## 2. ANALYTIC FUNCTIONS

## Functions of a complex variable

Let $D$ be a subset of $C$. A function $f: D \rightarrow C$ is a rule that associates with each $z$ in $D$ a unique complex number $w$. We write $w=f(z)$.

## Notes

1. The set $D$ of numbers that are mapped is called the domain of $f$. Notice that we now have a double use of this word. Where the domain is unspecified, we assume it to be the largest subset of $C$ for which $f(z)$ is defined.
2. The set of image elements $\{w \mid w=f(z)\}$ is called the range or image of the function.
3. The above definition specifies a unique image for each $z \in D$. Later we shall extend this definition to include multivalued functions.

## Examples of functions

## Example 1

$$
f_{1}(z)=z^{2}+i z-3 .
$$

The domain is $\mathbf{C}$.

$$
f_{2}(z)=1 /\left(1+z^{2}\right)
$$

Here the domain is $\mathbf{C} \backslash\{-i\}$.
If $f(z)$ only assumes real values, $f$ is real-valued.

## Example 2

$$
\begin{gathered}
f_{3}(z)=|z| \\
f_{4}(z)=\operatorname{Re} z=x, \\
f_{5}(z)=\operatorname{Im} z=y
\end{gathered}
$$

We can break $w=f(z)$ into real and imaginary parts. Thus if $w=u+i v, z=x+i y$, then

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

## Example 3

$$
f_{6}(z)=z^{2} .
$$

Here $u+i v=(x+i y)^{2}=\left(x^{2}-y^{2}\right)+2 i x y$, so

$$
u=\left(x^{2}-y^{2}\right), v=2 x y .
$$

In practice, this expression in terms of real and imaginary parts may be easier said than done! In theory, it allows us to deduce properties of complex functions from our knowledge of the real numbers.

## Mappings

A real function $y=f(x)$ can be represented geometrically by a graph: the set of points $\{(x, y) \mid y=f(x)\}$. To represent the complex function $w=f(z)$ geometrically, in general we need four dimensions or two planes: a plane for the domain, and a plane for the range. For simple functions, we can use the same plane twice.

## Example 1

$w=f(z)=z+2$.
This is a translation: each point $z$ is translated through 2 to the point $z+2$.


## Example 2

$w=f(z)=\bar{z}$.
This is a reflection in the $x$-axis: each point $z=x+i y$ (or $(x, y)$ ) is mapped to the point $\bar{z}=x-i y$ (or $(x,-y)$ ).


## QUIZ 2.1

1. The domain of $f=f(z)$ is the set of image elements.
(a) True $\square$; (b) False $\square$
2. If $z=x+i y$, then the function $f(z)=y$ is real valued.
(a) True

; (b) False

3. Describe geometrically the mapping

$$
f(z)=-z
$$

$\square$
4. Describe geometrically the mapping

$$
f(z)=2 z
$$

$\square$

## Mapping curves and regions

We shall be mapping curves and regions rather than just points.

## Example

Find the image of the circle

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}=c^{2}(c>0)
$$

under $w=f(z)=\sqrt{ }\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)-i y$.
Let us set $w=u+i v$. Then each point $(x, y)$ on the circle $x^{2}+y^{2}=c^{2}$ maps to $(u, v)=(c,-y)$, where $|y| \leq c$.


Thus the image of this circle is the line segment $u=c,-c \leq v \leq c$ in the $u v$-plane. The domain of $f$ is the $z$-plane; the range of $f$ is a quadrant of the $w$-plane.

Notice that $z=(x, y)$ and $-\bar{z}=(-x, y)$ map to the same point $w$.

## Limits

All work on functions of two variables now carries over directly. A minor difference is that because we are dealing with complex numbers, the length or norm of a vector represented by $w$ becomes the modulus $|w|$ of $w$.

Thus the definition of limit becomes:

$\lim _{\mathrm{z} \rightarrow \mathrm{z}_{0}} f(z)=w_{0}$ means
for all $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $\delta>0$ : for all $z, 0<\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\delta \Rightarrow\left|f(z)-w_{0}\right|<\varepsilon$.
Thus every $z$ in the left disc has an image in the right disk. We may not obtain the whole of the right disc; for example, consider the image of $f(z)=$ constant $=$ $w_{0}$; we obtain just the central point of the second disk.


