

# Complex Analysis

## Semester 4

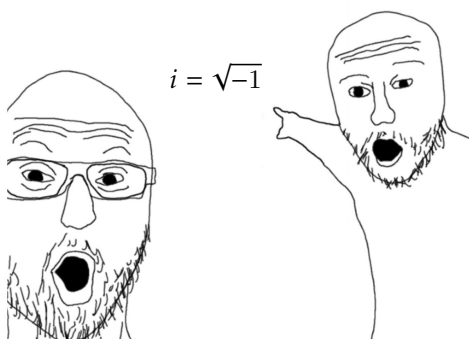
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# Chapter 1

## The Complex Plane

### 1.1 Algebra of the complex plane



Euler's formulas for sin and cos

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(\theta) &= \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2} \\ \sin(\theta) &= \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2i} \\ \tan(\theta) &= \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{i(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta})}\end{aligned}$$

The  $n$ -th roots of unity are the set of complex numbers  $(\zeta_1, \zeta_2, \dots, \zeta_n)$  are the complex numbers that satisfy the equation

$$z^n = w.$$

where  $w = Re^{i\alpha}$ . The solutions equation are

$$\zeta_k = \sqrt[n]{R}e^{i(\frac{\alpha+2k\pi}{n})}.$$

### 1.2 Topology of the complex plane

#### Theorem 1.2.1

The mapping

$$|z| : \mathbb{C} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$$

$$z = x + yi \longmapsto |x + yi| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}.$$

defines a norm on  $\mathbb{C}$ , so the complex plane is a normed space.

### Theorem 1.2.2

The mapping

$$d(.,.) : \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$$

$$(z, w) \longmapsto d(z, w) = |z - w|.$$

defined a distance on  $\mathbb{C}$ , so the complex plane is a metric space.

### Definition 1.2.1: Neighborhood

We call  $\delta$ -neighborhood of  $z_0$  an open disk centered at  $z_0$  of radius  $\delta$

$$N_\delta(z_0) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < \delta\}.$$

We call  $N_\delta(z_0) - \{z_0\}$  a deleted  $\delta$ -neighborhood. ( $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : 0 < |z - z_0| < \delta\}$ )

### Definition 1.2.2

Let  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ .

1.  $z_0$  is called an *interior point* of  $\Omega$  if

$$\exists \delta > 0, N_\delta(z_0) \subset \Omega.$$

2.  $z_0$  is an *exterior point* of  $\Omega$  if

$$\exists \delta > 0, N_\delta(z_0) \cap \Omega = \emptyset.$$

3.  $z_0$  is a *boundary point* of  $\Omega$  if

$$\forall \delta > 0, N_\delta(z_0) \cap \Omega \neq \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad N_\delta(z_0) \cap \underbrace{C_{\mathbb{C}}^\Omega}_{\mathbb{C} - \Omega} \neq \emptyset.$$

### Definition 1.2.3

The set of all:

1. interior points:  $\dot{\Omega}$
2. boundary points:  $\partial\Omega$
3. the set  $\Omega \cup \partial\Omega$  is called a closure of  $\Omega$  denoted  $\bar{\Omega}$

**Note:-**

$$\dot{\Omega} \subset \Omega \subset \bar{\Omega}.$$

and

$$\Omega \text{ is open} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \Omega \cap \partial\Omega = \emptyset \\ \Omega = \dot{\Omega} \end{cases}.$$

If  $\Omega$  is not open from all sides then it is not open. Same thing with closed.

If  $\Omega$  is not open then it is not connected.

$\Omega$  is said to be *compact* if it is both *bounded and closed*.

**Theorem 1.2.3 Bolzano-Weirstrass theorem**

Every *bounded infinte* set admits at least one limit point

**Paths**

A path is a set of complex points  $\Gamma$  where

$$\Gamma = \{z(t) = x(t) + i y(t) \mid t \in [a, b]\}.$$

A simple path/Jordan arc if it does not cross itself

$$\forall t_1, t_2 \in [a, b[ \mid t_1 \neq t_2 \Rightarrow z(t_1) \neq z(t_2).$$

A closed path is a path such that

$$z(a) = z(b).$$

# Chapter 2

## Complex Functions

### 2.1 Limits and Differentiability

**Note:-**

When taking limits we can do the 2D limit where  $x = \text{Re}(z)$  and  $y = \text{Im}(z)$

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} f(x + iy).$$

then we can take multiple paths to find the limit. However we can't take sufficient paths to prove a limit exists as there could exist one path that causes the limit to not exist, however we can use polar limits to prove that the limit exists. We take  $x = r \cos(\theta) - x_0$  and  $y = r \sin(\theta) - y_0$

$$\lim_{(r,\theta) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(r \cos(\theta) - x_0 + i(r \sin(\theta) - y_0)).$$

#### Theorem 2.1.1 Cauchy-Riemann equations

We define a complex function

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

If  $f$  is differentiable on a point  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$  then  $u$  and  $v$  satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) &= -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0). \end{aligned}$$

Note that the converse is not true

To prove that a function  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$  then we have to prove that  $u$  and  $v$

$$\begin{cases} \text{exist in } \Omega \\ \text{are continuous at } (x_0, y_0) \\ \text{satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations at } (x_0, y_0) \end{cases}$$

