

# Complex Analysis

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We will spend the next few ~~no~~ weeks reviewing and learning complex analysis. You can read Chapter 6 and 7 of Arken.

Another good resource is Brown + Churchill.

## I Complex Numbers

A complex number  $z$  is an ordered pair of real numbers  $(x, y)$  usually written

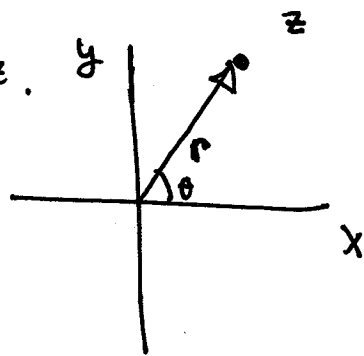
$$\begin{aligned} z &= x + iy && \text{(rectangular coordinates)} && r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ &= r e^{i\theta} && \text{(polar coordinates)} \end{aligned}$$

$x = \operatorname{Re}(z)$  and  $y = \operatorname{Im}(z)$  are the real and imaginary parts of  $z$ .

The quantity  $r$  is the modulus or absolute value of  $z$ .

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = |z|$$

The argument of  $z$  is  $\arg(z) = \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$  (with appropriate attention to quadrant)



Notice

$$e^{i\theta} = e^{i(\theta + 2\pi n)} \quad \text{where } n \text{ is an integer.}$$

The principal value of  $\arg z$  is in the range

$$-\pi < \arg z < \pi$$

Identities to know:

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

For  $n > 1$

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

The "Complex Numbers" are a field. There are a number of operations

$$z_1 = x_1 + iy_1 = r_1 e^{i\theta_1} \quad z_2 = x_2 + iy_2 = r_2 e^{i\theta_2}$$

Addition  $z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2) = (r_1 \cos \theta_1 + r_2 \cos \theta_2) + i(r_1 \sin \theta_1 + r_2 \sin \theta_2)$

Multiplication  $z_1 \cdot z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 + y_1 x_2)$   
 $= r_1 e^{i\theta_1} r_2 e^{i\theta_2} = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$

Complex Conjugation

$$\bar{z}_1 = (x_1 - iy_1) = r_1 e^{-i\theta_1}$$

Also notice

$$z \bar{z} = x^2 + y^2 = |z|^2 = r^2$$

Triangle Inequality

$$|z_1| - |z_2| \leq |z_1 + z_2| \leq |z_1| + |z_2|$$

n-th roots of a complex number:

$$z^{1/n} = (r e^{i\theta})^{1/n}$$

From Fundamental Theorem of Algebra there are n roots. Call them

$$c_k \quad k=0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

Easy to check

$$c_k = \sqrt[n]{r} \exp\left[i\left(\frac{\theta}{n} + \frac{2\pi k}{n}\right)\right]$$

are roots because  $e^{i(\theta+2\pi j)} = e^{i\theta}$  for all integers j.

## II Complex Functions of a complex Variable

We can define function of complex variables that assigns a

~~set S be a set of complex numbers~~

complex number w to each z

$$w = f(z)$$

In terms of real numbers. Let us write  
 $z = x + iy$  and  $w = u + iv$ .

Then  
 $f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$ .

If we use polar coordinates  $r$  and  $\theta$  instead of  $x$  and  $y$ , then

$u + iv = f(re^{i\theta})$  and we can write  
 $f(z) = u(r, \theta) + i v(r, \theta)$ .

Example  $f(z) = z^2$

$f(x + iy) = x^2 - y^2 + 2ixy$   
 $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$  and  $v(x, y) = 2xy$

For Polar coordinates

$f(re^{i\theta}) = r^2 \cos 2\theta + i r^2 \sin 2\theta$   
 $u(r, \theta) = r^2 \cos 2\theta$        $v(r, \theta) = r^2 \sin 2\theta$



Important thing about a function is that it is single-valued.  
It assigns a single value  $w$  to each  $z$ .

We can generalize this multi-valued functions where ~~multi-valued~~ a function assigns more than one value to each  $z$ . In this case, we must choose just one of the assignments to construct a single valued function from the multivalued function.

Example Consider "square root" For  $z = re^{i\theta}$

$f(z) = z^{1/2} = \pm \sqrt{r} \exp(i\frac{\theta}{2})$  and  $-\pi < \theta \leq \pi$  is P.V. of  $\arg z$

So in general this assigns two complex numbers to each  $z$ .

