

# Analytic Functions

If  $G$  is an open set in  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  then  $f$  is differentiable at a point  $a \in G$  if

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \text{ exists;}$$

the value of this limit is denoted by  $f'(a)$  and is called the derivative of  $f$  at  $a$ .

Notice that if  $f$  is differentiable at each point of  $G$ , then we say  $f$  is differentiable on  $G$ .

Remark If  $f'$  is continuous on  $G$ , then  $f$  is called continuously differentiable on  $G$ .

The following proposition was surely predicted by the reader.

Proposition If  $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is differentiable at a point  $a \in G$  then  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ .

Proof We show that if  $z \rightarrow a$ , then  $f(z) \rightarrow f(a)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow a} |f(z) - f(a)| &= \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{|f(z) - f(a)|}{|z - a|} \lim_{z \rightarrow a} |z - a| \\ &= |f'(a)| \cdot 0 = 0 \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

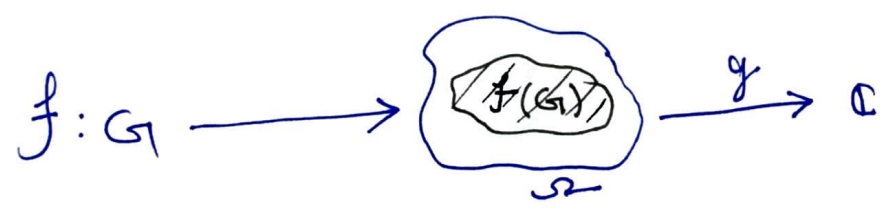
Def A function  $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called analytic on  $G$  if  $f$  is continuously differentiable on  $G$ .

Remark If  $f, g$  are ~~one~~ analytic on  $G$  then  $f \pm g, fg$  are analytic on  $G$ , and  $\frac{f}{g}$  is analytic if  $g \neq 0$ .

Theorem (chain Rule)

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be analytic on  $G$  and  $\Omega$  respectively and suppose  $f(G) \subset \Omega$ . Then  $g \circ f$  is analytic on  $G$  and

$$(g \circ f)'(z) = g'(f(z)) \cdot f'(z), \quad \forall z \in G.$$



Remark The derivative of  $f$  is defined on an open set, but if we say  $f$  is analytic on a set  $A$  and  $A$  is not open, we mean that  $f$  is analytic on an open set containing  $A$ .

Remark The definition of differentiability of  $f$  in real analysis is different from the definition of Analytic functions in complex Analysis. We will see that !! Every Analytic Function is infinitely differentiable and, furthermore, has a power series expansion about each point of its domain!!.

If we consider  $G \subset \mathbb{C}$  and  $f$  is defined on  $G$  as a function

of two variables as follows:

$$g(x+iy) = f(x+iy); \quad (x,y) \in G.$$

The requiring that  $g$  be Frechet differentiable will not ensure that  $f$  has derivative in our sense.

A function  $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is Frechet differentiable at  $a \in G \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  if there is a linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  such that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|g(a+h) - g(a) - T(h)|}{|h|} = 0.$$

The linear transformation  $T$  is denote  $Df(a)$  and is called the Frechet derivative of  $g$  at  $a$ .

As we will see that  $f(z) = |z|^2$  has derivative only at  $z=0$  but  $g(x,y) = f(x+iy) = x^2 + y^2$  is Frechet differentiable.

Proposition (2.5) Let  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$  has radius of convergence  $R > 0$ . Then:

1. For each  $k \geq 1$  the series

$$\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1) a_n (z-a)^{n-k} \dots \quad (*)$$

has radius of convergence  $R$ ;

2. The function  $f$  is infinitely differentiable on  $B(a; R)$ , and, furthermore,  $f^{(k)}(z)$  is given by the series  $(*)$  for all  $k \geq 1$  and  $|z-a| < R$ ;

3. For  $n \geq 0$ ,  $a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(a)$ .



Corollary If the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$  has radius of convergence  $R$  then  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$  is analytic in  $B(a; R)$

Hence  $f(z) = e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} z^n$  is analytic in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Proposition If  $G$  is open and connected and  $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is differentiable with  $f'(z) = 0$  for all  $z$  in  $G$ , then  $f$  is constant.

Exponential Function

$f(z) = e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$  has radius of convergence  $R = \infty$ .

1. The differentiation of  $f(z)$  is given by Proposition (2.5), that

is  $f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n!} z^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} z^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} z^n = f(z)$ .

Therefore  $(\frac{d}{dz} e^z = e^z)$ . [The same as in real].

