

Introduction to Complex Analysis

Dr. Pragya Mishra

Assistant Professor Mathematics

Pt. Deen Dayal Upadhaya Govt. Girl's P. G.
College, Lucknow

Functions of a Complex Variable I

Cauchy-Riemann conditions

Complex algebra

Complex number: $z = x + iy$ (both x and y are real, $i = \sqrt{-1}$.)

Complex algebra:

$$z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1) + (x_2 + iy_2) = (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2) \quad (\text{Analogous to 2d vectors.})$$

$$z_1 z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1) \quad (\Rightarrow cz = c(x + iy) = cx + icy) \quad (\Rightarrow z_1 - z_2)$$

Complex conjugation: $z^* = (x + iy)^* = x - iy$

$$\Rightarrow z z^* = (x + iy)(x - iy) = x^2 + y^2$$

Polar representation: $z = x + iy = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = r e^{i\theta}$

Modulus (magnitude): $|z| = \sqrt{z z^*} = r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad \Rightarrow |z_1 z_2| = |z_1| |z_2|$

Argument (phase): $\arg(z) = \theta = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ ($+\pi$ if z is in the 2nd or 3rd quadrants.)

$$\Rightarrow \arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$$

Functions of a complex variable:

All elementary functions of real variables may be extended into the complex plane.

$$\text{Example : } e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \quad \rightarrow \quad e^z = 1 + \frac{z}{1!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$$

A complex function can be resolved into its *real part* and *imaginary part*:

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

$$\text{Examples : } z^2 = (x + iy)^2 = (x^2 + y^2) + i2xy$$

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{x + iy} = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} + i \frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Multi-valued functions and branch cuts:

$$\text{Example 1: } \ln z = \ln(re^{i\theta}) = \ln[re^{i(\theta+2n\pi)}] = \ln r + i(\theta + 2n\pi) = u + iv$$

To remove the ambiguity, we can limit all phases to $(-\pi, \pi)$.

$\theta = -\pi$ is the *branch cut*.

$\ln z$ with $n = 0$ is the *principle value*.

$$\text{Example 2: } z^{1/2} = (re^{i\theta})^{1/2} = [re^{i(\theta+2n\pi)}]^{1/2} = r^{1/2} e^{i(\theta+2n\pi)/2}$$

We can let z move on 2 *Riemann sheets* so that $f(z) = (re^{i\theta})^{1/2}$ is single valued everywhere.

Cauchy-Riemann conditions

Analytic functions: If $f(z)$ is differentiable at $z = z_0$ and within the neighborhood of $z = z_0$, $f(z)$ is said to be **analytic** at $z = z_0$. A function that is analytic in the whole complex plane is called an *entire function*.

Cauchy-Riemann conditions for differentiability

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

In order to let f be differentiable, $f'(z)$ must be the same in any direction of Δz .

Particularly, it is necessary that

$$\text{For } \Delta z = \Delta x, \quad f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta u + i\Delta v}{\Delta x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}.$$

$$\text{For } \Delta z = i\Delta y, \quad f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta u + i\Delta v}{i\Delta y} = -i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}.$$

Equating them we have

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \quad \leftarrow \boxed{\text{Cauchy-Riemann conditions}}$$

Conversely, if the Cauchy-Riemann conditions are satisfied, $f(z)$ is differentiable:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{df}{dz} &= \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f(z)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right)\Delta x + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\right)\Delta y}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right)\Delta x + \left(-\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)\Delta y}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right)(\Delta x + i\Delta y)}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}, \quad \text{and} = \frac{1}{i} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\right). \end{aligned}$$

More about Cauchy-Riemann conditions:

1) It is a **very strong** restraint to functions of a complex variable.

$$2) \frac{df}{dz} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial(iy)} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial(iy)}.$$

$$3) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0 \Rightarrow \nabla u \cdot \nabla v = 0 \Rightarrow \nabla u \perp \nabla v \Rightarrow u = c_1 \perp v = c_2$$

4) Equivalent to $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z^*} = 0$, so that $f(z, z^*)$ only depends on z :

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z^*} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial z^*} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z^*} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \left(-\frac{1}{2i}\right) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right) + i \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\right) = 0 \Rightarrow \dots$$

e.g., $f = x - iy$ is everywhere continuous but not analytic.

