## By Heart

The Polar representation of complex numbers

The Polar representation of complex numbers

Given a point z = x + yi in the complex plane. The point has a polar representation  $(r, \theta)$ :  $x = r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta$ , where r = |z| and  $\theta$  is the angle between the positive real axis and the line segment from 0 to z.

Roots of complex numbers

Roots of complex numbers

Given a complex number  $a = |a| \operatorname{cis}(\alpha) \neq 0$  and an integer  $n \geq 2$ , a  $n^{\operatorname{th}}$  root of a is a number

$$|a|^{\frac{1}{n}} \operatorname{cis}\left(\frac{1}{n}\left(\alpha + 2\pi k\right)\right)$$

where  $0 \le k \le n-1$ 

Lines in  $\mathbb{C}$ 

Lines in  $\mathbb{C}$ 

A line in  $\mathbb{C}$  is of the form

$$L = \{ z = a + tb \mid -\infty < t < \infty \}$$

for  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$  or

$$L = \left\{ z : \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{z-a}{b}\right) = 0 \right\}$$

Half planes in  $\mathbb{C}$ 

Half planes in  $\mathbb{C}$ 

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}W$  e are "walking along L in the direction of b." If we put

$$H_a = \left\{ z : \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{z-a}{b}\right) > 0 \right\}$$

then it is easy to see that  $H_a = a + H_0 \equiv \{a + w : w \in H_0\}$ ; that is,  $H_a$  is the translation of  $H_0$  by a. Hence,  $H_a$  is the half plane lying to the left of L. Similarly,

$$K_a = \left\{ z : \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{z-a}{b}\right) < 0 \right\}$$

is the half plane on the right of L.

The triangle inequality in  $\mathbb C$ 

The triangle inequality in  $\mathbb{C}$ 

$$|z+w| \le |z| + |w|, \ (z, w \in \mathbb{C})$$

where

$$|z| = (x^2 + y^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

The Weierstrass M-test for series of functions

The Weierstrass M-test for series of functions

Let  $u_n: X \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function such that  $|u_n(x)| \leq M_n$  for every x in X and suppose the constants satisfy  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n < \infty$ . Then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n$  is uniformly convergent.

The Heine-Borel Theorem

The Heine-Borel Theorem

A subset K of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $n \geq 1$  is compact iff K is closed and bounded.

The Cantor Intersection Theorem

## The Cantor Intersection Theorem

Let X be a metric space. Then X is complete if and only if whenever  $\{F_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a contracting sequence of nonempty closed subsets of X, there is a point  $x \in X$  for which  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n = \{x\}$ 

The Cauchy Convergence Criterion

The Cauchy Convergence Criterion

If (X, d) has the property that each Cauchy sequence has a limit in X then (X, d) is complete.

The Intermediate Value Theorem

The Intermediate Value Theorem

If  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is continuous and  $f(a)\leq\xi\leq f(b)$  then there is a point  $x,a\leq x\leq b$ , with  $f(x)=\xi$ .

Morera's Theorem

## Morera's Theorem

Let G be a region and let  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  be a continuous function such that  $\int_T f = 0$  for every triangular path T in G; then f is analytic in G.

Cauchy's Theorem (Second Version)

Cauchy's Theorem (Second Version)

If  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  is an analytic function and  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in G such that  $\gamma \sim 0$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f = 0$$

Cauchy's Theorem (Fourth Version)

Cauchy's Theorem (Fourth Version)

If G is simply connected then  $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$  for every closed rectifiable curve and every analytic function f.

Open Mapping Theorem

## Open Mapping Theorem

Let G be a region and suppose that f is a non constant analytic function on G. Then for any open set U in G, f(U) is open.

Goursat's Theorem

Goursat's Theorem

Let G be an open set and let  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  be a differentiable function; then f is analytic on G.

