# Complex Analysis: Handout-1 (Basic Calculus on $\mathbb{C}$ )

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### 1 Limits

We shall be brief in this section.

**Definition 1.** Let  $A \subset X$  be a subset of a metric space. Let  $x_0 \in X$  be a cluster point of A, not necessarily in A. Let  $f: A \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function. We say that  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x)$  exists if there exists  $\ell \in \mathbb{C}$  such that for any given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$x \in A$$
 and  $0 < d(x, x_0) < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - \ell| < \varepsilon$ .

It is easy to show that  $\ell$  with this property, if exists, is unique. In such a case, we write  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = \ell$ . Note that f need not be defined at  $x_0$ .

The study of this concept may be reduced to that of sequences and their limits because of the following exercise.

**Ex. 2.** With the above notation,  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = \ell$  iff for every sequence  $(x_n)$  in A (with  $x_n \neq x_0$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) such that  $\lim_{x\to x_0} x_0$  we have  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x_n) = \ell$ . *Hint:* Go through the proof of the equivalence of the definitions of continuity in terms of sequences and  $\varepsilon - \delta$ . (Refer to Theorem ??.)

**Proposition 3.** Let  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = \alpha$  and  $\lim_{x\to x_0} g(x) = \beta$ . Then (i)  $\lim_{x\to x_0} (af + bg)(x) = a\alpha + b\beta$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ . (ii)  $\lim_{x\to x_0} (fg)(x) = \alpha\beta$ . (iii)  $\lim_{x\to x_0} (f/g)(x) = \alpha/\beta$  if  $\beta \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* Use the above exercise Ex. 2 and the algebra of limits theorem.

**Ex. 4.** Show that  $\lim_{z \to i} \frac{z^4 - 1}{z - i} = -4i$ .

**Ex. 5.** Let  $f: U \subset \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$  be given. Show that f is continuous at  $z_0 \in U$  iff  $\lim_{z\to z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$ .

**Definition 6.** Let  $f: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function. We use the notation  $\lim_{z\to\infty} f(z) = \ell$  to mean that if given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an R > 0 such that for all z with |z| > R, we have  $|f(z) - \ell| < \varepsilon$ .

We use the notation  $\lim_{z\to z_0} |f(z)| = \infty$  to say that if for a given M > 0, there exists r > 0 such that |f(z)| > M for all  $z \in B(z_0, r)$ .

Note that we have not yet introduced the point at infinity.

**Ex. 7.** Prove that  $\lim_{z\to\infty}(1/z^n) = 0$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Ex. 8.** Prove or disprove that  $\lim_{z\to\infty} |e^{-z}| = 0$ .

**Ex. 9.** Let  $p(z) := \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k z^k$  be a nonconstant polynomial. Show that there exists R > 1 such that  $|p(z)| > \frac{1}{2} |a_n| |z|^n$  for  $|z| \ge R$ . In particular,  $|p(z)| \to \infty$  as  $|z| \to \infty$ . *Hint:* Observe that

$$\left|\frac{p(z)}{z^n}\right| \ge |a_n| - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{|a_k|}{|z|}, \quad \text{for } |z| \ge 1.$$

### **2** Functions from $\mathbb{R}$ to $\mathbb{C}$

We deal with differentiation of functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 10.** Let  $f: [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be given. We say that f is *differentiable* function at  $t \in [a, b]$  if there exists a complex number  $\alpha$  such that for a given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 \neq h \in \mathbb{R}, \ |h| < \delta \& t + h \in [a, b] \Rightarrow |\frac{f(t+h) - f(t)}{h} - \alpha| < \varepsilon$$

That is, f is differentiable at t iff  $\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(t+h)-f(t)}{h}$  exists. If the limit exists and if we denote it by  $\alpha$ , then  $\alpha$  is unique and called the derivative of f at t. It is denoted by f'(t).

**Ex. 11.** With the above notation, write f := u + iv where u(t) := Re(f(t)) and v(t) := Im(f(t)). Then f is differentiable at  $t \in [a, b]$  iff the real valued functions  $u, v : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  are differentiable at t. Furthermore, f'(t) = u'(t) + iv'(t). Also, if f is differentiable at t, then it is continuous at t.

**Remark 12.** If f is as above, we may think of f as a differentiable curve in the complex plane: f(t) = u(t) + iv(t) which corresponds to  $(u(t), v(t)) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . And  $f'(t) \equiv (u'(t), v'(t))$  is thought of as the tangent vector to the curve at t. In physical terms, we may think of f(t) as the position of a particle at time t and f'(t) as the "velocity".

