

# Math H185 Lecture Notes

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## 1 Preliminaries

Here is an important property of complex numbers:

$$|\operatorname{Re}(z)| \leq |z|, |\operatorname{Im}(z)| \leq |z|, |z| \leq |\operatorname{Re}(z)| + |\operatorname{Im}(z)|$$

**Lemma 1.1.** *Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and  $L \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  if and only if*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Re}(a_n) = \operatorname{Re}(L), \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Im}(a_n) = \operatorname{Im}(L)$$

**Lemma 1.2.** *Let  $F \subset \mathbb{C}$  be a set. Then the following are equivalent*

- (i)  *$F$  is closed*
- (ii) *for every sequence  $(z_n) \in F$ , and  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z$ , it follows that  $z \in F$*

Proof: This is the definition of a closed set.

Definition: A **Cauchy sequence**  $z_n$  is a sequence in which for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for every pair  $m, n \geq N$ , we have that  $d(z_n, z_m) < \epsilon$ .

Definition: A set  $S$  is **complete** if every Cauchy sequence in  $S$  converges to some value in  $S$ .

**Theorem 1.3.**  *$\mathbb{C}$  is complete.*

Proof: We will use the property that  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete. Suppose we have a Cauchy sequence  $(z_n)$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Thus given  $\epsilon > 0$  we have  $N$  as defined above. Thus,  $\forall m, n \geq N$ ,  $|z_m - z_n| < \epsilon$ . Then we have that

$$|\operatorname{Re}(z_m - z_n)| \leq |z_m - z_n| < \epsilon, \quad |\operatorname{Im}(z_m - z_n)| \leq |z_m - z_n| < \epsilon$$

Note that  $\operatorname{Re}(z_m - z_n) = \operatorname{Re}(z_m) - \operatorname{Re}(z_n)$  and the same for the imaginary component. Thus the real components and imaginary components of  $z_n$  are Cauchy and thus convergent, so  $(z_n)$  is convergent.

**Definition 1.4.** A set  $K \in \mathbb{C}$  is called **sequentially compact** if every sequence in  $K$  has a convergent subsequence which converges to a point in  $K$ .

**Proposition 1.5.** *If  $K \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $K$  is sequentially compact if and only if  $K$  is closed and bounded.*

Proof: This proof is made trivial if you use the fact that sequential compactness is equivalent to covering compactness. Suppose  $K$  is sequentially compact. Then let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $K$  that converges to some  $L$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ . By compactness, there exists a subsequence of  $(x_{n_k})$  that is convergent to some value in  $K$ . Since in a convergent sequence every subsequence converges to the same value,  $L \in K$  and so  $K$  is closed.

To verify boundedness, suppose  $K$  is not bounded. This implies that  $\forall x \in K$ , and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists  $y \in K$  such that  $|x - y| > r$  (otherwise  $K$  would be bounded). Let  $r \in \mathbb{R}^+$  and construct the sequence inductively as follows. Let  $x_1 \in K$ . Assuming  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is defined, pick  $x_{n+1}$  such that  $d(x_{n+1}, x_i) > r$ . This must exist, otherwise  $K \subset \cup_{i=1}^n B_r(x_i)$  where  $B_r(x_i)$  is the ball centered around  $x_i$  with radius  $r$  implying that  $K$  is bounded. Then in our sequence  $(x_n)$  we have that distance between every pair of points is at least  $r$ , which is a property that carries over to every subsequence. Therefore every subsequence does not converge and so  $K$  is not sequentially compact, proving the contrapositive.

The other way is a bit more complicated and I don't really want to type it up, so it is left as an exercise to the reader.

**Proposition 1.6.** *Let  $K_i$  be a sequence of nonempty sequentially compact subsets of  $\mathbb{C}$ , and suppose we have that  $K_{i+1} \subset K_i$  for every  $i$ . Then  $\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  is nonempty.*

Proof: For each  $K_i$ , pick element  $x_i \in K_i$ . We have that the sequence  $(x_n) \in K_1$ , so it contains a convergent subsequence,  $(x_{n_k})$  in  $K_1$ . Let  $x$  be the value of which it converges to.  $x$  is clearly in  $K_i$  for every  $i$ , and thus  $x \in \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$ .

**Proposition 1.7.** *Let  $D \in \mathbb{C}$ , and  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  a function with  $z_0 \in D$ . Then the following are equivalent:*

- (i) For every sequence  $(d_n) \in D$  with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_n = z_0$ , it follows that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(d_n) = f(z_0)$
- (ii)  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$  such that  $\forall d \in D$  with  $|d - z_0| < \delta$  it follows that  $|f(d) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon$
- (iii) For every open set  $V \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $f(z_0) \in V$ , there exists open  $U \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $z_0 \in U$  and  $U \cap D \subset f^{-1}(V)$

Proof: Suppose that (ii) is false, that  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall \delta, \exists d \in D$  with  $|d - z_0| > \delta$  such that  $|f(d) - f(z_0)| > \epsilon$ . Then construct sequence  $(d_n)$  such that  $|d_n - z_0| > \frac{1}{n}$  and  $|f(d_n) - f(z_0)| > \epsilon$ . We have that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_n = z_0$ , but since for all  $n$ ,  $|f(d_n) - f(z_0)| > \epsilon$ ,  $f(d_n)$  does not converge to  $z_0$ . Thus (i) implies (ii) by contraposition, as desired.

Now suppose that (ii) is true. By definition of open,  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $|f(z_0) - v| < \epsilon$  implies that  $v \in V$ . By (ii),  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $d \in B_\delta(z_0) \cap D$  (which implies that  $d \in D$  and  $|d - z_0| < \delta$ ) implies  $|f(d) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon$ , and so  $d \in f^{-1}(V)$  and we conclude  $B_\delta(z_0) \cap D \subset f^{-1}(V)$

Finally, suppose (iii) is true. Consider a sequence  $(d_n) \rightarrow z_0$ . Take  $\epsilon > 0$  and consider  $B_\epsilon(f(z_0))$ . It is open so there exists open  $D$  with  $z_0 \in D$  and  $U \cap D \subset f^{-1}(B_\epsilon(f(z_0)))$ . Thus there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_\delta(z_0) \in D$ , and by definition of convergence  $\exists N$  such that  $\forall n \geq N$  we have  $|d_n - z_0| < \delta$ . Then we have that since  $d_n \in U \cap D$ , we have that  $f(d_n) \in B_\epsilon(f(z_0))$  so  $|f(d_n) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ , and so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(d_n) = f(z_0)$$

**Definition 1.8.** A function  $f$  is **continuous** if it satisfies one of the three conditions stipulated above.

**Remark 1.** If  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $E \subset D$ , define  $g = f|_E$  (ie  $f$  restricted to  $E$ ), then  $f$  being continuous implies that  $g$  is continuous.

**Lemma 1.9.** Let  $K \in \mathbb{C}$  be sequentially compact and  $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous, then  $f(K)$  is sequentially compact.

Proof: Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence in  $f(K)$ . Define  $d_n = f^{-1}(a_n)$  and if there are multiple, arbitrarily pick one. We have by sequential compactness of  $K$ , some subsequence  $d_{n_k}$  converges to a  $d \in K$ . Thus by continuity,  $f(d_{n_k}) \rightarrow f(d)$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , and thus  $(a_{n_k})$  converges.

## 1.1 Differentiability

**Definition 1.10.** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ , and  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $z_0$  is called a **cluster point** in  $D$  if there exists a sequence  $(d_n) \in D - \{z_0\}$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_n = z_0$ .

**Definition 1.11.** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ ,  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , and  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , and  $z_0$  is a cluster point of  $D$ . Let  $L \in \mathbb{C}$ , then we say  $f$  has a limit  $L$  at  $z_0$  if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $\forall d \in D$  such that  $0 < |d - z_0| < \delta$ , it follows that  $|f(d) - L| < \epsilon$ .

**Lemma 1.12.**  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z_0$  is a cluster of  $D$ ,  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $L \in \mathbb{C}$ . Define  $g : D \cup \{z_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} f(z) & \text{if } z \in D - \{z_0\} \\ L & \text{if } z = z_0 \end{cases}$$

Then  $f$  has a limit  $L$  at  $z_0$  if and only if  $g$  is continuous at  $z_0$ .

Proof: This holds from the definition of continuity and Definition 1.11.