Laurent series development of an analytic function in an annulus

Laurent series development of an analytic function in an annulus

Let f be analytic in the annulus ann  $(a; R_1, R_2)$ . Then

$$f(z) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - a)^n$$

where the convergence is absolute and uniform over ann  $(a; r_1, r_2)^-$  if  $R_1 < r_1 < r_2 < R_2$ . Also the coefficients  $a_n$  are given by the formula

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz$$

where  $\gamma$  is the circle |z - a| = r for any  $r, R_1 < r < R_2$ . Moreover, this series is unique.

Residue Theorem

Residue Theorem

Let f be analytic in the region G except for the isolated singularities

 $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m$ . If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in G which does not pass through any of the points  $a_k$  and if  $\gamma \approx 0$  in G then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f = \sum_{k=1}^{m} n(\gamma; a_k) \operatorname{Res}(f; a_k)$$

The Argument Principle

The Argument Principle

Let f be meromorphic in G with poles  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_m$  and zeros  $z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n$  counted according to multiplicity. If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in G with  $\gamma \approx 0$  and not passing through  $p_1, \ldots, p_m; z_1, \ldots, z_n$ ; then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{k=1}^{n} n\left(\gamma; z_{k}\right) - \sum_{j=1}^{m} n\left(\gamma; p_{j}\right).$$

Rouché's Theorem

#### Rouché's Theorem

Suppose f and g are meromorphic in a neighborhood of  $\overline{B}(a;R)$  with no zeros or poles on the circle  $\gamma = \{z : |z - a| = R\}$ . If  $Z_f, Z_g$   $(P_f, P_g)$  are the number of zeros (poles) of f and g inside  $\gamma$  counted according to their multiplicities and if

$$|f(z) + g(z)| < |f(z)| + |g(z)|$$

on  $\gamma$ , then

$$Z_f - P_f = Z_g - P_g.$$

Schwarz's Lemma

## Schwarz's Lemma

Let  $D = \{z : |z| < 1\}$  and Suppose f is analytic on D with

(a) 
$$|f(z)| \le 1$$
 for  $z$  in  $D$ ,

(b) 
$$f(0) = 0$$
.

Then  $|f'(0)| \le 1$  and  $|f(z)| \le |z|$  for all z in the disk D. Moreover if |f'(0)| = 1 or if |f(z)| = |z| for some  $z \ne 0$  then there is a constant c, |c| = 1, such that f(w) = cw for all w in D.

The Arzelà-Ascoli Theorem

## The Arzelà-Ascoli Theorem

A set  $\mathscr{F} \subset C(G,\Omega)$  is normal iff the following two conditions are satisfied:

(a) for each z in G,  $\{f(z): f \in \mathscr{F}\}$  has compact closure in  $\Omega$ ;

(b)  $\mathscr{F}$  is equicontinuous at each point of G.

Hurwitz's Theorem

Hurwitz's Theorem

Let G be a region and suppose the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  in H(G) converges to f. If  $f \not\equiv 0$ ,  $\overline{B}(a;R) \subset G$ , and  $f(z) \not\equiv 0$  for |z-a|=R then there is an integer N such that for  $n \geq N$ , f and  $f_n$  have the same number of zeros in B(a;R). Montel's Theorem

Montel's Theorem

A family  $\mathscr{F}$  in H(G) is normal iff  $\mathscr{F}$  is locally bounded.

The Riemann Mapping Theorem

The Riemann Mapping Theorem

Let G be a simply connected region which is not the whole plane and let  $a \in G$ . Then there is a unique analytic function  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  having the properties:

- (a) f(a) = 0 and f'(a) > 0;
- (b) f is one-one;
- $\overline{(c) \ f(G)} = \{z : |z| < 1\}.$

Gauss's Formula

Gauss's Formula

For 
$$z \neq 0, -1, \dots$$

$$\Gamma(z) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n! \, n^z}{z(z+1) \dots (z+n)}$$

