

Chapter 2: Analytic Functions

Definition A function $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a rule that assigns to each $z \in \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ a unique complex number $f(z) \in \mathbb{C}$. The set Ω is the domain of definition of f . If $S \subseteq \Omega$, then the set

$$f(S) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ f(z) : z \in S \}$$

is the image of S . The set $f(\Omega)$ is the range of f .

Points in $f(\Omega)$ are called values of f . //

If $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a function, then the value $f(x+iy) = u+iv$ depends on $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Collecting all values, we decompose f into real and imaginary parts:

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

where $u, v: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are real valued functions of 2 real variables. Sometimes we will write

$$\operatorname{Re} f = u \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{Im} f = v. \quad //$$

Example Some examples of functions.

(1) $f(z) = z^2$. Let $z = x+iy$. Then

$$f(z) = (x+iy)(x+iy) = x^2 - y^2 + i(2xy).$$

$$\text{so, } u(x,y) = x^2 - y^2 \quad \text{and} \quad v(x,y) = 2xy.$$

(2) $f(z) = |z|^2 = x^2 + y^2$ so $u(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$ and $v(x,y) = 0$.

Such a function is real-valued.

(3) Polynomials are functions of the form

$$P(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_n z^n$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$ and $a_n \neq 0$. Then the degree of P is n .

(4) Rational functions are functions of the form $P(z)/Q(z)$

where $p(z), Q(z)$ are polynomials. The domain of definition is wherever $Q(z) \neq 0$.

(5) If we use polar coordinates for z , then a function f can be written

$$f(z) = f(re^{i\theta}) = u(r, \theta) + i v(r, \theta).$$

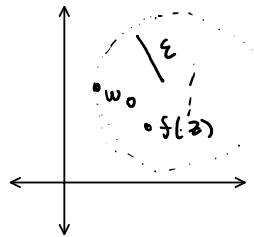
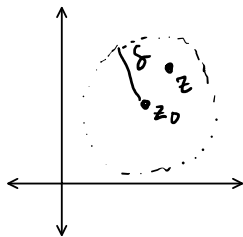
E.g. $f(z) = z^2$. If $z = re^{i\theta}$, then

$$f(z) = r^2 e^{i2\theta} = \underbrace{r^2 \cos 2\theta}_{u(r, \theta)} + i \underbrace{r^2 \sin 2\theta}_{v(r, \theta)}.$$

(6) $f(z) = z^{1/n}$. This is not a function at all! We saw last time that $z^{1/n}$ has n distinct values. Such a "function" is called **multiple-valued**. We can make this into a single-valued function by assigning a single value of $z^{1/n}$ for each z . For instance, taking the principal n th root of z . //

Limits of Functions

Definition (Limit of a function) Suppose f is defined in a deleted neighborhood of $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$. We say that the **limit** of f as z approaches z_0 is $w_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ if: for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$ implies $|f(z) - w_0| < \epsilon$.



In this case we write

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

Intuitively, the limit of f at z_0 is w_0 if we can make $f(z)$ arbitrarily close to w_0 by taking z sufficiently close to z_0 .

Example We show that $\lim z^2 = -1$ using the definition.

Example We show that $\lim_{z \rightarrow i} z^2 = -1$ using the definition.

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Note $|z^2 - (-1)| = |z-i||z+i|$. First suppose $0 < |z-i| < 1$. Then $|z+i| = |z-i+2i|$
 $\leq |z-i| + |2i|$
 $= \underbrace{|z-i|}_{< 1} + 2 < 3.$

Choose $\delta = \min\{\frac{\varepsilon}{3}, 1\}$. Then $0 < |z-i| < \delta$ implies

$$|z^2 - (-1)| = |z-i||z+i| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \cdot 3 = \varepsilon. \quad \square$$

Theorem (Limits are Unique) If f has a limit at z_0 , then it is unique.

