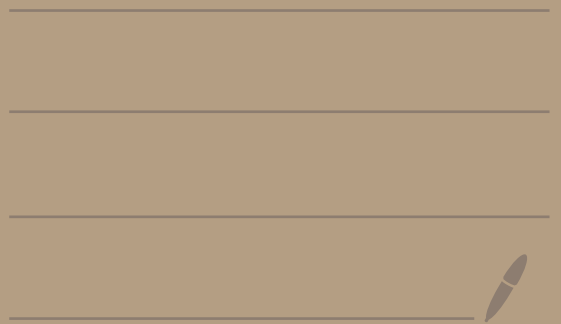


# Mathematical Methods of Modern

Physics SS 2024

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# §1 Complex Functions

## 1.1 Complex Numbers

Def.: The set  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers is (as a set) equivalent to  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Elements of  $\mathbb{C}$  can be represented as tuples  $(x, y)$  with  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ .

In  $\mathbb{C}$  we define addition and multiplication as follows:

$$(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) := (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2)$$

$$(x_1, y_1) \cdot (x_2, y_2) := (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2, x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1)$$

$(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$  is a field (homework problem)

Difference between  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$ : there is no order relation in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Consider now  $(x, 0)$

$$(x_1, 0) + (x_2, 0) = (x_1 + x_2, 0)$$

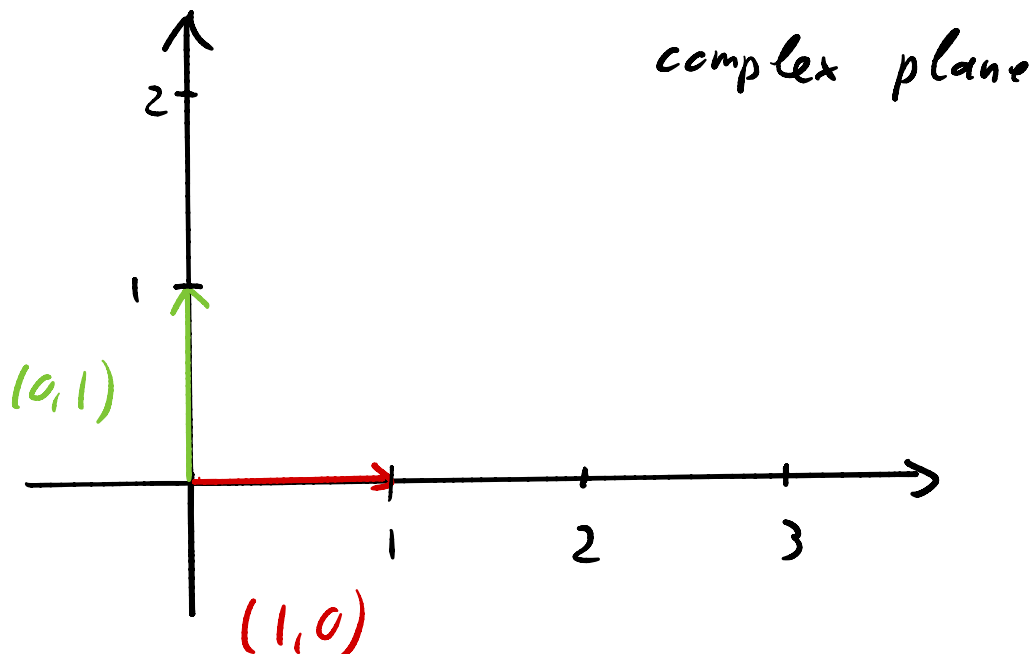
$$(x_1, 0) \cdot (x_2, 0) = (x_1 \cdot x_2, 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \{ (x, 0) : x \in \mathbb{R} \} = \mathbb{R}$$

Instead of  $(x, 0)$  we can simply write  $x$ .

$$\text{Similarly, } (a, 0) \cdot (x, y) = (ax, ay) = a(x, y)$$

corresponds to scalar multiplication in the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .



Every complex number can be represented as

$$(x, y) = x \cdot (1, 0) + y (0, 1)$$

$$(1, 0) \equiv 1 \quad (0, 1) \equiv i$$

$$(x, y) = x \cdot 1 + y \cdot i = x + iy$$

$i$  is called imaginary unit.

$$i^2 = (0,1) \cdot (0,1) = (-1,0) = -1$$

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) &= x_1x_2 + x_1iy_2 + iy_1x_2 + i^2y_1y_2 \\ &= x_1x_2 - y_1y_2 + i(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)\end{aligned}$$

This is the motivation for the definition of multiplication given above.

Def.: Let  $z = (x, y) = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then we call  $x = \operatorname{Re}(z)$  the real part of  $z$  and  $y = \operatorname{Im}(z)$  the imaginary part, and  $\bar{z} = x - iy$  the conjugate complex number.

