

Complex Variables Chapter 17 **Functions of a Complex Variable** February 26, 2013 Lecturer: Shih-Yuan Chen



Except where otherwise noted, content is licensed under a <u>CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 TW License</u>.



Contents

- Complex numbers
- Powers and roots
- Sets in complex plane
- Functions of a complex variable
- Cauchy-Riemann equations
- Exponential and logarithmic functions
- Trigonometric and hyperbolic functions
- Inverse trigonometric and hyperbolic functions



- Solve the quadratic equation $x^{2} + x + 1 = 0 \implies x = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{3}\sqrt{-1}}{2}$
 - Define imaginary unit *i* by $i^2 = -1$
- <u>Def.</u> A complex number is any number of the form z = a + ib where a & b are real numbers and i is the imaginary unit.
 - Real part \rightarrow Re(z) = a
 - Imaginary part \rightarrow Im(z) = b



- <u>Def.</u> Complex numbers $z_1 \& z_2$ are equal if $\operatorname{Re}(z_1) = \operatorname{Re}(z_2) \& \operatorname{Im}(z_1) = \operatorname{Im}(z_2).$
 - A complex number z = 0 if $\operatorname{Re}(z) = 0$ & $\operatorname{Im}(z) = 0$.
- If $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1$ & $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2$
 - Addition: $z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)$
 - Subtraction: $z_1 z_2 = (x_1 x_2) + i(y_1 y_2)$
 - Multiplication:

 $z_1 z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(y_1 x_2 + x_1 y_2)$

• Division:
$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{x_1 + iy_1}{x_2 + iy_2} = \frac{x_1x_2 + y_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} + i\frac{y_1x_2 - x_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$



 Familiar laws hold for complex numbers • Commutative laws: $\begin{cases} z_1 + z_2 = z_2 + z_1 \\ z_1 z_2 = z_2 z_1 \end{cases}$ • Associative laws: $\begin{cases} z_1 + (z_2 + z_3) = (z_1 + z_2) + z_3 \\ z_1(z_2 z_3) = (z_1 z_2) z_3 \end{cases}$ • Distributive law: $z_1(z_2 + z_3) = z_1 z_2 + z_1 z_2$



Complex conjugate

- If z = x + iy, then the conjugate of z is $\overline{z} = x iy$
- It is very easy to show that

$$z_1 + z_2 = \overline{z}_1 + \overline{z}_2 \qquad z_1 - z_2 = \overline{z}_1 - \overline{z}_2$$
$$\overline{z_1 z_2} = \overline{z}_1 \overline{z}_2 \qquad \overline{\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right)} = \frac{\overline{z}_1}{\overline{z}_2}$$

• The sum & product of a conjugate pair are real $\begin{cases} z + \overline{z} = (x + iy) + (x - iy) = 2x \cdots (1) \\ z\overline{z} = (x + iy)(x - iy) = x^2 - i^2y^2 = x^2 + y^2 \cdots (2) \end{cases}$



- Difference between a conjugate pair is **imaginary** $z - \overline{z} = (x + iy) - (x - iy) = 2iy \cdots (3)$
- (1) & (3) yield two useful formulas

$$\operatorname{Re}(z) = \frac{z + \overline{z}}{2}$$
 and $\operatorname{Im}(z) = \frac{z - \overline{z}}{2i}$

• Division of complex numbers using (2) $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{z_1 \overline{z}_2}{z_2 \overline{z}_2} = \frac{(x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2) + i(y_1 x_2 - x_1 y_2)}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$ Ex. If $z_1 = 2 - 3i$ & $z_2 = 4 + 6i$, find $\frac{z_1}{z_2}$ & $\frac{1}{z_1}$



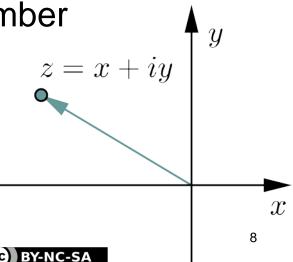
Geometric interpretation

 A complex number z = x + iy is uniquely determined by an ordered pair of real numbers (x, y).

Ex. The ordered pair (2, -3) corresponds to the complex number z = 2 - 3i.

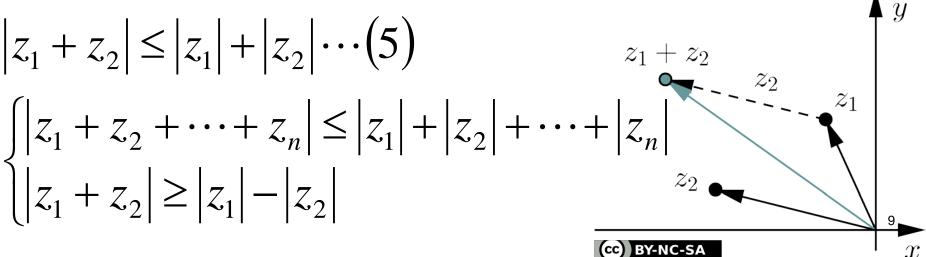
One can associate a complex number z = x + iy with a point (x, y) in a <u>coordinate plane</u>.

 The complex number can also be viewed as a vector from the origin to the terminal point (x, y).





- <u>Def.</u> Modulus or absolute value of z = x + iy, denoted by |z|, is the real number $|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{z\overline{z}} \cdots (4)$
- Sum of the vectors $z_1 \& z_2$ is the vector $z_1 + z_2$. And we have





• Polar form

- Rectangular coordinate (x, y) and polar coordinate (r, θ) are related by $x = r \cos \theta \& y = r \sin \theta$.
- A nonzero complex number z = x + iy can be written as $z = (r \cos \theta) + i(r \sin \theta)$ or

• Polar form of complex number z

$$\begin{cases} r = |z| \\ \theta = \arg(z) \implies \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \end{cases} \xrightarrow{|r \sin \theta|} | y = x + iy \qquad y = x + iy = x + iy \qquad y = x + iy \qquad y = x + iy \qquad y = x + iy = x + iy \qquad y = x + iy = x + iy = x + iy \qquad y = x + iy = x$$



• Argument of a complex number in the interval $-\pi < \theta \le \pi$ is called the **principal argument** of *z* and is denoted by $\operatorname{Arg}(z)$.