$w$-plane

## A limit theorem (I)

Theorem 2.1 If $w=f(z)=u+i v, z=x+i y, z_{0}=x_{0}+i y_{0}$, then

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=u_{0}+i v_{0} \Leftrightarrow \lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} u(x, y)=u_{0} \text { and } \lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} v(x, y)=v_{0} .
$$

In brief, this theorem says: $\lim (u+i v)=\lim u+i \lim v$.
Proof $(\Rightarrow)$ Let us suppose that

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=u_{0}+i v_{0}
$$

By definition, given $\varepsilon$, there exists $\delta>0$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
0<\left|x-x_{0}+i\left(y-y_{0}\right)\right| & <\delta \\
& \Rightarrow\left|u(x, y)-u_{0}+i\left(v(x, y)-v_{0}\right)\right|<\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

We deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0<\left|x-x_{0}\right|<\delta / 2 & , 0<\left|y-y_{0}\right|<\delta / 2 \\
& \Rightarrow\left|u(x, y)-u_{0}\right|<\varepsilon,\left|v(x, y)-v_{0}\right|<\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes this part of the proof.

## A limit theorem ( II )

Theorem 2.1 If $w=f(z)=u+i v, z=x+i y, z_{0}=x_{0}+i y_{0}$, then

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=u_{0}+i v_{0} \Leftrightarrow \lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} u(x, y)=u_{0} \text { and } \lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} v(x, y)=v_{0} .
$$

$(\Leftarrow)$ Now let us suppose that

$$
\lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} u(x, y)=u_{0} \text { and } \lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} v(x, y)=v_{0} .
$$

Then there exist $\delta_{1}>0, \delta_{2}>0$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0<\left|x-x_{0}\right|<\delta_{1}, 0<\left|y-y_{0}\right|<\delta_{1} \Rightarrow\left|u(x, y)-u_{0}\right|<\varepsilon / 2 \\
& 0<\left|x-x_{0}\right|<\delta_{2}, 0<\left|y-y_{0}\right|<\delta_{2} \Rightarrow\left|v(x, y)-v_{0}\right|<\varepsilon / 2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Choose $\delta=\min \left(\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right)$. Then using the given limits,

$$
0<\left|\left(x-x_{0}\right)+i\left(y-y_{0}\right)\right|<\delta \Rightarrow
$$

$\left|(u(x, y)+i v(x, y))-\left(u_{0}+i v_{0}\right)\right| \leq\left|u(x, y)-u_{0}\right|+|i|\left|v(x, y)-v_{0}\right|<\varepsilon / 2+\varepsilon / 2<\varepsilon$,
as required.

## More Limit Theorems

Our previous theorem quickly leads to the well-known and useful Limit Theorems.
We use an easy to remember abbreviated notation.
Theorem 2.2 (Limit Theorems) If $\lim f, \lim g$ exist, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim (f \pm g)=\lim f \pm \lim g \\
& \lim (f . g)=\lim f \cdot \lim g
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\lim (f / g)=\lim f / \lim g \quad(\lim g \neq 0)
$$

Proof (a) Set $f=u+i v, \lim f=u_{0}+i v_{0}, g=U+i V, \lim g=U_{0}+i V_{0}$.
Now $\lim (f+g)=\lim (u+U+i(v+V)) \quad$ (substitute and rearrange)

$$
=\lim (u+U)+i \lim (v+V) \quad(\operatorname{Thm} 2.1)
$$

$=u_{0}+U_{0}+i\left(v_{0}+V_{0}\right) \quad$ (put in the limits)
$=\left(u_{0}+i v_{0}\right)+\left(U_{0}+i V_{0}\right) \quad$ (rearrange)
$=\lim f+\lim g$.
The other proofs are similar.

