Notes on Complex Analysis

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Abstract

The goal of this document is to revise Complex Analysis relevant to the project. In addition, I aim to review my skills for LaTeX documentation.

1 Complex Numbers and Functions

1.1 Forms of Complex Numbers

- 1. Algebraic form: x + iy where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.
- 2. Geometric form: (x, y).
- 3. Polar form: $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$, where

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} > 0$$
, $\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$, $\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$.

The argument z is not defined when z = 0 or equivalently when r = 0.

1.2 Complex Functions

We start by stating the definition of complex-valued function.

Definition 1. Complex-valued function. The complex-valued function f of a complex variable is a relation that assigns to each complex number z in a set S a unique complex number f(z).

Definition 2. Domain. The set S is a subset of the complex numbers and is called the domain of definition of f.

1.3 Visualization

Real-valued functions require two dimensions for visualization, the x-plane and the y-plane. Following this, the visualization of complex-valued functions requires four dimensions: two for variable z and two for the values w = f(z), as both z and w are comprised of real and imaginary parts. In reality, we use two planes, the z-plane and w-plane and view the function as a mapping from a subset of one plane to the other as shown in Figure 1.

1.4 Linear Transformations

Linear transformations can be thought of in terms of a dilation, a rotation, and a translation, which map regions to geometrically similar regions.

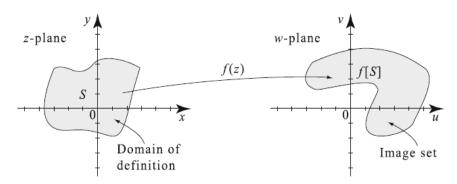


Fig. 1.22 To visualize a mapping by a complex-valued function w = f(z), we use two planes: the z-plane or (x,y)-plane for the domain of definition and the w-plane or (u,v)-plane for the image.

function vis.png

Figure 1: Visualization for A Complex-valued Function

1.5 Complex Exponentials

For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, we recall that

$$e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Now, we extend the exponential function to the complex plane by substituting x with a complex number z.

Definition 3. Complex exponential function. For all $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{|z|^n}{n!} = 1 + \frac{|z|}{1!} + \frac{|z|^2}{2!} + \dots < \infty.$$

Theorem 4. Euler's identity. If $z = i\theta$ where $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$
.

Corollary 5. For all $z = x + iy \in CC$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$e^z = e^{x+iy} = e^x e^{iy} = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y).$$

This is the polar form of e^z , where $|e^z| = e^x$ and $arg(e^z) = y + 2k\pi$ where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, visualized as the figure below.

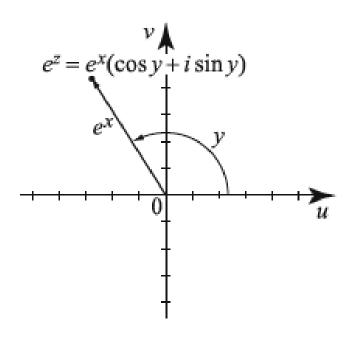
Euler's identity function is proven using Definition 3 and the power series expansions for $\cos \theta$ and $\sin \theta$. Since understanding the theorem is more important for this project than the proofs, I will not write the proof down. However, to better understand the theorem, I will solve the following example using Euler's identity.

Example 6. $e^{2+i\pi} = e^2(\cos \pi + i\sin \pi) = e^2(-1+0) = -e^2$. From this polar form, we can find the argument and absolute of the complex exponential. For $k \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$|e^{2+i\pi}| = e^2, \arg e^{2+i\pi} = \pi + 2k\pi.$$

Proposition 7. Exponential representation. Let $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ with $r = |z| > 0, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$, $argz = \theta + 2k\pi$. Then,

$$z = re^{i\theta}$$
.



exp vis.png

Figure 2: The modulus and argument of e^z

1.6 Complex Logarithms

The logarithm is defined as the inverse of the exponential function. For $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus 0$, we define the complex function $w = \log z$, therefore getting

$$w = \log z \iff e^w = z.$$

To determine w in terms of z, we write w=u+iv and $z=re^{i\theta}$, with |z|=r>0 and $\theta=\arg z$. Then,

$$e^{u+iv} = e^u e^{iv} = z = re^{i\theta}$$

and hence $e^u = r$ and $e^{iv} = e^{i\theta}$. This means that $u = \ln r$, and v and θ differ by an integer multiple of 2π because the complex exponential $2\pi i$ is periodic. So $v = \theta + 2k\pi \Rightarrow v = \arg z$ where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 8. Complex logarithm. The formula for the complex logarithm is

$$\log z = \ln|z| + i\arg z.$$

Example 9. We know that |i| = 1 and $\arg i = \frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi$. From this, we can obtain $\log i$ to be the following.

$$\log i = \ln |i| + i \arg i$$

$$= \ln 1 + i \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi\right)$$

$$= i \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi\right)$$

Definition 10. Principal branch. The principal value or branch of the complex logarithm is defined by

$$Log z = ln |z| + iArg z.$$

Log z is the particular value of log z whose imaginary part is in the interval $(-\pi, \pi]$.

Definition 11. Branch. Let α be a fixed real number. For $z \neq 0$, we call the unique value of arg z that falls in the interval $(\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi]$ the α -th branch of arg z, denoting it by $\arg_{\alpha} z$.

$$\log_{\alpha} z = \ln|z| + i \arg_{\alpha} z$$
, where, $\alpha < \arg_{\alpha} z < \alpha + 2\pi$

1.7 Complex Powers

Definition 12. Complex power. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$z^a = e^{a \log z}$$

where $\log z$ is the complex logarithm.