**Definition 1.13.** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ ,  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z_0$  a cluster of  $D$ . Then  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$  if  $\exists L \in \mathbb{C}$  such that

$$z \mapsto \begin{cases} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} & \text{if } z \neq z_0 \\ L & \text{if } z = z_0 \end{cases}$$

is continuous at  $z_0$ . We then write  $f'(z_0) = L$ .

**Remark 2.**  $f$  is differentiable at  $z$  if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$$

exists.

**Proposition 1.14.** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ ,  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z$  a cluster of  $D$ ,  $L \in \mathbb{C}$ , then the following are equivalent:

(i)  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$  with  $f'(z_0) = L$

(ii) There exists function  $\varphi : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous at  $z_0$  such that  $\varphi(z_0) = L$  and

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + (z - z_0)\varphi(z) \quad \forall z \in D$$

Proof: We will show that (i) implies (ii), and the remaining are trivial.

Define

$$\varphi(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(z)-f(z_0)}{z-z_0} & \text{if } z \neq z_0 \\ L & \text{if } z = z_0 \end{cases}$$

Then we have that

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

and that  $\varphi(z)$  is continuous at  $z_0$ .

**Proposition 1.15.** *Differentiability implies continuity.*

Proof: Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta \implies \left| \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} \right| < \epsilon$$

Thus

$$|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon |z - z_0| < \epsilon \delta < \epsilon$$

for sufficiently small  $\delta$ .

**Proposition 1.16.** *Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z_0$  cluster of  $D$ ,  $f, g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be differentiable at  $z_0$ . Then  $f + g$ ,  $\lambda f$ , and  $fg$  are differentiable. If  $f(z_0) \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{1}{f}$  is differentiable.*

Proof: Follows from the definition of differentiability. Only the proof for  $fg$  is a little more involved.

**Theorem 1.17.** *Let  $D_1, D_2 \subset \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z_i$  a cluster for  $D_i$ ,  $f : D_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  differentiable at  $z_1$ , and  $g : D_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  differentiable at  $z_2$  with  $f(z_1) = z_2$ . Suppose  $f(D_1) \subset D_2$ . Then  $g \circ f$  is differentiable at  $z_1$  and*

$$(g \circ f)'(z_1) = g'(f(z_1))f'(z_1)$$

Proof: Proposition 1.14 gives functions  $\varphi_1, \varphi_2$  continuous at  $z_1, z_2$  respectively, such that

$$\varphi_1(z_1) = f'(z_1), \quad \varphi_2(z_2) = g'(z_2)$$

and we have that

$$(g \circ f)(z) = g(z_2) + (f(z) - z_2)\varphi_2(f(z))$$

$$= (g \circ f)(z_1) + (z - z_1)\varphi_1(z)\varphi_2(f(z)) = (g \circ f)(z_1) + (z - z_1)\varphi(z)$$

with  $\varphi : D_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous at  $z_1$  and defined as  $\varphi(z) = \varphi_1(z)\varphi_2(f(z))$  proving the desired.

**Definition 1.18.** A **holomorphic** function is a differentiable function  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  where  $U$  is an open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Define  $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as  $(x, y) \mapsto x + iy$  and  $\Psi : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  as the inverse. Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ , and define  $\tilde{U} = \Psi(U)$ . If  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , we can define  $\tilde{f} = \Psi \circ f \circ \Phi$ . Note  $\tilde{f} : \tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ .

Let  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ . By definition,  $\tilde{f}$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if and only if there exists  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $M$  and a function  $r : \tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  such that for every  $(x, y) \in \tilde{U}$  we have

$$\tilde{f}(x, y) = \tilde{f}(x_0, y_0) + M \begin{bmatrix} x - x_0 & y - y_0 \end{bmatrix}^\top + r(x, y)$$

where

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} \frac{r(x, y)}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}} = 0$$

We say that  $M$  is the derivative of  $\tilde{f}$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $L = a + ib$ , then we have that

$$\Psi((z - z_0)L) = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x - x_0 \\ y - y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Suppose  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$ , and  $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$ . Then we have that  $\tilde{f} = \Psi \circ f \circ \Phi$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  with derivative  $M$  and

$$r(x, y) = \Psi((x + iy) - z_0) * \psi(x + iy)$$

where the  $\psi$  comes from Proposition 1.14(III).

Suppose  $\tilde{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  with derivative  $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let

$$\psi(x + iy) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Phi(r(x, y))}{x + iy - z} & x + iy \neq z_0 \\ 0 & x + iy = z_0 \end{cases}$$

This satisfies Proposition 1.14(III) with  $L = a + bi$ , so  $f$  is complex differentiable.

Take  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous. Define  $u, v : \tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  via

$$\tilde{f}(x, y) = (u(x, y), v(x, y))$$

**Proposition 1.19.** *The following are equivalent*

- (i)  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$
- (ii) the functions  $u, v$  are differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  and

$$(D_1 u)(x_0, y_0) = (D_2 v)(x_0, y_0)$$

$$(D_2 u)(x_0, y_0) = -(D_1 v)(x_0, y_0)$$

where  $D_1 u = \delta_x u$ ,  $D_2 u = \delta_y u$ .

**Definition 1.20.** The equations are called the **Cauchy-Riemann equations**.

## 1.2 Series in $\mathbb{C}$

Let  $a_0, a_1, \dots \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Define  $s_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \in \mathbb{C}$ . We call  $s_n$  the  $n^{th}$  partial sum. We say that  $\sum a_k$  is convergent if and only if  $(s_n)$  converges, and we write

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$$

**Remark 3.**  $\sum a_n$  converges if and only if  $\sum \operatorname{Re}(a_n)$  and  $\sum \operatorname{Im}(a_n)$  converges.

We say that the series  $\sum a_k$  is absolutely convergent if  $\sum |a_n|$  is convergent in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 1.21.** *Every absolutely convergent sequence is convergent in  $\mathbb{C}$ .*

Proof:

$$\sum_{n=0}^k a_n \leq \left| \sum_{n=0}^k a_n \right| \leq \sum_{n=0}^k |a_n|$$

and then by the sequence comparison test we have  $\sum a_n$  converges (I think).

**Definition 1.22.** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$  and  $f, f_0, f_1, \dots : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a sequence of functions. We say  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$  uniformly if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall x \in D$ ,  $\forall n \geq N$  we have  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$

**Remark 4.** Consider  $\sum f_k$  where  $f_k : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Define  $S_k = \sum_{i=0}^k f_i$ . The series  $\sum f_k$  is uniformly convergent on  $D$  if the sequence of partial sums  $S_k$  is uniformly convergent.

The following result is called the Weierstrass M-test.

**Proposition 1.23.** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$  and  $f_0, f_1, \dots : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a sequence of functions. Let  $a_0, a_1, \dots \in \mathbb{R}^+$ . Suppose  $|f_k(z)| \leq a_k$  for all  $z \in D$  and all  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Moreover suppose that the series  $\sum a_n$  is convergent. Then the series  $\sum f_n$  is uniformly convergent on  $D$ .

Proof:  $\forall z \in D$ , the series  $\sum_n f_n(z)$  is absolutely convergent clearly (and so therefore convergent). Define  $S : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by  $S(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z)$ . Let  $z \in D$  and if  $N \geq n$ , then

$$\left| \sum_{k=0}^N f_k(z) - \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(z) \right| = \left| \sum_{k=n+1}^N f_k(z) \right| \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^N |f_k(z)| \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^N a_k \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} a_k$$

Now take the limit as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , we get that

$$\left| S(z) - \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(z) \right| \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} a_k$$

Thus since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} a_k = 0$ , we have the desired result.

### 1.3 Integration

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a < b$  and  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . This is called Riemann integrable over  $[a, b]$  if both  $\operatorname{Re} f$  and  $\operatorname{Im} f$  are Riemann integrable on  $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt = \int_a^b \operatorname{Re} f(t) dt + i \int_a^b \operatorname{Im} f(t) dt$$

**Lemma 1.24.** The integral is linear.

**Lemma 1.25.** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , with  $a < b$ , and  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous. Then  $|f|$  is Riemann integrable over  $[a, b]$  and

$$\left| \int_a^b f(t) dt \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(t)| dt$$



Proof: Since  $|f|$  is continuous, it is Riemann integrable. Let  $r \in [0, \infty)$  and  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\int_a^b f(t)dt = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ , and define  $\zeta = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(t)dt \right| &= \zeta \int_a^b f(t)dt = \operatorname{Re}(\zeta \int_a^b f(t)dt) = \int_b^a \operatorname{Re}(\zeta f(t))dt \\ &\leq \int_a^b |\operatorname{Re}(\zeta f(t))| dt \leq \int_a^b |\zeta f(t)| dt = \int_a^b |f(t)| dt \end{aligned}$$

## 2 Analytic Functions

### 2.1 Power Series

Let  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then a power series about  $a$  is a series of the form

$$\sum \alpha_n (z - a)^n$$

where  $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . For each  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , the series might or might not converge.