Proof. Assume $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w_0$ and $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = W_0$.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta_1 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(z) - w_0| < \varepsilon/2.$$

Choose $\delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |f(z) - W_0| < \varepsilon/2.$$

Now, if $0 < |z - z_0| < \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |w_0 - W_0| &= |w_0 - f(z) + f(z) - W_0| \\ &\leq |w_0 - f(z)| + |f(z) - W_0| \\ &< \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ was arbitrary

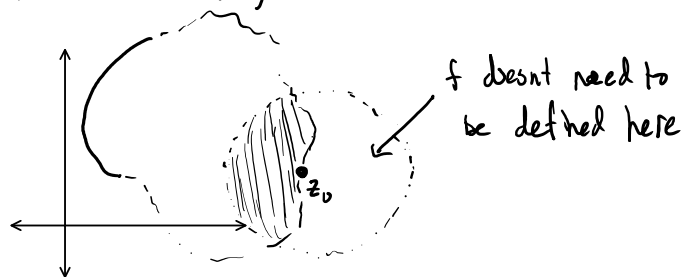
$$|w_0 - W_0| = 0.$$

Hence, $w_0 = W_0$. \(\square\)

Limits can also be taken if z_0 is a boundary point of a region R on which f is defined. We simply require that the inequality

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$$

be satisfied only for points belonging to \mathbb{R} and a deleted neighborhood of z_0 .



Uniqueness of limits can be used to show that a limit does not exist.

Example The function $f(z) = \frac{z}{\bar{z}}$ has no limit at 0.

Let $z = x + iy$, then $f(z) = \frac{x + iy}{x - iy}$.

Along the real axis, $\text{Im } z = 0$ so $z = x$. So $f(z) = \frac{x}{x} = 1$.

Along the imaginary axis, $\text{Re } z = 0$ so $z = iy$. So $f(z) = \frac{iy}{-iy} = -1$.

Taking the limit along these axes, gives different values. By uniqueness of limits, the limit doesn't exist. //

Theorems on Limits

Theorem (Limits in Terms of $\text{Re } f / \text{Im } f$) Suppose that

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

Then
$$\lim_{x + iy \rightarrow x_0 + iy_0} f(x + iy) = u_0 + iv_0$$

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. (\Rightarrow) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta > 0$ such that

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x+iy - (x_0+iy_0)| < \delta \Rightarrow |u(x,y) + iv(x,y) - (u_0+iv_0)| < \varepsilon.$$

Notice that $|x+iy - (x_0+iy_0)| = \underbrace{\sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2}}_{\text{distance between } (x,y), (x_0,y_0)}$

Notice also that

$$|u(x,y) - u_0| \leq |u(x,y) + iv(x,y) - (u_0+iv_0)| < \varepsilon \quad \text{and}$$

$$|v(x,y) - v_0| \leq |u(x,y) + iv(x,y) - (u_0+iv_0)| < \varepsilon.$$

This proves the claim. ■

Theorem (Limit Laws) Suppose

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

Then (1) $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (f(z) + F(z)) = w_0 + W_0$

(2) $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)F(z) = w_0W_0$

(3) $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z)}{F(z)} = \frac{w_0}{W_0}$, if $W_0 \neq 0$.

Proof. Use preceding theorem together with limit laws from calculus. ■

Example If $p(z)$ is a polynomial, then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} p(z) = p(z_0).$$

Write $p(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_n z^n$. By the limit laws:

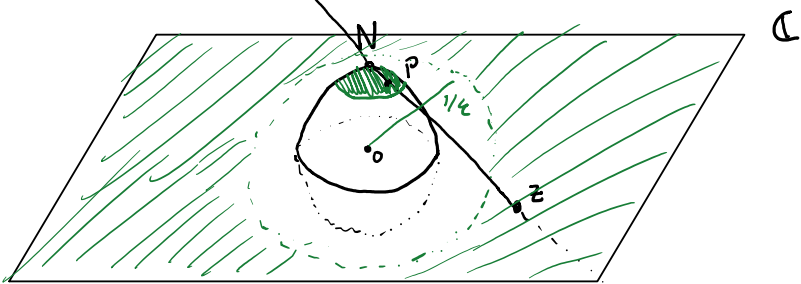
$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} p(z) &\stackrel{(1)}{=} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} a_0 + \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} a_1 z + \dots + \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} a_n z^n \\ &\stackrel{(2)}{=} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} a_0 + \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} a_1 \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z + \dots + \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} a_n \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z^n \\ &= a_0 + a_1 \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z + \dots + a_n \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z^n \end{aligned}$$

$$= a_0 + a_1 \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z + \dots + a_n \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z^n$$