Functional Equation for  $\Gamma$ 

# Functional Equation for $\Gamma$

For 
$$z \neq 0, -1, \dots$$

$$\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z)$$

Mean Value Theorem for harmonic functions

Mean Value Theorem for harmonic functions

If  $u: G \to \mathbb{R}$  is a harmonic function and  $\overline{B}(a; r)$  is a closed disk contained in G, then

$$u(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} u\left(a + re^{i\theta}\right) d\theta$$

Maximum Principle (First Version) for harmonic functions

Maximum Principle (First Version) for harmonic functions

Let G be a region and suppose that u is a continuous real valued function on G with the MVP. If there is a point a in G such that  $u(a) \geq u(z)$  for all z in G then u is a constant function.

Minimum Principle for harmonic functions

Minimum Principle for harmonic functions

Let G be a region and suppose that u is a continuous real valued function on G with the MVP. If there is a point a in G such that  $u(a) \leq u(z)$  for all z in G then u is a constant function.

Harnack's Theorem

### Harnack's Theorem

Let G be a region. (a) The metric space  $\operatorname{Har}(G)$  is complete. (b) If  $\{u_n\}$  is a sequence in  $\operatorname{Har}(G)$  such that  $u_1 \leq u_2 \leq \ldots$  then either  $u_n(z) \to \infty$  uniformly on compact subsets of G or  $\{u_n\}$  converges in  $\operatorname{Har}(G)$  to a harmonic function.

The field axioms

The field axioms

Commutativity of Addition: For all real numbers a and b,

$$a+b=b+a$$

Associativity of Addition: For all real numbers a, b, and c,

$$(a+b) + c = a + (b+c).$$

The Additive Identity: There is a real number, denoted by 0, such that

$$0 + a = a + 0 = a$$
 for all real numbers  $a$ 

The Additive Inverse: For each real number a, there is a real number b such

that

$$a+b=0$$

Commutativity of Multiplication: For all real numbers a and b,

$$ab = ba$$

Associativity of Multiplication: For all real numbers a, b, and c,

$$(ab)c = a(bc)$$

The Multiplicative Identity: There is a real number, denoted by 1 , such that

1a = a1 = a for all real numbers a.

The Multiplicative Inverse: For each real number  $a \neq 0$ , there is a real number b such that

$$ab = 1$$
.

The Distributive Property: For all real numbers a, b, and c,

$$a(b+c) = ab + ac$$

The Nontriviality Assumption:  $1 \neq 0$ .

The positivity axioms

The positivity axioms

P1 If a and b are positive, then ab and a + b are also positive.

P2 For a real number a, exactly one of the following three alternatives is true:

a is positive, -a is positive, a = 0.

The completeness axiom

The completeness axiom

Let E be a nonempty set of real numbers that is bounded above. Then among the set of upper bounds for E there is a smallest, or least, upper bound.

Principle of mathematical induction

Principle of mathematical induction

For each natural number n, let S(n) be some mathematical assertion. Suppose S(1) is true. Also suppose that whenever k is a natural number for which S(k) is true, then S(k+1) is also true. Then S(n) is true for every natural number n.

Archimedean Property

Archimedean Property

For each pair of positive real numbers a and b, there is a natural number n for which na > b.

The pigeonhole principle

The pigeonhole principle

The first observation regarding equipotence (In the preliminaries we called two sets A and B equipotent provided there is a one-to-one mapping f of A onto B.) is that for any natural numbers n and m, the set  $\{1, \ldots, n+m\}$  is not equipotent to the set  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ .

The Nested Set Theorem

## The Nested Set Theorem

Let  $\{F_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a descending countable collection of nonempty closed sets of real numbers for which  $F_1$  bounded. Then

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \neq \emptyset$$

The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Every bounded sequence of real numbers has a convergent subsequence.

The Extreme Value Theorem

The Extreme Value Theorem

A continuous real-valued function on a nonempty closed, bounded set of real numbers takes a minimum and maximum value.