### 2.1.1 Hyperbolic functions

$$\begin{aligned}\cosh z &= \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2} \\ \sinh z &= \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2} \\ \tanh z &= \frac{\sinh z}{\cosh z}\end{aligned}$$

Properties

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| a) $\cosh^2 z - \sinh^2 z = 1$   | b) $\cosh^2 z + \sinh^2 z = \cosh 2z$  |
| c) $\cosh z_1 + z_2 = \cosh z_1 \cdot \cosh z_2 + \sinh z_1 \cdot \sinh z_2$ | d) $\sinh z_1 + z_2 = \sinh z_1 \cdot \cosh z_2 + \cosh z_1 \cdot \sinh z_2$ |
| e) $\cos iz = \cosh z$   | f) $\sin iz = i \sinh z$   |
| g) $\cosh iz = \cos z$   | h) $\sinh iz = i \sin z$   |

## 2.2 Harmonic functions

### Definition 2.2.1: Harmonic function

A function  $u(x, y)$ , of class  $C^2$  and defined on  $\Omega$ , is said to be harmonic if

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

or in other words the Laplacian is equal to 0

$$\Delta u = \nabla^2 u = 0.$$

### Theorem 2.2.1

Let a function  $f = u + iv$  defined on  $\Omega$

$$f \text{ is holomorphic} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} u, v \text{ are of class } C^\infty \text{ in } \Omega \\ u, v \text{ satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations in } \Omega \\ u, v \text{ are harmonic in } \Omega \end{cases}.$$

# Chapter 3

## Integrals

### Definition 3.0.1: Complex Integral

Let  $\Omega$  be an open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $\Gamma$  a piecewise differentiable path from  $z_1$  to  $z_2$ . We define the integral of  $f$  along the path to be 2 different line integrals:

$$\int_{\Gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\Gamma} (u + iv)(dx + i dy) = \int_{\Gamma} (u dx - v dy) + i \int_{\Gamma} (v dx + u dy).$$

### Theorem 3.0.1 Parametrization of the path

If the path  $\Gamma$  is parametrized by  $\gamma(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$  where  $x, y$  are of class  $c^1$  on  $[a, b]$  then

$$\int_{\Gamma} f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \cdot \gamma'(t) dt.$$

### Theorem 3.0.2 ML-rule

In a path of  $\Gamma$  of length  $L$ , we can approximate the value of an integral along that path

$$\left| \int_{\Gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq M \cdot L.$$

where

$$M = \sup_{z \in \Gamma} |f(z)| \quad \text{and} \quad L = \text{Length of the path } \Gamma = \int_a^b \sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2} dt.$$

### Theorem 3.0.3 Cauchy's theorem

Let  $\Gamma$  be a simple closed curve. Let  $f$  be a holomorphic function on  $\Gamma$  and inside  $\Gamma$ , then

$$\oint_{\Gamma} f(z) dz = 0.$$

### Note:-

Green-Riemann theorem states that

$$\oint_{\partial\Omega} (P(x, y) dx + Q(x, y) dy) = \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dx dy.$$



**Note:-**

$$\int_{\Gamma^-} f(z) dz = - \int_{\Gamma} f(z) dz.$$

A consequence of Cauchy's theorem is that if a closed path  $C$  contains a discontinuity then the path of integration doesn't matter as long as the new path also contains the exact same discontinuity.

#### Theorem 3.0.4

Let  $\Omega$  be a simply closed region. Let  $f$  be a holomorphic function on  $\Omega$ ,  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  be 2 point  $\in \Omega$ . Then the integral of  $f(z)$  is independent of the path taken from  $z_1$  to  $z_2$

$$\int_{\gamma_1} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz.$$

#### Theorem 3.0.5 Liouville's theorem

- $f$  is holomorphic in  $\mathbb{C}$
- $f$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{C}$

$$\exists M \in \mathbb{R}_+, \forall z \in \mathbb{C}, |f(z)| \leq M.$$

then  $f$  is constant in  $\mathbb{C}$

#### Theorem 3.0.6 Mean value theorem

Let  $\gamma_r$  be a circle of center  $a$  and radius  $r > 0$ . If  $f$  is a holomorphic on and in  $\gamma_r$  then

$$f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(a + re^{i\theta}) d\theta.$$

#### Theorem 3.0.7 Cauchy's integral formula

Let  $\Gamma$  is a simple closed curve and the function  $f(z)$  is holomorphic on  $\Gamma$  and its interior. Then:

$$f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma^+} \frac{f(z)}{z - a} dz.$$

and the general form of the formula is

$$f^{(n)}(a) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma^+} \frac{f(z)}{(z - a)^{n+1}} dz.$$

## 3.1 Primitives

### Definition 3.1.1: Primitives

Let  $f$  be a complex function, defined in an open set  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ .

We call a primitive of  $f$  on  $\Omega$ , any function  $F$  such that  $F$  is holomorphic in  $\Omega$  and  $\forall z \in \Omega F'(z) = f(z)$

$$F(z) = \int f(z) dz.$$

**Note:-**

If  $f$  admits a primitive on the open set  $\Omega$  then  $f$  is holomorphic in  $\Omega$

Let the path  $\gamma$  goes from  $z_1$  to  $z_2$  in  $\Omega$  then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) \, dz = F(z_2) - F(z_1).$$

**Note:-**

$$\oint_{\gamma} f(z) \, dz = 0 \Rightarrow f \text{ is holomorphic in } \Omega.$$