Also $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z^n = z_0^n$ by induction. $\rightarrow = a_0 + a_1 z_0 + \dots + a_n z_0^n = p(z_0)$ //

Definition (Extended Complex Plane / Riemann Sphere)

The extended complex plane is the set \mathbb{C} together with a symbol ∞ called the point at infinity. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the extended complex plane and the unit sphere given by stereographic projection.



The point N corresponds to ∞ and any point P on the sphere corresponds to a unique point $z \in \mathbb{C}$ lying at the intersection of \mathbb{C} and the line between P and N. //

Definition (Neighborhood of infinity) Let $\epsilon > 0$. The set

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| > 1/\epsilon\}$$

is called a neighborhood of ∞ . Geometrically, a neighborhood of infinity is the exterior of a circle $C_{1/\epsilon}(o)$, which corresponds to a neighborhood of N on the Riemann sphere. //

Meaning is easily given to limits

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w_0 \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Limits involving} \\ \infty \end{array} \right)$$

where z_0 or w_0 are allowed to be ∞ . We simply replace

the appropriate neighborhood in the original definition with neighborhoods of ∞ .

Theorem (Limits Involving Infinity)

(1) If $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{1}{f(z)} = 0$, then $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = \infty$.

(2) If $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} f(1/z) = w_0$, then $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = w_0$.

(3) If $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{f(1/z)} = 0$, then $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = \infty$.

Proof.

(1) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta \text{ implies } \left| \frac{1}{f(z)} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

The condition $\left| \frac{1}{f(z)} \right| < \varepsilon$ is the same as $\frac{1}{\varepsilon} < |f(z)|$, i.e.

$f(z)$ is in a neighborhood of ∞ .

(2) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |z - 0| < \delta \text{ implies } |f(1/z) - w_0| < \varepsilon.$$

The condition $0 < |z| < \delta$ is equivalent to $\frac{1}{\delta} < \left| \frac{1}{z} \right|$. Replacing $1/z$ w/ z we get

$$\frac{1}{\delta} < |z| \text{ implies } |f(z) - w_0| < \varepsilon.$$



Example

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2z^4 + 1}{z^3 + 1} = \infty. \text{ Using (3), we compute}$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1/z)^3 + 1}{2(1/z)^4 + 1} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 + z^3}{z^3} \cdot \frac{1}{2(1 + z^4)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 + z^3) \cdot z^4}{2(1 + z^4) z^3} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 + z^3) z}{2(1 + z^4)} = 0. //$$

Continuous Functions

Definition (Continuous functions) A function f is *continuous* at z_0 if

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

That is: for all $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ such that

$$|z - z_0| < \delta \implies |f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon.$$

//

By the limit laws, sums, products, and quotients of continuous functions are continuous (where they are defined).

Theorem (Composition of continuous functions) Suppose that f is defined on an open disk $D_\varepsilon(z_0)$ and the domain of g contains $f(D_\varepsilon(z_0))$. If f is continuous at z_0 and g is continuous at $f(z_0)$, then $g \circ f$ is continuous at z_0 .

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta_1 > 0$ such that

$$|w - f(z_0)| < \delta_1 \implies |g(w) - g(f(z_0))| < \varepsilon.$$

Choose $\delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$|z - z_0| < \delta_2 \implies |f(z) - f(z_0)| < \delta_1$$

Now, $|z - z_0| < \delta_2$ implies $|g(f(z)) - g(f(z_0))| < \varepsilon$.

