) and the phase (or argument) of z , respectively. Here we use the sign convention: θ increases along a counterclockwise direction.

We define a function of complex variables as a mapping from z to $w = f(z)$ plane:

$$f(z) = u(z) + iv(z) \quad (3.4)$$

where $u(z)$ and $v(z)$ are real-valued functions. Then all the elementary functions of real variables can be extended into complex variables.

For instance, the exponential function can be defined by a power series:

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!} = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots \quad (3.5)$$

and the Euler formula relates the exponentials with sinusoidal and hyperbolic functions:

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\pm iz} &= \cos z \pm i \sin z \\ e^{\pm z} &= \cosh z \pm \sinh z \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

Simply-Connected and Multiply-Connected Regions

A region R in the z plane is said to be a **simply-connected** region if any closed curve in R encloses only points belonging to R . However, another region R' might be a **multiply-connected** region where some closed curves in R' can also enclose points not belonging to R' (Fig 2-1).

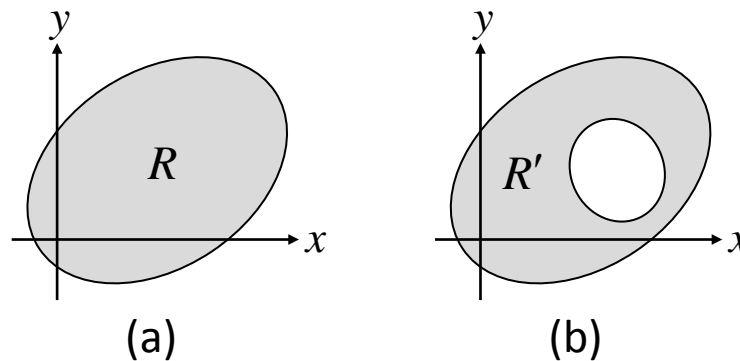


Fig. 3-1 (a) Simply-connected region and (b) multiply-connected region.

3.2 Analytic Function

For physics and engineering problems, we are interested mainly in **continuous** and **differentiable** functions. In complex analysis, the **“well-behaved” analytic function** plays the most important role for physical problems.

Continuity and Differentiability

[Def: Continuity] $f(z)$ is **continuous** at z if there exists the limit:

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} f(z + \Delta z) = f(z) \quad \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} f(z + \Delta z) = f(z) \quad (3.7)$$

[Def: Differentiability] $f(z)$ is **differentiable** at z if there exists the limit:

$$f'(z) = \frac{df(z)}{dz} \equiv \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta u + i\Delta v}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} \quad f'(z) = \frac{df(z)}{dz} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta z} \quad (3.8)$$

where the increments are defined as $\Delta f = f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)$ and $\Delta z = \Delta x + i\Delta y$, and the existence of the limit means that $f'(z)$ has **the same single value no matter which direction** we take to approach to z . In other words, $f'(z)$ should not depend on the direction for differentiation.

Cauchy–Riemann Conditions

For the existence of $f(z)$, the limit should have the same single value for all the possible approach ($\Delta z = \Delta x + i\Delta y \rightarrow 0$) to z , which is the condition of **isotropic derivative**.

Considering two possible paths of ($\Delta z = \Delta x$ and $\Delta z = i\Delta y$),

$$\lim_{\substack{\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \\ (y=0)}} \frac{\Delta u + i\Delta v}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\substack{(x=0) \\ \Delta y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{\Delta u + i\Delta v}{i\Delta y} \rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad (3.9)$$

we have

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \quad \text{Cauchy-Riemann Condition} \quad (3.10)$$

which is actually the necessary condition for differentiability at a point z . The sufficient conditions for differentiability are given by 1) the Cauchy-Riemann condition and 2) the continuity at z .

Analytic Function

A function $f(z)$ is said to be analytic (regular or holomorphic) at z if $f(z)$ is **differentiable at z and also in its neighborhood**. So there is a slight difference between differentiability and analyticity: **the analyticity is a stronger condition than differentiability**.

If $f(z)$ is analytic at a point, the point is said to be **regular**. If $f(z)$ is not analytic at a point, the point is said to be **singular**.

3.3 Cauchy's Theorem

$$\int_{z_A}^{z_B} dz f(z) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N f(z_n)(z_n - z_{n-1})$$

Contour Integral

A contour integral of a complex function $f(z)$ over a contour from z_A to z_B in the z -plane is defined as a limit of consecutive infinitesimal summation:

$$\int_{z_A}^{z_B} dz f(z) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N f(z_n)(z_n - z_{n-1}) \quad (3.11)$$

with a set of intermediate points between z_A and z_B .

Cauchy-Goursat Theorem (Cauchy Theorem)

If $f(z)$ is analytic within and on a closed contour C , then

$$\oint_C dz f(z) = 0 \quad (3.12)$$

Although an approximate proof is available from many textbooks, the formal and rigorous proof of Cauchy-Goursat theorem is not easy. You can find it in some advanced textbooks.