Ex. Arg(i) =
$$\pi/2$$
.
Ex. Express $z = 1 - \sqrt{3}i$ in polar form.

$$\begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = -\sqrt{3} \end{cases} \Rightarrow r = |z| = \sqrt{(1)^2 + (-\sqrt{3})^2} = 2 \qquad \frac{5\pi}{3} \\ \tan \theta = -\sqrt{3}/1 = -\sqrt{3} \Rightarrow \theta = \arg(z) = 5\pi/3 \qquad \qquad -\frac{\pi}{3} \\ \therefore z = 2\left(\cos\frac{5\pi}{3} + i\sin\frac{5\pi}{3}\right) \qquad \qquad z = 1 - \sqrt{3}i \end{cases}$$



• The principal argument of z is $\theta = \operatorname{Arg}(z) = -\pi/3$ Thus, an alternative polar form of the complex number is $z = 2\left[\cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right) + i\sin\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right)\right]$



Multiplication & division

- It is very convenient to use the polar form.
- Suppose $\begin{cases} z_1 = r_1(\cos\theta_1 + i\sin\theta_1) \\ z_2 = r_2(\cos\theta_2 + i\sin\theta_2) \end{cases}$ $\Rightarrow z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 [(\cos\theta_1\cos\theta_2 \sin\theta_1\sin\theta_2) \\ + i(\sin\theta_1\cos\theta_2 + \cos\theta_1\sin\theta_2)] \\ \therefore z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 [\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)] \end{cases}$

or
$$\begin{cases} |z_1 z_2| = |z_1| |z_2| \\ \arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2) \end{cases}$$



$$\Rightarrow \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} [(\cos \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 + \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2) + i(\sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 - \cos \theta_1 \sin \theta_2)] \\ + i(\sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 - \cos \theta_1 \sin \theta_2)]$$
$$\therefore \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} [\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2)] \\ \text{or } \left| \frac{z_1}{z_2} \right| = \frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|} \text{ and } \arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2)$$

• It is **NOT** true that $\begin{cases} \operatorname{Arg}(z_1 z_2) = \operatorname{Arg}(z_1) + \operatorname{Arg}(z_2) \\ \operatorname{Arg}(z_1 / z_2) = \operatorname{Arg}(z_1) - \operatorname{Arg}(z_2) \end{cases}$



• Powers of z

- Integer powers of the complex number z
 - $z^{2} = r^{2} \left[\cos(\theta + \theta) + i \sin(\theta + \theta) \right] = r^{2} \left(\cos 2\theta + i \sin 2\theta \right)$ $z^{3} = z^{2} z = r^{3} \left(\cos 3\theta + i \sin 3\theta \right)$
- Moreover,

$$z^{-2} = \frac{1}{z^2} = r^{-2} \left[\cos(-2\theta) + i \sin(-2\theta) \right]$$

• For any integer *n*: $z^n = r^n [\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta]$



• Roots

- w is said to be an *n*-th root of z if $w^n = z$
- Let $w = \rho(\cos\phi + i\sin\phi)$ and $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$

$$\Rightarrow w^{n} = \rho^{n} (\cos n\phi + i \sin n\phi) = r (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \rho^n = r \Rightarrow \rho = r^{1/n} \\ \cos n\phi = \cos \theta \\ \sin n\phi = \sin \theta \end{cases} \quad n\phi = \theta + 2k\pi \quad \therefore \phi = \frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n}$$

As k = 0, 1, 2, ..., n - 1, we obtain n distinct roots
 with the same modulus but different arguments.



• For
$$k = n + m$$
, where $m = 0, 1, 2, ...$ Then
 $\phi = \frac{\theta + 2(n+m)\pi}{n} = \frac{\theta + 2m\pi}{n} + 2\pi$
 $\Rightarrow \sin \phi = \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2m\pi}{n}\right), \cos \phi = \cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2m\pi}{n}\right)$

• To summarize, the *n*-th root of a nonzero complex number $z = r(\cos\theta + i \sin\theta)$ are given by

$$w_k = r^{1/n} \left[\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) \right]$$

where $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$

17



• Ex. Find the three cube roots of z = i. $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} r=1\\ \theta = \arg(i) = \pi/2 \end{cases} \quad \therefore z = \cos(\pi/2) + i\sin(\pi/2)$ $\Rightarrow w_k = (1)^{1/3} \left[\cos\left(\frac{\pi/2 + 2k\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi/2 + 2k\pi}{3}\right) \right], \ k = 0, 1, 2.$ $k = 0 \Longrightarrow w_0 = \cos\frac{\pi}{6} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{1}{2}i$ w_1 w_0 $k = 1 \Longrightarrow w_1 = \cos\frac{5\pi}{6} + i\sin\frac{5\pi}{6} = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{1}{2}i$ x $k = 2 \Longrightarrow w_2 = \cos\frac{3\pi}{2} + i\sin\frac{3\pi}{2} = -i$ w_2 18



- Principal *n*-th root of *z*: the root *w* of *z* obtained by using the principal argument of *z* with *k* = 0.
- The *n* roots of the nonzero *z* lie on a circle of radius *r*^{1/n} centered at the origin in the complex plane and are equally spaced on this circle.

Ex. Find the four fourth roots of z = 1 + i.

 $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} r = \sqrt{2} \\ \theta = \arg(z) = \pi/4 \end{cases} \therefore z = \sqrt{2} [\cos(\pi/4) + i\sin(\pi/4)] \\ \Rightarrow w_k = (\sqrt{2})^{1/4} \left[\cos\left(\frac{\pi/4 + 2k\pi}{4}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{\pi/4 + 2k\pi}{4}\right) \right], k = 0, 1, 2, 3. \end{cases}$

• Since $|z - z_0| = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}$ is the distance between the points z = x + iy and $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$, the points z satisfying the equation $|z - z_0| = \rho$, $(\rho > 0)$

lie on a **circle** of radius ρ centered at z_0 .

• **Ex.** |z| = 1

• Ex.
$$|z - 1 - 2i| = 5$$

• The points z satisfying $|z - z_0| < \rho$ lie within, but not on, a circle of radius ρ centered at z_0 .

20

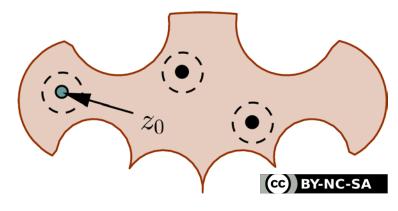
National Taiwan University OpenCourseWare 臺大開放式課程

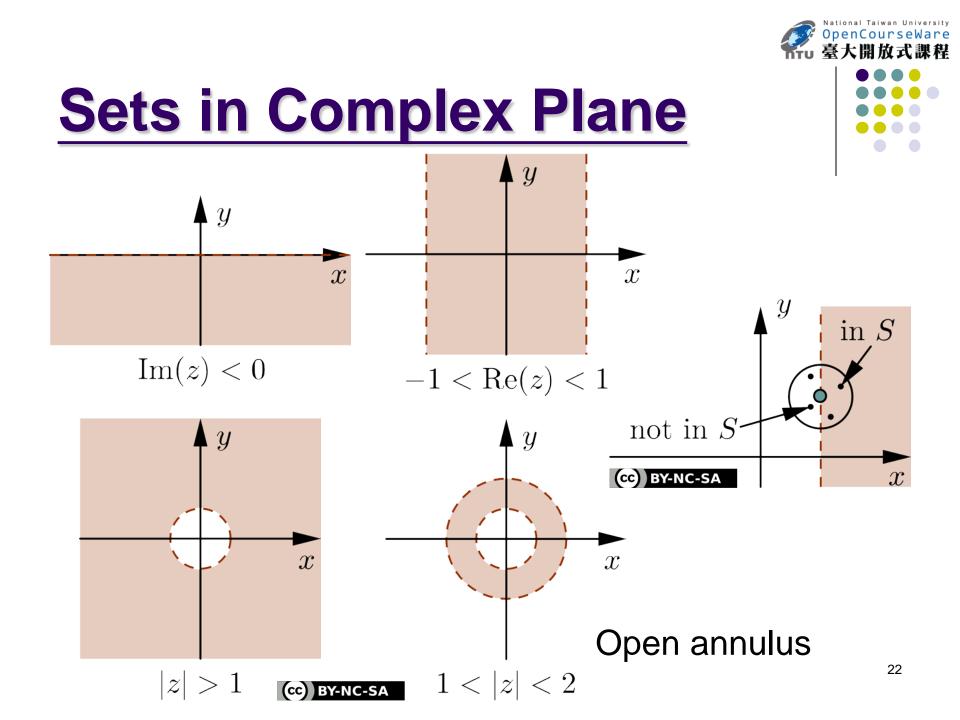
 $|-z_0| < \delta$

 $z_0 = 1.5 + 1.5i$

- *z*₀ is said to be an interior point of a set *S* of the complex plane if there exists some neighborhood of *z*₀ that lies entirely within *S*.
- If every point z of a set S is an interior point, then S is said to be an open set.