■

Theorem If f is continuous and non zero at z_0 , then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $f(z) \neq 0$ for all $z \in D_\varepsilon(z_0)$.

Proof. Suppose f is continuous and non zero at z_0 . Then $|f(z_0)| > 0$. Take $\varepsilon = \frac{|f(z_0)|}{2}$. Suppose $f(z) = 0$ for some

$z \in D_\varepsilon(z_0)$. Then by continuity at z_0 ,

$$0 < |f(z_0)| = |f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon = \frac{|f(z_0)|}{2}.$$

Contradiction!

■

Theorem (Continuity in Terms of Re f /Im f) Suppose that

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

Then f is continuous at $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ if and only if both u and v are continuous at (x_0, y_0) .

Proof. Follows from theorem on limits in terms of $\operatorname{Re} f / \operatorname{Im} f$. ▣

A subset of \mathbb{C} is **compact** if it is closed and bounded. A function $f: \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is **bounded** if there exists $M \geq 0$ such that $|f(z)| \leq M$ for all $z \in \Omega$.

Theorem (Extreme Value Theorem) If R is a compact set and $f: R \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is continuous on R , then f is bounded and it achieves this bound.

Proof. If $f = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ is continuous, then $u, v: R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous on R . Hence, so is

$$|f(z)| = \sqrt{u(x, y)^2 + v(x, y)^2},$$

By vector calc, $|f(z)|$ is bound and achieves its bound. ▣

Differentiable Functions

Definition (Derivative) Suppose the domain of definition of f contains an open disk $D_\epsilon(z_0)$. The **derivative** of f at z_0 is the limit

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

When the limit exists, f is **differentiable**. Letting $\Delta z = z - z_0$, this can also be written

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

Example $f(z) = z^2$. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(z) &= \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(z + \Delta z)^2 - z^2}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{2z\Delta z + \Delta z^2}{\Delta z} \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} (2z + \Delta z) \\
 &= 2z.
 \end{aligned}$$

//

Sometimes it will be convenient to use the notation

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

So that

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z}.$$

Example Where is $f(z) = |z|^2$ differentiable? Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Compute } \Delta w &= |z + \Delta z|^2 - |z|^2 \\
 &= (z + \Delta z)(\overline{z + \Delta z}) - |z|^2 \\
 &= \cancel{z\bar{z}} + z\overline{\Delta z} + \Delta z\bar{z} + \Delta z\overline{\Delta z} - \cancel{|z|^2} \\
 &= z\overline{\Delta z} + \Delta z\bar{z} + \Delta z\overline{\Delta z}.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} = \frac{z\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z} + \bar{z} + \overline{\Delta z}.$$

Along the real axis $\Delta z = \Delta \bar{z}$. So

$$\frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} = z + \bar{z} + \overline{\Delta z}$$

as $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ the limit is $z + \bar{z}$. Along the imaginary axis, $\Delta z = -\overline{\Delta z}$ so

$$\frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} = \bar{z} - z - \Delta z.$$

As $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ the limit is $\bar{z} - z$. Since limits are unique, if $f'(z)$ exists, then $\bar{z} - z = z + \bar{z}$. Hence $z = 0$.

Does $f'(0)$ exist? When $z = 0$

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \overline{\Delta z} = 0.$$

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The preceding example shows two surprising facts:

(1) f' can exist at a single point and nowhere else

in a neighborhood of that point.

(2) $\operatorname{Re} f / \operatorname{Im} f$ can have continuous partial derivatives of all orders, and yet f' does not exist.

Note: $\operatorname{Re}(1+z^2) = x^2 + y^2$ and $\operatorname{Im}(1+z^2) = 0$.

Proposition (Differentiable functions are Continuous) If f is

differentiable at z_0 , then f is continuous at z_0 .

