

Complex Analysis

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1 Complex Numbers and Properties

1.1 Definitions

A complex number is a number of the form $z = x + iy$, where x, y are real numbers and i is the imaginary unit, satisfying the equation $i^2 = -1$. The set of complex numbers is denoted by \mathbb{C} .

$$\mathbb{C} = \{x + iy \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}, i = \sqrt{-1}\}$$

- For any complex number $z = x + iy$, x is called the real part of z and y is called the imaginary part of z . That is, $Re(z) = x$ and $Im(z) = y$.

- Since $i = \sqrt{-1}$, we have

$$\Rightarrow i^2 = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow i^4 = 1$$

Hence $i^{4m} = 1$ for any $m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- The conjugate of a complex number $z = x + iy$ is given by $\bar{z} = x - iy$.
- Modulus of a complex number z , $|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

1.2 Properties

If $z_1 = a + ib$ and $z_2 = c + id$ where $z_2 \neq 0$, then

- $z_1 + z_2 = (a + c) + i(b + d)$
- $z_1 - z_2 = (a - c) + i(b - d)$
- $z_1 z_2 = (ac - bd) + i(ad + bc)$
- $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \left(\frac{ac+bd}{c^2+d^2}\right) + i\left(\frac{bc-ad}{c^2+d^2}\right)$
- $arg(z_1) = \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{b}{a}$

- Polar form of a complex number $z = x + iy$ having $|z| = r$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} z &= r \cos \theta + ir \sin \theta \\ \Rightarrow z &= r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \\ \Rightarrow z &= re^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

- $\arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$
- $\arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2)$
- $\arg(z^n) = n * \arg(z)$
- $|z|^2 = z\bar{z}$

1.3 Examples

- Evaluate $\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^4 \theta d\theta$.

Solution. We have that,

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2} \\ \Rightarrow \cos^4 \theta &= \left(\frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2} \right)^4 \\ &= \frac{1}{16} (e^{4i\theta} + 4e^{3i\theta} \cdot e^{-i\theta} + 6e^{2i\theta} \cdot e^{-2i\theta} + 4e^{i\theta} \cdot e^{-3i\theta} + e^{-4i\theta}) \\ &= \frac{1}{16} (e^{4i\theta} + 4e^{2i\theta} + 6e^0 + 4e^{-2i\theta} + e^{-4i\theta}) \\ &= \frac{1}{16} [(e^{4i\theta} + e^{-4i\theta}) + 4(e^{2i\theta} + e^{-2i\theta}) + 6] \\ &= \frac{1}{16} (2 \cos 4\theta + 8 \cos 2\theta + 6) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} (\cos 4\theta + 4 \cos 2\theta + 3) \\ \therefore \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^4 \theta d\theta &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{8} (\cos^4 \theta + 4 \cos 2\theta + 3) d\theta \quad (1) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{1}{4} \sin 4\theta + \frac{4}{2} \sin 2\theta + 3\theta \right) \Big|_0^{2\pi} \quad (2) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{1}{4} \sin 8\pi + 2 \sin 4\pi + 6\pi - \frac{1}{4} \sin 0 - 2 \sin 0 - 0 \right) \quad (3) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \cdot 6\pi \quad (4) \\ &= \frac{3\pi}{4} \quad \square \quad (5) \end{aligned}$$

2 Sequences of Complex Numbers

2.1 Convergence

A sequence $\{z_n\}$ of complex numbers is said to converge to a complex number w if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a positive integer n_0 such that $|z_n - w| < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq n_0$. **OR** a sequence of complex numbers is said to converge to $w \in \mathbb{C}$ if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = w$$

2.2 Cauchy Sequence

A sequence $\{z_n\}$ of complex numbers is said to be Cauchy if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|z_n - z_m| < \epsilon$ for all $m, n \geq n_0$.

For any $z_n = x_n + iy_n$, $\{z_n\}$ is Cauchy if and only if $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are Cauchy.

2.3 Theorem: \mathbb{C} is complete

Statement \mathbb{C} , the set of complex numbers, is complete.

Proof Let $z_n = x_n + iy_n$ form a Cauchy sequence then $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are Cauchy. Since \mathbb{R} is complete, $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ converge to x and y in \mathbb{R} respectively. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exist two natural numbers n_1 and n_2 such that $|x_n - x| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ and $|y_n - y| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$.