Ex. $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 1$ defines a right half-plane. $\frac{1}{|z|}$





- If every neighborhood of z_0 contains at least one point that is in *S* & at least one point that is not in $S \rightarrow z_0$ is a **boundary point** of *S*.
- **Boundary** of a set *S* is the set of all boundary points of *S*.

Ex. For $\text{Re}(z) \ge 1$, the points on Re(z) = 1 are boundary points.

- If any two points z₁ & z₂ in a set S can be connected by a polygonal line that lies entirely in S → S is a connected set.
- An open connected set is called a domain. Ex. The set $\text{Re}(z) \neq 4$ is open but not connected.
- **Region** is a domain in the complex plane with all, some, or none of its boundary points.

20



- Function *f* from a set *A* to a set *B* is a rule of correspondence that assigns to each element in *A* one and only one element in *B*.
 - $b = f(a) \Leftrightarrow b$ is the **image** of a
 - **Domain** & range of the function f
 - Ex. A set of real numbers A: $3 \le x < \infty$ & the function given by $f(x) = \sqrt{x-3}$
 - \rightarrow the range of $f: 0 \le y < \infty$
 - \rightarrow f is a function of a real variable x.



- When the domain A is a set of complex numbers z → f is said to be a function of a complex variable z.
- The image w of z will be complex, too. $w = f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y) \cdots (7)$

where $u = \operatorname{Re}(w)$ & $v = \operatorname{Im}(w)$ are real-valued functions.

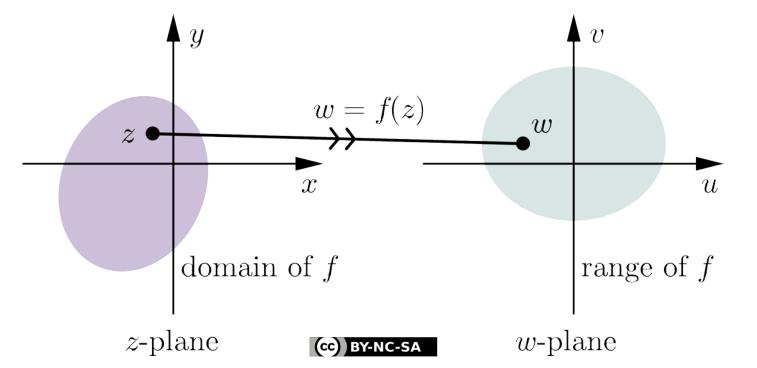
Ex.
$$f(z) = z^2 - 4z \quad \forall z$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = (x + iy)^2 - 4(x + iy) = (x^2 - y^2 - 4x) + i(2xy - 4y)$$



27

 A complex function w = f(z) can be interpreted as a mapping or transformation from the zplane to the w-plane.





Ex. Find the image of the line Re(z) = 1 under the mapping $f(z) = z^2$. $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 \\ v(x, y) = 2xy \end{cases}$ yv $\therefore \operatorname{Re}(z) = x = 1$ $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} u = 1 - y^2 \\ v = 2y \end{cases}$ \mathcal{X} \mathcal{U} u = 1 $\therefore u = 1$ w-plane z-plane **BY-NC-SA** 28

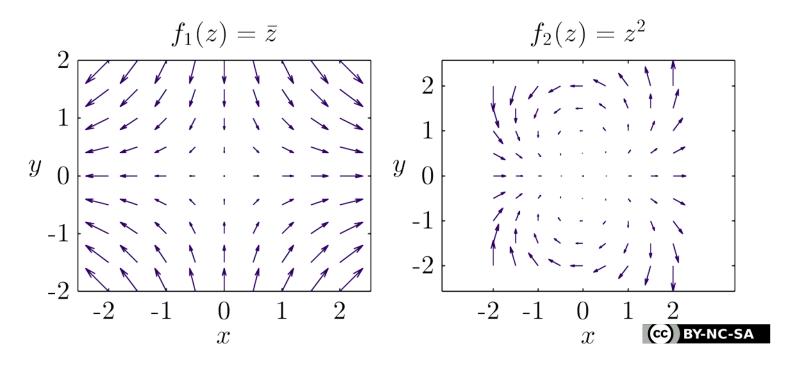


Complex function w = f (z) is completely determined by real-valued functions u(x, y) & v(x, y), even though u + iv may not be obtainable via familiar operations on z alone.

$$\mathsf{Ex.}\,f(z) = xy^2 + i(x^2 - 4y^3)$$



 We also may interpret w = f(z) as a 2-D fluid flow by considering f(z) as a vector based at the point z.





- If x(t) + iy(t) is a parametric representation for the path of the flow,
- $\vec{T} = \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + i\frac{dy(t)}{dt}$ must coincide with f(x(t) + iy(t))
- When f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y), the path of the flow satisfies $\begin{cases} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = u(x, y) \\ \frac{dy(t)}{dt} = v(x, y) \end{cases}$



• Find the streamlines of the flows.

$$f_1(z) = \overline{z} = x - iy \implies \begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = x \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = -y \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} x(t) = c_1 e^t \\ y(t) = c_2 e^{-t} \end{cases} \implies xy = c_1 c_2$$

$$f_2(z) = z^2 = (x^2 - y^2) + i2xy$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = x^2 - y^2 \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = 2xy \end{cases} \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2xy}{x^2 - y^2} \Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = c_2y \end{cases}$$

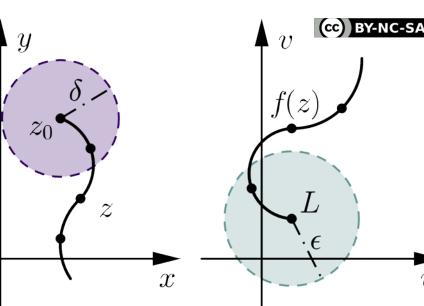


• Limit of a function

 Suppose f is defined in some neighborhood of z₀, except possibly at z₀ itself. f is said to possess a limit at z₀,

$$\lim_{z\to z_0} f(z) = L\cdots(8)$$

• For each $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(z) - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$.



 δ -neighborhood



- Limit of sum, product, quotient
 - Suppose $\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z) = L_1$ and $\lim_{z \to z_0} g(z) = L_2$
 - Then

(i)
$$\lim_{z \to z_0} [f(z) + g(z)] = L_1 + L_2$$

(ii) $\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z)g(z) = L_1L_2$
(iii) $\lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} = \frac{L_1}{L_2}, \quad L_2 \neq 0$



- Continuity at a point
 - A function *f* is **continuous** at z_0 if $\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$
- A function *f* defined by $f(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 z^2 + a_1 z + a_0, \quad a_n \neq 0$ where *n* is a nonnegative integer & a_i (*i* = 0, 1, ..., *n*) are complex constants, is called a **polynomial of degree** *n*.
 - A polynomial is **continuous everywhere**.