If  $U \in \mathbb{C}$  is open,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is infinitely differentiable (smooth) then

$$\sum \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (z - a)^n$$

is called the power series of  $f$  about  $a \in U$ .

Define  $R \in [0, \infty]$  the supremum of all  $r \in [0, \infty)$  such that the series

$$\sum |\alpha_n| r^n$$

is convergent. Call  $R$  the radius of convergence of the power series.

**Lemma 2.1.** *Let  $R$  be the radius of convergence of  $\sum \alpha_k (z - a)^k$ . Then the following are equivalent*

- (I) *If  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|z - a| < R$  then the series converges*
- (II) *If  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $z \notin \overline{B_R(a)}$ , then the series diverges*
- (III) *If  $0 < r < R$  then  $\sum \alpha_n (z - a)^n$  and  $\sum |\alpha_n (z - a)^n|$  are convergent uniformly*

Proof: WLOG assume  $a = 0$ . We will prove (II) and (III), and (I) will follow from (III).

We will prove (II) via contraposition. Let  $z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$  and suppose that  $\sum \alpha_n z^n$  is convergent. Thus  $\{\alpha_n z^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is bounded. Let  $M > 0$  be such that  $|\alpha_n z^n| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Let  $r \in (0, |z|)$ , then

$$|\alpha_n| r^n \leq M \left( \frac{r}{|z|} \right)^n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

Since  $\frac{r}{|z|} < 1$ , the series  $\sum |\alpha_n| r^n$  converges, by definition of radius of convergence,  $r < R$ , so  $|z| \leq R$ .

To prove (III), let  $r \in (0, R)$ , so  $\sum |\alpha_n| r^n$  is convergent. If  $z \in \overline{B_r(a)}$  then  $|\alpha_n z^n| \leq |\alpha_n| r^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus by Weierstrass, we get that  $\sum \alpha_n z^n$  and  $\sum |\alpha_n z^n|$  are uniformly convergent for all  $z \in \overline{B_r(0)}$ .

**Example 2.2.** The radius of convergence of  $\sum z^n$  is 1, so it is uniformly convergent on  $\overline{B_r(0)}$ ,  $\forall r \in (0, 1)$

**Definition 2.3.** Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open and  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $a \in U$ . Then  $f$  is analytic at  $a$  if  $\exists R > 0$  and a power series  $\sum \alpha_n (z - a)^n$  about  $a$  such that  $B_R(a) \subset U$ , the power series has positive radius of convergence at least  $R$ , and

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n (z - a)^n, \quad \forall z \in B_R(a)$$

We say that  $f$  is analytic if it is analytic  $\forall a \in D$ .

Note that every polynomial is analytic.

**Lemma 2.4.** The power series  $\sum \alpha_n (z - a)^n$  and  $\sum n \alpha_n (z - a)^{n-1}$  have the same radius of convergence.

Proof: WLOG assume  $a = 0$ . Let  $R, \hat{R}$  be the respective radii of convergence. Let  $r \in [0, R)$ . Then there exists  $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $r < \rho < R$  such that  $\sum |\alpha_n| \rho^n$  is convergent and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \left( \frac{r}{\rho} \right)^n = 0$ . Then  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $n \left( \frac{r}{\rho} \right)^n \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Then

$$n |\alpha_n| r^n = n \left( \frac{r}{\rho} \right)^n |\alpha_n| \rho^n \leq M |\alpha_n| \rho^n, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Thus since  $\sum |\alpha_n| \rho^n$  converges, so too does  $\sum n |\alpha_n| r^n$  (and thus  $\sum n |\alpha_n| r^{n-1}$ ). Thus  $\hat{R} \geq r$  and so  $\hat{R} \geq R$ . The other direction is similar.

**Theorem 2.5.** Let  $R \in (0, \infty)$  and suppose the radius of convergence of the power series  $\sum \alpha_n(z-a)^n$  is also at least  $R$ . Define  $f : B_R(a) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n(z-a)^n$ . Then  $f$  is holomorphic (differentiable). Moreover,  $f'(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n\alpha_n(z-a)^n$ ,  $\forall z \in B_R(a)$ . Hence  $f$  is infinitely differentiable and  $\alpha_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

Proof: WLOG let  $a = 0$ . Fix  $z_0 \in B_R(0)$ , and let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Fix an  $r \in (|z_0|, R)$ . By lemma 2.4,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} n|\alpha_n|r^{n-1} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{4}$$

Then  $\forall z \in B_r(0) - \{z_0\}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n\alpha_n z_0^{n-1} \right| &= \left| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n \left( \frac{z^n - z_0^n}{z - z_0} - n z_0^{n-1} \right) \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n \left( \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} z^k z_0^{n-1-k} - n z_0^{n-1} \right) \right| \\ &\leq \left| \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (z^k z_0^{n-1-k} - z_0^{n-1}) \right| + \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} 2n|\alpha_n|r^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

The right sum is bounded by  $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Note that  $z \mapsto z^k z_0^{n-1-k} - z_0^{n-1}$  is continuous at  $z_0$ , with value 0 for all  $n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$  and for all  $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ , so we can bound it and get from the above expression

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \left( \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n\alpha_n z_0^{n-1} \right) = 0$$

Thus  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$  with  $f'(z_0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n\alpha_n z_0^{n-1}$ . The proof that  $\alpha_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$  follows from repeated differentiation.

**Corollary 2.6.** Every analytic function is differentiable.

**Corollary 2.7.** Let  $\sum \alpha_n(z-a)^n$  and  $\sum \beta_n(z-a)^n$  be two power series with radii of convergence  $R_1, R_2$  respectively. Let  $\epsilon \leq \min(R_1, R_2)$ . Suppose that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n(z-a)^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \beta_n(z-a)^n$  for all  $z \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$ . Then  $\alpha_n = \beta_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof: Consider  $\sum(\alpha_n - \beta_n)(z - a)^n$ . It is identically 0, so the  $n^{th}$  order derivatives are 0, so  $\alpha_n = \beta_n$ .

Define

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

$$\cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

These have infinite radius of convergence, and so we take these as a definition for functions  $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Note that we can show

$$e^{iz} = \sum i^n \frac{z^n}{n!} = \dots = \cos z + i \sin z$$

We also have the formulas

$$\cos(z) = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \quad \sin(z) = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2}$$

Let  $w, z \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(t) = e^{-tz} e^{w+tz}$ . We can verify by the product rule that  $f' = 0$ , and in particular  $f(1) = f(0)$ . Thus  $e^{-z} e^{w+z} = e^w$ . Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ , and choose  $z = -a$ ,  $w = a + b$ . Then  $e^a e^b = e^{a+b}$ .

Let  $x, y, u, v \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose  $e^{x+iy} = e^{u+iv}$ . Thus  $e^x = e^u$ , so  $x = u$ . This implies  $e^{iy} = e^{iv}$ , so  $y - v \in 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$ . Thus if  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $e^z = e^w$  if and only if  $z - w \in 2\pi i\mathbb{Z}$ .

## 2.2 Curves

**Definition 2.8.** A curve is a continuous map  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  where  $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\gamma(a)$  be the initial point and  $\gamma(b)$  be the final point. Let  $\gamma^*$  denote the image of  $\gamma$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

If  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$ , we say  $\gamma$  is in  $A$  if  $\gamma^* \subset A$ . Lets say  $\gamma$  is closed if  $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$ .

$\gamma$  is called smooth if it is  $\mathbb{C}^1$  continuously differentiable. There is also a notion of being piecewise smooth (it is smooth every except at a finite number of points).

If  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $\mu : [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with  $\gamma(b) = \mu(c)$  then we define the combined curve  $\gamma \oplus \mu : [a, b + d - c] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as

$$(\gamma \oplus \mu)(t) = \begin{cases} \gamma(t) & t \in [a, b] \\ \mu(c + t - b) & t \in (b, b + d - c] \end{cases}$$

**Example 2.9.** Define  $\gamma : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by

$$\gamma(t) = \begin{cases} t^2(1 + i) & t \in [0, 1] \\ t^2(-1 + i) & t \in [-1, 0] \end{cases}$$

is smooth. But

$$\gamma(t) = \begin{cases} t(1 + i) & t \in [0, 1] \\ 2t(1 + i) & t \in [-1, 0] \end{cases}$$

is not smooth.