Now choose $n_0 = \max\{n_1, n_2\}$ and let $w = x + iy$.

$$\therefore |z_n - w| = |(x_n + iy_n) - (x + iy)| \tag{6}$$

$$= |(x_n - x) + i(y_n - y)| \tag{7}$$

$$\leq |x_n - x| + |y_n - y| \tag{8}$$

$$< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \tag{9}$$

$$< \epsilon \tag{10}$$

So for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|z_n - w| < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq n_0$. Thus $\{z_n\}$ converges to w , hence \mathbb{C} is complete. \square

3 Sets in Complex Plane

3.1 Open Disc

$$D_r(z_0) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - z_0| < r\}$$

3.2 Closed Disc

$$\overline{D}_r(z_0) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - z_0| \leq r\}$$

3.3 Interior Point

Given a set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$, a point z_0 is an interior point of Ω if there exists $r > 0$ such that

$$D_r(z_0) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - z_0| < r\} \subset \Omega.$$

3.4 Open Set

A set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is open if every point in Ω is an interior point of Ω .

3.5 Interior

The interior of Ω consists of all its interior points.

3.6 Limit Point

A point $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is said to be a limit point of a set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ if there exists a sequence points $z_n \in \Omega$ s.t. $z_n \neq z$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z$$

3.7 Closed Set

A set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is closed if $\Omega^c = \mathbb{C} - \Omega$ is open.

3.8 Closure($\overline{\Omega}$)

The closure of any set Ω is the union of Ω and its limit points.

3.9 Diameter

If Ω is bounded, we define its diameter by

$$diam(\Omega) = \sup_{z, w \in \Omega} |z - w|$$

3.10 Compact Set

A set Ω is said to be compact if it is closed and bounded.

3.11 Open Covering

An open covering of a set Ω is the family of open sets $\{U_\alpha\}$ (not necessarily countable) such that $\Omega \subset \{U_\alpha\}$.

3.12 Connected Sets

An open set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is said to be connected if it is not possible to find two disjoint non-empty open sets Ω_1 and Ω_2 s.t. $\Omega = \Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2$.

4 Complex-valued Functions

Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$, a function is defined on Ω is a rule which assigns every $z \in \Omega$ to a complex number w i.e. $f(z) = w$.

- For $w = f(z) = u(z) + iv(z)$, $Re(f) = u$ and $Im(f) = v$.

4.1 Examples

- Given $f(z) = \frac{z}{1+z}$, find real and imaginary part of f .

Solution. Let $z = x + iy$, for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

$$f(z) = \frac{x + iy}{1 + (x + iy)} \quad (11)$$

$$= \frac{x + iy}{(1 + x) + iy} \quad (12)$$

$$= \frac{x + iy}{(1 + x) + iy} * \frac{(1 + x) - iy}{(1 + x) - iy} \quad (13)$$

$$= \frac{x + x^2 - ixy + iy + ixy - i^2y^2}{(1 + x)^2 - i^2y^2} \quad (14)$$

$$= \frac{x + x^2 + y^2 + iy}{(1 + x)^2 + y^2} \quad (15)$$

$$= \frac{x^2 + y^2 + x}{(1 + x)^2 + y^2} + i \frac{y}{(1 + x)^2 + y^2} \quad (16)$$

$$Re(f) = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + x}{(1 + x)^2 + y^2} \text{ and } Im(f) = \frac{y}{(1 + x)^2 + y^2}$$

- Find the domain of $f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 4}$.

Solution. $f(z)$ is not defined for $z^2 + 4 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow z^2 = -4$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \sqrt{-4}$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \pm 2i$$

Therefore, the domain of f is $\mathbb{C} - \{\pm 2i\}$.

4.2 Region

A non-empty open connected subset of \mathbb{C} is called a region.

4.3 Domain

An open connected set is called a domain.

4.4 Limit of a Function

Consider a function $f(z)$ defined on D , we say that L is the limit of the function $f(z)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t.

$$|f(z) - L| < \epsilon \text{ whenever } |z - z_0| < \delta.$$

- We say that $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = L$.

4.5 Algebra of Limits

Let f and g be two complex valued functions defined in a neighbourhood of z_0 except possibly at z_0 and given that $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = L$ and $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} g(z) = M$, then

- $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} [f(z) \pm g(z)] = L \pm M$
- $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(g(z)) = LM$
- $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f}{g}(z) = \frac{L}{M}$ for $M \neq 0$.
- $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \overline{f(z)} = \overline{L}$
- $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} |f(z)| = |L|$.