• A rational function $f(z) = \frac{g(z)}{h(z)}$

where $\Delta z = \Delta x + i \Delta y$

where *g* & *h* are polynomial functions, is continuous except at points at which h(z) = 0.

• **Derivative**

• Suppose f is defined in a neighborhood of z_0 .

$$\Rightarrow f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z} \dots (9)$$



- If f is differentiable at z_0 , then f is continuous at z_0 .
- If f & g are differentiable at a point z, and c is a complex constant, then

$$\frac{d}{dz}c = 0, \quad \frac{d}{dz}cf(z) = cf'(z) \\ \frac{d}{dz}[f(z) + g(z)] = f'(z) + g'(z) \\ \frac{d}{dz}[f(z)g(z)] = f(z)g'(z) + f'(z)g(z) \\ \frac{d}{dz}z^{n} = nz^{n-1}$$



Ex. Differentiate $f(z) = 3z^4 - 5z^3 + 2z$. $\Rightarrow f'(z) = 3 \cdot 4z^3 - 5 \cdot 3z^2 + 2 = 12z^3 - 15z^2 + 2$ Ex. Differentiate $f(z) = \frac{z^2}{4z+1}$ $\Rightarrow f'(z) = \frac{(4z+1) \cdot 2z - z^2 \cdot 4}{(4z+1)^2} = \frac{4z^2 + 2z}{(4z+1)^2}$

 In order for f to be differentiable at z₀, (9) must approach the same complex number from any direction.



Ex. Show that f(z) = x + i4y is **nowhere** differentiable.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 With $\Delta z = \Delta x + i \Delta y$, we have

$$f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)$$

= $(x + \Delta x) + 4i(y + \Delta y) - x - 4iy = \Delta x + 4i\Delta y$
$$\therefore \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{\Delta x + 4i\Delta y}{\Delta x + i\Delta y}$$

Let $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ along a line parallel to x-axis Let $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ along a line parallel to y-axis



Analytic functions

- A function f (z) is said to be analytic at a point z₀ if f is differentiable at z₀ & at every point in some neighborhood of z₀.
- *f* is analytic in a domain *D* if it is analytic at every point in *D*.

Ex. $f(z) = |z|^2$ is differentiable only at z = 0.

Ex. $g(z) = z^2$ is differentiable at every point z in the complex plane.

 A function that is analytic everywhere is said to be an entire function.



• A number c is a **zero** of a polynomial function f if and only if z - c is a factor of f(z).

Ex. $f(z) = z^2 - 2z + 2 = (z - 1 - i)(z - 1 + i)$.

Ex. Find the value of the limit.

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



- A necessary condition for analyticity
 - Suppose f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y) is differentiable at a point z = x + iy. Then at z the 1st-order partial derivatives of u & v exist and satisfy the Cauchy-

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$
 and $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} =$

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

(Proof)

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

$$= \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{u(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) + iv(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - u(x, y) - iv(x, y)}{\Delta x + i\Delta y}$$

• Since the limit exists. Δz can approach zero from any direction. In particular, if $\Delta z \to 0$ horizontally, $f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{u(x + \Delta x, y) - u(x, y)}{\Delta x} + i \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{v(x + \Delta x, y) - v(x, y)}{\Delta x}$ $=\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+i\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\cdots\cdots(1\,1)$ • If we let $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ vertically, $f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \frac{u(x, y + \Delta y) - u(x, y)}{i\Delta y} + i \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \frac{v(x, y + \Delta y) - v(x, y)}{i\Delta y}$ $= -i\frac{\partial u}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial v} \cdots \cdots (12)$ 43

- If f is analytic throughout a domain D, then the real functions u & v must satisfy (10) at every point in D.
 - Ex. Polynomial $f(z) = z^2 + z$ is analytic for all z. $f(z) = (x^2 - y^2 + x) + i(2xy + y) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2x + 1 = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ and $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -2y = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$

Ex. Show that $f(z) = (2x^2 + y) + i(y^2 - x)$ is not analytic at any point.



$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 4x \text{ and } \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 2y \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 1 \text{ and } \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -1 \end{cases}$$

We see that $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$ but that $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ is satisfied only on the line $y = 2x$.
 $\Rightarrow f$ is nowhere analytic.



Criterion for analyticity

Suppose the real-valued functions u & v are continuous and have continuous 1st-order partial derivatives in a domain D. If u & v satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations at all points of D, then f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y) is analytic in D.

• Ex. For
$$f(z) = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} - i\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}$$
 we have
 $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{y^2 - x^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ and $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{-2xy}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$



- (11) & (12) were obtained under the basic assumption that *f* was differentiable at *z*.
- Thus, $f'(z) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \cdots (13)$

Ex. $f(z) = z^2$ is differentiable for all z. $\begin{cases}
u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2x \\
v(x, y) = 2xy \Rightarrow \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 2y
\end{cases}$ $\therefore f'(z) = 2x + i2y = 2z$

- If the real-valued functions u & v are continuous & have continuous 1st-order derivatives in a neighborhood of z and if u & v satisfy (10) at z, then f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y) is differentiable at z & f'(z) is given by (13).
 - Ex. $f(z) = x^2 iy^2$ is nowhere analytic. $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2x, \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = -2y, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0$ (10) are satisfied only when y = -x. On that line (13) gives f'(z) = 2x = -2y.



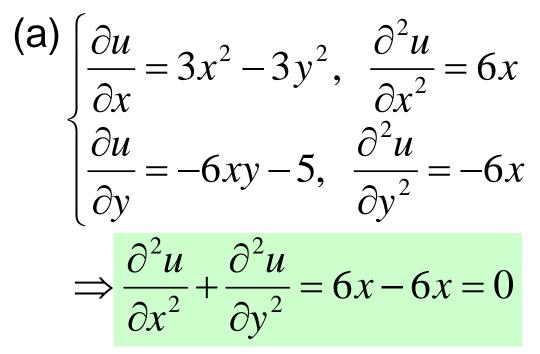
- A real-valued fx φ(x, y) that has continuous 2ndorder partial derivatives in a domain D & satisfies
 Laplace equation is said to be harmonic in D.
- If f (z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y) is analytic in a domain
 D, then u & v are harmonic functions.
 (proof)
 - Assume u & v have continuous 2nd-order partial derivatives. Since f is analytic, (10) are satisfied.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \Longrightarrow \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x \partial y} \text{ and } \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \Longrightarrow \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = -\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y \partial x}$$

- Adding these two equations gives $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial v^2} = 0$
- This shows that u(x, y) is harmonic. Similarly, we can obtain $\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial v^2} = 0$
- If u(x, y) is a given fx harmonic in D, it is sometimes possible to find another fx v(x, y)that is harmonic in D so that u(x, y) + iv(x, y) is an analytic fx in D. v is called a **conjugate** harmonic function of *u*. 50



Ex. (a) Verify that $u(x, y) = x^3 - 3xy^2 - 5y$ is harmonic in the entire complex plane. (b) Find the conjugate harmonic fx of u.