Proof. Suppose f is differentiable at z_0 . Then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (f(z) - f(z_0)) = \left(\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} \right) \underbrace{\left(\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) \right)}_{=0} = 0.$$

Hence, $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$. ▀

Proposition (Differentiation Laws) Suppose f and g are differentiable

at z . Then

(1) $\frac{d}{dz} c = 0, \forall c \in \mathbb{C}$

(2) $\frac{d}{dz} (c f(z)) = c f'(z), \forall c \in \mathbb{C}$ (Constant Rule)

(3) $\frac{d}{dz} z^n = n z^{n-1}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ (Power Rule)

(4) $\frac{d}{dz} (f(z) + g(z)) = f'(z) + g'(z)$ (Sum Rule)

(5) $\frac{d}{dz} (f(z)g(z)) = f'(z)g(z) + g'(z)f(z)$ (Product Rule)

(6) $\frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{f(z)}{g(z)} \right) = \frac{f'(z)g(z) - g'(z)f(z)}{g(z)^2}, g(z) \neq 0$ (Quotient Rule)

Proof.

(5) Compute

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta w &= f(z + \Delta z)g(z + \Delta z) - f(z)g(z) \\ &= f(z + \Delta z)g(z + \Delta z) - f(z + \Delta z)g(z) + f(z + \Delta z)g(z) - f(z)g(z) \\ &= f(z + \Delta z)(g(z + \Delta z) - g(z)) + g(z)(f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{So } \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} &= \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} f(z + \Delta z) \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(z + \Delta z) - g(z)}{\Delta z} \\
&= \underbrace{f(z)}_{\substack{\text{since } f \\ \text{is continuous}}} + \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} g(z) \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)}{\Delta z} \\
&= f(z) g'(z) + g(z) f'(z).
\end{aligned}$$



Proposition (Chain Rule)

Suppose that f is differentiable at z_0 and g is differentiable at $f(z_0)$. Then $g \circ f$ is differentiable at z_0 and

$$(g \circ f)'(z_0) = g'(f(z_0)) f'(z_0).$$

Proof. Since $g'(f(z_0))$ exists, there is ^{open} disk $D_\varepsilon(f(z_0))$ on which g is defined. On this disk define a function

$$\Phi(w) = \frac{g(w) - g(f(z_0))}{w - f(z_0)} - g'(f(z_0)). \quad (*)$$

Notice $\lim_{w \rightarrow f(z_0)} \Phi(w) = 0$. Hence, $\Phi(w)$ is continuous at $f(z_0)$.

Rewrite (*) as

$$(*) \quad g(w) - g(f(z_0)) = \left(\Phi(w) + g'(f(z_0)) \right) (w - f(z_0)).$$

Now, since f is continuous at z_0 choose $\delta > 0$ such that $|z - z_0| < \delta$ implies $|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon$, that is $f(z) \in D_\varepsilon(f(z_0))$.

Now, when $|z - z_0| < \delta$, we can take $w = f(z)$ in (*) and divide by $z - z_0$:

$$\frac{g(f(z)) - g(f(z_0))}{z - z_0} = \left(\Phi(f(z)) + g'(f(z_0)) \right) \left(\frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} \right).$$

Taking the limit $z \rightarrow z_0$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}
g'(f(z)) &= (0 + g'(f(z_0))) f'(z_0) \\
&= g'(f(z_0)) f'(z_0).
\end{aligned}$$



Cauchy-Riemann Equations

Now, we derive the Cauchy-Riemann partial differential equations.

Suppose that $f(z) = u(x,y) + i v(x,y)$ and that $f'(z)$ exists.

Writing $z = x + iy$ and $\Delta z = \Delta x + i \Delta y$, we compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} &= \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) + i v(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - (u(x,y) + i v(x,y))}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} \\ &= \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u(x,y)}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} + i \left(\frac{v(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - v(x,y)}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Along the real axis, $\Delta y = 0$ so we get

$$\begin{aligned} f'(z) &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y) - u(x,y)}{\Delta x} + i \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(x+\Delta x, y) - v(x,y)}{\Delta x} \\ &= u_x(x,y) + i v_x(x,y). \end{aligned}$$

