

L2: Holomorphic and analytic functions.

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1 Holomorphic functions

A complex function $f(x, y) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$ can be also regarded as a function of $z = x + iy$ and its conjugated \bar{z} because we can write

$$f\left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}\right) = u\left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}\right) + i v\left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}\right)$$

Classically a *holomorphic function* f was defined as a function f such that the expression $u\left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}\right) + i v\left(\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}\right)$ does not contain, after simplification, the letter \bar{z} or what is the same f does not depend upon \bar{z} .

It is standard to denote $\mathcal{O}(D)$ the set of holomorphic functions on D .

From calculus we know that a given function f do not depends on a variable, say w if the partial derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial w}$ is identically zero.

So a simpler way of saying that a function f does not depend on \bar{z} is as follows:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0 \tag{1}$$

The problem is that we have no definition of the partial derivative with respect to \bar{z} .

Example 1.1. Any polynomial $f(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ gives an holomorphic function. Moreover, a convergent power series $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k z^k$ gives a holomorphic function in his disc of convergence. The function $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ is not holomorphic. Why?.

To give a meaning of the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$ **we assume** that such partial derivatives **do exist** and try to find their definition as follows:

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} d\bar{z} \quad (2)$$

and since $x = \frac{z+\bar{z}}{2}$ and $y = \frac{z-\bar{z}}{2i}$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} dx &= \frac{dz + d\bar{z}}{2} \\ dy &= \frac{dz - d\bar{z}}{2i} \end{aligned}$$

so we get

$$\begin{aligned} df &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \left(\frac{dz + d\bar{z}}{2} \right) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \left(\frac{dz - d\bar{z}}{2i} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) dz + \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) d\bar{z}. \end{aligned}$$

Then we give the following [definition of the complex partial derivatives](#):

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} := \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} := \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{cases}$$

If f is differentiable¹ we get

$$\frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} = \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot (z - z_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} \overline{(z - z_0)} + o(|z - z_0|)}{z - z_0} \quad (3)$$

Thus, we get that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$ **if and only if** the Newton's quotient has a limit. Namely,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} = f'(z_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(z_0) \quad (4)$$

Indeed, since $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$ we get equation (4) when $z \rightarrow z_0$ from equation 3 and viceversa since the limit of the quotient

$$\frac{\bar{z}}{z}$$

¹For example if the partial derivatives of u, v are continuous functions.

does not exist when $z \rightarrow 0$.

1.1 Chain rule

Here is simple consequence of (2). Assume that $f \in \mathcal{O}(D)$ and that $z : [a, b] \rightarrow D$ is a curve, i.e. $z(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$. Then,

$$\frac{df(z(t))}{dt} = f'(z(t)) \cdot z'(t)$$

Cauchy-Riemann's conditions

We can define f to be **holomorphic** if either the limit (4) do exists or equivalently if $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$.

Now assume that f is holomorphic. Then $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$. We can write this condition in terms of the partial derivatives of the functions u, v as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} &= \frac{\partial u + i v}{\partial \bar{z}} \\ &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial \bar{z}} + \frac{\partial i v}{\partial \bar{z}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial i v}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial i v}{\partial y} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + i \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \end{aligned}$$

and we obtain the famous **Cauchy-Riemann's** conditions for a holomorphic function $f = u + i v$

$$\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Here is how Riemann originally found the above equations.

By equation (4) the quotient

$$\frac{du + i dv}{dx + i dy}$$

is well defined, i.e. independent of dx, dy . So computing the differential in the numerator we have

$$\frac{(u_x + i v_x) dx + (v_y - i u_y) i dy}{dx + i dy}$$

and this is independent of dx, dy **if and only if**

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

which are equations (5).

Theorem 1.2. *If f is holomorphic and $f'(z) = 0$ then $df \equiv 0$ and f is locally constant.*

Proof. Since $f = u + i v$ is holomorphic we have $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$ and $f'(z) \equiv 0$ is equivalent to $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 0$. Then by equation 2 we get $df \equiv 0$. This means that the functions u, v are locally constant. \square

Interpretations of the CR conditions and harmonic functions

The differential df is related to the Jacobian matrix as follows

$$df = J_f \begin{pmatrix} dx \\ dy \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_x & u_y \\ v_x & v_y \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} dx \\ dy \end{pmatrix}$$

Now if f is holomorphic the Cauchy-Riemann's equations are:

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

Which means that the Jacobian matrix is given by multiplication against the complex number $u_x + i v_x$. Namely, J_f is the 2×2 matrix associated to the multiplication by $u_x + i v_x$.

From the geometric interpretation of the multiplication by complex numbers we get that near z_0 if $f'(z_0) \neq 0$ the behavior of f is like a rotation followed by an expansion. In particular a point where $f'(z_0)$ can not be a minimum or a maximum of $|f(z)|$.

Here is another interpretation of Cauchy-Riemann's equations. Let us write the gradient ∇u as a complex number

$$\nabla u = u_x + i u_y$$

Then the gradient $\nabla v = v_x + i v_y$ is obtained from ∇u by a 90° counterclockwise. That is to say,

$$\nabla v = i \nabla u$$

In general if a vector field is a gradient then its 90° counterclockwise rotation is not a gradient.

Another easy but important observation is the harmonicity of the functions u, v . Namely, if $f = u + i v$ is holomorphic then

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0 \\ \Delta v = v_{xx} + v_{yy} = 0 \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Indeed, $u_{xx} = v_{yx} = v_{xy} = -u_{yy}$ and so $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$. But also notice that

$$\frac{\Delta}{4} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} = \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}}{4}$$

Analytic functions.

A complex function f is called *analytic* if around each point z_0 of its domain the function f can be computed by a convergent power series. More precisely, for each z_0 there exists $\epsilon > 0$ and a sequence of complex numbers (a_0, a_1, \dots) such that

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1(z - z_0) + a_2(z - z_0)^2 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(z - z_0)^k \quad (7)$$

for $|z - z_0| < \epsilon$.

If f is analytic then f and all its derivatives are holomorphic. The derivatives can be computed as the derivatives of a convergent power series, i.e. by deriving term by term. In particular,

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{a_n}{n!}$$

which shows that the expression of f as a power series at z_0 is unique.

If the power series (7) is convergent for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, i.e. not just for $|z - z_0| < \epsilon$, the function f is called **entire function**.

An important example of entire function is the exponential e^z defined by the power series:

$$e^z = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!} .$$

Notice that the derivative of e^z is itself.

A simple computation shows the Euler's formula

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

for $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$.

The geometric series

$$g(z) = 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots$$

is convergent for $|z| < 1$ and so $g(z)$ is holomorphic. If $|z| < 1$ then

$$(1 - z)g(z) = 1 + z + z^2 + \dots - z - z^2 - \dots = 1$$

so

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1-z}.$$

The series

$$G(z) = z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{3} + \frac{z^4}{4} + \cdots$$

is also convergent for $|z| < 1$ and $G'(z) = g(z)$.

Notice that $(1-z)e^{G(z)} = 1$ for all $|z| < 1$. So $G(z)$ can be regarded as the logarithm of $\frac{1}{1-z}$.