(b) Since v must satisfy (10), we must have

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 3x^2 - 3y^2 \implies v(x, y) = 3x^2y - y^3 + h(x) \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -(-6xy - 5) \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 6xy + h'(x) = 6xy + 5$$
$$\Rightarrow h'(x) = 5, \quad h(x) = 5x + C$$
$$\therefore v(x, y) = 3x^2y - y^3 + 5x + C$$

 Suppose *u* & *v* are the harmonic fxs forming the real & imaginary parts of an analytic fx *f*(*z*). The level curves *u*(*x*, *y*) = *c*₁ & *v*(*x*, *y*) = *c*₂ form two orthogonal families of curves.

$$\mathsf{Ex.} f(z) = z = x + iy \to x = c_1 \& y = c_2.$$



Exponential function

- In real variables, $f(x) = e^x$ has the properties f'(x) = f(x) and $f(x_1 + x_2) = f(x_1)f(x_2)$
- For Euler's formula,

 $e^{iy} = \cos y + i \sin y$, y a real number

- For z = x + iy, it is natural to expect that $e^{x+iy} = e^x e^{iy} = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y)$
- The exponential fx of a complex variable *z* is defined as $e^{z} = e^{x+iy} = e^{x}(\cos y + i \sin y) \cdots (14)$



Ex. Evaluate
$$e^{1.7+4.2i}$$
.
 $\Rightarrow x = 1.7$ and $y = 4.2$
 $\Rightarrow e^{1.7+4.2i} = e^{1.7} (\cos 4.2 + i \sin 4.2) = -2.6837 - 4.7710i$

• $\operatorname{Re}(e^z) = u(x,y) = e^x \cos y \& \operatorname{Im}(e^z) = v(x,y) = e^x \sin y$ are continuous & have continuous 1st partial derivatives at every point *z* of the complex plane. Moreover, (10) are satisfied at all points.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = e^x \cos y = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \text{ and } \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -e^x \sin y = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$



- Thus, f(z) = e^z is analytic for all z; in other words, f is an entire function.
- The derivative of *f* can be obtained via (11). $f'(z) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = e^x \cos y + i \left(e^x \sin y\right) = f(z)$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dz}e^z = e^z$$

• If $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1$ & $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2$, we can have $f(z_1)f(z_2) = e^{x_1}(\cos y_1 + i\sin y_1)e^{x_2}(\cos y_2 + i\sin y_2)$

$$f(z_1)f(z_2) = e^{x_1 + x_2} [(\cos y_1 \cos y_2 - \sin y_1 \sin y_2) + i(\sin y_1 \cos y_2 + \cos y_1 \sin y_2)]$$

= $e^{x_1 + x_2} [\cos(y_1 + y_2) + i\sin(y_1 + y_2)]$
= $f(z_1 + z_2)$
 $\therefore e^{z_1}e^{z_2} = e^{z_1 + z_2}$

• Similarly, one can prove that

$$\frac{e^{z_1}}{e^{z_2}} = e^{z_1 - z_2}$$

OpenCou

🐔 喜大



• Periodicity

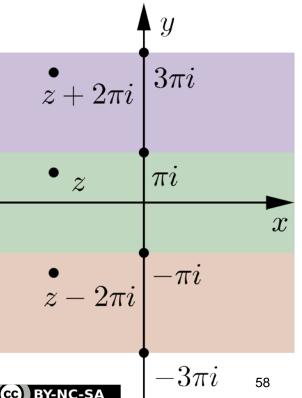
• $f(z) = e^z$ is **periodic** with the complex period $2\pi i$.

$$\because e^{2\pi i} = \cos 2\pi + i \sin 2\pi = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{z+2\pi i} = e^z e^{2\pi i} = e^z \text{ for all } z$$
$$\therefore f(z+2\pi i) = f(z)$$

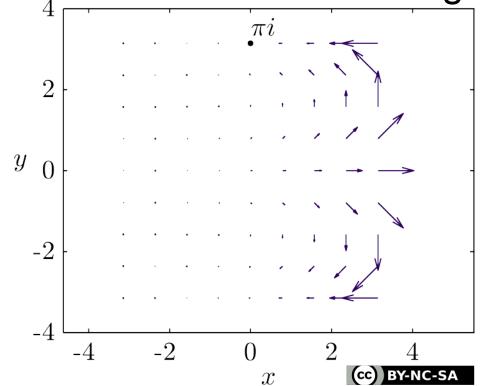
• Divide the complex plane into $(2n-1)\pi < y \leq (2n+1)\pi$

where $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$ $f(z) = f(z \pm 2\pi i) = f(z \pm 4\pi i) = \cdots$





- The strip $-\pi < y \le \pi$ is called the **fundamental** region for $f(z) = e^{z}$.
- The flow over the fundamental region.





- Polar form of a complex number
 - Using (6), $z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$. $\therefore e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$

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

Ex. Find the steady-state current I(t) in an RLC series circuit.

$$L\frac{d^{2}q}{dt^{2}} + R\frac{dq}{dt} + \frac{1}{C}q = E_{0}\sin\omega t \text{ and } I = \frac{dq}{dt}$$
$$\Rightarrow L\frac{dI}{dt} + RI + \frac{1}{C}q = \operatorname{Im}\left(E_{0}e^{j\omega t}\right)$$



Assume
$$I(t) = \operatorname{Im}(I_0 e^{j\omega t}).$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(j\omega L + R + \frac{1}{j\omega C}\right)I_0 = E_0$$

$$\therefore I_0 = \frac{E_0}{j\omega L + R + \frac{1}{j\omega C}} = \frac{E_0}{R + j\left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)} = \frac{E_0}{Z}$$

where
$$Z = |Z|e^{j\theta} = \sqrt{R^2 + \left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)^2 e^{j\tan^{-1}\left[\left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)/R\right]}}$$

$$\therefore I(t) = \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{E_0}{|Z|}e^{-j\theta}e^{j\omega t}\right)$$

61



Logarithmic function

• Logarithm of a complex number $z (z \neq 0)$ is defined as the inverse of the exponential function.

$$w = \ln z$$
 if $z = e^w \cdots (15)$

• To find the real & imaginary parts of $\ln z$ $z = x + iy = e^w = e^{u+iv} = e^u (\cos v + i \sin v)$ $\Rightarrow x = e^u \cos v \text{ and } y = e^u \sin v$ $\int x^2 + y^2 = e^{2u} \Rightarrow |z|^2 = e^{2u} \therefore u = \log_e |z|$

$$\Rightarrow \left\{ \frac{y}{x} = \tan v \iff v = \theta = \arg z \right\}$$



• For $z \neq 0$ and $\theta = \arg(z)$ $\ln z = \log_e |z| + i(\theta + 2n\pi)$ for $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ (16)

 Note that there are infinitely many values of the logarithm of a complex number z.