Rules:  $\overline{\bar{z}} = z$

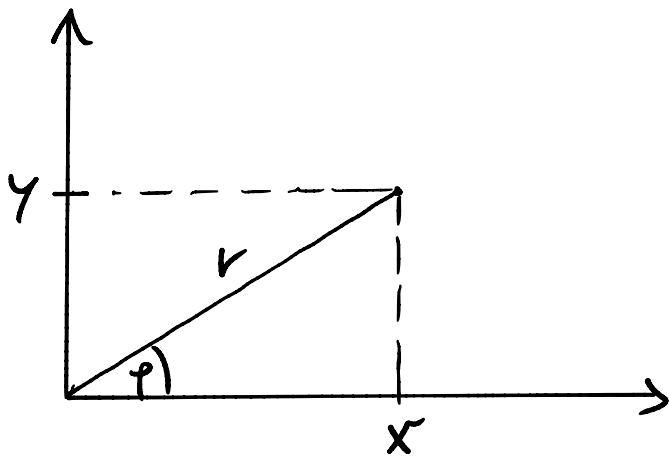
$$\operatorname{Re}(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z})$$

$$\operatorname{Im}(z) = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \bar{z})$$

$$z \cdot \bar{z} = (x + iy)(x - iy) = x^2 + y$$

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z\bar{z}} = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \bar{z}$$

# Polar coordinate representation of complex numbers



$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{z \bar{z}} =: |z|$$

$$\tan \varphi = \frac{y}{x} \Rightarrow \varphi = \arctan \frac{y}{x} =: \arg z$$

argument of  $z$

$$z = x + iy = r \cos \varphi + ir \sin \varphi = r (\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi)$$

$\varphi = \arg z$  is unique only modulo  $2\pi$

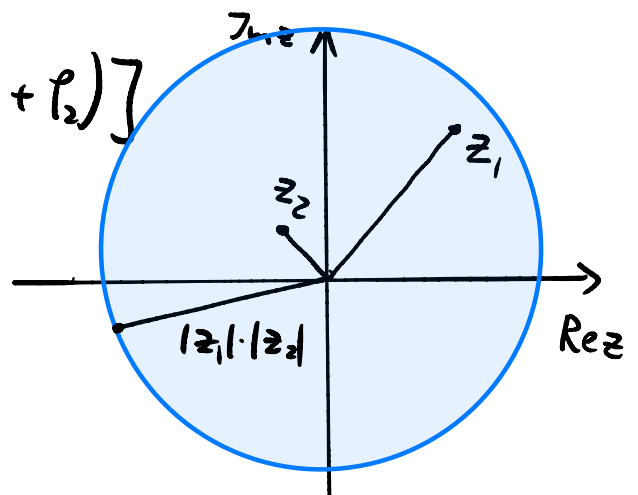
Example: polar coordinate representation of  $z_1, z_2$

$$z_1 = r_1 (\cos \varphi_1 + i \sin \varphi_1)$$

$$z_2 = r_2 (\cos \varphi_2 + i \sin \varphi_2)$$

$$z_1 \cdot z_2 = r_1 r_2 [\cos \varphi_1 \cos \varphi_2 - \sin \varphi_1 \sin \varphi_2 + i (\cos \varphi_1 \sin \varphi_2 + \cos \varphi_2 \sin \varphi_1)]$$

$$= r_1 r_2 [\cos(\varphi_1 + \varphi_2) + i \sin(\varphi_1 + \varphi_2)]$$



$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

$$z^2 = r^2(\cos 2\theta + i \sin 2\theta)$$

$$z^n = r^n(\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta) \quad (*)$$

$$\cos y = 1 - \frac{y^2}{2!} + \frac{y^4}{4!} - \dots + \dots = 1 + \frac{(iy)^2}{2!} + \frac{(iy)^4}{4!} + \dots$$

$$i \sin y = i \left( y - \frac{y^3}{3!} + \frac{y^5}{5!} - \dots + \dots \right) = iy + \frac{(iy)^3}{3!} + \frac{(iy)^5}{5!} + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos y + i \sin y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(iy)^n}{n!} = e^{iy}$$

Using this relation, we can write  $z = r e^{i\theta}$

$$\text{Proof of } (*) \quad z^n = (r e^{i\theta})^n = r^n e^{in\theta} = r^n(\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta)$$

$\cos \theta + i \sin \theta$  lies on the unit circle

Example: quotient of two complex numbers in polar coordinates

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1 e^{i\theta_1}}{r_2 e^{i\theta_2}} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} [\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2)]$$

Example:  $n$ -th root

$$\text{Let } z = r(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi) = r[\cos(\varphi + 2\pi k) + i \sin(\varphi + 2\pi k)]$$

with  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Find complex number  $w \equiv \sqrt[n]{z}$  with  $w^n = z$

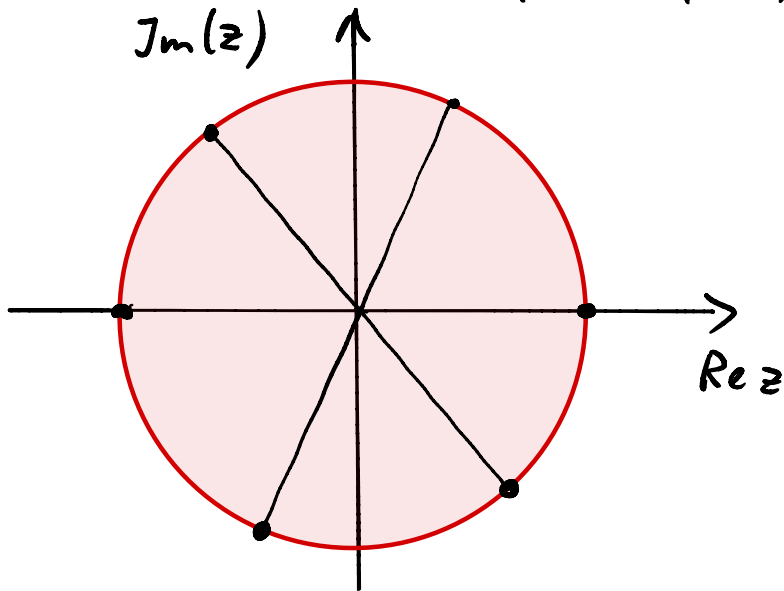
$$\sqrt[n]{z} = \left[ r e^{i(\varphi + 2\pi k)} \right]^{\frac{1}{n}} = \sqrt[n]{r} e^{i\left(\frac{\varphi}{n} + \frac{k}{n} 2\pi\right)}$$