Along the imaginary axis, $\Delta x = 0$ so we get

$$\begin{aligned} f'(z) &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x, y+\Delta y) - u(x,y)}{i \Delta y} + i \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(x, y+\Delta y) - v(x,y)}{i \Delta y} \\ &= \frac{1}{i} u_y + \frac{i}{i} v_y = v_y(x,y) - i u_y(x,y) \quad \left(\frac{1}{i} = -i \right) \end{aligned}$$

So, since limits are unique we get

$$u_x + i v_x = v_y - i u_y$$

Hence, compare
Re/Im part :

$$\begin{cases} u_x(x,y) = v_y(x,y) \\ u_y(x,y) = -v_x(x,y) \end{cases} \quad \text{Cauchy-Riemann Equations}$$

□

We just proved:

Theorem (Cauchy-Riemann Equations) Suppose that

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

is differentiable at $z = x + iy$. Then

(1) the first order partial derivatives of u and v exist and satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann Equations

$$\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$$

$$(2) f'(z) = u_x(x,y) + i v_x(x,y) = v_y(x,y) - i v_x(x,y). //$$

The CR-equations are a necessary condition for f' to exist. We can use them to locate some points where the derivative does not exist.

Example $f(z) = |z|^2 = x^2 + y^2 + i0$. Note $u(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$ and $v(x,y) = 0$,

We have $u_x(x,y) = 2x$ $v_x(x,y) = 0$

$u_y(x,y) = 2y$ $v_y(x,y) = 0$

The CR-Riemann equations:

$$2x = u_x = v_y = 0$$

$$2y = u_y = -v_x = 0,$$

So $x=0$ and $y=0$.

So $f'(z)$ does not exist when $z \neq 0$. //

Note: this doesn't show that $f'(0)$ exists.

The Cauchy-Riemann Equations are not sufficient for the existence of the derivative, as the next example shows.

Example Suppose $f(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{\bar{z}^2}{z} & , z \neq 0 \\ 0 & , z = 0 \end{cases}$. Then

$$u(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^3 - 3xy^2}{x^2 + y^2} & , (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & , (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad v(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^3 - 3x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} & , (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & , (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

We show that u, v satisfy the CR-eg at 0.

$$u_x(0,0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(0+\Delta x, 0) - u(0,0)}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x^3}{\Delta x} = 1$$

$$u_y(0,0) = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(0, 0+\Delta y) - u(0,0)}{\Delta y} = 0.$$

$$v_x(0,0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(0+\Delta x, 0) - v(0,0)}{\Delta x} = 0$$

$$v_y(0,0) = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(0,0+\Delta y) - v(0,0)}{\Delta y} = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{\Delta y^3}{\Delta y^2} - 0}{\Delta y} = 1.$$

Hence

$$u_x(0,0) = 1 = v_y(0,0)$$

$$u_y(0,0) = 0 = -0 = -v_x(0,0)$$

So CR-eg are satisfied. But $f'(0)$ does not exist (exercise). //

Theorem (Sufficient Condition for Differentiability)

Suppose that

$f(z) = u(x,y) + i v(x,y)$ is defined on a neighborhood of $z = x + iy$.

If (1) the first order partial derivatives of u, v exist everywhere in the neighborhood;

(2) the partial derivatives are continuous and satisfy the CR-equations at (x,y) ;

then $f'(z)$ exists and is given by $f'(z) = u_x(x,y) + i v_x(x,y)$.

Proof. See the book. □

Example

$x \in \mathbb{R}$, so e^x is the usual exponential
 $iy \notin \mathbb{R}$ so e^{iy} is defined by Euler's formula

(1) $f(z) = \underline{e^x e^{iy}} = e^x \cos y + i e^x \sin y$. Note that $u(x,y) = e^x \cos y$
 $v(x,y) = e^x \sin y$

have continuous partial derivatives on all of \mathbb{R}^2 . Moreover

$$u_x = e^x \cos y = u_y$$

$$u_y = -e^x \sin y = -v_x.$$

So CR-eg are satisfied everywhere $\Rightarrow f'(z)$ exists everywhere on \mathbb{C} .