Ex. Evaluate (a) $\ln(-2)$ and (b) $\ln(-1 - i)$. (a) $\theta = \arg(-2) = \pi$ and $\log_e |-2| = 0.6932$ $\therefore \ln(-2) = 0.6932 + i(\pi + 2n\pi)$ (b) $\theta = \arg(-1 - i) = 5\pi/4$ and $\log_e |-1 - i| = \log_e \sqrt{2} = 0.3466$

$$\therefore \ln(-1-i) = 0.3466 + i(5\pi/4 + 2n\pi)$$
⁶³



Principal value

- As a consequence of (16), the logarithm of a positive real number has many values.
- With the principal argument of a complex number, Arg(z), in the interval (-π, π], we can define the principal value of ln z as

$$\operatorname{Ln} z = \log_e |z| + i \operatorname{Arg} z \cdots (17)$$

Ex. Evaluate (a)
$$Ln(-2)$$
 & (b) $Ln(-1-i)$.
(a) $\theta = Arg(-2) = \pi$ \therefore $Ln(-2) = 0.6932 + \pi i$
(b) $\theta = Arg(-1-i) = -3\pi/4$ \therefore $Ln(-1-i) = 0.3466 - i(3\pi/4)$



- (16) can be interpreted as an infinite collection of logarithmic functions. Each fx in the collection is called a branch of ln z.
- $f(z) = \operatorname{Ln} z$ is called the principal branch of $\ln z$ or the principal logarithmic function.
- Some familiar properties hold in the complex case: $\begin{cases} \ln(z_1 z_2) = \ln z_1 + \ln z_2 \\ \ln\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \ln z_1 - \ln z_2 \end{cases}$



Ex. For
$$z_1 = i$$
 & $z_2 = -1 + i$,
 $\mathbf{Ln}(z_1 z_2) = \mathbf{Ln}(-1 - i) = 0.3466 - i\frac{3\pi}{4}$
 $\mathbf{Ln}z_1 + \mathbf{Ln}z_2 = \left(0 + i\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \left(0.3466 + i\frac{3\pi}{4}\right)$
 $= 0.3466 + i\frac{5\pi}{4} \neq \mathbf{Ln}(z_1 z_2)$



Analyticity

- $f(z) = \operatorname{Ln} z$ is not continuous at z = 0 since f(0) is not defined.
- f(z) = Ln z is discontinuous at all points of the negative real axis because Im[f(z)] = v = Arg(z) is discontinuous at these points.
 - For x_0 on the negative real axis, as $z \to x_0$ from the upper half-plane, $\operatorname{Arg}(z) \to \pi$, whereas as $z \to x_0$ from the lower half-plane, $\operatorname{Arg}(z) \to -\pi$.
- Thus, $f(z) = \operatorname{Ln} z$ is **NOT analytic on the nonpositive real axis**.



 \mathcal{X}

68

- However, $f(z) = \operatorname{Ln} z$ is analytic throughout the domain *D* consisting of all the points in the complex plane except the nonpositive real axis.
- Since f(z) = Ln z is the principal branch of ln z, the nonpositive real axis is referred to as a branch cut for the function.

branch cut

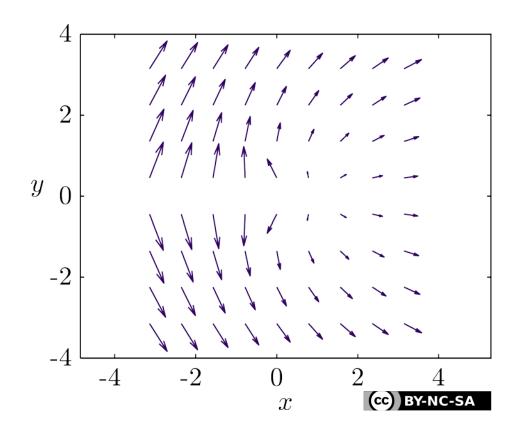
• (10) is satisfied throughout *D*.

Also,

$$\frac{d}{dz} \operatorname{Ln} z = \frac{1}{z}$$
 for all z in L



• The figure shows $w = \operatorname{Ln} z$ as a flow.





Complex powers

- Define complex powers of a complex number.
- If α is a complex number & z = x + iy, $z^{\alpha} = e^{\alpha \ln z}$ for $z \neq 0$...(18)
- Since $\ln z$ is multiple-valued, z^{α} is **multiple-valued**.
- However, when $\alpha = n$ (integer), (18) is **singlevalued** since there is only one value for z^2 , z^3 , z^{-1} ... Ex. Suppose $\alpha = 2$ & $z = re^{i\theta}$

$$e^{2\ln z} = e^{2(\log_e r + i(\theta + 2k\pi))} = e^{2\log_e r} e^{2i\theta} e^{i4k\pi} = r^2 e^{i\theta} e^{i\theta} \cdot 1$$

$$= re^{i\theta} \cdot re^{i\theta} = z^2$$
⁷⁰



• If we use $\operatorname{Ln} z$ in place of $\ln z$, (18) gives the principal values of z^{α} . Ex. Evaluate i^{2i} . z=i, arg $z=\pi/2$, $\alpha=2i$ $\Rightarrow i^{2i} = e^{2i[\log_e 1 + i(\pi/2 + 2n\pi)]} = e^{-(1 + 4n)\pi}, \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$ i^{2i} is real for every value of n. Since $Arg(z) = \pi/2$, we obtain the principal value of i^{2i} for n = 0.

 $\Rightarrow i^{2i} = e^{-\pi} \cong 0.043$

Trigonometric & Hyperbolic Functions



Trigonometric functions

• For a real variable x, $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$ and $e^{-ix} = \cos x - i \sin x$

$$\Rightarrow \sin x = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{2i} \text{ and } \cos x = \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2}$$

• Similarly, for a complex number z = x + iy,

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$
 and $\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}$...(19)

 $\tan z = \frac{\sin z}{\cos z}, \ \cot z = \frac{1}{\tan z}, \ \sec z = \frac{1}{\cos z}, \ \csc z = \frac{1}{\sin z}$



Analyticity

- Since e^{iz} & e^{-iz} are entire functions, it follows that sin z & cos z are entire functions.
- Note that $\sin z = 0$ only for $z = n\pi$ & $\cos z = 0$ only for $z = (2n + 1)\pi/2$. Thus, $\tan z$ & $\sec z$ are analytic except at $z = (2n + 1)\pi/2$, and $\cot z$ & $\csc z$ are analytic except at $z = n\pi$.

Trigonometric & Hyperbolic



Derivatives

• Since $(d/dz)e^z = e^z$, we have $(d/dz)e^{iz} = ie^{iz}$ and $(d/dz)e^{-iz} = -ie^{-iz}$ $\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dz} \sin z = \frac{d}{dz} \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} = \cos z$ $\frac{d}{d}\sin z = \cos z \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{d}\cos z = -\sin z$ dzdz $\frac{d}{d}$ tan $z = \sec^2 z$ $\frac{d}{-\cot z} = -\csc^2 z \qquad \cdots (20)$ dzdzdd $-- \sec z = \sec z \tan z$ $-\csc z = -\csc z \cot z$ 74 dzdz



Identities

 Same in the complex case. $\sin(-z) = -\sin z$ $\cos(-z) = \cos z$ $\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z = 1$ $\sin(z_1 \pm z_2) = \sin z_1 \cos z_2 \pm \cos z_1 \sin z_2$ $\cos(z_1 \pm z_2) = \cos z_1 \cos z_2 \mp \sin z_1 \sin z_2$ $\sin 2z = 2 \sin z \cos z$ $\cos 2z = \cos^2 z - \sin^2 z$

Trigonometric & Hyperbolic Mathematical Participant Control Parti Control Participant Control Participant Control Parti