Since  $\gamma$  is continuous and  $[a, b]$  is sequentially compact, it follows that  $\gamma^*$  is sequentially compact (and in particular it is closed).

**Definition 2.10.** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a piecewise smooth curve,  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ , and if  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  a continuous function. Suppose  $\gamma^* \subset D$ . If  $\gamma$  is smooth, we define the contour integral of  $f$  along  $\gamma$  to be

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t) dt$$

If  $\gamma$  is only piecewise smooth, with  $a = s_0 < s_1 < \dots < s_n = b$  and  $\gamma|_{[s_{k-1}, s_k]}$  is smooth, then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{\gamma[s_{i-1}, s_i]} f(z) dz$$

The lengths of curve  $\gamma$  is given by

$$l(\gamma) = \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

For piecewise  $\gamma$ ,

$$l(\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^n l(\gamma_i)$$

**Example 2.11.** Define  $\gamma : [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , as  $t \mapsto e^{it}$ . Moreover define  $f : \mathbb{C} - \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  to be  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ .

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{e^{it}} * ie^{it} dt = i \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi i$$

**Lemma 2.12.** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be piecewise smooth, and  $f, \tilde{f} : \gamma^* \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Then we have

$$(I) \int_{\gamma} (f + \tilde{f})(z)dz = \int_{\gamma} f(z)dz + \int_{\gamma} \tilde{f}(z)dz$$

$$(II) \int_{\gamma} \lambda f(z)dz = \lambda \int_{\gamma} f(z)dz$$

$$(III) |\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz| \leq Ml(\gamma) \text{ where } M = \sup\{|f(z)| : z \in \gamma^*\}$$

(IV) Let  $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $c < d$  and  $\varphi : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$  be a continuously differentiable function such that  $\varphi(c) = a$ , and  $\varphi(d) = b$ . Suppose  $\gamma$  is smooth or  $\varphi$  is strictly increasing. Then  $\gamma \circ \varphi$  is piecewise smooth and  $\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = \int_{\gamma \circ \varphi} f(z)dz$

(V)  $f_k : \gamma^* \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous functions with  $\lim f_k = f$  uniformly on  $\gamma^*$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} f_n(z)dz = \int_{\gamma} f(z)dz$$

(VI) If  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  are curves with  $\gamma = \gamma_1 \oplus \gamma_2$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = \int_{\gamma_1} f(z)dz + \int_{\gamma_2} f(z)dz$$

Proof of (IV): Suppose  $\gamma$  is smooth, then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma \circ \varphi} f(z)dz &= \int_c^d f(\gamma \circ \varphi(t))(\gamma \circ \varphi)'(t)dt = \int_c^d f(\gamma(\varphi(t)))\gamma'(\varphi(t))\varphi'(t)dt \\ &= \int_a^b f(\gamma(\tilde{t}))\gamma'(\tilde{t})d\tilde{t} = \int_{\gamma} f(z)dz \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 2.13.** Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuously differentiable,  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be piecewise smooth with  $\gamma^* \subset U$ . Then

$$\int_{\gamma} f'(z)dz = f(\gamma(b)) - f(\gamma(a))$$

Proof: Suppose  $\gamma$  is smooth (proof is almost the same). Then we have that

$$\int_{\gamma} f'(z) dz = \int_a^b f'(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t) dt = \int_a^b (f \circ \gamma)'(t) dt = f(\gamma(b)) - f(\gamma(a))$$

where the last equality follows from FTC.

**Corollary 2.14.** *Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open with  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic and  $f' = 0$ . Suppose  $\forall z_1, z_2 \in U$ , there exists  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow U$  with  $\gamma(0) = z_1$  and  $\gamma(1) = z_2$  where  $\gamma$  is smooth. Then  $f$  is constant.*

**Remark 5.** The above requirement is for  $f$  to be constant when  $f' = 0$  also includes that  $U$  must be path connected. In general  $f' = 0$  does not imply  $f$  is constant.

**Theorem 2.15.** *Suppose  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be piecewise smooth and  $g : \gamma^* \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  a continuous function. Let  $U = \mathbb{C} - \gamma^*$  (it is open) and define  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as*

$$f(z) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{g(w)}{w - z} dw$$

*Then  $f$  is analytic. More specifically, let  $z_0 \in U$ , and*

$$R = \inf\{|w - z_0| : w \in \gamma^*\}$$

*Then  $R > 0$  and  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  let  $\alpha_n = \int_{\gamma} \frac{g(w)}{(w - z_0)^{n+1}} dw$ . Then the power series  $\sum \alpha_n (z - z_0)^n$  has a radius of convergence  $> R$ , and*

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n (z - z_0)^n$$

Proof: Note  $\gamma^*$  is closed since  $\gamma$  is continuous, so  $U$  is open. Let  $z_0$  be given and  $R$  defined as above. Let  $z \in B_R(z_0)$ . For  $w \in \gamma^*$ ,

$$\left| \frac{z - z_0}{w - z_0} \right| \leq \frac{|z - z_0|}{R} < 1$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{w - z} &= \frac{1}{(w - z_0) - (z - z_0)} = \frac{1}{w - z_0} * \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z - z_0}{w - z_0}} \\ &= \frac{1}{w - z_0} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{z - z_0}{w - z_0} \right)^n \end{aligned}$$

since the series is absolutely convergent for  $z \in B_R(z_0)$ , and thus is convergent with the given formula. It is also true  $\forall w \in \gamma^*$ . Now define  $h, h_0, h_1, \dots : \gamma^* \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as

$$h(w) = \frac{g(w)}{w - z}, \quad h_n(w) = \frac{g(w)(z - z_0)^n}{(w - z_0)^{n+1}}$$

then on  $\gamma^*$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^n h_i = h$ . By Lemma 2.12 (VI) we have that

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \int_{\gamma} h(w) dw = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_{\gamma} h_n(w) dw = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z - z_0)^n \int_{\gamma} \frac{g(w)}{(w - z_0)^{n+1}} dw \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n (z - z_0)^n \end{aligned}$$

In particular, the series  $\sum \alpha_n (z - z_0)^n$  converges  $\forall z \in B_R(z_0)$ . By Lemma 2.1, the power series has radius of convergence at least  $R$ .

**Definition 2.16.** Let  $\gamma$  be a closed piecewise smooth curve. Define on  $\mathbb{C} - \gamma^*$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ind}_{\gamma} : \mathbb{C} - \gamma^* &\rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ z &\mapsto \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{w - z} dw \end{aligned}$$

This is called the index function of  $\gamma$  with respect to  $z$ .

Note that  $\text{Ind}_{\gamma}$  is analytic.

**Proposition 2.17.** *Let  $\gamma$  be a piecewise smooth closed curve. Then  $\text{Ind}_{\gamma}(z) \in \mathbb{Z}$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C} - \gamma^*$ . Moreover there exists  $R > 0$  such that  $\text{Ind}_{\gamma}(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C} - B_R(0)$*

Proof: Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be smooth. Define  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as  $t \mapsto \int_a^t \frac{\gamma'(s)}{\gamma(s) - z} ds$ . Then  $f$  is differentiable and  $f'(t) = \frac{\gamma'(t)}{\gamma(t) - z}$ . Define  $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by  $g(t) = e^{-f(t)}(\gamma(t) - z)$ . Then  $g'(t) = 0$  (easily verifiable) and  $[a, b]$  is path connected, so  $g$  is constant. Therefore

$$\frac{e^{f(t)}}{e^{f(a)}} = \frac{\gamma(t) - z}{\gamma(a) - z}$$

Since  $f(a) = 0$  and  $\gamma(b) = \gamma(a)$ , it follows that  $e^{f(b)} = 1$  so  $f(b) \in 2\pi i\mathbb{Z}$ , but  $f(b) = 2\pi i \text{Ind}_{\gamma}(z)$ , so we have  $\text{Ind}_{\gamma}(z) \in \mathbb{Z}$ .



Since  $\gamma^*$  is bounded,  $\exists r > 0$  such that  $\gamma^* \subset B_r(0)$  and we have that

$$|\text{Ind}_\gamma(z)| \leq \frac{Kl(\gamma)}{R-r}$$

where  $R > r$  and  $z \in \mathbb{C} - B_R(0)$  and  $K$  is a constant in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(z) \in \mathbb{Z}$ , for large enough  $R$  we have  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(z) = 0$ . Since  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(z) \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we conclude for sufficiently large  $R$ , we conclude  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(z) = 0$ .