**Example 13.** Let  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ . Let  $\gamma : [0,1] \to \mathbb{C}$  be given by  $\gamma(t) := z + t(w-z)$ . Then  $\gamma$  is the line segment [z, w] joining z and w and  $\gamma'(t) = w - z$ , since  $\frac{\gamma(t+h) - \gamma(t)}{h} - (w-z) = 0$ , for  $h \neq 0$ .

**Example 14.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ , R > 0. Consider the map  $\sigma: [0, 2\pi] \to \mathbb{C}$  given by  $\sigma(t) := a + R(\cos t + i \sin t)$ . Then  $\sigma$  is the circle with centre at a and radius R. Also,  $\sigma'(t) = R(-\sin t + i \cos t)$ .

**Remark 15.** The analogue of mean value theorem is false for complex valued functions of a real variable. For, consider  $f: [0, 2\pi] \to \mathbb{C}$  given by  $f(t) := \cos t + i \sin t$ . Then  $f(2\pi) - f(0) = 0$  while |f'(t)| = 1 for all  $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ .

**Ex.** 16. Let  $h: [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be differentiable with h'(t) = 0. Then h is a constant. *Hint:* Invoke the result from real analysis to the real and imaginary parts of h.

## 3 Differentiable Functions on $\mathbb C$

**Definition 17.** Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open. A function  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  is said to be *differentiable* at  $z \in U$  if there exists an  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  such that given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|\frac{f(z+h)-f(z)}{h}-\alpha|<\varepsilon,\quad\text{for }0<|h|<\delta.$$

The number  $\alpha$  is unique (Exercise!) and called the *derivative* of f at z. It is denoted by f'(z).

Note that f is differentiable at  $z \in U$  iff the limit

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h}$$

exists.

If f is differentiable at each  $z \in U$ , then f is said to be holomorphic on U. Let H(U) denote the set of functions holomorphic on U.

If  $f \in H(\mathbb{C})$ , then f is called an *entire* function.

If  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  is differentiable and if  $g := f': U \to \mathbb{C}$  is differentiable at  $z \in U$ , we denote f''(z) = g'(z). f'' is called the second derivative of f at z. More generally, we define inductively the *n*-th derivative of f at z by setting  $f^{(0)}(z) := f(z)$  and  $f^{(n)}(z) := (f^{(n-1)})'(z)$ , the derivative of  $f^{(n-1)}$  at z. In general, the first, second and third derivatives are denoted by f', f'' and f''' respectively. If  $f^{(n)}(z)$  exists for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and for all  $z \in U$ , we say that f is infinitely differentiable on U.

**Proposition 18.** Let  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  be given and  $z \in U$ . Then f is differentiable at z iff there exists a function  $f_1: U \to \mathbb{C}$ , continuous at z and such that  $f(w) = f(z) + (w - z)f_1(w)$ . Furthermore,  $f'(z) = f_1(z)$ .

*Proof.* Let f be differentiable at z. Define  $f_1(w) := \frac{f(w)-f(z)}{w-z}$  for  $w \neq z$  and  $f_1(z) = f'(z)$ . To check the continuity of  $f_1$  at z, let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Since f is differentiable at z, for this  $\varepsilon$  there exists a  $\delta$  such that if  $0 < |w-z| < \delta$ , then  $|\frac{f(w)-f(z)}{w-z} - f'(z)| < \varepsilon$ , that is,  $|f_1(w) - f_1(z)| < \varepsilon$  for  $|w-z| < \delta$ . Hence  $f_1$  is continuous at z.

Conversely, if  $f_1$  exists as specified, observe that  $f_1(w)$  must equal  $\frac{f(w)-f(z)}{w-z}$  for  $w \neq z$ . We claim that f is differentiable at z and  $f'(z) = f_1(z)$ : By continuity of  $f_1$  at z, given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |w - z| < \delta$ , then  $|\frac{f(w)-f(z)}{w-z} - f_1(z)| < \varepsilon$ . This precisely means that f is differentiable at z and  $f'(z) = f_1(z)$ .

**Corollary 19.** If f is differentiable at z, then f is continuous at z.

*Proof.* Using the notation of the last proposition, we have  $f(w) = f(z) + (w - z)f_1(w)$ . Hence

$$\lim_{w \to z} f(w) = \lim_{w \to z} \left( f(z) + (w - z) f_1(w) \right) = f(z),$$

since  $f_1$  is continuous at z, the second term goes to 0.