There are exactly  $n$  different  $n$ -th roots of a complex number  $z = r e^{i\varphi}$  with  $z \neq 0$

$$w_k = \sqrt[n]{r} e^{i\left(\frac{\varphi}{n} + \frac{k}{n} 2\pi\right)}$$

with  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$

6-th root of 1:

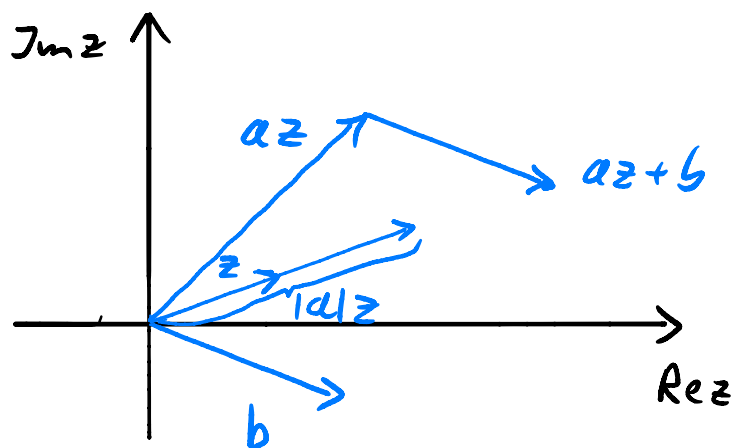


## 1.2 Complex Functions

Let  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$   $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a complex function

Example (1)  $A = \mathbb{C}$ ,  $f(z) = a \cdot z + b$ ;  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$   
 $a \neq 0$   
Linear map

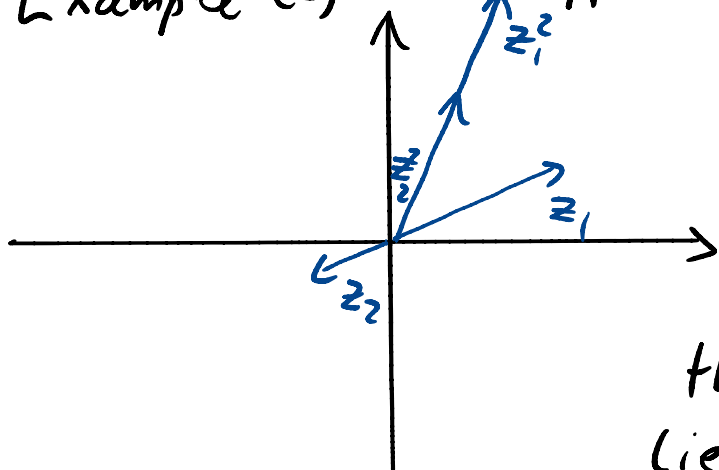
$f: z \xrightarrow{\text{stretching}} |a|z \xrightarrow{\text{rotation}} az \xrightarrow{\text{translation}} az+b$



Linear maps are bijective:

$$w = f(z) \quad z = \frac{1}{a}w - \frac{b}{a}$$

Example (2)  $A = \mathbb{C}$   $f(z) = z^2$



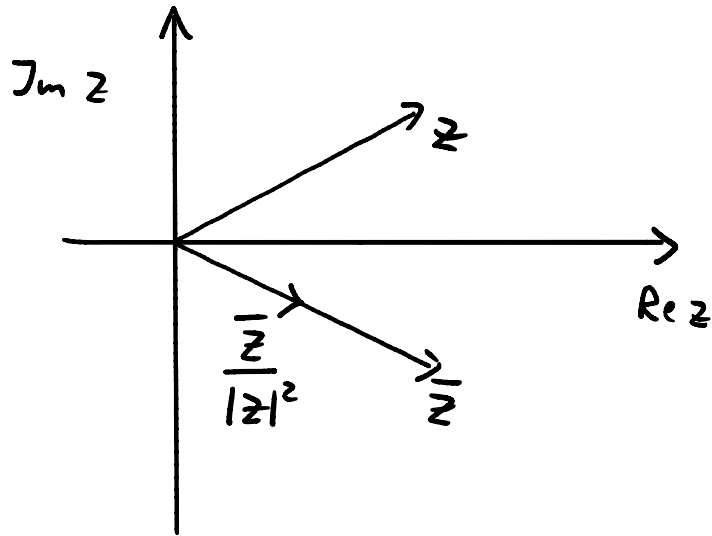
If  $z_1, z_2$  lie on a straight line through the origin,

then  $z_1^2$  and  $z_2^2$  lie on the same half line



Example (3)  $A = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$   $f(z) = \frac{1}{z} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z\bar{z}} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2}$

$$= \frac{1}{|z|} \left( \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|} \right)$$