4.6 Limit at Infinity

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

if for given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists any $R > 0$ s.t.

$$|f(z) - L| < \epsilon \text{ for } |z| > R.$$

4.7 Infinite Limits

$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = \infty$ if for given $R > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t.

$$|f(z)| > R \text{ if } |z - z_0| < \delta.$$

4.8 Continuous Functions

Let f be complex valued function defined on a set Ω of complex numbers. We say f is continuous at a point $z_0 \in \Omega$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon \text{ whenever } |z - z_0| < \delta.$$

If f is continuous at z_0 , then:

- $Re(f)$ is continuous at z_0
- $Im(f)$ is continuous at z_0
- \bar{f} is continuous at z_0
- $|f|$ is continuous at z_0
- αf is continuous at z_0 , where α is any scalar.

5 Differentiability, Holomorphic Functions or Analytic Functions

5.1 Definition

Let f be a complex-valued function in a domain Ω then f is said to be holomorphic at a point $z_0 \in \Omega$ if the limit:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h}$$

exists and we denote it as $f'(z_0)$.

- If f is holomorphic at every point of Ω then f is called holomorphic on Ω .
- If Ω is a closed subset of \mathbb{C} then we say that f is holomorphic on Ω if f is holomorphic on an open set containing Ω .

5.2 Entire Functions

A function f is said to be entire if f is holomorphic entirely on \mathbb{C} .

5.3 Analytic Functions

A function $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ is analytic if

- f satisfies Cauchy-Riemann equations:

$$u_x = v_y \quad (17)$$

$$u_y = -v_x \quad (18)$$

- u_x, u_y, v_x and v_y exist and are continuous.

5.4 Theorem

Suppose $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ is complex valued function on an open set Ω . If u and v are continuously differentiable and satisfy $C-R$ equations on Ω , then f is holomorphic on Ω and $f'(z) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$.

Proof :- Given that (i) u and v are continuously differentiable and (ii) both satisfy $C-R$ equations on Ω .

To show that f is holomorphic, we have to prove that f is complex differentiable at every point of Ω . f is differentiable at a point $z \in \Omega$ if the limit:

$$f'(z) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h}$$

exists, where h is a complex constant.

Let $z = x + iy$ and $h = \Delta x + i\Delta y$.

So, $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$
and

$$f(z+h) = f((x+iy) + (\Delta x + i\Delta y)) \quad (19)$$

$$= f((x+\Delta x) + i(y+\Delta y)) \quad (20)$$

$$= u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) + iv(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) \quad (21)$$

Now,

$$\frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h} = \frac{[u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) + iv(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y)] - [u(x, y) + iv(x, y)]}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} \quad (22)$$

$$= \frac{[u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y)] + i[v(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - v(x, y)]}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} \quad (23)$$

Using Taylor's series expansion of a function $g(x, y)$,

$$g(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - g(x, y) = g_x \Delta x + g_y \Delta y + O(|h|)$$

where $O(|h|) \rightarrow 0$ faster than $|h|$ when $h \rightarrow 0$. That is,

$$\boxed{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{O(|h|)}{h} = 0}$$

Equation (13) becomes,

$$\frac{f(z + h) - f(z)}{h} = \frac{[u_x \Delta x + u_y \Delta y + O(|h|)] + i[v_x \Delta x + v_y \Delta y + O(|h|)]}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} \quad (24)$$

By $C - R$ equations, $u_x = v_y$ and $u_y = -v_x$, So

$$\frac{f(z + h) - f(z)}{h} = \frac{[u_x \Delta x - v_x \Delta y + O(|h|)] + i[v_x \Delta x + u_x \Delta y + O(|h|)]}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} \quad (25)$$

$$= \frac{\Delta x(u_x + i v_x) + \Delta y(i u_x - v_x) + O(|h|)(1 + i)}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} \quad (26)$$

$$= \frac{\Delta x(u_x + i v_x) + i \Delta y(u_x + i v_x)}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} + \frac{O(|h|)(1 + i)}{h} \quad (27)$$

$$= \frac{(\Delta x + i \Delta y)(u_x + i v_x)}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} + \frac{O(|h|)(1 + i)}{h} \quad (28)$$

$$= (u_x + i v_x) + \frac{O(|h|)(1 + i)}{h} \quad (29)$$

Taking $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0}$ both sides,

$$f'(z) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + h) - f(z)}{h} \quad (30)$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[(u_x + i v_x) + \frac{O(|h|)(1 + i)}{h} \right] \quad (31)$$

$$= u_x + i v_x \quad (32)$$

This shows that f is complex differentiable at any point of Ω , therefore f is holomorphic on Ω . \square

5.5 Conjugate Harmonic Functions

Let $f = u + iv$ be an analytic function then v is harmonic conjugate of u and u is harmonic conjugate of $-v$.