• If y is real, the hyperbolic sine & cosine are $\sinh y = \frac{e^{y} - e^{-y}}{2}$ and $\cosh y = \frac{e^{y} + e^{-y}}{2}$ • From (19) & Euler's formula $\Rightarrow \sin z = \frac{e^{i(x+iy)} - e^{-i(x+iy)}}{2}$ $= \sin x \left(\frac{e^{y} + e^{-y}}{2} \right) + i \cos x \left(\frac{e^{y} - e^{-y}}{2} \right)$ $\therefore \begin{cases} \sin z = \sin x \cosh y + i \cos x \sinh y \\ \cos z = \cos x \cosh y - i \sin x \sinh y \end{cases}$...(21)

76



• From (21),

$$1 = \cosh^{2} y - \sinh^{2} y \cdots (22)$$

$$|\sin z|^{2} = \sin^{2} x \cdot \cosh^{2} y + \cos^{2} x \cdot \sinh^{2} y$$

$$= \sin^{2} x (1 + \sinh^{2} y) + \cos^{2} x \cdot \sinh^{2} y$$

$$= \sin^{2} x + \sinh^{2} y \cdots (23)$$

$$|\cos z|^{2} = \cos^{2} x + \sinh^{2} y \cdots (24)$$



• Zeros

- A complex number z is zero iff $|z|^2 = 0$.
- To have $\sin z = 0$, we must have $\sin^2 x + \sinh^2 y = 0$. from (23). This implies that $\sin x = 0$ & $\sinh y = 0$, and so $x = n\pi$ & y = 0.
- → Zeros of sin z are $z = x + iy = n\pi$, where $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ...$
- Similarly, zeros of $\cos z$ are $z = (2n + 1)\pi/2$, where $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ...$

Ex. Evaluate sin(2 + i). $\Rightarrow \sin(2+i) = \sin 2\cosh 1 + i\cos 2\sinh 1 = 1.4031 - 0.4891i$ Ex. Solve the equation $\cos z = 10$. $\Rightarrow \cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{\gamma} = 10$ $\Rightarrow e^{2iz} - 20e^{iz} + 1 = 0$ $\Rightarrow e^{iz} = 10 \pm 3\sqrt{11}$ $\Rightarrow iz = \log_e \left(10 \pm 3\sqrt{11} \right) + 2n\pi i \quad \text{for } n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$: $z = 2n\pi \mp i \log_e (10 + 3\sqrt{11})$ for $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots^{79}$

with a state of the state of t



• Hyperbolic sine & cosine

• For any complex number z = x + iy,

$$\sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}$$
 and $\cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}$...(25)

• Also, $\tanh z = \frac{\sinh z}{\cosh z}$ $\coth z = \frac{1}{\tanh z}$ $\dots(26)$ $\operatorname{sech} z = \frac{1}{\cosh z}$ $\operatorname{csch} z = \frac{1}{\sinh z}$

Trigonometric & Hyperbolic



- Hyperbolic sine & cosine are entire functions.
- Functions of (26) are analytic except at points where the denominators are zero.
- From (25), it is easy to see that $\frac{d}{dz} \sinh z = \cosh z \text{ and } \frac{d}{dz} \cosh z = \sinh z \cdots (27)$
- Trigonometric & hyperbolic functions are related in complex calculus.

 $\sin z = -i \sinh(iz), \quad \cos z = \cosh(iz) \quad \dots (28)$ $\sinh z = -i \sin(iz), \quad \cosh z = \cos(iz) \quad \dots (29)$



• Zeros

- Zeros of sinh z & cosh z are pure imaginary and are respectively, $z = n\pi i$ and $z = (2n+1)\frac{\pi i}{2}$ for $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$
- Also, note that $\sinh z = -i \sin(iz) = -i \sin(-y + ix)$ $= -i [\sin(-y) \cosh x + i \cos(-y) \sinh x]$ $= -i [-\sin y \cosh x + i \cos y \sinh x]$

 $\therefore \sinh z = \sinh x \cos y + i \cosh x \sin y \cdots (30)$ Similarly, $\cosh z = \cosh x \cos y + i \sinh x \sin y \cdots (31)$



• Periodicity

• From (21),

$$\sin(z+2\pi) = \sin(x+2\pi+iy)$$

$$= \sin(x+2\pi)\cosh y + i\cos(x+2\pi)\sinh y$$

$$= \sin x \cosh y + i\cos x \sinh y = \sin z$$

$$\cos(z+2\pi) = \cos z$$
• From (30) & (31),

$$\sinh(z+2\pi i) = \sinh(x+iy+2\pi i)$$

$$= \sinh x \cos(y+2\pi) + i\cosh x \sin(y+2\pi) = \sinh z$$

$$\cosh(z+2\pi i) = \cosh z$$
*3

Inverse Trigonometric & Hyperbolic Functions



- Since the inverse of these analytic functions are multiple-valued functions, they do NOT possess inverse functions in its strictest interpretation.
- Inverse sine
 - <u>Def.</u> $w = \sin^{-1} z$ if $z = \sin w$ $\Rightarrow \frac{e^{iw} - e^{-iw}}{2i} = z \Rightarrow e^{2iw} - 2ize^{iw} - 1 = 0$ $\Rightarrow e^{iw} = iz + (1 - z^2)^{1/2} \therefore \sin^{-1} z = -i \ln [iz + (1 - z^2)^{1/2}]$

Inverse Trigonometric & Hyperbolic Functions



- Inverse cosine
 - $\frac{e^{iw} + e^{-iw}}{2} = z \implies e^{2iw} 2ze^{iw} + 1 = 0$ $\implies e^{iw} z + (z^2 1)^{1/2} \implies e^{2iw} z = i \ln |z| + i(1 z)^{1/2}$

$$\Rightarrow e^{iw} = z + (z^2 - 1)^{1/2} \quad \therefore \cos^{-1} z = -i \ln \left[z + i (1 - z^2)^{1/2} \right]$$

• Inverse tangent

$$\Rightarrow \frac{e^{iw} - e^{-iw}}{i\left(e^{iw} + e^{-iw}\right)} = z \quad \Rightarrow e^{2iw} - 1 = iz\left(e^{2iw} + 1\right)$$
$$\Rightarrow e^{2iw} = \frac{1 + iz}{1 - iz} \quad \therefore \tan^{-1} z = \frac{-i}{2}\ln\frac{i - z}{i + z} = \frac{i}{2}\ln\frac{i + z}{i - z}_{s_5}$$

Inverse Trigonometric & Hyperbolic Functions



Ex. Find all values of $\sin^{-1}\sqrt{5}$ $\sin^{-1}\sqrt{5} = -i\ln\left|\sqrt{5}i + \left(1 - \left(\sqrt{5}\right)^2\right)^{1/2}\right|$ $= -i \ln \left[\sqrt{5}i \pm 2i \right] = -i \ln \left[\left(\sqrt{5} \pm 2 \right) i \right]$ $=-i\left|\log_{e}\left(\sqrt{5}\pm 2\right)+\left(\frac{\pi}{2}+2n\pi\right)i\right|, n=0,\pm 1,\pm 2,...$ $=\frac{\pi}{2}+2n\pi\mp i\log_e\left(\sqrt{5}+2\right)$