## QUIZ 2:2A

1. Geometrically, the image of $f(z)=2+i$ is a $\square$
2. Geometrically, mapping $f(z)=\bar{z}$ maps the square with vertices $( \pm 1, \pm i)$ onto itself.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False $\square$
3. If $u+i v$ tends to $u_{0}+i v_{0}$, then we must have $u \rightarrow u_{0}$.
(a) True

(b) False

4. If $f(z)=2+i$ and $g(z)=2-i$ then

$$
(f . g)(z)=
$$



## QUIZ 2:2B

Theorem 2.1 $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=u_{0}+i v_{0} \Leftrightarrow \lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} u(x, y)=u_{0}$ and $\lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\ y \rightarrow y_{0}}} v(x, y)=v_{0}$.
Proof $(\Rightarrow)$ Let us suppose that $\{\mathbf{1}\}$. By definition, given $\varepsilon$, there exists $\delta>0$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
0<\{2\} \Rightarrow\left|u(x, y)-u_{0}+i\left(v(x, y)-v_{0}\right)\right|<\varepsilon . \tag{c}
\end{equation*}
$$

We deduce that

$$
\begin{align*}
&\{3\}, 0<\left|y-y_{0}\right|<\delta / 2  \tag{b}\\
& \Rightarrow\left|u(x, y)-u_{0}\right|<\varepsilon,\{4\} . \tag{d}
\end{align*}
$$

This completes this part of the proof.

Match the above numbers $\mathbf{1 , 2 , 3 , 4}$ with the selections:
(a) $\left|v(x, y)-v_{0}\right|<\varepsilon$
(b) $\left|\left(x-x_{0}\right)+i\left(y-y_{0}\right)\right|<\delta$
(c) $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=u_{0}+i v_{0}$
(d) $0<\left|x-x_{0}\right|<\delta / 2$

1. $\square$ 2. $\square$
2. $\square$
3. $\square$

## Continuity

Definition Function $f$ is said to be continuous at $z_{0}$ if $f$ satisfies the following three conditions.
(a) $f\left(z_{0}\right)$ exists; (b) $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)$ exists; (c) $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=f\left(z_{0}\right)$.

## Notes

1. Just writing statement (c) assumes the truth of (a) and (b).
2. Expressing (c) in terms of the limit definition, we obtain:

$$
\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\delta \Rightarrow\left|f(z)-f\left(z_{0}\right)\right|<\varepsilon .
$$

This is slightly different from the usual definition of limit, in that we allow the possibility $z=z_{0}$ (omitting $0<\left|z-z_{0}\right| \ldots$ ).

Function $f=f(z)$ is said to be continuous in a region if it is continuous at each point of the region.

## Propertiers of continuous functions

The sum $f+g$, difference $f-g$, product $f . g$ and quotient $f / g$ of two continuous functions is continuous at a point $z=z_{0}$, with the proviso that in the last case $g\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0$. These results follow directly from the Limit Theorems 2.2.

## Examples

## 1. Polynomial functions

The polynomial function $P(z)=\Sigma a_{i} z^{i}$ is continuous for all $z$ since it is constructed as sums and products of the continuous constant functions $\left(a_{i}\right)$ and the continuous function $f(z)=z$.

## 2. Rational functions

The rational function $P(z) / Q(z)$ given by the quotient of two continuous polynomial functions $P(z), Q(z)$ is continuous for all $z: Q(z) \neq 0$.

## Composition of continuous functions

We can also compose complex functions $f, g$ to obtain the new function $f_{\mathrm{o}} g$ defined by $(f \circ g)(z)=f(g(z))$. If $f, g$ are continuous, will $f \circ g$ be continuous also?

Theorem 2.3 The composite function $f_{\mathrm{o}} g$ of two continuous functions $f, g$ is continuous.
Alternatively, a continuous function of a continuous function is a continuous function.
Formally, the proof of this theorem is exactly as for the real case, and is omitted here.
Example $f(z)=\sin \left(z^{2}\right)$ is continuous for all $z$.
By Theorem 2.1, $f(z)=u+i v$ is continuous $\Leftrightarrow u(x, y), v(x, y)$ are continuous. Thus:
Example $f(z)=e^{x y}+i \sin \left(x^{2}-2 y x^{3}\right)$ is continuous for all $z$ (since the real and imaginary parts are continuous).