The original **Cauchy's theorem, a weak version of the Cauchy-Goursat theorem**, requires an additional condition that $f'(z)$ is continuous in the region, which had been shown to be unnecessary by Goursat. The standard reference direction of a closed contour is usually **counterclockwise**.

Morera Theorem : The Converse of the Cauchy's Theorem

If $f(z)$ is continuous in a region R , and if $\oint_C dz f(z) = 0$ for any closed contour C in R , then $f(z)$ is analytic in R .

Path Independence

If $f(z)$ is analytic within and on a closed contour C in a region R , then

$$\int_{C_1} dz f(z) = \int_{C_2} dz f(z) \quad (3.13)$$

where the closed contour consists of C_1 and C_2 as shown in Fig. 3-2. This is a direct consequence of the Cauchy-Goursat theorem.

Antiderivative Theorem

If $f(z)$ is analytic in R , and if $F(z)$ is defined as the antiderivative of $f(z)$:

$$F(z) = \int_{z_0}^z dz' f(z') \quad (3.14)$$

then $F(z)$ is also analytic and $F'(z) = f(z)$.

Note that the integration path can be taken to be a straight line between z_0 and z because of the path independence of the analytic function. This means that the proof is easy.

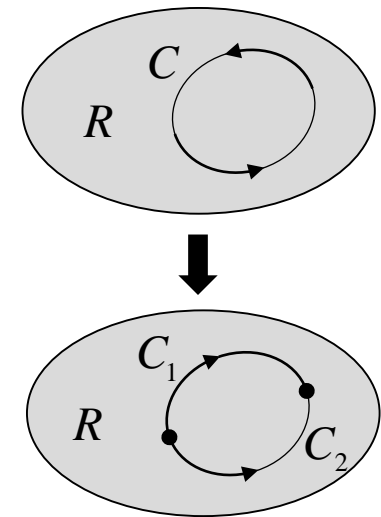


Fig. 3-2 Path independence of contour integral.

Cauchy's Integral Formula: Conversion from "Multiply-Connected" to "Simply-Connected"

If $f(z)$ is analytic within and on a closed contour C , then for any interior point z_0

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C dz \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} \quad (3.15)$$

Proof) Having a singular point z_0 within the contour C , the interior region is multiply-connected. So we convert it into a simply-connected region by using a modified contour $\Gamma = C_\varepsilon + L_{\varepsilon 1} + C'_\varepsilon + L_{\varepsilon 2}$ for an effectively simply-connected interior region with no singular point, as shown in Fig. 3-3.

From the Cauchy's theorem (3.12) in the limit of $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$

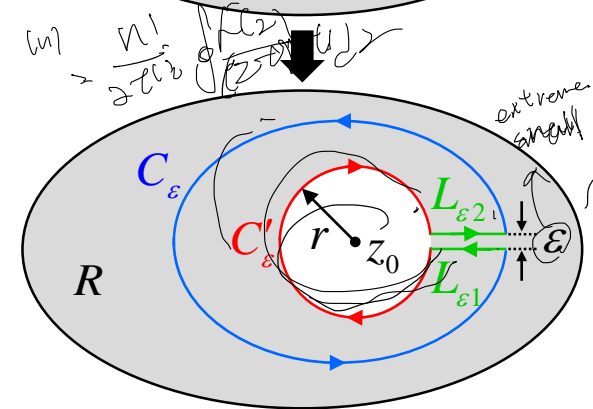
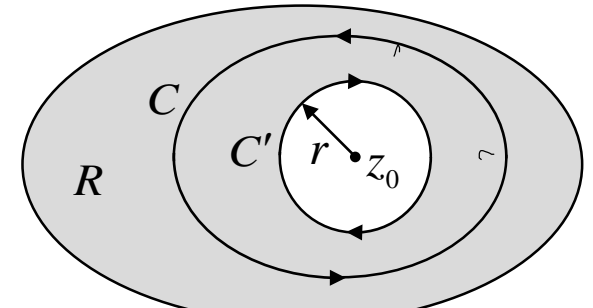
$$\oint_\Gamma dz \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} \Big|_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} = \left[\int_C dz + \int_{L_1} dz + \int_{C'} dz + \int_{L_2} dz \right] \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} = 0$$

With $z = z_0 + re^{i\theta}$ and $dz = ire^{i\theta} d\theta$ on C'

$$\oint_C dz \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} = - \oint_{C'} dz \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} = - \int_{2\pi}^0 ire^{i\theta} d\theta \frac{f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})}{re^{i\theta}}$$

$$\xrightarrow{r \rightarrow 0} 2\pi i f(z_0)$$

QED



$$\Gamma = C_\varepsilon + L_1 + C'_\varepsilon + L_2$$

Fig. 3-3 Contour conversion for Cauchy's Integral Formula.