Reading: General search for Cauchy-Riemann conditions:

Our Cauchy-Riemann conditions were derived by requiring $f'(z)$ be the same when z changes along x or y directions. How about other directions?

Here I do a general search for the conditions of differentiability.

$$f'(z) = \frac{df}{dz} = \frac{du + idv}{dx + idy} = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy\right) + i\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} dy\right)}{dx + idy} = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx}\right) + i\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx}\right)}{1 + i \frac{dy}{dx}}$$

Now let $\frac{dy}{dx} = p$, the direction of the change of z . We want to find the condition under which

$f'(z)$ does not depend on p .

$$\frac{df'(z)}{dp} = 0 = \frac{d}{dp} \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} p\right) + i\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} p\right)}{1 + ip} = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\right)(1 + ip) - i\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} p\right) + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} p\right)}{(1 + ip)^2}$$

$$= \frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right) + i\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)}{(1 + ip)^2} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \end{cases}$$

That is, if we require $f'(z)$ be the same at all directions, we get the same Cauchy - Riemann conditions.

Cauchy's theorem

Cauchy's integral theorem

Contour integral:

$$\int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z)dz = \int_C (u + iv)(dx + idy) = \int_C (udx - vdy) + i \int_C (vdx + udy)$$

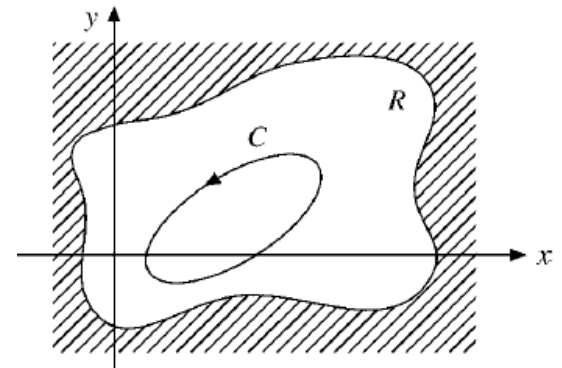
Cauchy's integral theorem: If $f(z)$ is **analytic** in a simply connected region R , [and $f'(z)$ is continuous throughout this region,] then for any closed path C in R , the contour

integral of $f(z)$ around C is zero: $\oint_C f(z)dz = 0$

Proof using Stokes' theorem: $\oint_C \mathbf{V} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{V} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\sigma}$

$$\oint_C (V_x dx + V_y dy) = \iint_S \left(\frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C f(z)dz &= \oint_C (udx - vdy) + i \oint_C (vdx + udy) \\ &= \iint_S \left(-\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) dx dy + i \iint_S \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) dx dy \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



Cauchy-Goursat proof: The continuity of $f'(z)$ is not necessary.

Corollary: An open contour integral for an **analytic** function is independent of the path, if there is no singular points between the paths.

$$\int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z)dz = F(z_2) - F(z_1) = -\int_{z_2}^{z_1} f(z)dz$$

Contour deformation theorem:

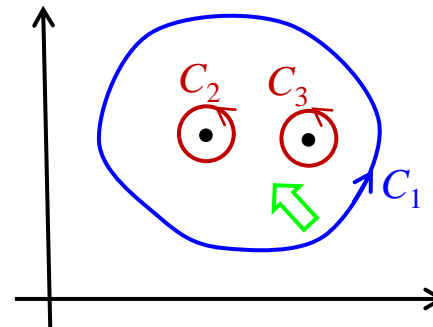
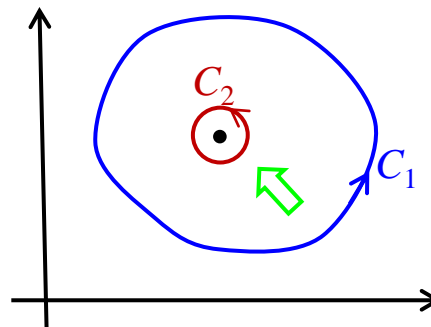
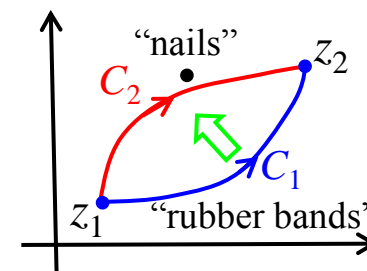
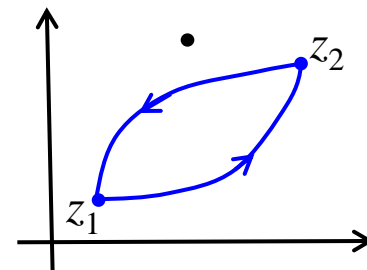
A contour of a complex integral can be arbitrarily deformed through an analytic region without changing the integral.