**Corollary 2.18.** *Let  $\gamma$  be a closed piecewise smooth curve, and  $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C} - \gamma^*$  be continuous. Then  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(\varphi(0)) = \text{Ind}_\gamma(\varphi(1))$ .*

**Definition 2.19.** For all  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $r > 0$  define  $\gamma : [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , as

$$t \mapsto z_0 + re^{it}$$

Then denote this curve by  $\Gamma_r(z_0) = \gamma$ .

**Example 2.20.** Let  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $r > 0$ . Then we have  $\text{Ind}_{\Gamma_r(z_0)}(z_0) = 1$ . moreover, if  $|z - z_0| > 3r$ , then estimates show

$$|\text{Ind}_{\Gamma_r(z_0)}(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

and by Corollary 2.18 we have that

$$\text{Ind}_{\Gamma_r(z_0)}(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & |z - z_0| < r \\ 0 & |z - z_0| > r \end{cases}$$

### 2.3 Cauchy's Theorem for a triangle and a convex set

**Definition 2.21.** Let  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ . Denote by  $[z_1, z_2]$  the curve  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  which maps  $t \mapsto z_1 + t(z_2 - z_1)$ . Let  $z_3 \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then define

$$\Delta(z_1, z_2, z_3) = \{t_1 z_1 + t_2 z_2 + t_3 z_3 \mid t_i \geq 0, \sum_i t_i = 1\}$$

Denote also by  $\partial\Delta(z_1, z_2, z_3)$  the piecewise smooth curve  $\gamma : [0, 3] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by

$$\gamma = [z_1, z_2] \oplus [z_2, z_3] \oplus [z_3, z_1]$$

**Remark 6.**

$$\int_{\partial\Delta} = \int_{[z_1, z_2]} + \int_{[z_2, z_3]} + \int_{[z_3, z_1]}$$

If  $z_1, z_2, z_3$  are collinear, then  $\int_{\partial\Delta} = 0$ .

**Theorem 2.22.** *Cauchy-Goursat Theorem:* Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  open,  $p \in U$ ,  $\Delta \subset U$ ,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous, and suppose  $f : U - \{p\}$  be holomorphic. Then  $\int_{\partial\Delta} f(z)dz = 0$ .

Proof: There are 3 steps depending on where  $p$  is relative to  $\partial\Delta$ .

Step 1: Suppose  $p \notin \Delta$ . Then denote the midpoint of the sides of the triangle by  $z'_1, z'_2, z'_3$  where  $z'_1 = \frac{z_2+z_3}{2}$ , and the others are defined similarly. Connect the  $z'_1, z'_2, z'_3$  in the original triangle, and so we get 4 triangles. Label them  $\Delta^{(i)}$  arbitrarily. Note that we have

$$\int_{\partial\Delta} f(z)dz = \sum_{k=1}^4 \int_{\partial\Delta^{(k)}} f(z)dz$$

so

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f(z)dz \right| \leq \sum_{k=1}^4 \left| \int_{\partial\Delta^{(k)}} f(z)dz \right| \leq 4 \left| \int_{\partial\Delta^{(i)}} f(z)dz \right|$$

for some  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ . Let  $\Delta_1 = \Delta^{(i)}$ , and note that  $l(\partial\Delta_1) = \frac{1}{2}l(\partial\Delta)$ . By induction we can continue and make a sequence of closed triangles  $\Delta_2, \Delta_3, \dots$  with  $\Delta_{k+1} \subset \Delta_k$  and

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta_k} f(z)dz \right| \leq 4 \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_{k+1}} f(z)dz \right|$$

$$l(\Delta_{k+1}) = \frac{1}{2}l(\Delta_k)$$

Note that for all  $z \in \partial\Delta_n$ ,  $|z - z_0| < l(\partial\Delta_n)$ .

Thus

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f(z)dz \right| \leq 4^n \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_n} f(z)dz \right|$$

$$l(\Delta_n) = \frac{1}{2^n}l(\Delta)$$

By compactness, there exists  $z_0 \in \cap_{n=1}^{\infty} \Delta_n$  and  $z_0 \neq p$ . So  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$  and so

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

with  $\psi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous at  $z_0$ , and  $\psi(z_0) = 0$ . The map

$$z \mapsto f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0)$$

comes from the derivative of the map

$$z \mapsto f(z_0)z + \frac{1}{2}f'(z_0)(z - z_0)^2$$

Thus for all  $n$ ,

$$\int_{\partial\Delta_n} f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0)dz = 0$$

Therefore we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_n} f(z)dz \right| &= \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_n} f(z) - (f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0))dz \right| = \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_n} (z - z_0)\psi(z)dz \right| \\ &\leq l(\partial\Delta_n) \sup\{|(z - z_0)\psi(z)| : z \in \partial\Delta_n\} \\ &\leq (l(\partial\Delta_n))^2 \sup\{|\psi(z)| : z \in \partial\Delta_n\} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\psi$  is continuous at  $z_0$  with  $\psi(z_0) = 0$ , for all  $\epsilon > 0$  we have  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $|\psi(z)| < \epsilon$  for  $z \in B_\delta(z_0) \cap U$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} l(\partial\Delta_n) = 0$  (then the diameter also goes to 0) we have that  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\bar{\Delta}_n \subset B_\delta(z_0)$ . Then  $\sup\{|\psi(z)| : z \in \partial\Delta_n\} \leq \epsilon$  and

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta_n} f(z)dz \right| \leq \epsilon(l(\partial\Delta_n))^2 = \frac{\epsilon}{4^n}$$

Hence

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f(z)dz \right| \leq 4^n \frac{\epsilon}{4^n} = \epsilon$$

and we conclude that

$$\int_{\partial\Delta} f(z)dz = 0$$

In the next step, suppose  $p$  is a vertex. Then WLOG let  $\Delta = \Delta(p, z_2, z_3)$ . Let  $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$  and set  $p_2 = \epsilon z_2 + (1 - \epsilon)p$  and  $p_3 = \epsilon z_3 + (1 - \epsilon)p$ . Then we have that

$$\int_{\partial\Delta} = \int_{\partial\Delta(p, p_2, p_3)} + \int_{\partial\Delta(p_2, z_2, z_3)} + \int_{\partial\Delta(p_3, p_2, z_3)}$$

We have that the  $2^{nd}$  and  $3^{rd}$  integrals are zero by the earlier case, so we only need to consider the first integral. Denoting  $\partial\Delta(p_1, p_2, p_3)$  by  $\partial\Delta_p$  we have that

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta_p} f(z)dz \right| \leq l(\partial\Delta_p) \sup\{|f(z)| : z \in \partial\Delta_p\}$$

There exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \subset U$  (by openness of  $U$ ), and since  $f$  is continuous  $\exists M > 0$  such that  $|f(z)| < M$  for all  $z \in B_r(p)$ . If  $\epsilon$  is small enough, then  $\partial\Delta_p \subset B_r(p)$  and since  $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} l(\partial\Delta_p) = 0$ , we get that

$$l(\partial\Delta_p) \sup\{|f(z)| : z \in \partial\Delta_p\} \leq \epsilon'$$

proving the desired.

For the case that  $p$  is not a vertex but  $p \in \Delta$ , consider the integral

$$\int_{\partial\Delta(z_1, z_2, z_3)} = \int_{\partial\Delta(z_1, z_2, p)} + \int_{\partial\Delta(p, z_2, z_3)} + \int_{\partial\Delta(z_3, z_1, p)}$$

All three of the integrals are 0 by case 2, and we are done.

We define a set  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$  to be convex if

$$tz_1 + (1-t)z_2 \in A$$

for all  $z_1, z_2 \in A$ ,  $t \in [0, 1]$ .

