

We define

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$

for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

$\cos z$  and  $\sin z$  are entire functions,

Ex Verify that  $\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z = 1$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos^2 z + \sin^2 z &= \frac{(e^{iz} + e^{-iz})^2}{4} - \frac{(e^{iz} - e^{-iz})^2}{4} = \\ &= \frac{e^{2iz} + 2 + e^{-2iz} - (e^{2iz} - 2 + e^{-2iz})}{4} = \frac{4}{4} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

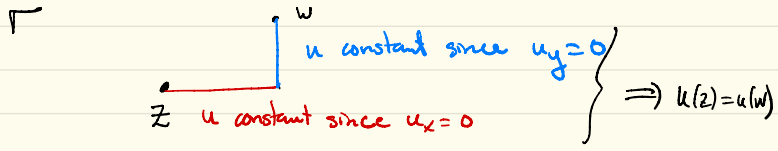
### Some consequences of the Cauchy-Riemann equations

First assume that  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  is a non-empty open subset where any  $z, w \in D$  can be connected by a continuous curve.

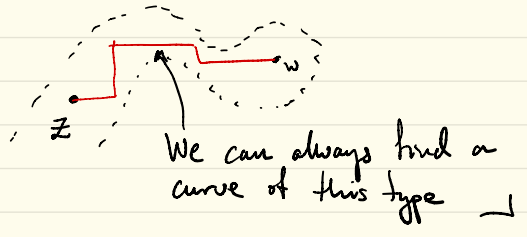


Such a set is called a domain  
(non-empty, open, connected (or equivalently in this case path-connected))

Assume that  $w: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfies  $u_x = u_y = 0$  for all  $z \in D$ . Then  $u$  is constant.



However, we need to consider



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Remember  $D$  is a domain.

Proposition 9 Assume  $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is an analytic function such that  $f'(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in D$ . Then  $f$  is constant.

Proof: Since  $f'(z) = u_x + i v_x = 0$  we get  $u_x = 0$  and  $v_x = 0$  for all  $z \in D$ .

Now CR-equations gives  $v_y = u_x = 0$  and  $u_y = -v_x = 0$ . Therefore both  $u$  and  $v$  are constant. So  $f = u + iv$  is constant.

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Proposition 10 Suppose  $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic  
(and  $D$  is a domain) and  $u, v$   
or  $|f|$  is constant then  $f$  is constant.

Proof: If  $u$  is constant then  $u_x = v_y = 0$   
and  $u_y = -v_x = 0$ . Therefore  $f$  is constant  
(Similar for  $v$  constant)

Assume  $|f|$  is constant. We get  $|f|^2 = u^2 + v^2 = c$

If  $c = 0$  we are done. Assume  $c > 0$

$$\text{Then } 2uu_x + 2vv_x = 0 \text{ and}$$

$$2uu_y + 2vv_y = 0$$

If we use the CR-equations we get

$$(*) \quad u u_x - v u_y = 0$$

$$(**) \quad u u_y + v u_x = 0$$

Multiply  $(*)$  by  $u$  and  $(**)$  by  $v$  and  
add to get

$$(u^2 + v^2) u_x = 0 \Rightarrow u_x = 0$$

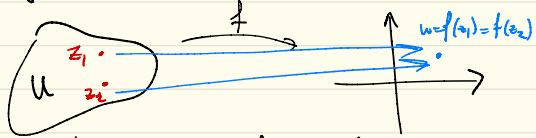
Multiply  $(*)$  by  $v$  and  $(**)$  by  $u$  and  
subtract to get

$$(u^2 + v^2) u_y = 0 \Rightarrow u_y = 0$$

$\Rightarrow f = u + iv$  is constant.  $\square$

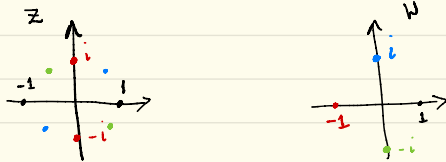
## Branches of inverse functions

We have seen that many analytic functions  $f: U \rightarrow W \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  don't have single valued inverses (for example  $f(z) = z^2$ )



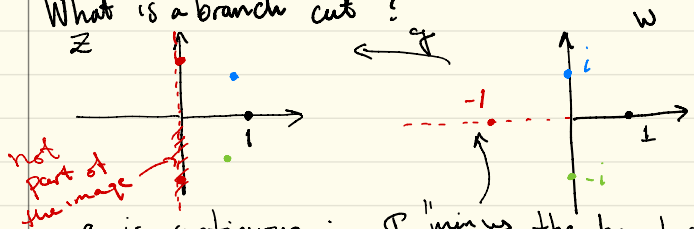
In this situation we cannot find  $f^{-1}$  such that  $f \circ f^{-1}(w) = w$  and  $f^{-1} \circ f(z) = z$ . However, we can find many  $g: W \rightarrow U$  such that  $f \circ g(w) = w$ . Such a function is called a right-inverse. Most of these are very "wild". If we require that  $g$  is continuous we get a "branch of the inverse". This cannot be defined on the whole of  $f(U)$  (unless  $f$  is injective (univalent popular in complex analysis books))

Ex:  $f(z) = z^2$

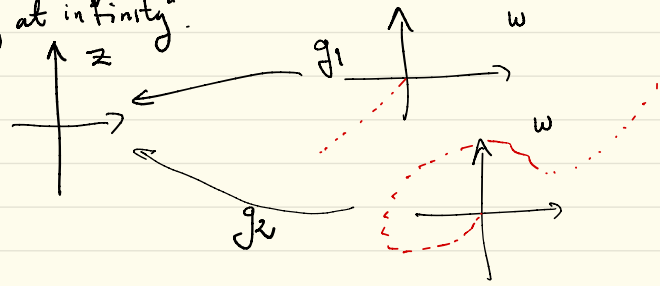


To "build" a branch start at any point in the  $w$ -plane say  $w=1$  and choose one of the pre-images  $z=1$  or  $-1$ . Let's pick  $g(1) = 1$ . Since  $g$  is required to be continuous this determines the values of  $g$  in a small disk around 1. This process can be continued to the whole plane minus a "branch cut".