- If $f = u + iv$ is an analytic function and u is harmonic conjugate of v as well as v is harmonic conjugate of u , then f is constant.
- If u is a harmonic function then $f(z) = u_x - iu_y$ is analytic.
- If u and v are conjugate harmonic functions, then uv is harmonic.

5.6 Problems on Analytic Functions

- Is f analytic, if $f(z) = (2x - 3y) + i(3x + 2y)$?
Solution. Here

$$u(x, y) = 2x - 3y \quad (33)$$

$$v(x, y) = 3x + 2y \quad (34)$$

$$u_x = 2, u_y = -3, v_x = 3 \text{ and } v_y = 2$$

$$u_x = v_y \text{ and } u_y = -v_x$$

So f is analytic.

- If $f = u + iv$ is analytic and $u = v^2$ then prove that f is constant.
Solution. Given $u = v^2$

Differentiating w.r.t. x partially,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

Again differentiating w.r.t. y partially,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 2v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

From the above,

$$2v = \frac{u_x}{v_x} = \frac{u_y}{v_y} \quad (35)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{u_x}{v_x} = \frac{-v_x}{u_x} \quad (36)$$

$$\Rightarrow u_x^2 = -v_x^2 \quad (37)$$

$$\Rightarrow u_x^2 = -(-u_y^2) \quad (38)$$

$$\Rightarrow u_x^2 + u_y^2 = 0 \quad (39)$$

$$(40)$$

So u is constant $\Rightarrow f$ is constant. \square

- Compute the complex form of $C - R$ equations.

Solution. The Cauchy-Riemann equations, for a complex function $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ are:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

In terms of complex derivatives, using the Wirtinger derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right), \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)$$

The Cauchy-Riemann equations are equivalent to the condition:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$$

which ensures that $f(z)$ is holomorphic.

- Test whether the function $e^x(\cos y - i \sin y)$ is analytic.

Solution. Let

$$f(z) = e^x(\cos y - i \sin y)$$

$$f(z) = e^x e^{-iy} = e^{x-iy}$$

$$f(z) = e^x \cos y - i e^x \sin y$$

Thus, we define:

$$u(x, y) = e^x \cos y, \quad v(x, y) = -e^x \sin y$$

Compute the Partial Derivatives:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= e^x \cos y, & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= -e^x \sin y \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} &= -e^x \sin y, & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} &= e^x \cos y\end{aligned}$$

Check the Cauchy-Riemann Equations:

The Cauchy-Riemann equations are:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

Substituting:

$$e^x \cos y \neq -e^x \cos y$$

\therefore Given function f is not analytic.

□

- Compute the polar form of $C - R$ equations.

Solution. Let

$$z = x + iy \quad (41)$$

$$= r \cos \theta + ir \sin \theta \quad (42)$$

$$= re^{i\theta} \quad (43)$$

So $f(z) = u(r, \theta) + iv(r, \theta)$

Differentiating the above equation w.r.t. r , partially

$$\begin{aligned} f'(re^{i\theta}) \frac{\partial}{\partial r}(re^{i\theta}) &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \\ \Rightarrow e^{i\theta} f'(re^{i\theta}) &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \end{aligned}$$

Again differentiating f w.r.t. θ partially,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(re^{i\theta}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}(re^{i\theta}) &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} \\ \Rightarrow rie^{i\theta} f'(re^{i\theta}) &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} \\ \Rightarrow ir \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \right) &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} \\ \Rightarrow ir \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} - r \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} \\ \therefore \boxed{u_\theta = -rv_r} \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{u_r = \frac{1}{r}v_\theta}$$

□

- Prove that $u(x, y)$ and $u(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$ are simultaneously harmonic.