(Claim:  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$  maps "circles" onto "circles"  
 ("circles" = circles + straight lines)

Proof: Consider  $M = \{ z = x+iy : \alpha(x^2+y^2) + \beta x + \gamma y + \delta = 0 \}$

For  $\alpha = 0$  : straight lines

$\alpha \neq 0$  : circles

$$x^2 + y^2 + \frac{\beta}{\alpha}x + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha}y + \frac{\delta}{\alpha} = 0$$

$$\left(x + \frac{\beta}{2\alpha}\right)^2 + \left(y + \frac{\gamma}{2\alpha}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \frac{\beta^2}{\alpha^2} - \frac{1}{4} \frac{\gamma^2}{\alpha^2} + \frac{\delta}{\alpha} = 0$$

Circle centered at  $\left(-\frac{\beta}{2\alpha}, -\frac{\gamma}{2\alpha}\right)$  and with

radius  $\sqrt{\frac{\beta^2}{4\alpha^2} + \frac{\gamma^2}{4\alpha^2} - \frac{\delta}{\alpha}}$

Now let  $0 \neq z \in M$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha + \beta \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} + \gamma \frac{y}{x^2+y^2} + \frac{\delta}{x^2+y^2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha + \beta \operatorname{Re} f(z) - \gamma \operatorname{Im} f(z) + \delta |f(z)|^2 = 0$$

For  $z \in M$  satisfies  $f(z) = u + iv$  the equation

$$\alpha + \beta u - \gamma v + \delta (u^2 + v^2) = 0 \quad \text{circle}$$

$f: \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  is bijective with the

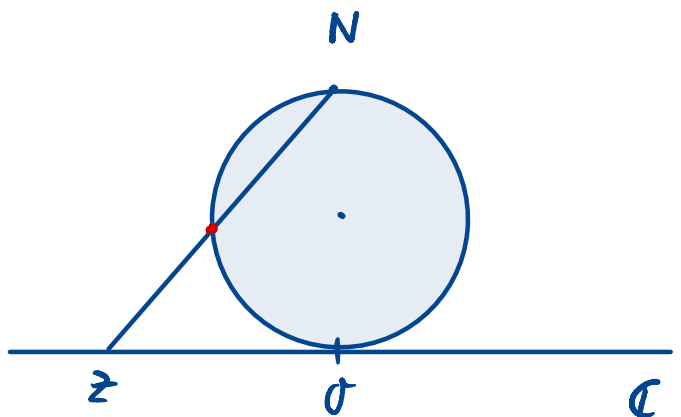
inverse map  $f^{-1}(w) = \frac{1}{w}$

Def.:  $\tilde{\mathbb{C}} := \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  is called extended complex plane.

Then  $\hat{f}: \tilde{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{C}}, \hat{f}(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{z}, & z \in \tilde{\mathbb{C}} \setminus \{\infty, 0\} \\ \infty & z = 0 \\ 0 & z = \infty \end{cases}$

Stereographic projection and Riemann sphere:

Drawing a straight line from the north pole to the number  $z$  uniquely determines a point on the sphere.



Example 4: Linear fractional transformation

$$f(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d} \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$$

$$A = \mathbb{C} \setminus \left\{ -\frac{d}{c} \right\}, \quad \text{assume } \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc \neq 0$$

$c = 0$  Linear map

$$c \neq 0 \quad \text{Claim: } f = f_1 \circ f_2 \circ f_3$$

where  $f_1$  and  $f_3$  are linear maps, and  $f_2 = \frac{1}{z}$

$$\text{Proof: } f(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d} = \frac{\frac{a}{c}(cz + d) - \frac{a}{c}d + b}{cz + d}$$

$$= \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{bc - ad}{cz + d}$$

$$f_3(z) = cz + d, \quad f_2(z) = \frac{1}{z}, \quad f_1(z) = \frac{bc - ad}{c}z + \frac{a}{c}$$

$$\text{With this } f(z) = f_1(f_2(f_3(z)))$$

Every function  $f(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}$  with  $\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \neq 0$

can be extended to a bijective map  $\hat{f}$  in  $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$ , which maps "circles" into "circles".

$$i) \quad c = 0 \quad \hat{f}(\infty) = \infty$$

$$ii) c \neq 0 \quad \tilde{f}(\infty) = \frac{a}{c}, \quad \tilde{f}\left(-\frac{a}{c}\right) = \infty$$

Example 5: complex exponential function

$$e^{iy} = \cos y + i \sin y$$

Def.:  $z = x + iy$ , then  $e^z := e^x (\cos y + i \sin y)$

$$\begin{aligned} e^z &:= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+iy)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k (iy)^{n-k} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{(n-k)! k! n!} x^k (iy)^{n-k} \\ &= \left( \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} \right) \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(iy)^n}{n!} \right) = e^x e^{iy} = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y) \end{aligned}$$