Reason: Note that if  $f_1$  is continuous at z, then it is bounded in an open disk around z, say, by M. (See Ex. ??.) Then  $\lim_{w\to z} (w-z)f_1(w) = 0$ .

**Example 20.** Let  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  be a constant. Then f is holomorphic on U and f'(z) = 0 for all  $z \in U$ .

## 4 Integration of functions from $\mathbb{R}$ to $\mathbb{C}$

Let  $I = [a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and  $f: I \to \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. Then we define the integral of f by

$$\int_{a}^{b} f \equiv \int_{a}^{b} f(t) dt := \int_{a}^{b} \operatorname{Re} f + i \int_{a}^{b} \operatorname{Im} f.$$

Here the integrals are Riemann and they exist since  $\operatorname{Re}(f)$  and  $\operatorname{Im}(f)$  are continuous.

**Ex. 21.** Let  $f: [0, 2\pi] \to \mathbb{C}$  be given by  $f(t) = e^{int}$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Compute  $\int_0^{2\pi} f(t) dt$ .

**Ex. 22.** Let  $C([a,b],\mathbb{C})$  denote the complex vector space of continuous functions on [a,b]. Show that the map  $f \mapsto \int_a^b f(t) dt$  is a complex linear map from  $C([a,b],\mathbb{C})$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Theorem 23 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus).

(i) Let  $f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. Define  $F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) dt$ . Then F is differentiable and F'(x) = f(x) for  $x \in [a,b]$ .

(ii) Let  $G: [a,b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be differentiable with g := G' continuous. Then  $\int_a^b g(t) dt = G(b) - G(a)$ .

*Proof.* The strategy is to make use of our definitions of derivative and the integral of a complex valued function of a real variable and make use the fundamental theorem of calculus for real valued functions of a real variable.

Let us write f(t) = u(t) + iv(t). Then u and v are continuous and

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt = \int_{a}^{x} u(t) dt + i \int_{a}^{x} v(t) dt.$$

Now F is differentiable iff  $\int_a^x u(t) dt$  and  $\int_a^x v(t) dt$  are so. By the fundamental theorem of calculus, it follows that these two indefinite integrals are differentiable and their derivatives are u(x) and v(x) respectively. Hence F'(x) exists and is equal to u(x) + iv(x) = f(x). This proves (i).

Proof of (ii) is similar and the reader should do it on his own.

Let  $H(x) := \int_{a}^{x} g(t) dt$ . Then, H'(x) = g(x) by (i). so that (H - G)' = 0. Thus H - G is a constant on [a, b] whence H(b) - G(b) = H(a) - G(a), or H(b) - H(a) = G(b) - G(a). Since H(a) = 0, (ii) follows.

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**Ex. 24.** Do Ex. 21 now!

**Ex. 25.** Do Ex. 16. *Hint:*  $h(x) - h(a) = \int_a^x h'(t) dt$ .

**Ex. 26.** Let  $\lambda = a + ib \in \mathbb{C}^*$ . Evaluate  $\int_0^t e^{\lambda s} ds$ . Equating the real parts, show that

$$(a^2 + b^2) \int_0^t e^{as} \cos bs \, ds = e^{at} [a \cos bt + b \sin bt] - a.$$

**Ex. 27.** Let  $\gamma: [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be a continuously differentiable map with  $\gamma(t) \neq z_0$  for all  $t \in [a, b]$ . (We think of  $\gamma$  as a path not passing through  $z_0$ .) Let  $g(t) := \int_a^t \frac{\gamma'(s)}{\gamma(s)-z_0} ds$ , for  $t \in [a, b]$ . Show that  $h(t) := e^{-g(t)}[\gamma(t) - z_0]$  is a constant and hence deduce that

$$\exp(g(t)) = \frac{\gamma(t) - z_0}{\gamma(a) - z_0}, \quad \text{for } t \in [a, b].$$

What can you say about g(b) if  $\gamma(b) = \gamma(a)$ ? Take  $z_0 = 0$  and do you see the meaning of g? We shall return to this exercise later. See Definition ??, Example ?? and Theorem ??.

**Corollary 28** (Integration by parts). Let  $f, g: [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be continuously differentiable. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t)g'(t) \, dt = [f(t)g(t)]_{a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} f'(t)g(t) \, dt.$$

*Proof.* This follows from Theorem 23. Recall that (fg)'(t) = f'(t)g(t) + f(t)g'(t). Both sides are continuous functions and so we can integrate them to obtain

$$\int_{a}^{b} f'(t)g(t) dt + \int_{a}^{b} f(t)g'(t) dt = \int_{a}^{b} (fg)'(t) dt$$
$$= [f(t)g(t)]_{a}^{b},$$

by the fundamental theorem of calculus. The result follows from this.