Solution. A function $u(x, y)$ is harmonic if it satisfies Laplace's equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

Let $u(x, y)$ be harmonic, meaning

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

Define new coordinates:

$$X = x^2 - y^2, \quad Y = 2xy.$$

Compute partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial X}{\partial x} = 2x, \quad \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} = -2y, \quad \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} = 2y, \quad \frac{\partial Y}{\partial y} = 2x.$$

Apply the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} \frac{\partial X}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y} \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} = 2x \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} + 2y \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y}.$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y} \frac{\partial Y}{\partial y} = -2y \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} + 2x \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y}.$$

Differentiate again:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} + 4x^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial X^2} + 8xy \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial X \partial Y} + 4y^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial Y^2}.$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} + 4y^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial X^2} - 8xy \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial X \partial Y} + 4x^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial Y^2}.$$

Adding these:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 4(x^2 + y^2) \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial Y^2} \right).$$

Since $u(x, y)$ is harmonic, the left-hand side is zero, implying

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial Y^2} = 0.$$

Thus, $u(X, Y) = u(x^2 - y^2, 2xy)$ is also harmonic. □

- Prove that $u(x, y)$ and $u(x^3 - y^3, 2xy)$ are simultaneously harmonic.

Solution. A function $u(x, y)$ is harmonic if it satisfies Laplace's equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Given $u(x, y)$, we define new variables $\alpha = x^3 - y^3$ and $\beta = 2xy$, and consider $u(\alpha, \beta)$. To show that both $u(x, y)$ and $u(\alpha, \beta)$ are harmonic, we use the chain rule.

First, compute the derivatives of α and β :

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} = 3x^2, \quad \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial y} = -3y^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x} = 2y, \quad \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial y} = 2x$$

The second derivatives are:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \alpha}{\partial x^2} = 6x, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \alpha}{\partial y^2} = -6y$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \beta}{\partial x^2} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \beta}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Now, applying the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \alpha} \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \beta} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \alpha^2} \left(\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} \right)^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \alpha \partial \beta} \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \beta^2} \left(\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \alpha} \frac{\partial^2 \alpha}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \beta} \frac{\partial^2 \beta}{\partial x^2}$$

Similarly,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \alpha^2} \left(\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial y} \right)^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \alpha \partial \beta} \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial y} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \beta^2} \left(\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \alpha} \frac{\partial^2 \alpha}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \beta} \frac{\partial^2 \beta}{\partial y^2}$$

Summing these,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Thus, $u(x, y)$ and $u(\alpha, \beta)$ are simultaneously harmonic.

- If $f(z)$ is analytic, show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}|f(z)|\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}|f(z)|\right)^2 = |f'(z)|^2.$$

Solution. Let $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ where $u(x, y)$ and $v(x, y)$ are real-valued functions.

Since $f(z)$ is analytic,

$$u_x = v_y \quad \text{and} \quad u_y = -v_x.$$

$$|f(z)| = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}.$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}|f(z)| = \frac{uu_x + vv_x}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}},$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}|f(z)| = \frac{uu_y + vv_y}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}}.$$

Squaring bothsides,

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}|f(z)|\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}|f(z)|\right)^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{uu_x + vv_x}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{uu_y + vv_y}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{u^2u_x^2 + 2uvu_xv_x + v^2v_x^2}{u^2 + v^2} + \frac{u^2u_y^2 + 2uvu_yv_y + v^2v_y^2}{u^2 + v^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Using Cauchy-Riemann equations $u_x = v_y$ and $u_y = -v_x$,

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{u^2v_y^2 + 2uvv_yv_x + v^2v_x^2}{u^2 + v^2} + \frac{u^2v_x^2 - 2uvv_yv_x + v^2v_y^2}{u^2 + v^2} \\ &= \frac{u^2(v_y^2 + v_x^2) + v^2(v_x^2 + v_y^2)}{u^2 + v^2} \\ &= \frac{(u^2 + v^2)(v_x^2 + v_y^2)}{u^2 + v^2} \\ &= v_x^2 + v_y^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since $v_x^2 + v_y^2 = |f'(z)|^2$, we get:

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}|f(z)|\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}|f(z)|\right)^2 = |f'(z)|^2.$$

□

6 Complex Integration

6.1 Definitions

6.1.1 Simple Closed Path

A closed arc that does not intersect or touch itself is called a simple closed path.

6.1.2 Simply Connected Domain

Every simple closed path in a domain D encloses only points of D then the domain D is called simply connected.