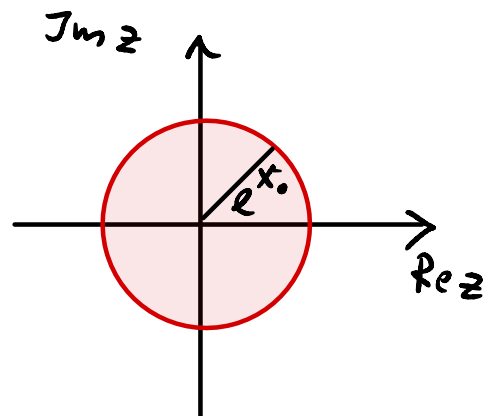
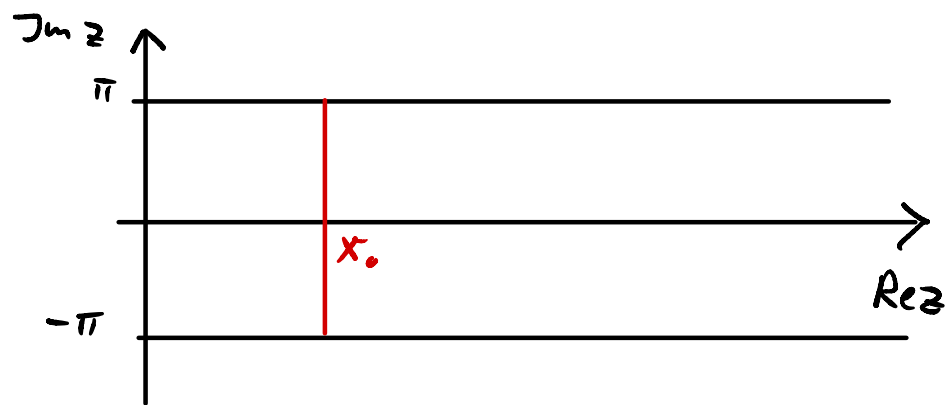
The exponential function is periodic with period  $2\pi i$

$$\exp(z) = \exp(z + 2\pi i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof: } \exp(z + 2\pi i) &= \exp(x + i(y + 2\pi)) \\ &= e^x [\cos(y + 2\pi) + i \sin(y + 2\pi)] \\ &= \exp(z) \end{aligned}$$

Consider  $S = \{z: x + iy \mid -\pi < y \leq \pi\}$

$$e^{x_c} (\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi) \quad -\pi < \varphi \leq \pi$$



The straight line  $x = x_0$  is mapped onto a circle with radius  $e^{x_0} \Rightarrow \exp: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  is bijective.

### 1.3 Convergence and Continuity

The norm  $|z| = \sqrt{z \bar{z}} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  is the Euclidean norm in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Def.: a sequence  $\{z_n\}$ ,  $z_n \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is called convergent to  $z_0$  ( $z_n \rightarrow z_0$ ), if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall n > N \quad |z_n - z_0| < \epsilon$$

$$\tilde{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\} \quad z_n \rightarrow \infty \stackrel{\text{Def}}{\Leftrightarrow} \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall n \geq N \quad |z_n| > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{z_n} \rightarrow 0$$

Def.:  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  is called limit value of a complex function  $f$  at  $z_0$ . ( $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = c$ )

if and only if every sequence  $\{z_n\}$  with  $z_n \rightarrow z_0$  satisfies  $f(z_n) \rightarrow c$ .

Def.: Let  $A \subseteq \tilde{\mathbb{C}}$ ,  $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

$f$  is called continuous at  $z_0 \in A \iff$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0) \iff$$

$$\{z_n\} \subset A, z_n \rightarrow z_0 \Rightarrow f(z_n) \rightarrow f(z_0)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \forall |z - z_0| < \delta \quad |f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon$$

Example (6) Polynomials  $f(z) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j z^j$  are continuous in  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $a_j \in \mathbb{C}$

Example (7) rational functions  $f(z) = \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$

$p, q$  polynomials,  $A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : q(z) \neq 0\}$

are continuous in  $A$ .

## Example (8) Logarithm

Def.: Let  $A = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$   $\ln z := \ln|z| + i \arg z$

1) For real  $z$  this definition agrees with the usual definition of the logarithm.

2)  $\ln z$  is the reverse function of  $e^z$

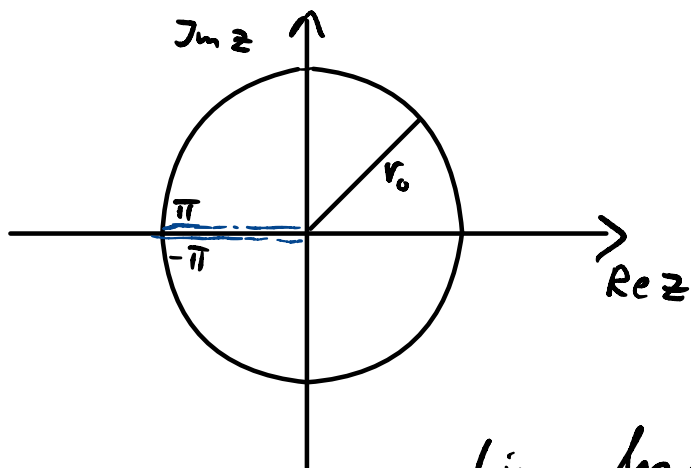
Proof: Let  $z = x + iy$

$$w = e^z = e^x e^{iy}$$

$$\ln w = \ln|w| + i \underbrace{\arg w}_y = \ln e^x + iy = x + iy$$

Problem:  $\arg z$  is not unique

→ restrict  $\arg z$  to  $(-\pi, \pi)$



$$z = r_0 e^{i\varphi}$$

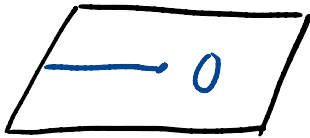
$$\lim_{\varphi \rightarrow \pi} \ln z = \lim_{\varphi \rightarrow \pi} (\ln r_0 + i\varphi) = \ln r_0 + i\pi$$

$$\lim_{\varphi \rightarrow -\pi} \ln z = \lim_{\varphi \rightarrow -\pi} (\ln r_0 + i\varphi) = \ln r_0 - i\pi$$