Definition We say $f$ is bounded in region $R$ if $|f(z)| \leq M$ for all $z \in R$. If f is continuous in $R$, then $f$ is bounded because of the corresponding properties of $u, v$. Show this!

## Quiz 2.3

1. If $f\left(z_{0}\right)$ exists, then function $f$ must be continuous at $z=z_{0}$.
(a) True
 ; (b) False
$\square$
2. If $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)$ exists, then function
$f$ must be continuous at $z=z_{0}$.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False $\square$
3. The function $f(z)=\sin (1 / z)$ is continuous everywhere.
(a) True $\quad \square \quad$; (b) False
4. The function $f(z)=\cos \left(z^{3}\right)$ is continuous everywhere.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False $\square$

## The derivative

Formally, the definition of the derivative $d f / d z=f^{\prime}(z)$ for functions of a complex variable is the same as for real functions.

Let $f$ be a function whose domain contains a neighbourhood of point $z_{0}$. Then

$$
f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} \frac{f(z)-f\left(z_{0}\right)}{z-z_{0}}
$$

if the limit exists. In this case the function $f$ is said to be differentiable at $z_{0}$.

It is sometimes preferable to use the alternative form of the derivative obtained by setting $z=z_{0}+\Delta z:$

$$
f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=\lim _{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(z_{0}+\Delta z\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)}{\Delta z}
$$

Note Since $z_{0}$ lies in an (open) neighbourhood of the domain of $f, f\left(z_{0}+\Delta z\right)$ is defined if $\Delta z$ is small.

## Examples of the derivative

We can evaluate simple derivatives by using the basic definition.
Example $f(z)=z^{2}$.
$f^{\prime}(z)=\lim _{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(z+\Delta z)^{2}-z^{2}}{\Delta z}=\lim _{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{z^{2}+2 z \cdot \Delta z+(\Delta z)^{2}-z^{2}}{\Delta z}=\lim _{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} 2 z+\Delta z=2 z$.

The usual differentiation formulae hold as for real variables.
For example, $\frac{d}{d z}(c)=0, \frac{d}{d z}(z)=1, \frac{d}{d z}\left(z^{n}\right)=n z^{n-1}$.
However, care is required for more unusual functions.

Example $f(x)=|x|^{2}=x^{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f^{\prime}(x)=2 x$ for all $x$.

$$
\text { But } f(z)=|z|^{2} \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(z) \text { exists only at } z=0
$$

This last statement is proved using the basic definition. Show it!

## More on the derivative

As in the real case, $\quad f$ is differentiable $\Rightarrow f$ is continuous.
The same rules apply in the complex case for the sum, product, quotient and composite of two differentiable functions (where defined).

$$
\text { Example } \frac{d}{d z}\left(2 z^{2}+\mathrm{i}\right)^{5}=5\left(2 z^{2}+i\right)^{4} \cdot 4 z=20 z\left(2 z^{2}+i\right)^{4}
$$

Again, with more unusual functions, we may have to use the limit definition of differentiation.

Example Investigate $\frac{d}{d z}(\operatorname{Re} z)$.
We get $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} \frac{\operatorname{Re}(z)-\operatorname{Re}\left(z_{0}\right)}{z-z_{0}}=\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} \frac{x-x_{0}}{\left(x-x_{0}\right)+\left(y-y_{0}\right)}$
Here we get 0 approaching along $x=x_{0}, 1$ along $y=y_{0}$. Hence the limit does not exist.

## Quiz 2.4

1. If function $f$ is continuous at $z=z_{0}$, then $f$ must be differentiable there.
(a) True
; (b) False
2. If $f(z)=|z|^{2}$, then for all $z$,
$f^{\prime}(z)=\square$
3. If $f(z)=(i z+2)^{2}$, then
$f^{\prime}(z)=\square$
4. If $f(z)=\cos \left(z^{3}\right)$, then
$f^{\prime}(z)=\square$
5. False.

The converse is true
2. $f^{\prime}(z)=0$ if $z=0$.

Else $f^{\prime}(z)$ does not exist.
3. $2 i(i z+2)$. Expand and differentiate, or directly.
4. $-\sin \left(z^{3}\right) \cdot 3 z^{2}$.