**Proposition 2.23.** *Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open and convex,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous such that*

$$\int_{\partial\Delta} f(z)dz = 0$$

*for all  $\Delta \subset U$ . Then  $\exists F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic such that  $F' = f$ .*

Proof: Fix  $a \in U$  and define  $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by  $F(z) = \int_{[a, z]} f(w)dw$ . Fix  $z_0 \in U$  and let  $z \in U$ . Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_{\partial\Delta(a, z, z_0)} f(w)dw = \int_{[a, z]} f(w)dw + \int_{[z, z_0]} f(w)dw + \int_{[z_0, a]} f(w)dw \\ &= F(z) + \int_{[z, z_0]} f(w)dw - F(z_0) \end{aligned}$$

Now let  $\epsilon > 0$ , since  $f$  is continuous at  $z_0$  we have  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon$ , for all  $|z - z_0| < \delta$ . We can write

$$\frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) = \frac{1}{z - z_0} \int_{[z_0, z]} (f(w) - f(z_0))dz$$

and so for all  $z \in B_r(z_0)$ ,

$$\left| \frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) \right| \leq \frac{1}{|z - z_0|} \int_{[z_0, z]} |f(w) - f(z_0)|dw \leq \frac{1}{|z - z_0|} l([z_0, z])\epsilon \leq \epsilon$$

for all  $z \in U$   $\delta$  close to  $z_0$ . Thus  $F'(z_0) = f(z_0)$ .

**Corollary 2.24.** *Let  $U$  be open and convex with  $p \in U$ ,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous who is holomorphic off  $p$ . Then  $f = F'$  for some holomorphic function  $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Explicitly,  $\forall a \in U$ , we have that  $F(z) = \int_{[a,z]} f(w)dw$ .*

Proof: Because  $f$  is holomorphic off  $p$ , by Cauchy-Goursat,  $\int_{\Delta} f(z)dz = 0$  for all  $\Delta \in U$ , and thus by Theorem 2.23 we have  $F$  as defined in the proof of the theorem.

**Theorem 2.25.** *Cauchy's theorem for a convex set. Let  $U$  be convex and open, and  $p \in U$ . Suppose  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous on  $U$  and holomorphic on  $U - \{p\}$ . Then  $\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = 0$  where  $\gamma$  is a closed piecewise smooth curve inside of  $U$ .*

Proof:  $\exists F$  such that

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = \int_{\gamma} F'(z)dz = 0$$

## 2.4 Holomorphicity implies Analyticity

**Theorem 2.26.** *Let  $U$  be open and convex,  $\gamma$  be piecewise smooth closed, and  $\gamma^* \subset U$ .  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic. Then  $\forall z \in U - \gamma^*$ , we have*

$$f(z) \text{Ind}_{\gamma}(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} dw$$

Proof: Let  $z \in U - \gamma^*$ , and define

$$g(w) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(w)-f(z)}{w-z} & w \in U - \{z\} \\ f'(z) & w = z \end{cases}$$

Note that  $g$  is continuous and holomorphic on  $U - \{z\}$ . By Theorem 2.25,

$$0 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} g(w)dw = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} dw - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{w - z} dw$$

as desired.

**Theorem 2.27.** *Every holomorphic function is analytic. Stronger,  $U$  is open,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is holomorphic. Let  $z_0 \in U$ ,  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(z_0) \subset U$ . Then there exists power series  $\sum \alpha_n(z - z_0)^n$  which has radius of convergence at least  $r$ , and  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n(z - z_0)^n$  for all  $z \in B_r(z_0)$ .*

Proof: Consider  $\rho \in (0, r)$ . Then  $\Gamma_\rho(z_0) \subset U$  and  $\forall z \in B_\rho(z_0)$  we have  $\text{Ind}_{\Gamma_\rho(z_0)}(z) = 1$ . Then restrict  $f$  to  $B_{\frac{r+\rho}{2}}(z_0)$  and we get that

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma_\rho(z_0)} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} dw$$

for all  $z \in B_\rho(z_0)$ . Consider the function

$$z \mapsto \int_{\Gamma_\rho(z_0)} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} dw$$

Theorem 2.15 says this function is analytic. Thus it is infinitely differentiable on  $B_\rho(z_0)$  and the power series  $\sum \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z - z_0)^n$  has radius of convergence of at least  $\rho$ . Thus we get that it has radius of convergence  $\geq r$  and

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z - z_0)^n$$

**Corollary 2.28.**  *$f$  holomorphic implies that  $f'$  is holomorphic.*

**Theorem 2.29.** *Morera's Theorem: Let  $U$  be open,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous. Then  $f$  is holomorphic if and only if  $\forall \Delta \subset U$  we have*

$$\int_{\partial \Delta} f(z) dz = 0$$

Proof: The forward is obvious from Cauchy-Goursat. For the reverse, it is sufficient to prove it for an open ball. Suppose  $U$  is convex, then by Theorem 2.23,  $f = F'$  on the convex set. Then applying the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and using the fact that  $\partial \Delta$  is closed, we get the desired result.

**Lemma 2.30.** *Let  $a \in U$  which is open, and  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  continuous on  $U$  and holomorphic off  $a$ . Then  $f$  is holomorphic.*

## 2.5 Estimates and Consequences

**Lemma 2.31.** *Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $a \in U$ , and  $r > 0$ . Then  $\overline{B_r(a)} \subset U$  if and only if  $\exists R \in (r, \infty)$  such that  $B_R(a) \subset U$ .*

**Proposition 2.32.** *Let  $U$  be open,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic,  $a \in U$ ,  $r > 0$ , such that  $\overline{B_r(a)} \subset U$ . Then*

$$f^{(n)}(z) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma_r(a)} \frac{f(w)}{(w - z)^{n+1}} dw$$

Proof: Cauchy's Formula (Theorem 2.26) gives

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma_r(a)} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} dw$$

for all  $z \in B_r(a)$ . Then by Theorem 2.15 the result is true.

**Corollary 2.33.** *Cauchy's Inequality: Let  $U$ ,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,  $a$ ,  $r$  defined as above. Then we have that*

$$|f^{(n)}(z)| \leq n! \frac{r}{(r - |z - a|)^{n+1}} \max_{w \in \partial B_r(a)} |f(w)|$$

Moreover if  $z \in B_{\frac{r}{2}}(a)$ , then

$$|f^{(n)}(z)| \leq \frac{n! 2^{n+1}}{r^n} \max_{w \in \partial B_r(a)} |f(w)|$$

Proof: By Theorem 2.22, the fact that for all  $w \in \partial B_r(a)$ ,

$$|w - z| \geq r - |z - a|$$

and lemma 2.12(III) this is true.

**Definition 2.34.** A holomorphic function whose domain in  $\mathbb{C}$  is called an "entire" function.

**Theorem 2.35.** *Liouville: Every bounded holomorphic function  $f$  is constant.*

Proof: Let  $f$  be entire, bounded by  $M$ . It follows from Corollary 2.23 that

$$f'(a) \leq \frac{M}{r}$$

for all  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $r > 0$ . Therefore  $f' = 0$  and vanishes on the connected set  $\mathbb{C}$  and thus is constant.

**Lemma 2.36.** *Let  $f$  be nonzero polynomial of degree  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , then there exists  $\mu > 0$  and  $R > 1$  such that*

$$|f(z)| \geq \mu |z|^n$$

for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|z| > R$ . In particular,  $|f(z)| > \mu$ .

**Corollary 2.37.** *Fundamental Theorem of Algebra*

Proof: Let  $f$  be a polynomial without roots. By Lemma 2.36, there exists  $R > 0$  such that  $\frac{1}{f}$  is bounded on  $\mathbb{C} - B_R(0)$ . Obviously  $\frac{1}{f}$  is bounded on  $\overline{B_R(0)}$ , and so by Liouville's Theorem,  $\frac{1}{f}$  is constant.

**Proposition 2.38.** *Let  $r > 0$ ,  $\sum \alpha_n z^n$ ,  $\sum \beta_n z^n$  be a power series both with radius of convergence at least  $r$ . Then for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$  define*

$$\gamma_n = \alpha_n \beta_0 + \alpha_{n-1} \beta_1 + \dots + \alpha_0 \beta_n$$

*Then the power series  $\sum \gamma_n z^n$  has radius of convergence at least  $r$ .*

Proof: Let  $f(z) = \sum \alpha_n z^n$  and  $g(z) = \sum \beta_n z^n$  and  $f, g : B_r(0) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic on its domain. Then  $fg$  is also holomorphic on  $B_r(0)$  and thus is analytic by Theorem 2.27; the power series of  $fg$  has radius at least  $r$ . If  $z \in B_r(0)$ , then

$$(fg)(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(fg)^{(n)}(0)}{n!} z^n$$

Then we can verify that

$$\frac{(f * g)^{(n)}(x)}{n!} = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n-k)}(x) = \dots = \gamma_n$$

**Proposition 2.39.** *Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $R > 0$  such that  $\overline{B_R(0)} \subset U$ , and  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic. Then  $\forall z \in B_R(0)$  we have that*

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(Re^{i\theta}) \frac{R^2 - |z|^2}{|Re^{i\theta} - z|^2} d\theta$$

Proof: Let  $z_0 \in B_R(0)$ , then

$$z \mapsto \frac{f(z)}{R^2 - \bar{z}_0 z}$$

is holomorphic on  $B_{R^2/|z_0|^2} \cap U$ . Then we have that  $\forall z \in B_R(0)$ ,

$$\frac{f(z)}{R^2 - \bar{z}_0 z} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma_{R(0)}} \frac{f(w)}{R^2 - \bar{z}_0 w} \frac{1}{w - z} dw$$

Now replace  $z_0$  by  $z$ , and  $R^2$  by  $w\bar{w}$  to get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(z)}{R^2 - |z|^2} &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma_{R(0)}} \frac{f(w)}{w\bar{w} - \bar{z}w} \frac{1}{w - z} dw = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma_{R(0)}} \frac{f(w)}{|w - z|^2} \frac{1}{w} dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{f(Re^{i\theta})}{|Re^{i\theta} - z|^2} dw \end{aligned}$$

as desired.