6.1.3 Contour

It is a single point or a finite sequence of directed smooth curves $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n$ such that the initial point of γ_k coincides with the terminal point of γ_{k-1} for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

$$\gamma = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \dots + \gamma_n$$

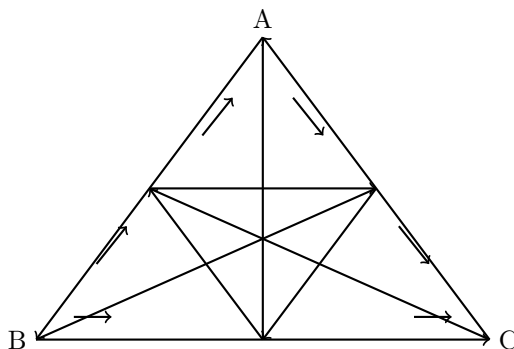
6.2 Goursat's Theorem

(a). If Ω is an open set in \mathbb{C} and $T \subset \Omega$, a triangle whose interior is also contained in Ω then

$$\int_T f(z) dz = 0$$

$\forall z \in \Omega$, where f is holomorphic on Ω .

Proof



Let us consider the first original triangle $T^{(0)}$ with a positive orientation. Let $d^{(0)}$ and $p^{(0)}$ denote diameter and perimeter of $T^{(0)}$, respectively.

Now, bisecting the sides of triangle $T^{(0)}$, which yields four triangles, say $T_1^{(0)}$,

$T_2^{(0)}, T_3^{(0)}, T_4^{(0)}$ Hence,

$$\int_{T^{(0)}} f(z)dz = \sum_{j=1}^4 \int_{T_j^{(1)}} f(z)dz$$

By canceling the integration over the sides with opposite direction, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{T^{(1)}} f(z)dz \right| &\geq \left| \int_{T_j^{(1)}} f(z)dz \right| \\ \Rightarrow \left| \int_{T^{(0)}} f(z)dz \right| &\leq 4 \left| \int_{T^{(1)}} f(z)dz \right| \end{aligned}$$

where $T^{(1)}$ is one among the four triangles with $d^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2}d^{(0)}$ and $p^{(1)} = \frac{1}{2}p^{(0)}$, where $d^{(1)}$ and $p^{(1)}$ denote the diameter and perimeter of triangle $T^{(1)}$, respectively.

Again, repeating the same process n -times, we obtain

$$\left| \int_{T^{(0)}} f(z)dz \right| \leq 4^n \left| \int_{T^{(n)}} f(z)dz \right|$$

with $d^{(n)} = \frac{1}{2^n}d^{(0)}$ and $p^{(n)} = \frac{1}{2^n}p^{(0)}$, where $d^{(n)}$ and $p^{(n)}$ are diameter and perimeter of triangle $T^{(n)}$ respectively.

Since f is holomorphic on Ω , so it is holomorphic at $z_0 \in \Omega$ and $f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \psi(z)(z - z_0)$, where $\psi(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$.

As $f(z_0)$ and $f'(z_0)$ are constants, the first two terms have primitives, thus,

$$\int_{T^{(n)}} [f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0)]dz = 0$$

Thus,

$$\int_{T^{(n)}} f(z)dz = \int_{T^{(n)}} \psi(z)(z - z_0)dz$$

Now, z_0 belongs to the closure of solid triangle Δ^n , and z belongs to the boundary of $T^{(n)}$. Thus,

$$|z - z_0| < d^{(n)}$$

$$\left| \int_{T^{(n)}} f(z)dz \right| \leq \epsilon_n d^{(n)} p^{(n)}$$

where $\epsilon_n = \sup_{z \in T^{(n)}} |\psi(z)| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\Rightarrow \left| \int_{T^{(n)}} f(z)dz \right| \leq \frac{\epsilon_n d^{(n)} p^{(n)}}{4^n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \int_{T^{(0)}} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4^n \left| \int_{T^{(n)}} f(z) dz \right| \leq \epsilon_n d^{(0)} p^{(0)}$$

For $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$. Therefore,

$$\boxed{\int_T f(z) dz = 0.}$$

□

(b). If f is holomorphic in an open set Ω that contains a rectangle R and its interior then

$$\int_R f(z) dz = 0.$$

6.3 Local Existence of Primitives

Theorem. A holomorphic function in an open disc has a primitive in that disc.

6.4 Cauchy's Integral in a Simply Connected Domain

Theorem. If f is holomorphic on a simply connected domain, then for every closed contour C ,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0.$$

Proof Let $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ be analytic on the domain D where $z = x + iy$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C f(z) dz &= \int_C (u + iv)(dx + idy) \\ &= \int_C (u dx + i u dy + i v dx + i^2 v dy) \\ &= \int_C (u dx - v dy) + i \int_C (v dx + u dy) \end{aligned}$$

By **Green's Theorem**,

$$\int_C (P dx + Q dy) = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$

where R is the region enclosed by C .