To make S.V. (single-valued) choose just positive branch

$f(z) = \sqrt{r} \exp(i\frac{\theta}{2})$   $r > 0, -\pi < \theta \leq \pi$

With the additional assignment  $f(0) = 0$

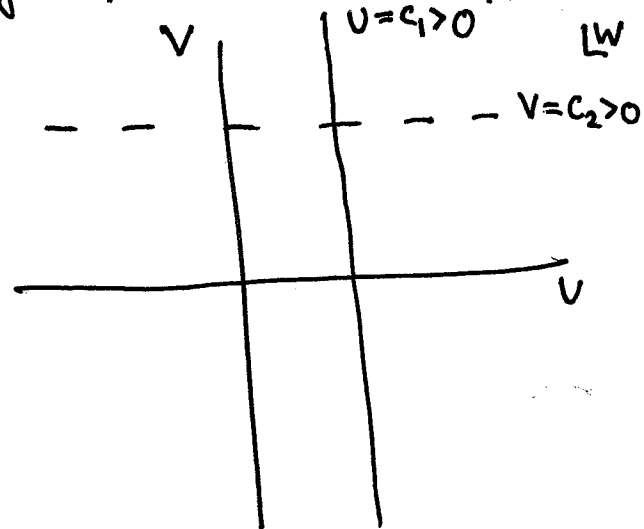
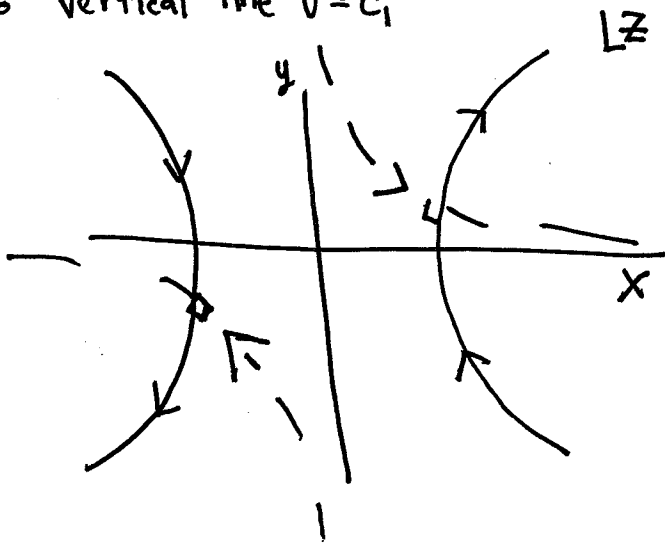
This is defined on whole plane.

Think about logarithm function!

We can visualize a function  $f(z)$  of the complex plane  $z$  to the plane  $w$  by looking at what the function does to a family of points. Consider again

$w = z^2 \implies u = (x^2 - y^2) \quad v = 2xy$

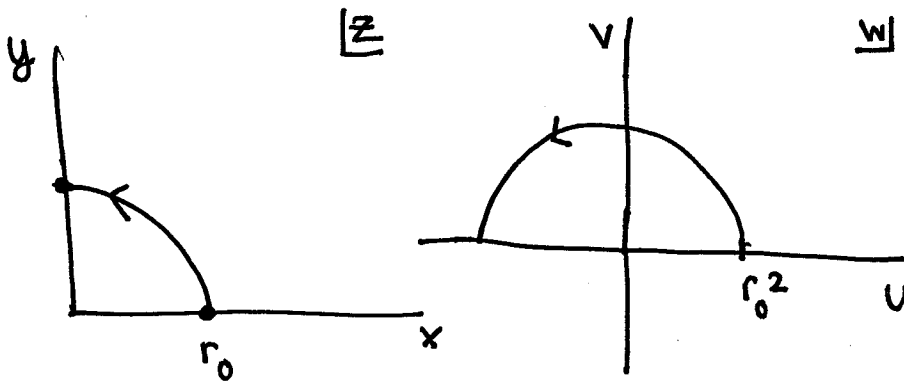
So each branch of a hyperbola  $x^2 - y^2 = c_1$  ( $c_1 > 0$ ) is mapped unto vertical line  $v = c_1$



Consider again  $f(z) = z^2$ . We can ask what does this function do to a certain region (i.e. what is the "image" of a region).

Consider this mapping in polar form.  $z = re^{i\theta}$   $w = \rho e^{i\phi}$

$$w = r^2 e^{i2\theta} \rightarrow \rho = r^2 \quad \phi = 2\theta$$



So maps quarter circle in first quadrant to half-circle. Thus, it is clear this maps the first quadrant  $r \geq 0, 0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  to upper-half plane  $\rho \geq 0, 0 \leq \phi \leq \pi$ .