What is a branch cut?



$g$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{C}$  "minus the branch cut"  
 $g$  is nothing but the principal square root (not continuous across the branch cut). You get a different branch if you choose a different simple curve starting at the origin ("branch point") and "ending at infinity".



Had you started with the choice  $g(1) = -1$  you would have gotten a different branch namely  $-\sqrt{z}$ .

We will now see that branches of inverses gives us many new analytic functions. They are continuous (by definition) but are they analytic?

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$$g(D) = \{g(z); z \in D\}$$

Theorem 11 Suppose that  $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is an analytic function and that  $g$  is a branch of  $f^{-1}$  in a domain  $D$ . Let  $z_0 \in D$  and  $w_0 = g(z_0)$ . If  $f'(w_0) \neq 0$  then  $g$  is complex differentiable at  $z_0$  and  $g'(z_0) = 1/f'(w_0)$ . (Therefore, if  $f'(w) \neq 0$  when  $w \in g(D)$ , then  $g$  is analytic in  $D$  and  $g'(z) = 1/f'(g(z))$ .)

Proof: Let  $w = g(z)$  for  $z \in D$  ( $g$  is injective so  $w$  is well-defined)

Note that  $w \neq w_0$  when  $z \neq z_0$  ( $g$  injective) and  $w = g(z) \rightarrow g(z_0) = w_0$  as  $z \rightarrow z_0$  ( $g$  continuous)

We get

$$\frac{g(z) - g(z_0)}{z - z_0} = \frac{g(z) - g(z_0)}{f(g(z)) - f(g(z_0))} = \frac{w - w_0}{f(w) - f(w_0)} \rightarrow \frac{1}{f'(w)}$$

and  $g'(z_0) = \frac{1}{f'(w_0)}$   $\square$

Ex Let  $g(z)$  be a branch of the square root (That is a branch of  $f^{-1}$  where  $f(w) = w^2$ .)

We get  $f'(w) = 2w$  and  $g'(z_0) = \frac{1}{2w_0} = \frac{1}{2g(z_0)}$  when  $g(z_0) = w_0 \neq 0$

For example, if  $g(z)$  is the principal square root  $\sqrt{z}$  we get

$$g'(z) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{z}} \quad \text{when } z \neq 0 \quad \text{(and } \operatorname{Re} z > 0 \text{ if } \operatorname{Im} z = 0)$$

We could also use  $f(g(z)) = g(z)^2 = z$  and differentiate  $2g(z)g'(z) = 1$  (we need to know  $g'(z)$  exists) and  $g'(z) = \frac{1}{2g(z)}$  if  $g(z) \neq 0$

Ex Let  $g(z)$  be a branch of the logarithm. Then  $e^{g(z)} = z$  and  $g'(z) e^{g(z)} = 1$  or  $g'(z) = \frac{1}{e^{g(z)}} = \frac{1}{z}$

So, for example,  $\frac{d}{dz} \text{Log}(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ .

It is reasonable to wonder if it is possible to invert some analytic function  $f$  near  $f(z_0)$  even though  $f'(z_0) = 0$ . It turns out that the answer is no. It is interesting to note that the situation for  $\tilde{f}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is different. Let's discuss this without too much detail.

Say  $\tilde{f}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is given as  $\tilde{f}(x,y) = (u(x,y), v(x,y))^T$

We know from Differential and Integral Calculus 2 that  $u: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is (in the real sense) differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if there is  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$u(x,y) = u(x_0, y_0) + A(x-x_0) + B(y-y_0) + O((x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2)$$

Similarly  $\tilde{f}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is real differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if there is a matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}$  such that

$$\tilde{f}(x,y) = \tilde{f}(x_0, y_0) + \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x-x_0 \\ y-y_0 \end{pmatrix} + O((x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2)$$

If  $\tilde{f}$  is real differentiable in an open set containing  $(x_0, y_0)$  then

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_x(x_0, y_0) & u_y(x_0, y_0) \\ v_x(x_0, y_0) & v_y(x_0, y_0) \end{pmatrix} = \tilde{df}(x_0, y_0)$$

If we view  $\tilde{f}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  as  $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  using  $f = u + iv$  and we see that real differentiability is not enough to imply complex differentiability. The CR-equations imply that

$$df(x_0, y_0) = \begin{pmatrix} u_x & u_y \\ -u_y & u_x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

Another way of saying this is that  $df$  has to be complex linear and not only real linear.

The Inverse Function Theorem says  $\tilde{f}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is invertible near points where  $\det df \neq 0$ . If  $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic then  $\det df = |f'(z)|^2 \geq 0$ . It is possible that  $\tilde{f}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is invertible near points where  $\det df = 0$  but for analytic functions this is not the case. So for analytic functions they are invertible near points  $w = f(z)$  exactly when  $f'(z) \neq 0$ .