## Definition of a limit and continuity in $\mathbb{C}$

A neighbourhood of a point $z_{0}$ means a disk of the form $\left\{z \in \mathbb{C}:\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\rho\right\}$ for some $\rho>0$.

Limit: Let $f$ be a function defined in a neighbourhood of $z_{0}$ and let $f_{0} \in \mathbb{C}$. If for every $\epsilon>0$ there exists a real number $\delta>0$ such that

$$
\left|f(z)-f_{0}\right|<\epsilon \quad \text { for all } z \text { satisfying } 0<\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\delta
$$

then we say that

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=f_{0}
$$

Continuity: A function $w=f(z)$ is continuous at $z=z_{0}$ provided $f\left(z_{0}\right)$ is defined and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=f\left(z_{0}\right) \\
& \quad \text { MA3614 2023/4 Week 03, Page } 1 \text { of } 16
\end{aligned}
$$

## Examples of continuous functions

1. All the monomials $1, z, z^{2}, \ldots$ are continuous on $\mathbb{C}$ and hence all polynomials are continuous at all points in $\mathbb{C}$.
2. Let $p(z)$ and $q(z)$ be polynomials and let

$$
f(z)=\frac{p(z)}{q(z)}
$$

which is rational function. This is continuous on $\mathbb{C}$ except at a finite number of points which are the roots of $q(z)$.
3.

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

is continuous on $\mathbb{C}$.
All of the above are often classified as "elementary functions".

## Points where limits do not exist

1. 

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{z}
$$

is unbounded as $z \rightarrow 0$.
2.

$$
f(z)=\operatorname{Arg} z \in(-\pi, \pi]
$$

is not defined at $z=0$ and it does not have a limit on the negative real axis. As we cross the negative real axis the magnitude of the jump in the function value is $2 \pi$. 3.

$$
f(z)=\exp \left(-1 / z^{2}\right)
$$

is unbounded as $z \rightarrow 0$ when $z \in \mathbb{C}$. It is however bounded when we restrict to $z \in \mathbb{R}$.
4.

$$
f(z)=\frac{\bar{z}}{z}
$$

does not have a limit as $z_{\text {MA3614 }}{ }_{20}^{0}$ but it is bounded.

## Points where limits do not exist, more jargon

We meet the term analytic this week. Later we meet the terms simple pole, isolated singularity and essential singularity.
1.

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{z}, \quad \text { a simple pole at } z=0 \text {, an isolated singularity. }
$$

2. 

$$
f(z)=\operatorname{Arg} z \in(-\pi, \pi], \quad \text { this is not analytic anywhere. }
$$

The singularity on the negative real axis is not isolated.
3.

$$
f(z)=\exp \left(-1 / z^{2}\right), \quad \text { an essential singularity at } z=0
$$

4. 

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(z)=\frac{\bar{z}}{z}, \quad \text { this is not analytic anywhere. } \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

## When some of the terms will be defined

1. 

$$
\frac{1}{z}, \quad \exp \left(-1 / z^{2}\right)
$$

These have isolated singularities at $z=0$.
The term isolated singularity will appear many times from about chapter 4 onwards.
A formal definition will be when Laurent series is done in term 2.
2. $\operatorname{Arg} z$, and the jump discontinuity, will appear when the principal valued $\log z$ and complex powers $z^{\alpha}$ are considered in chapter 4.

## The definition of a derivative in the real case

If $f(x)$ denotes a real valued function defined in a neighbourhood of $x_{0}$ then

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(x_{0}+h\right)-f\left(x_{0}\right)}{h}
$$

If $g(x, y)$ denotes a real valued function defined in a neighbourhood of $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g\left(x_{0}+h, y_{0}\right)-g\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{h} \\
& \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+h\right)-g\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)}{h}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that in the above definitions the division is by $h$, which is real, and we are just considering "the change in one direction".

## Analytic functions

- Complex derivative: Let $f$ be a complex valued function defined in a neighbourhood of $z_{0}$. The derivative of $f$ at $z_{0}$ is given by

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d} f}{\mathrm{~d} z}\left(z_{0}\right) \equiv f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right):=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(z_{0}+h\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)}{h}
$$

provided the limit exists. Note that here $h \in \mathbb{C}$.

- A function $f$ is analytic at $z_{0}$ if $f$ is differentiable at all points in some neighbourhood of $z_{0}$.
- A function $f$ is analytic in a domain if $f$ is analytic at all points in the domain.
- A function $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is an entire function if it is analytic on the whole complex plane $\mathbb{C}$.


## Continuity/analytic comments summary

$f(z)$ is continuous at $z_{0}$ if $f(z)$ is close to $f\left(z_{0}\right)$ whenever $z$ is close to $z_{0}$.

Let

$$
\lambda(z)= \begin{cases}\frac{f(z)-f\left(z_{0}\right)}{z-z_{0}}-f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right), & z \neq z_{0} \\ 0, & z=z_{0}\end{cases}
$$

If $f(z)$ is analytic at $z_{0}$ then

$$
f(z)=f\left(z_{0}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)\left(z-z_{0}\right)+\lambda(z)\left(z-z_{0}\right)
$$

with $\lambda(z)$ being continuous and $\lambda\left(z_{0}\right)=0$. Continuity of $\lambda(z)$ implies that $\lambda(z) \approx 0$ when $\left|z-z_{0}\right|$ is small. Later in the module we show that actually $\lambda(z)$ is analytic and there is a Taylor series representation of $f(z)$ which is valid in a neighbourhood of $z_{0}$.