2.  $e^{a+b} = e^a e^b$  for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Proof First we prove that:

$e^{z-\tilde{a}} = e^{-z} e^{\tilde{a}}$  for fixed  $\tilde{a} \in \mathbb{C}$  and all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Let  $g(z) = e^{z-\tilde{a}}$ ,  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Then  $g'(z) = e^{z-\tilde{a}} + (-e^{z-\tilde{a}}) = 0 \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$

Thus  $g$  is constant in  $\mathbb{C}$ , that is,  $\exists w \in \mathbb{C}$  such that

$g(z) = w$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

That is,  $w = g(0) = e^{-\tilde{a}}$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  [use  $e^0 = 1$ ].

Therefore,  $g(z) = e^{-\tilde{a}}$ ,  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Then we conclude that:

$$e^{\tilde{a}-z} = e^{\tilde{a}} ; \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$$

Now let  $z=a$  and  $\tilde{a} = a+b$

Therefore, 
$$e^a e^b = e^{a+b} , \text{ for all } a, b \in \mathbb{C} .$$

3. 
$$e^{-z} = \frac{1}{e^z} \text{ for all } z \in \mathbb{C}$$

Notice that:  $e^z e^{-z} = e^0 = 1 ; \forall z \in \mathbb{C} .$

that is  $e^z \neq 0$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$

Therefore, 
$$e^{-z} = \frac{1}{e^z} , z \in \mathbb{C} .$$

4. 
$$\overline{(e^z)} = e^{\bar{z}} , \forall z \in \mathbb{C} .$$

from the power series of  $e^z$ , we have that

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} z^n , \text{ all the coefficients are real.}$$

Then 
$$\overline{(e^z)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (\bar{z})^n = e^{\bar{z}} .$$

5. for  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have that:

$$|e^{i\theta}|^2 = e^{i\theta} e^{-i\theta} = 1 . \text{ [we have used that } \overline{(e^{i\theta})} = \overline{(e^{i\theta})} = e^{-i\theta} ]$$

# More generally,  $|e^z|^2 = e^z e^{\bar{z}} = e^{2\text{Re}(z)}$

Thus, 
$$|e^z| = e^{\text{Re}(z)} .$$

6. We see that  $e^z$  has the same properties that the real function  $e^x$  has. Again by analogy with real power series we define the functions cos z and sin z by the power series:

$$\cos z = 1 - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \frac{z^6}{6!} + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \dots$$

$$\sin z = z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \frac{z^7}{7!} + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{z^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!} + \dots$$

Each of the series has infinite radius of ~~convergence~~

Convergence and so cos z and sin z are analytic in

$\mathbb{C}$ . By using Proposition (2.5) we find that:

$$(\cos z)' = -\sin z \text{ and } (\sin z)' = \cos z$$

Also we find that:

$$\cos z = \frac{1}{2} (e^{iz} + e^{-iz}) \text{ and } \sin z = \frac{1}{2i} (e^{iz} - e^{-iz}).$$

This gives for all  $z$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  that

$$\sin^2 z + \cos^2 z = 1 \text{ and}$$

$$e^{iz} = \cos z + i \sin z \dots (*)$$

In particular, if we let  $z = \theta \in \mathbb{R}$  in (\*) we get

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$$

Hence, for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , we have that

$$z = |z| e^{i\theta}, \text{ where } \theta = \arg(z).$$

Since  $e^{x+iy} = e^x e^{iy}$ , we have

$$|e^z| = e^{\operatorname{Re} z} \text{ and } \arg e^z = \operatorname{Im} z.$$



7. A function  $f$  is periodic with period  $c$  if  $f(z+c) = f(z)$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

If  $c$  is a period of  $e^z$  then  $e^z = e^{z+c} = e^z e^c$ , then we have  $e^c = 1$ .

Since  $|e^c| = 1 = e^{\text{Re}(c)}$ ,  $\implies \text{Re}(c) = 0$ .

Thus  $c = i\theta$  for some  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

But  $1 = e^c = e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$

$\implies \cos\theta + i\sin\theta = 1 \iff \sin\theta = 0$

Therefore,  $\cos\theta = 1 \iff \theta = 2\pi k, k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

$\implies c = 2\pi k i$

$\implies$  Periods of  $e^z$  are multiple of  $2\pi i$ .

That is  $e^{z+2\pi k i} = e^z$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Thus if we divide the plane into infinitely many horizontal strips by the lines ( $\text{Im} z = \pi(k-1)$ ) where  $k$  any integer, then the exponential function  $e^z$  behaves the same in each of these strips.