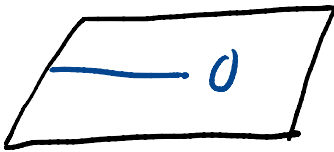
but  $\lim_{\varphi \rightarrow \pi} z = -r_0$        $\lim_{\varphi \rightarrow -\pi} z = -r_0$

## Riemann sheets

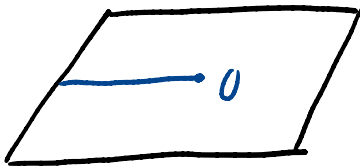
Expand the definition of  $\arg z$  such that the logarithm is continuous



$$\pi < \arg z \leq 3\pi$$



$$-\pi < \arg z \leq \pi$$



$$-3\pi < \arg z \leq -\pi$$

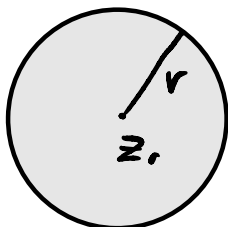
move from one sheet to the other when approaching the "cut"

Other example for discontinuity:  $f(z) = \sqrt[n]{r} e^{i\theta/n}$

## 1.4 Complex Differentiation

Def.:  $K(z_0, r) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < r\}$

is the "open ball" around  $z_0$  with radius  $r$ .



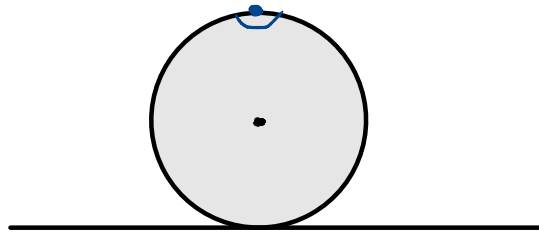
are of the circle without the boundary.



Def.: Let  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$ . A  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  is called inner point of  $A$  if there exists an  $\varepsilon$  such that  $K(z, \varepsilon) \subset A$ .

Def.:  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  is called open if all its points are inner points.  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$  is called closed if  $\mathbb{C} \setminus A$  is open.

Extension to  $\tilde{\mathbb{C}}$



$$K(\infty, \varepsilon) := \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right\} \cup \{\infty\}$$

Def.: Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $z_0 \in \Omega$  and  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

$f$  is called partially differentiable w.r.t.  $x$  or  $y$  in  $z_0$ , if the following limits exist:

$$f_x(z_0) = \lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ h \in \mathbb{R}}} \frac{1}{h} [f(x_0 + h + iy_0) - f(x_0 + iy_0)]$$

$$f_y(z_0) = \lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ h \in \mathbb{R}}} \frac{1}{h} [f(x_0 + i(h + y_0)) - f(x_0 + iy_0)]$$

$f$  is called continuously partially differentiable in  $\Omega$  if  $f_x(z)$  and  $f_y(z)$  exist for all  $z \in \Omega$  and are continuous.

Def.: Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z_0 \in \Omega$

$f$  is called complex differentiable at  $z_0$  if

the limit  $f'(z_0) = \lim_{\substack{z \rightarrow z_0 \\ z \neq z_0}} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$  exists.

Theorem:  $f$  is complex differentiable in  $z_0$ .

$\Rightarrow f$  is continuous at  $z_0$ .

Proof.:  $f$  complex differentiable  $\Rightarrow f'(z_0)$  exists.

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(z) := \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f'(z_0) \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow z_0} 0$$

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \varphi(z)(z - z_0)$$

$$\xrightarrow{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z_0)$$

Theorem: Let  $f$  be complex differentiable at  $z_0$ .

Then the partial derivatives of  $f$  exist in  $z_0$ , and the following holds

$$f'(z_0) = f_x(z_0) = \frac{1}{i} f_y(z_0)$$

Remark: When letting  $f = u + iv$  with  $u, v$  real-valued functions, then the

Cauchy-Riemann differential equations

$$u_x = v_y, \quad v_x = -u_y$$

are equivalent to  $f_x = \frac{1}{i} f_y$

Proof: Consider the special sequences

1)  $z := z_0 + h$  with  $h \in \mathbb{R}, h \rightarrow 0$

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ h \in \mathbb{R}}} \frac{1}{h} [f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)]$$

$$= \lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ h \in \mathbb{R}}} \frac{1}{h} [f(x_0 + h + iy_0) - f(x_0 + iy_0)]$$

$$= f_x(z_0)$$

$$2) \quad z := z_0 + ih \quad h \in \mathbb{R}, \quad h \rightarrow 0$$

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ h \in \mathbb{R}}} \frac{1}{ih} [f(z_0 + ih) - f(z_0)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{i} \lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ h \in \mathbb{R}}} \frac{1}{h} [f(x_0 + i(h+y_0)) - f(x_0 + iy_0)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{i} f_y(z_0)$$

Proof of the remark:  $f(z_0) = u(z_0) + i v(z_0)$

$$\Rightarrow f_x(z_0) = u_x(z_0) + i v_x(z_0)$$

$$f_y(z_0) = u_y(z_0) + i v_y(z_0)$$

$$\frac{1}{i} f_y(z_0) = v_y(z_0) - i u_y(z_0)$$

Hence,  $f_x = \frac{1}{i} f_y \Leftrightarrow u_x = v_y, \quad v_x = -u_y$

Theorem: Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

be continuously partially differentiable at  $z_0 \in \Omega$ , and let  $f_x(z_0) = \frac{1}{i} f_y(z_0)$ .