## Taylor series comment

In term 2 we show that when is analytic we have the Cauchy integral formula representation

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} \mathrm{~d} \zeta .
$$

Here $\Gamma$ is a closed loop traversed once in the anti-clockwise direction and $z$ is a point inside $\Gamma$.

It is essentially a re-write of this which gives the Taylor series representation in a neighbourhood of a point $z_{0}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(z) & =f\left(z_{0}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)\left(z-z_{0}\right)+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{0}\right)}{2!}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{2}+\cdots \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}\left(z_{0}\right)}{k!}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

## The derivative of monomials

As in the real case when $n=0,1, \ldots$ we have

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} z} z^{n}=n z^{n-1}
$$

The proof is as in the real case and can be done using the binomial theorem with $f(z)=z^{n}$ and

$$
f(z+h)-f(z)=(z+h)^{n}-z^{n}=n h z^{n-1}+\cdots+h^{n} .
$$

Dividing by $h$ and letting $h \rightarrow 0$ gives the result.
Alternatively the geometric series gives the factorization

$$
f(z)-f\left(z_{0}\right)=\left(z-z_{0}\right)\left(z^{n-1}+z_{0} z^{n-2}+\cdots+z_{0}^{n-1}\right)
$$

Dividing by $z-z_{0}$ and letting $z \rightarrow z_{0}$ gives the result. Later we define $z^{\alpha}$ for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ and it is shown that we have the corresponding result where $z^{\alpha}$ is is differentiable ${ }_{2023 / 4}$ Week 03, Page 10 of 16

## Combining differentiable functions

Let $f$ and $g$ be differentiable at $z_{0}$. We have the following.
(i)

$$
(f \pm g)^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right) \pm g^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
(c f)^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=c f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right) \quad \text { for all constants } c \in \mathbb{C} \tag{ii}
\end{equation*}
$$

(iii)

$$
(f g)^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=f\left(z_{0}\right) g^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right) g\left(z_{0}\right)
$$

This is the product rule.
(iv)

$$
\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=\frac{g\left(z_{0}\right) f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right) g^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)}{g\left(z_{0}\right)^{2}}, \quad \text { if } g\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0
$$

This is the quotient rule.
(v) Let now $f$ be a function which is differentiable at $g\left(z_{0}\right)$. Then

$$
\left.\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} z} f(g(z))\right|_{z=z_{0}}=f^{\prime}\left(g\left(z_{0}\right)\right) g^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)
$$

This is the chain rule. MA3614 2023/4 Week 03, Page 11 of 16

## The derivative of powers of $z$

For the negative power of -1 we have

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} z}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)=-\frac{1}{z^{2}}
$$

Hence if $n>0$ is an integer then by the chain rule

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} z}\left(\frac{1}{z^{n}}\right)=-\left(\frac{1}{z^{n}}\right)^{2} n z^{n-1}=-\frac{n}{z^{n+1}}
$$

Thus as in the real case we have that for all non-zero integers

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} z} z^{n}=n z^{n-1}
$$

Also

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dz}} 1=0 .
$$

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## A comment about an anti-derivative

We just had that for all integers $n$

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} z} z^{n}=n z^{n-1} .
$$

Thus when $m \neq-1$ we have

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} z}\left(\frac{z^{m+1}}{m+1}\right)=z^{m}
$$

When integration is done this means that $z^{m}$ has an anti-derivative which is another monomial for all integers except $m=-1$.
Roughly speaking, many of the results of the module are concerned with the special case of $m=-1$.

## Functions which are not analytic anywhere

There are several ways to show that a function is not analytic which include showing that the limit in the complex derivative expression does not exist and/or showing that the Cauchy Riemann equations are not satisfied (see later). In term 2 we also briefly describe Morera's theorem as yet another way of characterising when a function is analytic or not analytic.
Examples of functions which are not analytic include the following.

- $f(z)=\bar{z}$.
- $f(z)=x$ or $f(z)=y$ or $f(z)=|z|$.
- If $g(z)$ is analytic and not constant then $f(z)=g(\bar{z})$ is not analytic.

Later in the chapter 3 material we show that "analytic functions cannot depend on the complex conjugate $\bar{z}$ " once we have defined more precisely what this means.

The Cauchy Riemann equations for $f(z)=u(x, y)+i v(x, y)$
When $f$ is analytic at $z_{0}$ the following limit exists.

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d} f}{\mathrm{~d} z}\left(z_{0}\right) \equiv f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right):=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(z_{0}+h\right)-f\left(z_{0}\right)}{h} .
$$

By considering the case when $h$ is real and then purely imaginary we get

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

Equating the real and imaginary parts gives the Cauchy Riemann equations.

$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}=\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}=-\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}
$$

Next week we show that the converse is true, i.e. when $u$ and $v$ have continuous first partial derivatives on a domain $D$ and the


## The representation of $f^{\prime}$ when $f=u+i v$

When $f$ is analytic we have

$$
f^{\prime}(z)=\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}=\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}-i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} .
$$

If $f(x)$ is real when $x$ is real then

$$
v(x, 0)=0, \quad \text { which implies that } \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x, 0)=0
$$

Hence in this case on the real axis we have

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x, 0) .
$$

That is the expressions that you have met for the derivative in the real case are correct in the complex case when the derivative exists in the complex sense.