- 1) It applies to both open and closed contours.
- 2) One can even split closed contours.

Proof: Deform the contour bit by bit.

Examples:

- 1) Cauchy's integral theorem. (Let the contour shrink to a point.)
- 2) Cauchy's integral formula. (Let the contour shrink to a small circle.)



Cauchy's integral formula

Cauchy's integral formula:

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

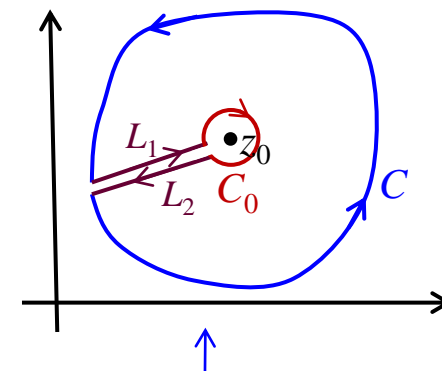
$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz$$

Proof :

$$\oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz + \oint_{L_1} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz + \oint_{C_0} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz + \oint_{L_2} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = 0$$

$$\oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = - \oint_{C_0} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = - \int_{2\pi}^0 \frac{f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})}{re^{i\theta}} rie^{i\theta} d\theta \quad (\text{Let } r \rightarrow 0)$$

$$= 2\pi i f(z_0)$$



Can directly use the contour deformation theorem.

Derivatives of $f(z)$: $f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz$

Corollary: If a function is analytic, then its derivatives of all orders exist.

Corollary: If a function is analytic, then it can be expanded in Taylor series.

Cauchy's inequality: If $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$ is analytic and bounded, $|f(z)|_{|z|=r} \leq M$, then $|a_n| r^n \leq M$. (That is, a_n is bounded.)

Proof: $f^{(n)}(0) = n! a_n = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_{|z|=r} \frac{f(z)}{z^{n+1}} dz \Rightarrow |a_n| = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left| \oint_{|z|=r} \frac{f(z)}{z^{n+1}} dz \right| \leq \frac{M}{r^n} \Rightarrow |a_n| r^n \leq M$

Liouville's theorem: If a function is analytic and bounded in the entire complex plane, then this function is a constant.

Proof: $|a_n| \leq \frac{M}{r^n}$, let $r \rightarrow \infty$, then $a_n = 0$ for $n > 0$. $f(z) = a_0$.

Fundamental theorem of algebra: $P(z) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i z^i$ ($n > 0, a_n \neq 0$) has n roots.

Suppose $P(z)$ has no roots, then $1/P(z)$ is analytic and bounded as $|z| \rightarrow \infty$. Then $P(z)$ is constant. That is nonsense. Therefore $P(z)$ has at least one root we can divide out.

Morera's theorem: If $f(z)$ is continuous and $\oint_C f(z)dz = 0$ for every closed contour within a simply connected region, then $f(z)$ is analytic in this region.