### Common Complex Functions

Most of the common ~~complex~~ real valued trigonometric, exponential and hyperbolic functions can be extended to the complex plane using analytic continuation.

For example

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n z^n}{n!}$$

$$\sin z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n z^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$

etc.

$$\sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}$$

Most of the usual formulas you are used to still hold

See Chapter 3 of Churchill+Brown for details + Exercises Arken 6.1.

What does analytic continuation mean?

Example

Consider a plan wave of light of angular frequency  $\omega$   
This is represented by

$$e^{i\omega(t - \frac{nx}{c})}$$

Where  $n$  is the index of refraction. Most of the time  $n$  is real. However, we can replace  $n$  by a "complex index of refraction"  $n = \kappa$ .  $\implies$  So expression becomes

$$\propto e^{i\omega(t - \frac{\kappa x}{c})} e^{-\frac{\omega \kappa x}{c}}$$

Physically, this means that wave "attenuates"  $\rightarrow$  scattering dampens wave. Occurs a lot  $\rightarrow$  Include "dissipation" by making things complex.

III Limits, Derivatives, and all that

The limit

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = \omega_0$$

means that for each positive number  $\epsilon$ , there is a positive number  $\delta$  s.t.  $|f(z) - \omega_0| < \epsilon$  whenever  $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$

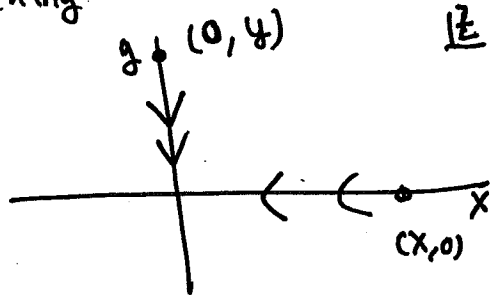
In words, it means that as you approach  $z_0$  from any direction,  $f(z) \rightarrow w_0$ . It is independent of path towards  $z_0$  in complex plane

Example Consider.

$$f(z) = \frac{z}{\bar{z}}$$

The limit  $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} f(z)$  does not exist

Consider approaching zero from positive x-axis and positive y-axis



For  $z = (x, 0) = x + i0$

$$f(z) = \frac{z}{\bar{z}} = \frac{x+i0}{x+i0} = 1$$

For  $z = (0, y) = 0 + iy$

$$f(z) = \frac{0+iy}{0-iy} = -1$$

Thus as  $z \rightarrow 0$  along positive x axis  $f(z)$  approaches 1  
but along y axis  $f(z)$  approaches  $-1$  so does not exist.

## Theorems on limits

### Theorem 1

Suppose that

$$f(z) = U(x, y) + iV(x, y) \quad z = x + iy$$

and

$$z_0 = x_0 + iy_0 \quad w_0 = U_0 + iV_0$$

Then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w_0$$

if and only if

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} U(x, y) = U_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} V(x, y) = V_0$$

### Proof

See any complex analysis textbook

### Theorem 2

Suppose that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} F(z) = W_0$$

then

$$(A) \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} [f(z) + F(z)] = w_0 + W_0$$

$$(B) \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} [f(z)F(z)] = w_0W_0$$

(C) if  $w_0 \neq 0$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z)}{F(z)} = \frac{w_0}{W_0}$$

We are now in position for the following definition.

Def A function is continuous if all three of the following conditions are met:

(i)  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)$  exists

(ii)  $f(z_0)$  exists

(iii)  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$



We can define the derivative of a function in a neighborhood ~~of~~ of  $z_0$  as:

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \delta z) - f(z_0)}{\delta z}$$

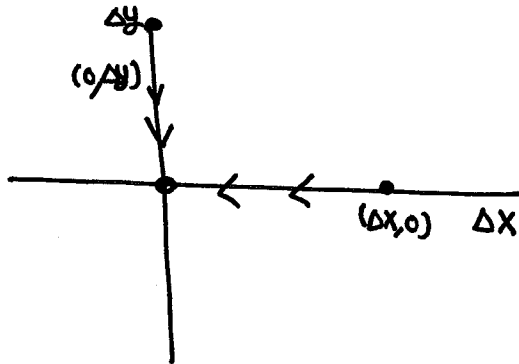
This is usual definition of derivative in calculus. Remember though, limit must exist no matter how you approach  $z_0$

Example

Consider  $w = f(z) = |z|^2 = z\bar{z}$

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{|z + \Delta z|^2 - |z|^2}{\Delta z} = \underbrace{\bar{z} + \overline{\Delta z} + z \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z}}_A$$

Now again approach in two directions positive x-axis, negative y-axis



when  $\Delta z = (\Delta x, 0)$

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} A^{\Delta x} = \bar{z} + \overline{\Delta z} + z = \bar{z} + z$$

when  $\Delta z = (0, \Delta y)$

$$\lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} A^{\Delta y} = \bar{z} - \overline{\Delta z} - z = \bar{z} - z$$

These are not equal  $A^{\Delta x} \neq A^{\Delta y}$  unless  $z = 0$ .