## 2.6 Locally Uniform Convergence

**Definition 2.40.** Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $f, f_1, f_2, \dots : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. We say  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$  locally uniform on  $U$  if  $\forall a \in U$ , there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(a) \subset U$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n|_{B_r(a)} = f|_{B_r(a)}$  uniformly.

**Example 2.41.** Place-holder

**Theorem 2.42.** *Weierstrass:* Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with  $f_k$  holomorphic, and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$  locally uniformly. Then  $f$  is holomorphic and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'_n = f'$  locally uniformly.

Proof: Let  $a \in U$ . So on  $B_R(a)$  the convergence is uniform. Then  $f$  is continuous and by Theorem 2.29,

$$\int_{\partial \Delta} f_k(z) dz = 0, \quad \forall k, \quad \forall \Delta \subset B_R(a)$$

Thus this implies

$$\int_{\partial \Delta} f(z) dz = 0, \quad \forall k, \quad \forall \Delta \subset B_R(a)$$

and so by Morera's Theorem,  $f$  is holomorphic on  $B_R(a)$ . Now let  $a \in U$ ,  $r > 0$  and  $B_{2r}(a) \subset U$  such that  $\lim f_n = f$  uniformly on  $\overline{B_{2r}(a)}$ . Thus we have that  $\lim f_n = f$  uniformly on  $\partial B_r(a)$ . We have that for all  $z \in B_{\frac{r}{2}}(a)$ ,

$$|f^{(n)}(z)| \leq \frac{n! 2^{n+1}}{r^n} \max_{w \in \partial B_r(a)} |f(w)|$$

Thus we have that

$$|f'(z) - f'_n(z)| \leq \frac{4}{r} \max_{w \in B_r(a)} |f(w) - f_n(w)|$$

Thus  $\lim f'_n = f'$  uniformly on  $B_{\frac{r}{2}}(a)$ .

**Corollary 2.43.** Let  $r > 0$ ,  $f, f_1, f_2, \dots : B_r(0) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic, and let  $\sum \alpha_n^{(k)} z^n$  be the power series of  $f_k$ . Then if  $\lim f_k = f$  locally uniformly, then  $\alpha_n = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_n^{(k)}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  where  $\sum \alpha_n z^n$  is the power series of  $f$ .

Proof: By induction on the previous theorem,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k^{(n)} = f^{(n)}$ . In particular, the result follows at  $z = 0$ ,

$$f_k^{(n)}(0) = n! \alpha_n^{(k)}$$

### 3 Basic Theory

#### 3.1 Introduction

**Proposition 3.1.** *Let  $U$  be open, nonempty. Then the following are equivalent*

- (I) *For any open  $U_1, U_2$ , with  $U = U_1 \cup U_2$ ,  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$ , then  $U = U_1$  or  $U = U_2$ .*
- (II)  *$\forall p, q \in U$ , there exists piecewise smooth path  $\gamma^* \subset U$  such that  $\gamma(a) = p$ ,  $\gamma(b) = q$*
- (III) *Every continuous function  $f : U \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is constant.*

Proof: Suppose (I) is true. Let  $p \in U$  and define  $U_1 = \{q \in U \mid \exists \gamma, \gamma(a) = p, \gamma(b) = q\}$ , ie the set of points which are path connected to  $p$ .  $U$  is open, so given  $q \in U_1$ , there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(q) \subset U$ . We have that for all  $q' \in B_r(q)$ , there is a path  $\gamma'$  from  $q$  to  $q'$  (a ball is convex). Thus  $B_r(q) \subset U_1$ , and so  $U_1$  is open. Define  $U_2 = U - U_1$ . Note that  $U_2$  must be open: let  $u \in U_2$  and suppose there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(u) \subset U$ . If it has nontrivial intersection with  $U_1$ , then since  $B_r(u) \subset U$  and there is a path between the intersection and  $u$ , we have that  $u \in U_1$ , a contradiction. Thus  $B_r(u) \subset U_2$ , and so  $U_2$  is open. Thus by (I),  $U = U_1$ , so (II) is true.

Suppose (II) is true. Let  $\varphi : U \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  be a continuous function such that it is non-constant, there exists  $p, q$  such that  $\varphi(p) = 0$ ,  $\varphi(q) = 1$ . By (II) there exists a piecewise smooth curve  $\gamma$  inside  $U$ , such that  $\gamma(a) = p$ ,  $\gamma(b) = q$ . We have that  $\varphi \circ \gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is continuous, and so the intermediate value theorem gives us  $c$  in  $[a, b]$  such that  $\varphi(\gamma(c)) = \frac{1}{2}$ , a contradiction.

Suppose (III) is true. Let  $U_1, U_2$  be open with  $U_1 \cup U_2 = U$  and  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$ . Define  $\varphi : U \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  by

$$\varphi(p) = \begin{cases} 0 & p \in U_1 \\ 1 & p \in U_2 \end{cases}$$

We can verify that  $\varphi$  is continuous because its inverse image for every open set in  $\{0, 1\}$  is open, and so it is constant. Thus  $U = U_1$  or  $U = U_2$ .

**Definition 3.2.** The above conditions define connectedness of an open set.

**Definition 3.3.** We can define a domain or region as an open non-empty connected subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Corollary 3.4.** *If  $U$  is open and connected,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic with  $f' = 0$ , then  $f$  is constant.*

### 3.2 Zeros of Holomorphic Functions

**Definition 3.5.** Let  $U$  be open,  $a \in U$  with  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $f(a) = 0$ . Then we say that  $a$  is an **isolated singularity** for  $f$  if there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(a) \subset U$  and  $\forall z \in B_r(a) - \{a\}$ , we have  $f(z) \neq 0$ .

We say  $a$  is a zero of infinite order if  $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We say  $a$  is a zero of finite order ( $m$ ) if there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f^{(m)}(a) \neq 0$ , and  $f^{(k)}(a) = 0$  for all  $k < m$ .

**Proposition 3.6.** Let  $U$  be open,  $a \in U$ , and  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic, and that  $f(a) = 0$ . Then there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(a) \subset U$  and either

(I)  $f(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in B_r(a)$

(II)  $f(z) \neq 0$  for all  $z \in B_r(a) - \{a\}$

Case (I) occurs if and only if  $a$  is a zero of infinite order. If  $a$  is a zero of finite order, say  $N \in \mathbb{N}_0$  then there exists unique  $g : B_r(a) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic,  $g(a) = 0$  and  $f(z) = (z - a)^N g(z)$  for all  $z \in B_r(a)$ .

Proof: Take  $R > 0$  such that  $B_R(a) \subset U$ . BY Theorem 2.27,  $f$  has a power series,  $\sum \alpha_n(z - a)^n$  which is convergent uniformly on  $B_R(a)$ . Recall  $\alpha_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$ . If  $\alpha_n = 0$  for all  $n$  then  $f(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in B_R(a)$  and Case (I) is satisfied with  $r = R$ .

Suppose it is not a zero of order  $\infty$ . Take  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  minimal such that  $f^{(N)}(a) \neq 0$ , so  $\alpha_0 = \alpha_1 = \dots \alpha_{N-1} = 0$ . Then

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \alpha_n(z - a)^n = (z - a)^N \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_{N+k}(z - a)^k$$

for all  $z \in B_R(a)$ . Define  $g : B_R(0) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by  $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \beta_n(z - a)^n$  where  $\beta_n = \alpha_{N+n}$ . Restrict the domain of  $g$  such that the image of  $g$  does not have 0 (possible by continuity). Then  $g$  is holomorphic (because its analytic?), and satisfies the conditions of Case (II).