Proof :

$$\oint_C f(z)dz = 0 \Rightarrow \int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z)dz = F(z_2) - F(z_1) \Rightarrow F'(z) = f(z)$$

$\Rightarrow F(z)$ is analytic

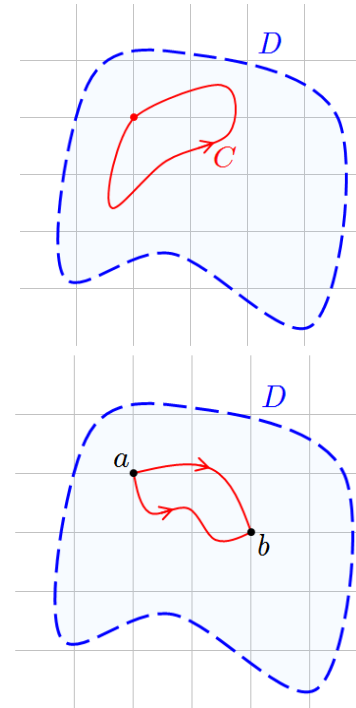
$\Rightarrow F'(z) = f(z)$ is analytic

Why $\int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z)dz = F(z_2) - F(z_1)$?

Let $\int_{z_1}^{z_2} f(z)dz = G(z_1, z_2)$, then

$$G(z_1, z_2) = G(z_1, 0) + G(0, z_2)$$

$$= -G(0, z_1) + G(0, z_2) = -F(z_1) + F(z_2)$$



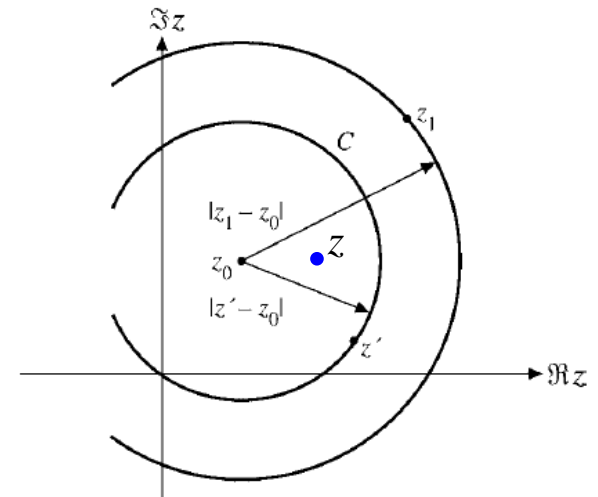
Analytic continuation

Laurent expansion

Taylor expansion for functions of a complex variable:

Expanding an analytic function $f(z)$ about $z = z_0$, where z_1 is the nearest singular point.

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z')}{z' - z} dz' = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z')}{(z' - z_0) - (z - z_0)} dz' \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z')}{(z' - z_0) \left(1 - \frac{z - z_0}{z' - z_0}\right)} dz' = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z - z_0}{z' - z_0}\right)^n f(z')}{(z' - z_0)} dz' \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(z - z_0)^n f(z')}{(z' - z_0)^{n+1}} dz' = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z - z_0)^n \oint_C \frac{f(z')}{(z' - z_0)^{n+1}} dz' \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z - z_0)^n \end{aligned}$$

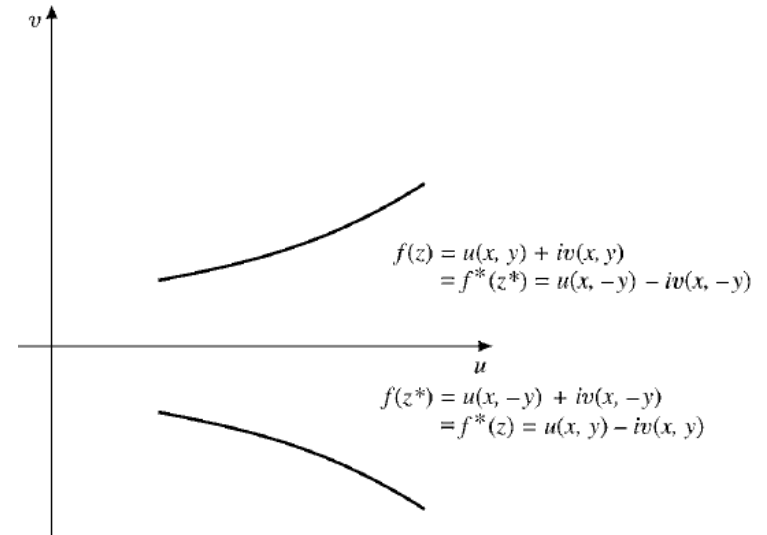


Schwarz's reflection principle:

If $f(z)$ is 1) analytic over a region including the real axis, and 2) real when z is real, then $f^*(z) = f(z^*)$.

$$\text{Proof: } f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (z - x_0)^n$$
$$\Rightarrow f^*(z) = f(z^*)$$

Examples: most of the elementary functions.