Thus,  $\frac{dw}{dz}$  does not exist except at  $z = 0$ .

All usual formulas apply. For  $c$  a complex constant:

$$\frac{d}{dz} c = 0 \quad \frac{d}{dz} z = 1 \quad \frac{d}{dz} [cf(z)] = c f'(z)$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} z^n = n z^{n-1}$$

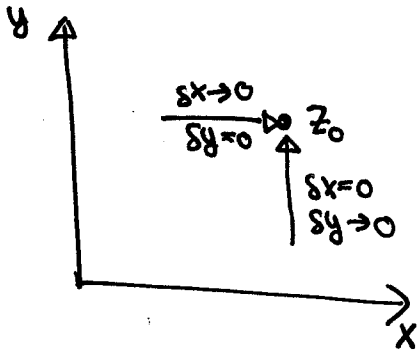
$$\frac{d}{dz} [f(z) + g(z)] = f'(z) + g'(z)$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} [f(z)g(z)] = f(z)g'(z) + f'(z)g(z) \quad [\text{Product rule}]$$

### IV Cauchy-Riemann Equations

Write

$$f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$$



Consider taking limit in two different ways

$$\delta z = \delta x + i \delta y$$

$$\delta f = \delta u + i \delta v$$

$$\frac{\delta f}{\delta z} = \frac{\delta u + i \delta v}{\delta x + i \delta y}$$

⦿ If we approach along  $x$  axis

$$\lim_{\delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta f}{\delta z} = \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{\delta u}{\delta x} + i \frac{\delta v}{\delta x} \right) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$$\lim_{\delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta f}{\delta z} = \lim_{\delta y \rightarrow 0} \left( -i \frac{\delta u}{\delta y} + \frac{\delta v}{\delta y} \right) = -i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

Thus, for derivatives to exist at  $z_0$  need

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

(11)

These are the famous Cauchy-Riemann conditions for a derivative to exist. ~~df~~  $\frac{df}{dz}$

In fact one can show an even stronger statement using Theorem 1 on limits. If the Cauchy-Riemann conditions are satisfied at a point  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ , then the derivative  $f'(z_0)$  exists.

Thus,  $f'(z_0)$  exists iff the C.R. conditions are satisfied.

Exercise: Derive in Polar coordinates!

### Important Implication

The curves  $u=c_1$  will always be orthogonal to the curves  $v=c_2$ . Thus, any ~~o~~ function  $f(z)$  whose derivative exists maps to an "orthogonal" coordinate system."

Tangent to  $u(x, y)$  has slope  $-\frac{\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}} \equiv -\frac{u_x}{u_y}$

Tangent to  $v(x, y)$  has slope  $-\frac{\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}} \equiv -\frac{v_x}{v_y}$

C.R. Equations imply  $\frac{u_x}{u_y} \frac{v_x}{v_y} = -1$ . (i.e. They are orthogonal)

A function  $f(z)$  is analytic at some point  $z_0$  if it has a derivative at each point in some neighborhood of  $z_0$ .

One also use terms regular or holomorphic.

A function is entire if it is analytic everywhere.

### Example 1

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 3}$$

This is analytic everywhere except at  $z = \pm\sqrt{3}i$

Since  $f'(z) = \frac{-2z}{(z^2 + 3)}$ . This exists everywhere except

### Example 2

#### Harmonic Functions

Let  $H(x, y)$  be some function that satisfies "Laplace's Equation"

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

Such a function is called harmonic.

Any function  $f(z) = U(x, y) + iV(x, y)$  is analytic. Then

$U(x, y)$  and  $V(x, y)$  are harmonic.

Proof:  $U_x = V_y$        $U_y = -V_x$       (C.R equations)

$U_{xx} = V_{yx}$        $U_{yx} = -V_{xx}$       Dif. w.r.t  $x$

$U_{xy} = V_{yy}$        $U_{yy} = -V_{yx}$       Dif w.r.t  $y$

Since partial derivatives commute get  $U_{xx} + U_{yy} = 0$  and  $V_{xx} + V_{yy} = 0$ .