Then  $f$  is complex differentiable at  $z_0$ .

Remark: Since  $f'(z_0) = f'_x(z_0)$ ,  $f$  is even continuously differentiable at  $z_0$ .

Proof: Use a relation from real analysis:

Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be continuously partially differentiable at  $z_0 \in \Omega$ .

Then there exists a function  $\varphi: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  with  $\varphi(z_0) = 0$ , such that the following relation holds ( $(Df)(z_0)$  denotes the Jacobian matrix of partial derivatives)

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + (Df)(z_0) \cdot (z - z_0) + (z - z_0) \cdot \varphi(z)$$

Identify the complex function  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with

$$f: \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, \quad z = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \longmapsto \begin{pmatrix} u(z) \\ v(z) \end{pmatrix} = f(z)$$

There exists  $\varphi$  such that

$$f(z) - f(z_0) = (Df)(z_0) \cdot (z - z_0) + (z - z_0) \varphi(z) \quad (*)$$

$$(Df)(z_0) \cdot (z - z_0) = \begin{bmatrix} u_x(z_0) & u_y(z_0) \\ v_x(z_0) & v_y(z_0) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x - x_0 \\ y - y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} u_x(x - x_0) + u_y(y - y_0) \\ v_x(x - x_0) + v_y(y - y_0) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \stackrel{CR}{=} \begin{bmatrix} u_x(x-x_0) - v_x(y-y_0) \\ v_x(x-x_0) + u_x(y-y_0) \end{bmatrix} \\
& = u_x(z_0) \begin{bmatrix} x-x_0 \\ y-y_0 \end{bmatrix} + v_x(z_0) \begin{bmatrix} -(y-y_0) \\ x-x_0 \end{bmatrix} \\
& = [u_x(z_0) + i v_x(z_0)] (z - z_0)
\end{aligned}$$

Divide (\*) by  $(z - z_0)$

$$\frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} = u_x(z_0) + i v_x(z_0) + \underbrace{\frac{z - z_0}{z - z_0} f(z)}_{\xrightarrow{z \rightarrow z_0} 0}$$

$$f'(z_0) = u_x(z_0) + i v_x(z_0) = f_x(z_0)$$

$\Rightarrow f$  is complex differentiable at  $z_0$ .

Def.: Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open.  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called holomorphic if  $f$  is complex differentiable at all  $z \in \Omega$  and  $f'$  is continuous in  $\Omega$ .

$f$  is holomorphic at  $\infty$  if  $g(z) := f\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$  is holomorphic at  $0$ .

Remark: If  $f$  is holomorphic in a disc around  $z_0$ , then  $f$  is called holomorphic at  $z_0$ .

Example ①:  $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,  $f(z) = z$  (identity)

$$f_x(z) = 1, \quad f_y(z) = i \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$$

$f_x$  and  $f_y$  are continuous and we have  $f_x = \frac{1}{i} f_y$   
 $\Rightarrow f$  is holomorphic in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

②  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$  is holomorphic at  $\infty$ , since

$g(z) := f\left(\frac{1}{z}\right) = z$  is holomorphic at  $0$ .

③  $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$   $f(z) = \operatorname{Re}(z)$

$f$  is partially differentiable  $f_x(z) = 1$ ,  $f_y(z) = 0$

$\Rightarrow f_x \neq \frac{1}{i} f_y \Rightarrow f(z)$  is not complex differentiable

Theorem: Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $u: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  two times continuously partial differentiable.

Then the following holds:

$\Delta u := u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \exists$  a function  $f$  holomorphic in  $\Omega$  with  $\operatorname{Re}(f) = u$

Proof: " $\Leftarrow$ " Let  $f = u + iv$  be holomorphic

$$\Rightarrow u_x = v_y, \quad u_y = -v_x$$

$$\Rightarrow u_{xx} = v_{yx}, \quad u_{yy} = -v_{xy}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} u_{xx} \text{ continuous} \Rightarrow v_{yx} \text{ continuous} \\ u_{yy} \text{ continuous} \Rightarrow v_{xy} \text{ continuous} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{yx} = v_{xy}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta u = u_{xx} + u_{yy} = v_{yx} - v_{yx} = 0$$

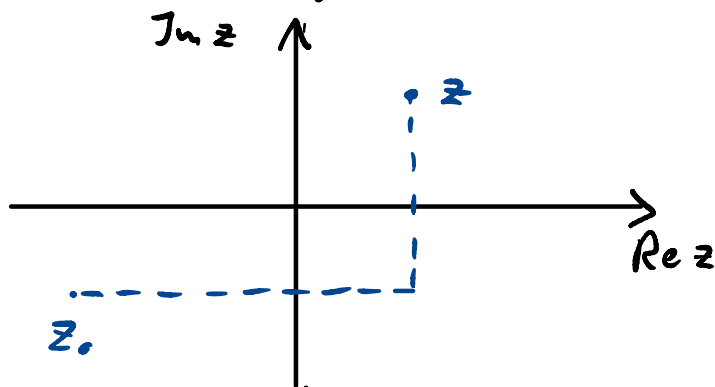
" $\Rightarrow$ " Let  $u: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given, with  $\Delta u = 0$