Analytic continuation: Suppose $f(z)$ is analytic around $z = z_0$, we can expand it about $z = z_0$ in a Taylor series:

$$f(z) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(m)}(z_0)}{m!} (z - z_0)^m$$

This series converges inside a circle with a radius of convergence $R_0 = |\alpha_0 - z_0|$, where α_0 is the nearest singularity from $z = z_0$.

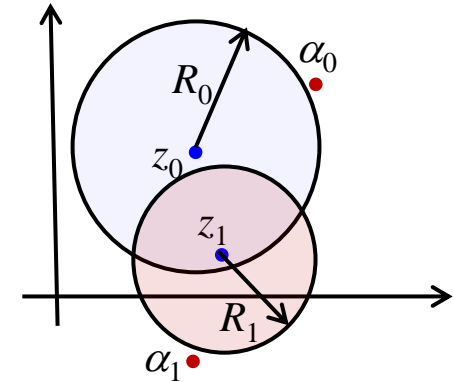
We can also expand $f(z)$ about another point $z = z_1$ within

the circle R_0 :
$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_1)}{n!} (z - z_1)^n .$$

In general, the new circle has a radius of convergence $R_1 = |\alpha_1 - z_1|$ and contains points not within the first circle.

From the first expansion,
$$f^{(n)}(z_1) = \sum_{m=n}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(m)}(z_0)}{(m-n)!} (z_1 - z_0)^{m-n}$$

Plug into the second expansion,
$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0, m=n}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(m)}(z_0)(z_1 - z_0)^{m-n}}{n!(m-n)!} (z - z_1)^n$$



Consequences:

- 1) $f(z)$ can be analytically continued over the complex plane, excluding singularities.
- 2) If $f(z)$ is analytic, its values at one region determines its values everywhere.

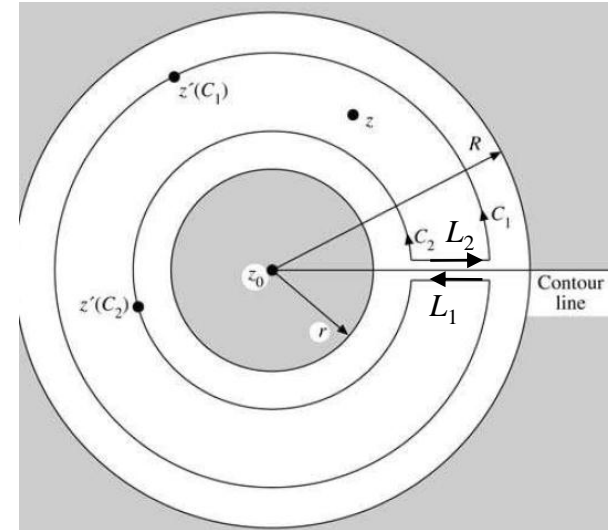
Laurent expansion

Laurent expansion

Problem: Expanding a function $f(z)$ that is analytic in an annular region (between r and R).

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1+L_1+\tilde{C}_2+L_2} \frac{f(z')dz'}{z'-z} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{z'-z} - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z')dz'}{z'-z} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0) - (z-z_0)} - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0) - (z-z_0)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0) \left(1 - \frac{z-z_0}{z'-z_0}\right)} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z-z_0) \left(1 - \frac{z'-z_0}{z-z_0}\right)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z-z_0)^n \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0)^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(z-z_0)^{m+1}} \oint_{C_2} (z'-z_0)^m f(z')dz' \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z-z_0)^n \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0)^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(z-z_0)^m} \oint_{C_2} (z'-z_0)^{m-1} f(z')dz' \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z-z_0)^n \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0)^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=-1}^{-\infty} (z-z_0)^n \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0)^{n+1}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (z-z_0)^n \oint_C \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z'-z_0)^{n+1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

← C is any contour that encloses z_0 and lies between r and R (deformation theorem).