**Proposition 29** (Change of Variable). Let  $h: [c, d] \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuously differentiable and  $f: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous. Assume that  $h([c, d]) \subset [a, b]$ . Then

$$\int_{c}^{d} (f \circ h)(s)h'(s) \, ds = \int_{h(c)}^{h(d)} f(t) \, dt.$$

*Proof.* Consider  $\varphi(s) := \int_{h(c)}^{h(s)} f(t) dt$ . Then  $\varphi$  is the composition of the functions  $s \mapsto h(s)$  and  $x \mapsto \int_{h(c)}^{x} f(t) dt$ . Hence  $\varphi'(s) = f(h(s))h'(s)$  by chain rule and Theorem 23. Again, by the same theorem, we have

$$\int_{h(c)}^{h(d)} f(t) dt = \varphi(d) - \varphi(c) = \int_c^d \varphi'(s) ds = \int_c^d f(h(s))h'(s) ds.$$

(Why does the integrand on the left most side make sense?)

**Proposition 30.** Let  $f: I \to \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. Then

$$|\int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt| \leq \int_{a}^{b} |f(t)|dt.$$

*Proof.* If f is real valued, then  $-|f(t)| \leq f(t) \leq |f(t)|$  so that  $\int -|f| \leq \int |f|$  Hence  $|\int f| \leq \int |f|$  in this case.

Let f be complex valued. Choose  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|\alpha| = 1$  and  $\alpha \int_a^b f(t) dt \in \mathbb{R}$ . (If  $\int_a^b f(t) dt = re^{it}$  is a polar representation, then we may take  $\alpha = e^{-it}$ .) By linearity,  $\alpha \int_a^b f = \int_a^b \alpha f$  so that

$$\int_{a}^{b} \operatorname{Re}\left(\alpha f(t)\right) dt = \operatorname{Re}\left(\alpha \int_{a}^{b} f(t) dt\right) = \alpha \int_{a}^{b} f(t) dt.$$
(1)

Also, observe that

$$\operatorname{Re}\left(\alpha f(t)\right| \le |\alpha f(t)| = |\alpha||f(t)| = |f(t)|.$$
(2)

Hence

$$\begin{split} |\int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt| &= |\alpha \int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt| \qquad \text{(by our choice of } \alpha) \\ &= |\int_{a}^{b} \operatorname{Re} \left( \alpha f(t) \right) dt | \qquad \text{(by 1)} \\ &\leq \int_{a}^{b} |\operatorname{Re} \left( \alpha f(t) \right)| dt \qquad \text{(by the real case)} \\ &\leq \int_{a}^{b} |f(t)| dt \qquad \text{(by 2 and monotonicity of the integral).} \end{split}$$

This completes the proof.

**Proposition 31.** If  $f_n: [a,b] \to \mathbb{C}$  are continuous and they converge uniformly on [a,b] to an  $f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{C}$ , then f is necessarily continuous and we have  $\lim_{a} \int_a^b f_n(t) dt = \int_a^b f(t) dt$ .

*Proof.* Follows from the observation:

$$\left|\int_{a}^{b} f_{n}(t) dt - \int_{a}^{b} f(t) dt\right| = \left|\int_{a}^{b} [f_{n}(t) - f(t)] dt\right|$$
$$\leq \int_{a}^{b} |f_{n}(t) - f(t)| dt$$
$$\leq \int_{a}^{b} \varepsilon_{n} = \varepsilon_{n}(b - a),$$

where  $\varepsilon_n := \sup\{|f_n(t) - f(t)| : t \in [a, b]\}$ . Since  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on  $[a, b], \varepsilon_n \to 0$ . The result follows.(Question: Where did we use the fact that f is continuous?)

We give applications of this result which constitute some of the important results of Cauchy Theory in the next chapter. **Ex. 32.** Let  $f(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^n$  for  $z \in B(z_0, R)$ . Then for  $0 \le r \le R$ , and  $0 \le t \le 2\pi$ , we have the Parseval identity:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0 + re^{it})|^2 dt = \sum_{n=0}^\infty |a_n|^2 r^{2n}.$$
(3)

If  $|f(z)| \leq M(r)$  for  $|z - z_0| = r$ , then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n|^2 r^{2n} \le M(r)^2.$$
(4)

*Hint:* Observe that  $\int_0^{2\pi} |s_n(t)|^2 dt = \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k|^2 r^{2k}$ . Then use Ex. ??.