$$\therefore \int_C (u dx - v dy) = \iint_R \left(\frac{-\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$

and

$$\int_C (v dx + u dy) = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$

Since f is analytic, it satisfies the $C - R$ equations,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$$\therefore \int_C (u dx - v dy) = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) dx dy = 0$$

and

$$\int_C (v dx + u dy) = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) dx dy = 0$$

Hence,

$$\boxed{\int_C f(z) dz = 0}$$

□

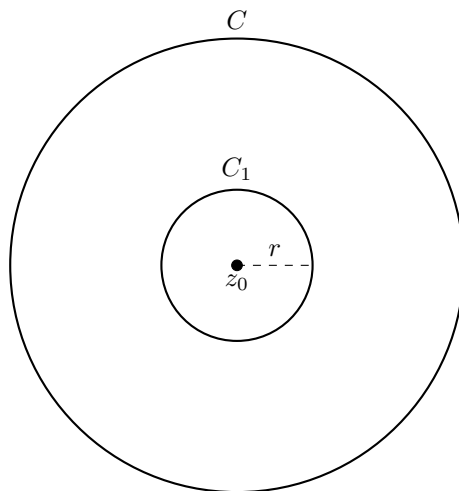
6.5 Cauchy's Integral Formula

Theorem. If f is an analytic function inside and on a closed contour C and if z_0 be any point inside C then

$$\int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = 2\pi i f(z_0)$$

The integration being taken in counter clockwise.

Proof Given that f is analytic inside and on a simple closed contour C and z_0 is any point inside C . Consider a disk C_1 centered at z_0 with radius r .



So,

$$|z - z_0| = r$$

$$z - z_0 = re^{i\theta}$$

$$\Rightarrow dz = rie^{i\theta} d\theta$$

Clearly, $\frac{f(z)}{z-z_0}$ is analytic in $C - C_1$, So

$$\int_{C-C_1} \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz = \int_{C_1} \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz = \int_{C_1} \frac{f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})}{re^{i\theta}} rie^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz = i \int_{C_1} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) d\theta$$

When $r \rightarrow 0$, then $f(z) \rightarrow f(z_0)$.

$$\therefore \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz = i \int_{C_1} f(z_0) d\theta$$

$$= if(z_0) \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta$$

$$= 2\pi if(z_0)$$

Therefore

$$\boxed{\int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz = 2\pi if(z_0)}$$

□

6.6 Problems on Cauchy's Integral Formula

1. Evaluate $\int_C \frac{dz}{z-3i}$ where C is the circle $|z| = \pi$ counter clockwise.

Solution. The singularities of $F(z) = \frac{1}{z-3i}$ is given by

$$z - 3i = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z = 3i$$

which lies inside the circle $|z| = \pi = 3.141$ and here $f(z) = 1$.

Using Cauchy's Integral Formula,

$$\int_C \frac{dz}{z-3i} = 2\pi if(3i)$$

$$= 2\pi i(1)$$

$$= 2\pi i$$

□

2. Evaluate $\int_C \frac{z}{(9-z^2)(z+1)} dz$ where C is the circle $|z| = 2$ counter clockwise.

Solution. The singularities of $F(z) = \frac{z}{(9-z^2)(z+1)}$ are given by

$$(9-z^2)(z+1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 9-z^2 = 0, z+1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \pm 3, z = -1$$

But the pole $z = \pm 3$ lies outside the circle $|z| = 2$, so

$$\int_C \frac{z}{(9-z^2)(z+1)} dz = \int_C \frac{\frac{z}{9-z^2}}{z - (-1)} dz$$

Here $f(z) = \frac{z}{9-z^2}$

$$\int_C \frac{z}{(9-z^2)(z+1)} dz = 2\pi i f(-1)$$

$$= 2\pi i \left(\frac{-1}{9-1} \right)$$

$$= 2\pi i \left(\frac{-1}{8} \right)$$

$$= \frac{-1}{4} \pi i$$

□

3. Evaluate $\int_C \frac{3z-1}{z^3-z} dz$ where C is the circle

$$a. |z| = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$b. |z| = 2$$

Solution The singularities of $F(z) = \frac{3z-1}{z^3-z}$ are given by

$$z^3 - z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z(z^2 - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z = 0, z^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z = 0, z = \pm 1$$

a. For the circle $|z| = \frac{1}{2}$, the poles $z = \pm 1$ do not lie inside. So,

$$\int_C \frac{3z-1}{z^3-z} dz = \int_C \frac{\frac{3z-1}{z^2-1}}{z} dz$$

Here $f(z) = \frac{3z-1}{z^2-1}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \int_C \frac{3z-1}{z^3-z} dz &= 2\pi i f(0) \\ &= 2\pi i \left(\frac{-1}{-1} \right) \\ &= 2\pi i \end{aligned}$$