**Lemma 3.7.** Let  $U$  be open,  $u \in U$ , and  $f$  holomorphic. Let  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $f$  has a zero at  $a$  of order  $N$  if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{f(z)}{(z - a)^N}$$

exists and is nonzero.

Proof: Forward direction comes from the previous proposition. Now consider

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^N}$$

where  $f(a) = 0$ . We know by the previous proposition that  $a$  is not a zero of infinite order. Let  $M$  be the order of  $a$ . Then there exists  $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  non-zero at  $a$  and  $f(z) = (z-a)^M g(z)$ . Therefore

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{(z-a)^M g(z)}{(z-a)^N}$$

exists and is nonzero. Thus

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)^{M-N} g(z) \neq 0$$

and so  $M = N$ .

**Theorem 3.8.** *Let  $U$  be open and connected with  $a \in U$ ,  $r > 0$ . Suppose  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic and  $f|_{B_r(a)} = 0$ . Then  $f = 0$  on  $U$ .*

Proof: Let

$$U_1 = \{p \in U | \exists s > 0, f|_{B_s(p)} = 0\}$$

$$U_2 = \{p \in U | \exists s > 0, f(z) \neq 0, z \in B_s(p) - \{p\}\}$$

Clearly both  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  are open, and we have that  $U = U_1 \cup U_2$  by Proposition 3.6. Thus since  $U$  is connected,  $U = U_1$  or  $U = U_2$ . Since  $a \in U_1$ , we have  $U = U_1$ , and we are done.

**Corollary 3.9.** *Let  $U$  be open, connected,  $V \subset U$  be open and non-empty. Then  $f, g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic and  $f|_V = g|_V$  implies  $f = g$ .*

**Corollary 3.10.** *Let  $U$  be open and connected,  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Suppose there exists a sequence of different zeroes of  $f$  which converge to a point in  $U$ . Then  $f = 0$ .*

Proof: By Proposition 3.6,  $f$  is zero on some open ball centered at the limit point. Thus  $f$  is 0 on  $U$  by Theorem 3.8.

### 3.3 Isolated Singularities

**Definition 3.11.** Let  $U$  be open,  $a \in U$ , and  $f : U - \{a\}$  be holomorphic, We say that  $a$  is an **isolated singularity** of  $f$ . We say that  $a$  is a **removable singularity** of  $f$  if there exists holomorphic function  $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $g|_{U - \{a\}} = f$ .

**Theorem 3.12.** *Riemann: Let  $U$  be open,  $a \in U$ , and  $f : U - \{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic. Suppose  $\exists r > 0$  with  $B_r(a) \subset U$  and  $f|_{B_r(a) - \{a\}}$  is bounded, then  $a$  is a removable singularity.*

Proof: Define the function  $h : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by

$$h(z) = \begin{cases} (z - a)f(z) & z \in U - \{a\} \\ 0 & z = a \end{cases}$$

$h$  is holomorphic on  $U - \{a\}$ . Since  $f$  is bounded,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} h(z) = 0$ , so  $h$  is continuous on  $U$ . Then  $h$  is holomorphic on  $U$  by Lemma 2.30 (Cauchy-Goursat's Theorem and Morera's Theorem). Proposition 1.14(II) gives continuous  $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that

$$h(z) = h(a) + (z - a)g(z)$$

Note that  $g$  is holomorphic on  $g : U - \{a\}$  but continuous at  $a$ , and so by Lemma 2.30 again  $g$  is holomorphic. Since  $h(a) = 0$ ,  $g$  is defined as desired.

**Theorem 3.13.** *Casorati-Weierstrass: Let  $U$  be open,  $a \in U$ ,  $f : U - \{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic. Then one of the following 3 occurs:*

(I) *point  $a$  is removable*

(II) *There exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $c_1, \dots, c_m \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $c_m \neq 0$  and the function*

$$z \mapsto f(z) - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{c_k}{(z - a)^k}$$

*has a removable singularity at  $a$ .*

(III) *For all  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(a) \subset U$ , the set  $f(B_r(a) - \{a\})$  is dense in  $\mathbb{C}$*

Proof: Clearly only one at a time is possible. Suppose III is not the case. That means there exists  $w \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $r > 0$ , and  $\mu > 0$  such that  $B_r(a) \subset U$ , and we have that  $|f(z) - w| \geq \mu$  for all  $z \in B_r(a) - \{a\}$ . The idea is that  $\mathbb{C}$  contains a ball centered at  $w$  that doesn't contain an element of the image of  $f|_{B_r(a) - \{a\}}$ . Define  $g : B_r(a) - \{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as  $z \mapsto \frac{1}{f(z) - w}$ .  $g$  is holomorphic on its domain and bounded, so Riemann's Theorem implies that  $a$  is a removable singularity of  $g$ . Introduce  $h : B_r(a) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $h$  is equal to  $g$  on  $B_r(a) - \{a\}$  and that  $h$  is holomorphic. We have two cases: the first is that  $h(a) \neq 0$ , then  $f$  is bounded in the neighborhood of  $a$

and so  $f$  has removable singularity at  $a$  which is case I. Suppose  $h(a) = 0$ . Then  $h$  has a zero at  $a$  of finite order, so there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and function  $k : B_r(a) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic (and nonzero at  $a$ ) such that

$$h(z) = (z - a)^m k(z)$$

We can assume  $k \neq 0$  on  $B_r(a)$  (just restrict it so that it happens). Thus we have that

$$f(z) = w + \frac{1}{(z - a)^m} \frac{1}{k(z)}$$

for all  $z \in B_r(a) - \{a\}$ . Since  $\frac{1}{k(z)}$  is holomorphic, we can take the power series representation,  $\sum_n \alpha_n (z - a)^n$  where  $\alpha_0 \neq 0$ , and we get that

$$f(z) = w + \frac{1}{(z - a)^m} \sum_n \alpha_n (z - a)^n = w + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n (z - a)^{n-m}$$

as desired in case II, with  $c_n = \alpha_{m-n}$ .

**Definition 3.14.** In case III of the previous theorem,  $a$  is said to be an essential singularity.

In case II,  $f$  is said to have a pole of order  $m$  at  $a$ . If  $m = 1$ , then we say that the pole is simple.

**Corollary 3.15.** Let  $U$  be open,  $a \in U$ , with  $f : U - \{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic. Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $f$  has a pole of order  $m$  at  $a$  if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a)^m f(z)$$

exists and is non-zero.

### 3.4 The Homotopy Theorem

**Definition 3.16.** Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $\gamma_0 : [a_0, b_0] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\gamma_1 : [a_1, b_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be two closed curves. Then  $\gamma_0$  is  $U$ -homotopic to  $\gamma_1$  if there exists continuous map  $\Phi : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow U$  such that

$$\Phi(t, 0) = \gamma_0(a_0 + t(b_0 - a_0))$$

$$\Phi(t, 1) = \gamma_1(a_1 + t(b_1 - a_1))$$

$$\Phi(0, s) = \Phi(1, s), \forall s \in [0, 1]$$

We say that  $\gamma_0$  is null homotopic if it is  $U$ -homotopic to a constant curve. Note that  $U$ -homotopy is an equivalence relation on curves in  $U$ .

**Lemma 3.17.** *Let  $K \subset \mathbb{C}$  be sequentially compact.*

(I) *Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open and  $K \subset U$ , then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall z \in K$  and  $B_\epsilon(z) \subset U$*

(II) *Let  $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous and  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\forall z, w \in K$  with  $|z - w| < \delta$  it follows that  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \epsilon$*

Proof: (I) Suppose not. Then for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists  $z_n \in K$  such that  $B_{\frac{1}{n}}(z_n)$  is not a subset of  $U$ .  $K$  is compact implies that  $z_n$  has a convergent subsequence inside  $K$ ,  $z_{n_k} \rightarrow z \in K$ . Because  $z \in K \subset U$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $B_{\frac{2}{N}}(z) \subset U$ . There also exists  $k \geq N$  such that

$$|z_{n_k} - z| < \frac{1}{N}$$

Then for all  $w \in B_{\frac{1}{n_k}}(z_{n_k})$  one has

$$|w - z| \leq |w - z_{n_k}| + |z_{n_k} - z| < \frac{1}{n_k} + \frac{1}{N} \leq \frac{2}{N}$$

Thus  $B_{\frac{1}{n_k}}(z_{n_k}) \subset U$ , a contradiction.