Example 13. Evaluating complex numbers

1. Using the principal branch of the logarithm in Definition 6, we know that $Log(-i) = \ln|-i| + Arg(-1) = 0 + \frac{-i\pi}{2}$. Using the Definition 8, we obtain

$$(-i)^{1+i} = e^{(1+i)\text{Log}(-i)}$$

$$= e^{(1+i)\frac{-i\pi}{2}}$$

$$= e^{\frac{-i\pi}{2} + \frac{pi}{2}} = -ie^{\frac{\pi}{2}}$$

2. Using the logarithm with a branch cut at angle 0 in Definition 7, we obtain

$$(i)^{1+i} = e^{(1+i)\log_0(-i)} = e^{(1+i)\frac{3i\pi}{2}} = -ie^{\frac{-3\pi}{2}}.$$

2 Analytic Functions

2.1 History and Cauchy's Contributions

Most of the theory of analytic functions is due to Augustin-Louis Cauchy.

- 1. Defined the derivative and integral of complex functions
- 2. Defined the notion of limit for functions and gave rigorous definitions of continuity and differentiability for real-valued functions
- 3. Developed groundwork for the theory of definite integrals and series
- 4. Established theoretical aspects of complex analysis with great attention to rigorous mathematical proof which characterizes pure mathematics

2.2 Open Sets

Definition 14. Neighborhoods. Let r > 0 be a positive real number and z_0 a point in the plane. The r-neighborhood of z_0 is the set of all complex numbers z satisfying $|z - z_0| < r$. We denote this set by $B_r(z_0)$.

Definition 15. Deleted Neighborhood.

$$B'_r(z_0) = z : 0 < |z - z_0| < r.$$

Definition 16. Let S be a subset of \mathbb{C} .

- 1. Interior point: z_0 is an interior point of S if we can find a neighborhood of z_0 that is wholly contained in S.
- 2. Boundary point: z in the complex plane is called boundary point of S if every neighborhood of z contains at least one point in S and at least one point not in S.
- 3. Boundary: the set of all boundary points of S is called the boundary of S.

Definition 17. Closure. A subset S of the complex numbers is called open if every point in S is an interior point of S. An r-neighborhood, $B_r(z_0)$ is an open disk of radius r centered at z_0 . Sets that contain all of their boundary points are called closed. For example, $z:|z-z_0| \leq r$ is a closed disk. The smallest closed set that contains a set A is called the closure of A.

Definition 18. Complex Derivative. Let f be defined on an open subset U of \mathbb{C} and let $z_0 \in U$. We say that f has a complex derivative at the point z_0 if the limit

$$\lim z \to z_0 \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$$

exists. This is called the complex derivative of f at z_0 and is denoted by $f'(z_0)$.

We say that f is analytic on U if it has a complex derivative at every point in U.

Definition 19. Entire function. An analytic function defined on the complex plane is said to be entire.

Lemma 20. If c is a constant, $f(z) = cz \Rightarrow f'(z) = c$.

Theorem 21. An analytic function defined on an open subset of the complex plane is continuous.

Lemma 22. Discontinuous function at z_0 does not have a complex derivative at z_0 .

Theorem 23. Properties of Analytic Functions. Suppose that f and g are analytic functions on an open subset U of the complex plane and let c_1, c_2 be complex constants. Then,

- 1. $c_1f + c_2g$ and fg are analytic on U and for all $z \in U$.
- 2. The function fg is analytic on U and for all $z \in U$.
- 3. The function $\frac{f}{g}$ is analytic on $W = U \setminus w \in U : g(w) = 0$ and for all $z \in W$,

$$(\frac{f}{g})'(z) = \frac{f'(z)g(z) - f(z)g'(z)}{(g(z))^2}$$

Theorem 24. Cauchy-Riemann Equations Let U be an open subset of \mathbb{R}^2 and let u, v be real-valued functions defined on U. Then the complex-valued function f(x+iy) = u(x,y) + iv(x,y) is analytic on U if and only if u, v are differentiable functions on U and satisfy

$$u_x = v_y, u_y = -v_x$$

for all points in U. If this is the case, then for all $(x,y) \in U$, we have

$$f'(x+iy) = u_x(x,y) + iv_x(x,y) \, or f'(x_i y) = v_y(x,y) - iu_y(x,y).$$

2.3 Differentiation of Analytic Functions

Theorem 25. Derivative of the complex exponential function. Let $f(z) = e^z$ where $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then f is analytic on all of \mathbb{C} and $f'(z) = e^z$.

Theorem 26. Derivative of the complex logarithmic function. Let f(z) = Log(z) where Log(z) = log|z| + iArg(z) where Arg(z) is such that $0 < Arg(z) < 2\pi$, i.e., the principal branch of the logarithmic function. Then f is analytic on all of $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{x + yi \in \mathbb{C} : x \ge 0, y = 0\}$, and $f'(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ on this set.

Theorem 27. Derivative of the complex power function. Let $f(z) = z^a$ where $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then f is analytic on all of \mathbb{C} and $f'(z) = az^{a-1}$.

Analytic functions obey the following rules.

- 1. Linearity of derivatives: $\frac{d}{dz}(cf(z) + dg(z)) = cf' + dg'$
- 2. Product rule: $\frac{d}{dz}(f(z)g(z)) = f'g + fg'$
- 3. Quotient rule: $\frac{d}{dz} \frac{(f(z))}{g(z)} = \frac{g'(f(z))}{g^2}$
- 4. Chain rule: $\frac{d}{dz}g(f(z)) = g'(f(z))f'(z)$
- 5. Inverse rule: $\frac{df^{-1}(z)}{dz} = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(z))}$

Therefore, it is sufficient to conclude that analytic function obey the same differentiation rules as real functions.