Use the Chain Rule.

## Cauchy-Riemann Equations (I)

Theorem 2.1 gives us conditions for continuity for a function of a complex variable in terms of the continuity of the real and imaginary parts. We now ask: Is there any test for differentiability?

Theorem 2.4 The derivative $f^{\prime}(z)$ of $f=u+i v$ exists at $z \Leftrightarrow$ the first order partial derivatives $u_{x}, v_{x}, u_{y}, v_{y}$ all exist and satisfy

$$
u_{x}=v_{y}, \quad u_{y}=-v_{x} \quad \text { (the Cauchy-Riemann equations). }
$$

Further,

$$
f^{\prime}(z)=u_{x}+i v_{x}=v_{y}-i u_{y}
$$

Proof Since the derivative of $f$ exists,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} \frac{f(z)-f\left(z_{0}\right)}{z-z_{0}} & =\lim _{\substack{x \rightarrow x_{0} \\
y \rightarrow y_{0}}} \frac{u(x, y)+i v(x, y)-u\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)+i v\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{x+i y-x_{0}-i y_{0}} \\
& =a+i b \quad(\text { say })
\end{aligned}
$$

## Cauchy-Riemann Equations (II)

By Theorem 2.1, the limit of the real part of $\left({ }^{*}\right)=a$, the limit of the imaginary part of $(*)=b$.
Set $y \equiv y_{0}$ to get $\lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} \frac{u\left(x, y_{0}\right)-u\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{x-x_{0}}=\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}=a$

$$
\text { and } \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} \frac{v\left(x, y_{0}\right)-v\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{x-x_{0}}=\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}=b
$$

Set $x \equiv x_{0}$ to get $\lim _{y \rightarrow y_{0}} \frac{v\left(x_{0}, y\right)-v\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{y-y_{0}}=\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}=a$

$$
\text { and } \quad \lim _{y \rightarrow y_{0}} \frac{u\left(x_{0}, y\right)-u\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{y-y_{0}}=\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}=-b
$$

Hence all the first partial derivatives exist, $u_{x}=v_{y}, \quad u_{y}=-v_{x}$, and

$$
f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=u_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)+i v_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \text { etc. as required. }
$$

## Cauchy-Riemann Examples

1. Set $f(z)=z^{2}=(x+i y)^{2}=\left(x^{2}-y^{2}\right)+2 i x y$.

Now $f^{\prime}(z)=2 z$ exists for all $z$. So the Cauchy-Riemann equations are satisfied. We have $u=x^{2}-y^{2}, v=2 x y$, and $u_{x}=2 x=v_{y}, u_{y}=-2 y=-v_{x}$.

Also $f^{\prime}(z)=u_{x}+i v_{x}=2 x+2 i y=2 z$ as expected.
2. Set $f(z)=|z|^{2}$. We show $f^{\prime}(z)$ does not exist for $z \neq 0$.

Now $f(z)=x^{2}+y^{2}$, i.e. $u=x^{2}+y^{2}, v=0, u_{x}=2 x, u_{y}=2 y, v_{x}=0=v_{y}$.
So $u_{x}=v_{y} \Rightarrow x=0, \quad u_{y}=-v_{x} \Rightarrow \mathrm{y}=0$.
Hence $f^{\prime}(z)$ can only exist at $(0,0)$.
Does $f^{\prime}(0)$ exist? Yes; as suggested earlier, but we must use a first principles argument to show it.

## Sufficient conditions

Theorem 2.4 gives necessary conditions for $f$ to be differentiable. We now seek sufficient conditions for $f^{\prime}$ to exist: that is, a similar statement to Theorem 2.4, but using $\Leftarrow$.

Theorem 2.5 Let $f=u+i v$ as before. Suppose
(i) $u, v, u_{x}, v_{x}, u_{y}, v_{y}$ exist in the neighbourhood of $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$,
(ii) $u_{x}, v_{x}, u_{y}, v_{y}$ are continuous at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$,
(iii) the Cauchy-Riemann equations are satisfied at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$.
Then $f^{\prime}(z)$ exists and at $z_{0}, f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=u_{x}+i v_{x}$ as before. That is,
$f$ is differentiable at $z_{0} \Leftarrow$ the given conditions.