We need to find  $v: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that

$$f = u + iv \text{ is holomorphic, i.e. } \begin{array}{l} v_x = -u_y \\ v_y = u_x \end{array}$$

(Choose a  $z_0 \in \Omega$  and let  $v(z_0) = 0$ )

Determine  $v(z)$  via integration over the following path



$$\begin{aligned} v(z) &:= \int_{x_0}^x v_x(t, y_0) dt + \int_{y_0}^y v_y(x, s) ds \\ &= - \int_{x_0}^x u_y(t, y_0) dt + \int_{y_0}^y u_x(x, s) ds \end{aligned}$$



Check that the Cauchy-Riemann differential eqs. are satisfied:

$$\begin{aligned}
 v_x(x,y) &= -u_y(x,y) + \int_{\gamma_0}^{\gamma} u_{xx}(x,s) ds \\
 &= -u_y(x,y) - \int_{\gamma_0}^{\gamma} u_{yy}(x,s) ds \\
 &= -u_y(x,y) - u_y(x,y) + u_y(x,\gamma) = -u_y(x,y)
 \end{aligned}$$

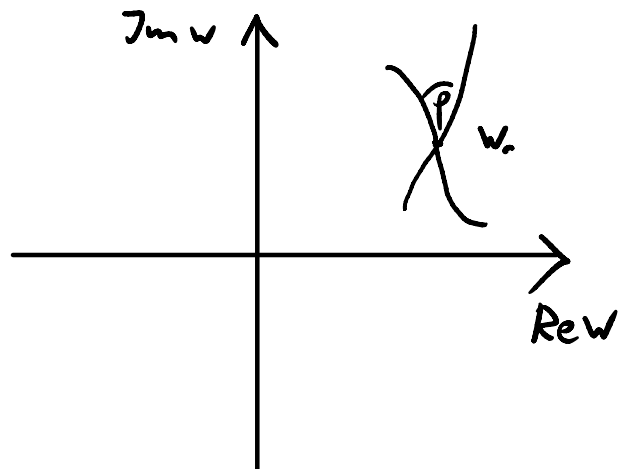
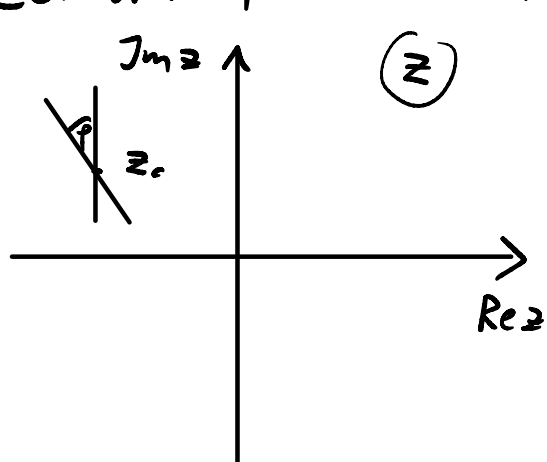
## Geometrical interpretation of complex differentiability

Let  $f$  be holomorphic at  $z_0$ .

$$\rho(z) := \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f'(z_0) \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow z_0} 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \rho(z)(z - z_0)$$

Let now  $f'(z_0) \neq 0$ ,  $w = f(z)$ ,  $w_0 = f(z_0)$



Straight line through  $z_0$ .

$$z(t) = z_0 + t e^{i\alpha} \quad t \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$f'(z_0) = a = |a| e^{i \arg a}$$

$$w(t) = f(z(t)) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)te^{i\alpha} + \underbrace{\mathcal{O}(z_0 + te^{i\alpha})}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ for } t \rightarrow 0} te^{i\alpha}$$

$$\approx w_0 + a te^{i\alpha} = w_0 + |a|t e^{i(\alpha + \arg a)}$$

Consider two curves, which intersect each other at a point  $z_0$ . These curves are mapped into two curves in the  $w$ -plane, which intersect each other at  $w_0$  with the same angle as the original curves in the  $z$ -plane.

### Rules for differentiation:

1.  $f, g$  are holomorphic at  $z_0$ , and  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$

$\Rightarrow af + bg, f \cdot g, \frac{f}{g} (g(z_0) \neq 0)$  are holomorphic as well and one has

$$(af + bg)' = af' + bg'$$

$$(f \cdot g)' = f'g + fg'$$

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'g - g'f}{g^2}$$

2. Chain rule

$f$  holomorphic at  $z_0$ ,  $F$  holomorphic at  $f(z_0)$

$\Rightarrow g = F \circ f$  holomorphic at  $z_0$ , and one has

$$g'(z_0) = F'(f(z_0)) \cdot f'(z_0)$$

Examples: ①  $f(z) = z^n$  proof by induction

$f$  holomorphic for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $f'(z) = n z^{n-1}$

② Polynomials:  $f(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_n z^n$

holomorphic in  $\mathbb{C}$  and

$$f'(z) = a_1 + 2a_2 z + \dots + n a_n z^{n-1}$$

③ rational functions  $f(z) = \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$  are holomorphic

in  $A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : q(z) \neq 0\}$