(2) $f(z) = |z|^2 = x^2 + y^2 + i \cdot 0$. Note $u(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$ and $v(x,y) = 0$. These have continuous first order partial derivatives in a neighborhood of 0:

$$\begin{matrix} u_x = 2x & v_x = 0 \\ u_y = 2y & v_y = 0 \end{matrix}$$

the Cauchy Riem. eq. are satisfied at 0, so $f'(0) = 0$ exists. //

The necessary and sufficient conditions can be translated into

polar coordinates. If $f(z) = u(r, \theta) + i v(r, \theta)$, then the polar form of the CR-equations at $z = r e^{i\theta}$ is

$$\begin{cases} r u_r = v_\theta \\ u_\theta = -r v_r \end{cases} \quad (\text{evaluated at } (r, \theta))$$

and the value of $f'(z)$ is

$$f'(r e^{i\theta}) = e^{-i\theta} (u_r(r, \theta) + i v_r(r, \theta)).$$

The precise statements of these theorems are in the book. //

Example Consider

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

This is the function that takes values as the principal square root of z . We compute f' using the sufficient condition in polar form. Notice

$$f(z) = \underbrace{\sqrt{r} \cos \theta/2}_{u(r, \theta)} + i \underbrace{\sqrt{r} \sin \theta/2}_{v(r, \theta)}.$$

Note

$$r u_r(r, \theta) = r \frac{1}{2\sqrt{r}} \cos \theta/2 = \sqrt{r} \cos \theta/2 = v_\theta(r, \theta)$$

$$u_\theta(r, \theta) = -\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{r} \sin \theta/2 = -r v_r(r, \theta)$$

So Cauchy-Riemann are satisfied everywhere and the partial are continuous everywhere. Then //

$$\begin{aligned} f' &= e^{-i\theta} (u_r + i v_r) \\ &= e^{-i\theta} \left(\frac{1}{2\sqrt{r}} \cos \theta/2 + i \frac{1}{2\sqrt{r}} \sin \theta/2 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{r}} e^{-i\theta} (\cos \theta/2 + i \sin \theta/2) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{r}} e^{-i\theta/2} = \frac{1}{2f(z)}. \end{aligned}$$

Analytic Functions

Definition (Analytic) A function f is analytic on an open set U if $f'(z)$ exists for all $z \in U$. We say that f is analytic at a point z_0 if it is analytic some open disk $D_\epsilon(z_0)$. A

function is **entire** if it is analytic on \mathbb{C} . //

Example

- (1) $f(z) = 1/z$ is analytic on any open set not containing 0, in particular on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$.
- (2) $f(z) = |z|^2$ is not analytic anywhere since we showed that $f'(z)$ exists if and only if $z=0$.
- (3) Polynomials are entire. //

Let D be a domain. We know several necessary or sufficient for a function f to be analytic on D :

(Necessary) (1) f is continuous on all of D .

(2) Cauchy-Riemann eq. satisfied on D .

(sufficient) (1) Cauchy-Riemann eq. satisfied on D and the partial derivatives of u and v are continuous on all of D .

(2) The differentiation rules. If f and g are analytic on D , then so are $f+g$, $f-g$, f/g ($g \neq 0$ on D).

(3) The composition of analytic functions is analytic.

Theorem (sufficient condition for f to be constant) Suppose that D is a domain and $f'(z) = 0$ for all $z \in D$. Then $f(z)$ is constant on D .

Proof. Write $f(z) = u(x,y) + i v(x,y)$. We have

$$0 = f'(z) = u_x + i v_x$$

$$0 = f'(z) = v_y - i u_y$$

Hence, $u_x = u_y = 0$ and $v_x = v_y = 0$. Let L be any line segment connecting points $p, q \in D$. Let $\vec{w} = (a, b)$ be a unit vector parallel to L . The directional derivative of u along L is