Proof We omit this proof. It is not hard, but rather messy.

## Example

The real functions $u=e^{x} \cos y$, $v=e^{x} \sin y$ are defined and continuous everywhere. So are $u_{x}, v_{x}, u_{y}, v_{y}$ and you can easily check that the CauchyRiemann equations are satisfied.
Hence the function

$$
f(z)=e^{x} \cos y+i e^{x} \sin y
$$

is differentiable everywhere.
Since $u_{x}=u, v_{x}=v$,
$f^{\prime}(z)=f(z)$

$$
\left(=e^{x} \operatorname{cis} y=e^{x+i y}=e^{z}\right)
$$

## Quiz 2.5

1. If $f(z)=u+i v$ and the Cauchy-Riemann equations hold for $u, v$, then $f^{\prime}(z)$ must exist.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False
$\nu$
2. For $f=u+i v$, the Cauchy-Riemann equations are $u_{x}=v_{y}$ and $v_{x}=u_{y}$.
(a) True

; (b) False

3. If $f(z)=\left(x^{2}-y^{2}+2\right)+2 i x y=u+i v$, then the Cauchy-Riemann equations hold.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False

4. If $f(z)$ is differentiable, then

$$
f^{\prime}(z)=v_{y}-i u_{y} .
$$

(a) True $\square$ (b) False

## Analytic functions

Definitions Function $f(z)$ is analytic at $z_{0}$ if $f^{\prime}(z)$ exists not only at $z_{0}$ but for all $z$ in some neighbourhood of $z_{0}$. $f(z)$ is analytic in a domain of the $z$-plane if it is analytic at every point of the domain. $f(z)$ is entire if it is analytic everywhere.

## Examples

1. $f(z)=|z|^{2}$ is not analytic anywhere. (It is in fact differentiable only at $z=0$ ).
2. $f(z)=1 / z$ is analytic (except at $z=0$ ).
3. $f(z)=a_{0}+a_{1} z+\ldots+a_{n} z^{n}$ is entire.

If $f(z)$ is analytic throughout a domain except for a finite number of points, such points are singularities or singular points of $f$.

## Examples

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{z}(z=0 \text { is a singularity }) ; \quad f(z)=\frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)}(z=1,2 \text { are singularities }) .
$$

## Test for analytic functions

Question How can we tell if a function is analytic? We can use Theorem 2.5, or
Theorem 2.6 If $f=f(z)$ is analytic, then in any formula for $f, x$ and $y$ can only occur in the combination $x+i y$.

Proof We note that $x=\frac{1}{2}(z+\bar{z}), y=\left(\frac{1}{2 i}\right)(z-\bar{z})$. Hence if $w=f(z)=u+i v$, we can regard $u, v$ as functions of $z, \bar{z}$. Now, $w$ is a function of $z$ alone $\Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial w}{\partial \bar{z}}=0$, and $\frac{\partial w}{\partial \bar{z}}=0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \bar{z}}+\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \bar{z}}+i\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \bar{z}}+\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \bar{z}}\right)=0$
$\Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}+\frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}+\frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}=0$
$\Leftrightarrow \quad u_{x}=v_{y}, \quad u_{y}=-v_{x}$,
equating real, imaginary parts to zero.
Hence f analytic $\Rightarrow$ the Cauchy-Riemann equations hold $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial w}{\partial \bar{z}}=0$ as required.

## Analytic functions : final comments

## Example

$$
f(z)=\sin (x+3 i y)
$$

We can say immediately that this function is not analytic, as $x$ and $y$ do not occur in the combination $x+i y$. In some examples it is less clear whether or not the variables can be combined in this way.

## Derivative theorems

The theorems on derivatives quickly transfer to analytic functions. Thus the sum, product, quotient and composite of two analytic functions are formed in the obvious ways as before, and each of the resulting functions is analytic on its domain.