Laurent expansion:

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n, \quad a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z') dz'}{(z' - z_0)^{n+1}}$$

1) Singular points of the integrand.

For $n < 0$, the singular points are determined by $f(z)$. For $n \geq 0$, the singular points are determined by both $f(z)$ and $1/(z' - z_0)^{n+1}$.

2) If $f(z)$ is *analytic* inside C , then the Laurent series reduces to a Taylor series:

$$a_n = \begin{cases} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!}, & n \geq 0, \\ 0, & n < 0. \end{cases}$$

3) Although a_n has a general contour integral form, In most times we need to use straight forward complex algebra to find a_n .

Laurent expansion: Examples

Example 1: Expand $f(z) = \frac{z^3}{(z-1)^2}$ about $z_0=1$.

$$\frac{z^3}{(z-1)^2} = \frac{[(z-1)+1]^3}{(z-1)^2} = \frac{(z-1)^3 + 3(z-1)^2 + 3(z-1) + 1}{(z-1)^2} = \frac{1}{(z-1)^2} + \frac{3}{z-1} + 3 + (z-1)$$

Example 2: Expand $f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2+1}$ about $z_0=i$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{1}{z^2+1} = \frac{1}{2i} \left(\frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{z+i} \right) = \frac{1}{2i} \left(\frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{2i+z-i} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2i} \left(\frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{2i} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\frac{z-i}{2i}} \right) = \frac{1}{2i} \frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{(2i)^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{2i} \right)^n (z-i)^n \\ &= -\frac{i}{2} \frac{1}{z-i} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{i}{8} (z-i) + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Branch points and branch cuts

Singularities

Poles: In a Laurent expansion $f(z) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} a_m (z - z_0)^m$, if $a_m = 0$ for $m < -n < 0$ and $a_{-n} \neq 0$,

then z_0 is said to be *a pole of order n*.

A pole of order 1 is called a *simple pole*.

A pole of infinite order (when expanded about z_0) is called an *essential singularity*.

The behavior of a function $f(z)$ at infinity is defined using the behavior of $f(1/t)$ at $t = 0$.

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} 1) \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} &= \frac{1}{(z-i)(z+i)} = \frac{1}{2i} \left(\frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{z+i} \right) = \frac{1}{2i} \left[-\frac{1}{z+i} - \frac{1}{2i - (z+i)} \right] = -\frac{1}{2i} \frac{1}{z+i} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{1 - (z+i)/2i} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2i} \frac{1}{z+i} + \frac{1}{4} \left[1 + \frac{z+i}{2i} + \left(\frac{z+i}{2i} \right)^2 + \dots \right] \text{ has a single pole at } z = -i. \end{aligned}$$

$$2) \sin z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n z^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \sin \frac{1}{t} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} \frac{1}{t^{2n+1}}$$

$\sin z$ thus has an essential singularity at infinity.

3) $z^2 + 1$ has a pole of order 2 at infinity.

Branch points and branch cuts:

Branch point: A point z_0 around which a function $f(z)$ is discontinuous after going a small circuit. E.g., $z_0 = 1$ for $\sqrt{z-1}$, $z_0 = 0$ for $\ln z$.

Branch cut: A curve drawn in the complex plane such that if a path is not allowed to cross this curve, a multi-valued function along the path will be single valued.

Branch cuts are *usually* taken between pairs of branch points. E.g., for $\sqrt{z-1}$, the curve connects $z=1$ and $z = \infty$ can serve as a branch cut.

Examples of branch points and branch cuts:

1. $f(z) = z^a = r^a (\cos a\theta + i \sin a\theta)$

If a is a rational number, $a = p/q$, then circling the branch point $z = 0$ q times will bring $f(z)$ back to its original value. This branch point is said to be *algebraic*, and q is called the order of the branch point.

If a is an irrational number, there will be no number of turns that can bring $f(z)$ back to its original value. The branch point is said to be *logarithmic*.