□

b. For the circle $|z| = 2$, all the singularities lie inside. So,

$$\begin{aligned} F(z) &= \frac{3z-1}{z(z-1)(z+1)} = \frac{A}{z} + \frac{B}{z-1} + \frac{C}{z+1} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{3z-1}{z(z-1)(z+1)} &= \frac{A(z^2-1) + Bz(z+1) + Cz(z-1)}{z(z-1)(z+1)} \\ \Rightarrow 3z-1 &= Az^2 - A + Bz^2 + Bz + Cz^2 - Cz \\ \Rightarrow 3z-1 &= (A+B+C)z^2 + (B-C)z - A \end{aligned}$$

By comparing the coefficients of the powers of z ,

$$\boxed{A = 1}$$

$$A + B + C = 0 \Rightarrow B + C = -1$$

$$B - C = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow 2B = 2 \Rightarrow \boxed{B = 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - C = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow -C = 2 \Rightarrow \boxed{C = -2}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \frac{3z-1}{z^3-z} dz &= \int_C \frac{dz}{z} + \int_C \frac{dz}{z-1} + \int_C \frac{-2dz}{z-(-1)} \\ &= 2\pi i f(0) + 2\pi i f(1) + (-2)2\pi i f(-1) \\ &= 2\pi i(1) + 2\pi i(1) - 4\pi i(1) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

4. Evaluate $\int_C \frac{z+4}{z^2+2z+5} dz$ where C is the circle $|z+1-i|=2$.

Solution The given circle is,

$$\begin{aligned} |z+1-i| &= 2 \\ \Rightarrow |z-(i-1)| &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

The singularities of $F(z) = \frac{z+4}{z^2+2z+5}$ are given by

$$\begin{aligned} z^2 + 2z + 5 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow z &= \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{2^2 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot 5}}{2 \cdot 1} \\ \Rightarrow z &= \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{-16}}{2} \\ \Rightarrow z &= \frac{-2 \pm 4i}{2} \\ \Rightarrow z &= -1 \pm 2i \Rightarrow z = -1 + 2i, -1 - 2i \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} |(-1+2i) - (i-1)| \\ &= |-1+2i-i+1| \\ &= |i| = 1 < 2 \end{aligned}$$

So, $-1+2i$ lies in the circle $|z+1-i|=2$.

$$\begin{aligned} |(-1-2i) - (i-1)| \\ &= |-1-2i-i+1| = |-3i| = 3 > 2 \end{aligned}$$

So, $-1-2i$ lies outside the circle. Then,

$$\int_C \frac{z+4}{z^2+2z+5} dz = \int_C \frac{\frac{z+4}{z+1+2i}}{z - (-1+2i)} dz$$

Here $f(z) = \frac{z+4}{z+1+2i}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \int_C \frac{z+4}{z^2+2z+5} dz &= 2\pi i f(-1+2i) \\ &= 2\pi i \left(\frac{-1+2i+4}{-1+2i+1+2i} \right) \\ &= 2\pi i \left(\frac{3+2i}{4i} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} (3+2i) \end{aligned}$$

□

5. Evaluate $\int_C \frac{zdz}{z^4-1}$ where C is the circle $|z-2|=2$.

Solution The singularities of $F(z) = \frac{z}{z^4-1}$ are given by

$$\begin{aligned} z^4 - 1 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow (z^2 + 1)(z^2 - 1) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow z^2 + 1 = 0, z^2 - 1 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow z = \pm i, z = \pm 1 \end{aligned}$$

For $z = \pm i$, $|\pm i - 2| = \sqrt{5} > 2$, so $z = \pm i$ lie outside the circle.

For $z = 1$, $|1 - 2| = 1 < 2$, so it lies inside the circle, for $z = -1$, it lies outside the circle. Then,

$$\int_C \frac{z}{z^4-1} dz = \int_C \frac{\frac{z}{(z^2+1)(z+1)}}{z-1} dz$$

Here $f(z) = \frac{z}{(z^2+1)(z+1)}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \frac{z}{z^4-1} dz &= 2\pi i f(1) \\ &= 2\pi i \frac{1}{(1+1)(1+1)} \\ &= 2\pi i \frac{1}{4} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} i \end{aligned}$$

□