Inverse Trigonometric & **Hyperbolic Functions**

 $(1-z^2)^{1/2}$



Derivatives

COS Z

dz

• To find the derivative of $w = \sin^{-1}z$, we begin by differentiating $z = \sin w$:

$$\frac{d}{dz}z = \frac{d}{dz}\sin w \implies \frac{dw}{dz} = \frac{1}{\cos w} = \frac{1}{(1-\sin^2 w)^{1/2}} = \frac{1}{(1-z^2)^{1/2}}$$
$$\therefore \frac{d}{dz}\sin^{-1}z = \frac{1}{(1-z^2)^{1/2}}$$
$$\frac{d}{dz}\cos^{-1}z = \frac{-1}{(1-z^2)^{1/2}} \text{ and } \frac{d}{dz}\tan^{-1}z = \frac{1}{1+z^2}$$

and

Inverse Trigonometric & Hyperbolic Functions



$$\Rightarrow \frac{dw}{dz}\Big|_{z=\sqrt{5}} = \frac{1}{\left(1-\left(\sqrt{5}\right)^2\right)^{1/2}} = \frac{1}{\left(-4\right)^{1/2}} = \frac{1}{\pm 2i} = \frac{\mp i}{2}$$

Inverse Trigonometric & Hyperbolic Functions

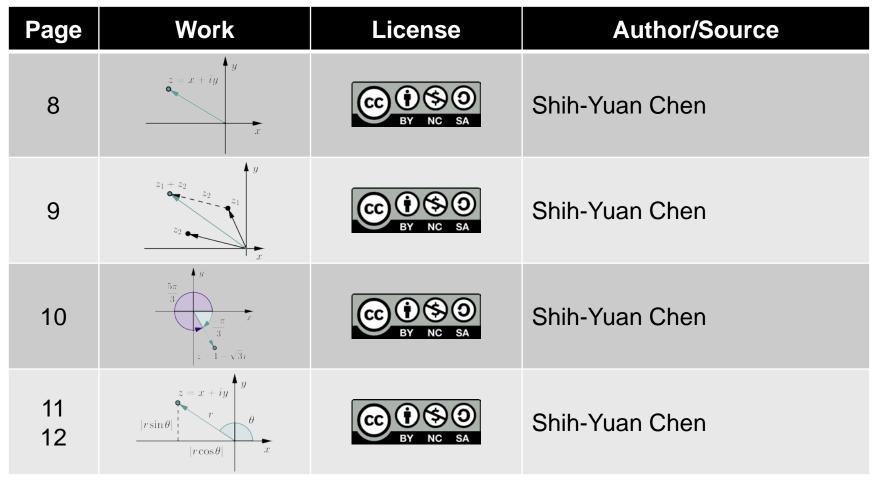


89

• Inverse hyperbolic functions & derivatives $\sinh^{-1} z = \ln \left[z + (z^{2} + 1)^{1/2} \right] \quad \frac{d}{dz} \sinh^{-1} z = \frac{1}{(z^{2} + 1)^{1/2}}$ $\cosh^{-1} z = \ln \left[z + (z^{2} - 1)^{1/2} \right] \quad \frac{d}{dz} \cosh^{-1} z = \frac{1}{(z^{2} - 1)^{1/2}}$ $\tanh^{-1} z = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1+z}{1-z} \qquad \frac{d}{dz} \tanh^{-1} z = \frac{1}{1-z^{2}}$

Ex. Find all values of $\cosh^{-1}(-1)$ $\cosh^{-1}(-1) = \ln(-1) = \log_e 1 + (\pi + 2n\pi)i$ $= (2n+1)\pi i, \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ...$

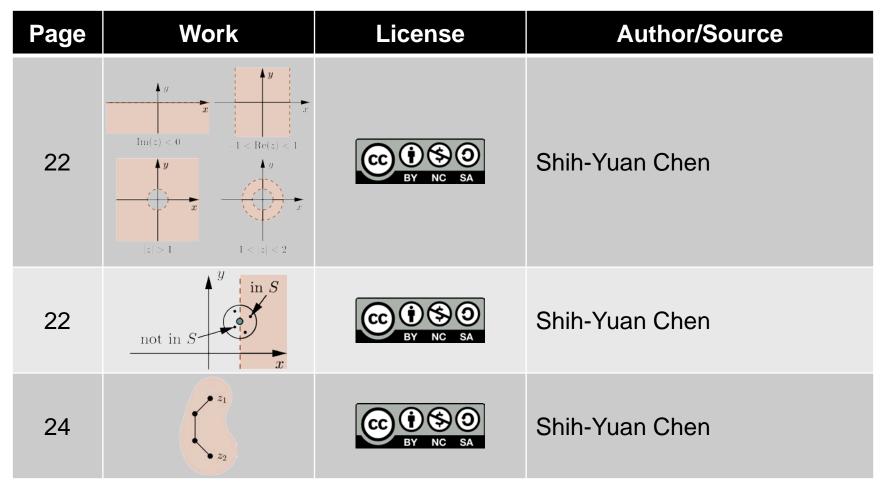




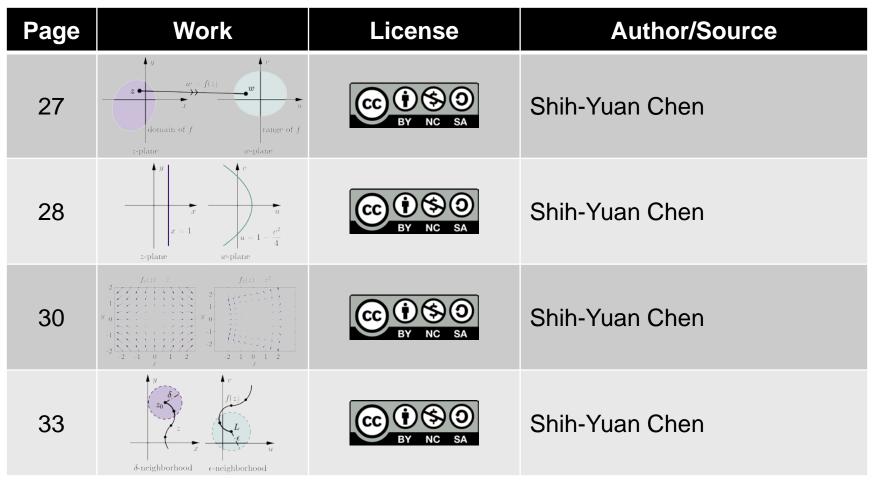


Page	Work	License	Author/Source
18	w_1 w_0 w_2 w_2		Shih-Yuan Chen
20	$\begin{vmatrix} z_0 \\ \bullet \\ \rho \\ z - z_0 = \rho$	BY NC SA	Shih-Yuan Chen
21		BY NC SA	Shih-Yuan Chen
21	$z_{0} = 1.5 + 1.5i$	BY NC SA	Shih-Yuan Chen











Page	Work	License	Author/Source
58	$z + 2\pi i$ x $z + 2\pi i$ πi x $z - 2\pi i$ $-\pi i$ $3\pi i$	BY NC SA	Shih-Yuan Chen
59	$\begin{array}{c} & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ y \\ & & & &$	BY NC SA	Shih-Yuan Chen
68	branch cut x	BY NC SA	Shih-Yuan Chen
69	$\begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 2 \\ y \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ -4 \\ -4 \\ -4 \\ -4 \\ -4 \\ -4 \\ -4$	BY NC SA	Shih-Yuan Chen