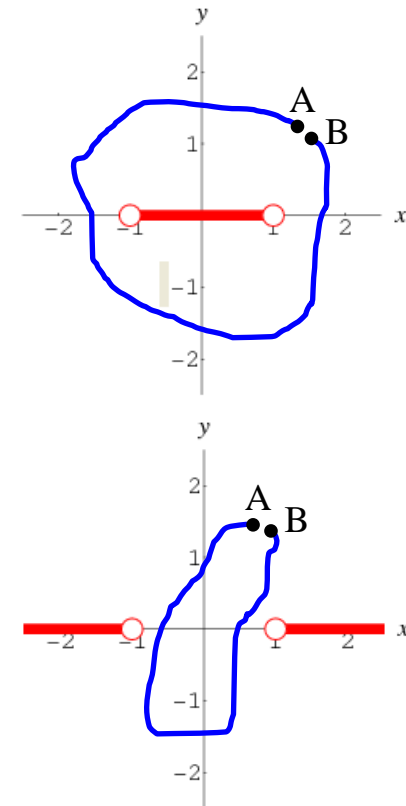
$$2. f(z) = \sqrt{(z-1)(z+1)}$$

We can choose a branch cut from $z = -1$ to $z = 1$ (or any curve connecting these two points). The function will be single-valued, because both points will be circled.

Alternatively, we can choose a branch cut which connects each branch point to infinity. The function will be single-valued, because neither points will be circled.

It is notable that these two choices result in different functions. E.g., if $f(i) = \sqrt{2}i$, then

$f(-i) = -\sqrt{2}i$ for the first choice and $f(-i) = \sqrt{2}i$ for the second choice.

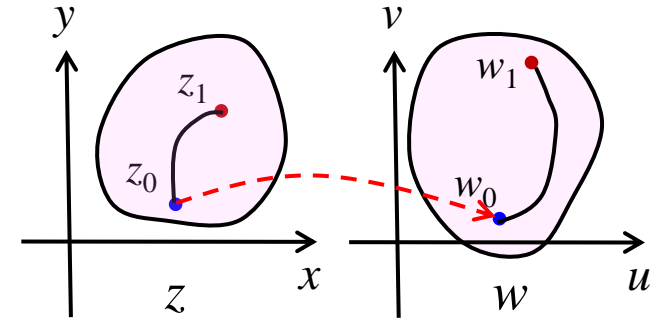


Mapping

Mapping

Mapping: A complex function $w(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ can be thought of as describing a mapping from the complex z -plane into the complex w -plane.

In general, a point in the z -plane is mapped into a point in the w -plane. A curve in the z -plane is mapped into a curve in the w -plane. An area in the z -plane is mapped into an area in the w -plane.



Examples of mapping:

Translation:

$$w = z + z_0$$

Rotation:

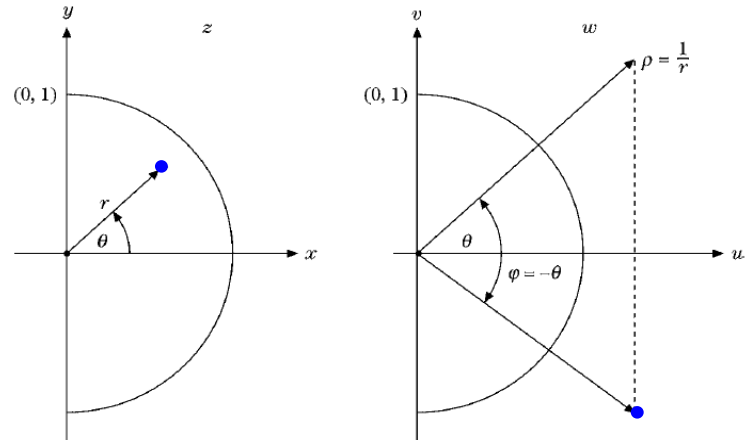
$$w = \zeta z_0, \text{ or}$$

$$\rho e^{i\varphi} = r e^{i\theta} \cdot r_0 e^{i\theta_0} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \rho = r \cdot r_0 \\ \varphi = \theta + \theta_0 \end{cases}$$