## Augustin-Louis Cauchy

The name of Cauchy [pronounced 'Co'-shee'] (1789-1857) is found frequently in complex analysis. This is because over much of his life, he almost single-handedly developed the theory of complex functions. He had a prodigious output, writing several books and 789 papers, some of great length.

## Harmonic functions

Let $f=u+i v$ be analytic in some domain of the $z$-plane. Then the Cauchy-Riemann equations hold:

$$
u_{x}=v_{y}, \quad u_{y}=-v_{x} .
$$

It can be shown that for analytic function, the partial derivatives of all orders exist and are continuous functions of $x, y$. Hence

$$
u_{x x}=v_{y x} \text { and } u_{y y}=-v_{x y} .
$$

Assuming continuity of $v_{y x}, v_{x y}$, we have $v_{y x}=v_{x y}$, and hence

$$
u_{x x}+u_{y y}=0
$$

This is Laplace's equation, and $u$ is called an harmonic function.
In the same way we get

$$
v_{x x}+v_{y y}=0 ; \text { i.e. } v \text { is an harmonic function. }
$$

If $f=u+i v, u$ and v are conjugate harmonic functions.
(Note the different use of the word 'conjugate' here).

## Finding harmonic functions

In applied mathematics (partial differential equations) we often seek an harmonic function on a given domain which satisfies given boundary conditions. If we are given one of two conjugate harmonic functions, it is a simple matter to find the other. We use the CauchyRiemann equations.

## Example

Let $u=y^{3}-3 x^{2} y$. Then $u$ is harmonic, since $u_{x x}=-6 y=-u_{y y}$.
Now using the Cauchy -Riemann equations, $u_{x}=-6 x y=v_{y}$.
Integrating $v$ partially with respect to $y$ gives $v=-3 x y^{2}+\phi(x)$ and now

$$
v_{x}=-u_{y}=-3 y^{2}+3 x^{2} \Rightarrow \phi^{\prime}(x)=3 x^{2}
$$

Hence $v=-3 x y^{2}+x^{3}+c$.
You can check that $v$ is in fact harmonic! So

$$
f(z)=\left(y^{3}-3 x^{2} y\right)+i\left(x^{3}-3 x y^{2}+c\right) \quad\left[=i\left(z^{3}+c\right) \text { in fact }\right] .
$$

## Quiz 2.6A

1. If $f(z)$ is analytic, then $f^{\prime}(z)$ exists.
(a) True

; (b) False $\square$
2. Function $f(z)$ may be differentiable at $z=z_{0}$, but not analytic near $z=z_{0}$.
(a) True $\quad$; (b) False $\square$.
3. Function $v(x, y)=-3 x y^{2}+x^{3}$ is an harmonic function.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False

4. The harmonic conjugate of $u(x, y)=-2 x y$ is
$\square$

## Quiz 2.6B

Theorem 2.6 If $f=f(z)$ is analytic, then in any formula for $f, x$ and $y$ can only occur in the combination $x+i y$.

Proof We note that $x=\frac{1}{2}(z+\bar{z}),\{\mathbf{1}\}$. Hence if $w=f(z)=u+i v$, we can regard $u, v$ as functions of $z, \bar{z}$. Now, $w$ is a function of $z$ alone $\Leftrightarrow\{2\}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial w}{\partial \bar{z}}=0 & \Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \bar{z}}+\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \bar{z}}+i(\{3\})=0 \\
& \Leftrightarrow\{4\}+\frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}+\frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}=0 \Leftrightarrow u_{x}=v_{y}, \quad u_{y}=-v_{x}
\end{aligned}
$$

equating real, imaginary parts to zero.
Hence $f$ analytic $\quad \Rightarrow$ the Cauchy-Riemann equations hold

$$
\Rightarrow \frac{\partial w}{\partial \bar{z}}=0 \text { as required. }
$$

Match the above boxes $1,2,3,4$ with the selections (a) $y=\left(\frac{1}{2 i}\right)(z-\bar{z})$,
(b) $\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \bar{z}}+\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \bar{z}}$
(c) $\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$
(d) $\frac{\partial w}{\partial \bar{z}}=0$,

1. $\square$ 2. $\square$ 3. $\square$ 4.
(C)

CHECK