$$\nabla u \cdot \vec{w} = a u_x + b u_y = 0.$$

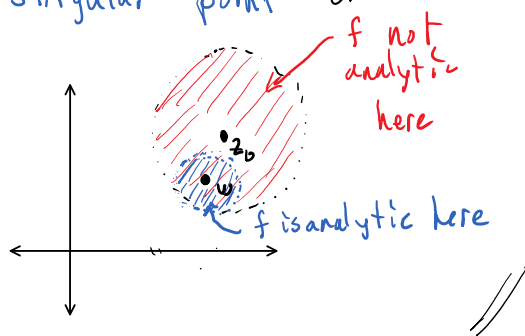
So u is constant on L . Since D is a domain, any two points can be connected by a polygonal line. Apply this argument to each line segment to see that u has the same value at the endpoints. This shows that u is constant on D . The same argument works for v . Hence, if $u(x, y) = c$ and $v(x, y) = d$, then

$$f(z) = c + id.$$



Definition (singularities)

If f is not analytic at z_0 , but every neighborhood of z_0 contains a point at which f is analytic, then z_0 is called a **singular point** or **singularity** of f .



Example

(1) $f(z) = 1/z$ has a singularity at 0.

(2) $f(z) = |z|^2$ has no singular points. f is not analytic at

0, but any open neighborhood of 0 contains no points at which f is analytic.

(3) $f(z) = \frac{z^2 + 3}{(z+1)(z^2+5)}$ has singularities when

$$(z+1)(z^2+5) = 0$$

i.e. if $z = -1, i\sqrt{5}, -i\sqrt{5}$.

(4) $f(z) = \sin x \cosh y + i \cos x \sinh y$ is entire and hence has no singularities. In fact, f has derivatives of all orders.

Note that $u(x,y) = \sin x \cosh y$ and $v(x,y) = \cos x \sinh y$.

Recall:

$$\begin{cases} \sinh y = \frac{e^y - e^{-y}}{2} & \frac{d}{dy} \sinh y = \cosh y \\ \cosh y = \frac{e^y + e^{-y}}{2} & \frac{d}{dy} \cosh y = \sinh y. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$u_x(x,y) = \cos x \cosh y = v_y$$

$$u_y(x,y) = \sin x \sinh y = -v_x$$

So the CR-eg are satisfied everywhere and the partials are continuous everywhere. So f' exists and

$$f'(z) = u_x + i v_x = \underbrace{\cos x \cosh y}_{U(x,y)} - i \underbrace{\sin x \sinh y}_{V(x,y)}.$$

Then

$$U_x(x,y) = -\sin x \cosh y = v_y$$

$$U_y(x,y) = \cos x \sinh y = -v_x. \quad \text{So } f''(z) \text{ exists}$$

and

$$f''(z) = U_x + i v_x = -\sin x \cosh y - i \cos x \sinh y = -f(z).$$

Proposition Suppose f and \bar{f} are analytic on a domain D . Then f is constant on D .

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

$$\bar{f}(z) = u(x,y) - i v(x,y).$$

Then f, \bar{f} satisfy CR-eg on D :

$$\text{for } f : \begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$$

$$\text{for } \bar{f} : \begin{cases} u_x = -v_y \\ u_y = v_x \end{cases}$$

Hence, $u_x = v_y = -u_x$ so $u_x = 0$. Also, $v_x = -u_y = -v_x$, so $v_x = 0$. Now, $f'(z) = u_x + iv_x = 0$. By the theorem, f is constant on D . \blacksquare

Proposition Suppose that f is analytic on a domain D and $|f(z)|$ is constant on D . Then f is constant on D .

Proof. Assume $(*) |f(z)| = c$ for all $z \in D$.

then $(*) f(z)\bar{f}(z) = |f(z)|^2 = c^2$.

Suppose $c=0$. Then by $(*)$ $f=0$ so f is constant. If $c \neq 0$, then by $(*)$ $f(z) \neq 0$ for all $z \in D$. So then

$$\bar{f}(z) = \frac{c^2}{f(z)}$$

But $\frac{c^2}{f(z)}$ is analytic since f is. Hence, \bar{f} is analytic

Hence, f is constant by the preceding proposition. \blacksquare