Inversion:

$$w = \frac{1}{z}, \text{ or}$$

$$\rho e^{i\varphi} = \frac{1}{r e^{i\theta}} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \rho = \frac{1}{r} \\ \varphi = -\theta \end{cases}$$



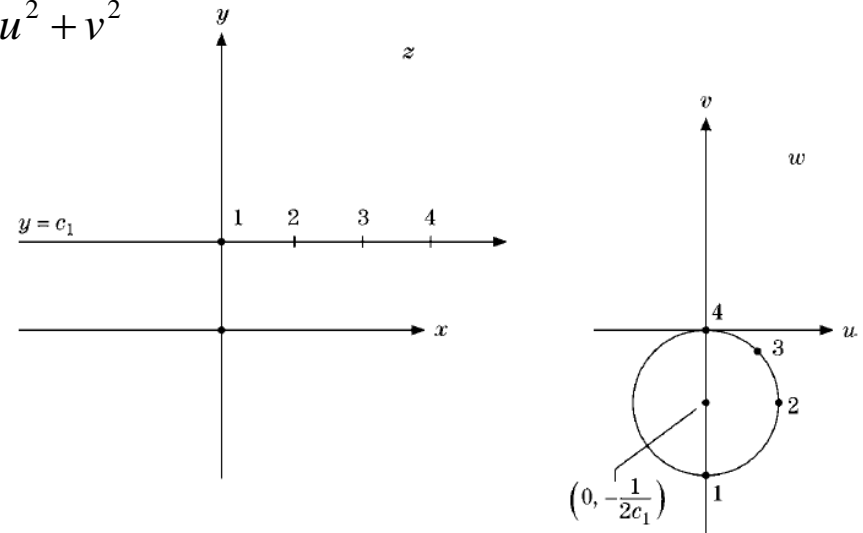
In Cartesian coordinates:

$$w = \frac{1}{z} \Rightarrow u + iv = \frac{1}{x + iy} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} u = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \\ v = -\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} \end{cases}, \begin{cases} x = \frac{u}{u^2 + v^2} \\ y = -\frac{v}{u^2 + v^2} \end{cases}.$$

A straight line is mapped into a circle:

$$y = ax + b \Rightarrow -\frac{v}{u^2 + v^2} = \frac{au}{u^2 + v^2} + b$$

$$\Rightarrow b(u^2 + v^2) + au + v = 0.$$



Conformal mapping

Conformal mapping: The function $w(z)$ is said to be conformal at z_0 if it preserves the angle between any two curves through z_0 .

If $w(z)$ is analytic and $w'(z_0) \neq 0$, then $w(z)$ is conformal at z_0 .

Proof: Since $w(z)$ is analytic and $w'(z_0) \neq 0$, we can expand $w(z)$ around $z = z_0$ in a Taylor series:

$$w = w(z_0) + w'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \frac{1}{2} w''(z_0)(z - z_0)^2 + \dots$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{w - w_0}{z - z_0} = w'(z_0), \text{ or } w - w_0 \approx w'(z_0)(z - z_0).$$

$$w - w_0 = A e^{i\alpha} (z - z_0) \Rightarrow \varphi = \alpha + \theta \Rightarrow \varphi_2 - \varphi_1 = \theta_2 - \theta_1.$$

- 1) At any point where $w(z)$ is conformal, the mapping consists of a rotation and a dilation.
- 2) The local amount of rotation and dilation varies from point to point. Therefore a straight line is usually mapped into a curve.
- 3) A curvilinear orthogonal coordinate system is mapped to another curvilinear orthogonal coordinate system .

What happens if $w'(z_0) = 0$?

Suppose $w^{(n)}(z_0)$ is the first non-vanishing derivative at z_0 .

$$w - w_0 \approx \frac{w^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z - z_0)^n \Rightarrow \rho e^{i\varphi} = \frac{1}{n!} B e^{i\beta} (r e^{i\theta})^n \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \rho = \frac{Br^n}{n!} \\ \varphi = n\theta + \beta \end{cases}$$

This means that at $z = z_0$ the angle between any two curves is magnified by a factor n and then rotated by β .