Every interval is a measurable set.

Every interval is a measurable set.

true

The translate of a measurable set is measurable.

The translate of a measurable set is measurable.

true

Continuity of measure

## Continuity of measure

Lebesgue measure possesses the following continuity properties:

(i) If  $\{A_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is an ascending collection of measurable sets, then

$$m\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \lim_{k \to \infty} m\left(A_k\right)$$

(ii) If  $\{B_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is a descending collection of measurable sets and  $m(B_1)$ 

 $\infty$ , then

$$m\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k\right) = \lim_{k \to \infty} m\left(B_k\right)$$

The Borel-Cantelli Lemma

## The Borel-Cantelli Lemma

Lemma Let  $\{E_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a countable collection of measurable sets for which  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} m(E_k) < \infty$ . Then almost all  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  belong to at most finitely many of the  $E_k$  's.

Vitali's Theorem

## Vitali's Theorem

Any set E of real numbers with positive outer measure contains a subset that fails to be measurable.

A measurable set that is not Borel

A measurable set that is not Borel

There is a measurable set, a subset of the Cantor set, that is not a Borel set.

The function  $\psi$  maps a non-Borel measurable set to a nonmeasurable set.

The function  $\psi$  maps a non-Borel measurable set to a nonmeasurable set.

Let  $\varphi$  be the Cantor-Lebesgue function and define the function  $\psi$  on [0,1] by

$$\psi(x) = \varphi(x) + x \text{ for all } x \in [0, 1]$$

Then  $\psi$  is a strictly increasing continuous function that maps [0,1] onto [0,2],

(ii) maps a measurable set, a subset of the Cantor set, onto a nonmeasurable set.

A continuous function defined on a measurable set is measurable.

A continuous function defined on a measurable set is measurable.

true

A monotone function defined on an interval is measurable.

A monotone function defined on an interval is measurable.

true

The composition of a continuous function and a measurable function is measurable.

The composition of a continuous function and a measurable function is measurable.

true

The pointwise limit of a sequence of measurable function is measurable.

The pointwise limit of a sequence of measurable function is measurable.

true

The Vitali Covering Lemma

The Vitali Covering Lemma

Let E be a set of finite outer measure and  $\mathcal{F}$  a collection of closed, bounded intervals that covers E in the sense of Vitali. Then for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a finite disjoint subcollection  $\{I_k\}_{k=1}^n$  of  $\mathcal{F}$  for which

$$m^* \left| E \sim \bigcup_{k=1}^n I_k \right| < \epsilon$$

Jordan decomposition of a function of bounded variation

Jordan decomposition of a function of bounded variation

We call the expression of a function of bounded variation f as the difference of increasing functions a Jordan decomposition of f.

Indefinite integral of a Lebesgue integrable function over a closed, bounded interval.

Indefinite integral of a Lebesgue integrable function over a closed, bounded interval.

We here call a function f on a closed, bounded interval [a,b] the indefinite integral of g over [a,b] provided g is Lebesgue integrable over [a,b] and

$$f(x) = f(a) + \int_a^x g \text{ for all } x \in [a, b]$$

Additivity over domains of integration

Additivity over domains of integration

Let f be integrable over E. Assume A and B are disjoint measurable subsets of E. Then

$$\int_{A \cup B} f = \int_{A} f + \int_{B} f.$$

Lebesgue's Theorem on Riemann integrability

Lebesgue's Theorem on Riemann integrability

Let f be a bounded function on the closed, bounded interval [a, b]. Then f is Riemann integrable over [a, b] if and only if the set of points in [a, b] at which f fails to be continuous has measure zero.

Jordan's Theorem

Jordan's Theorem

A function f is of bounded variation on the closed, bounded interval [a, b] if and only if it is the difference of two increasing functions on [a, b].

Lebesgue Decomposition for a function of bounded variation

Lebesgue Decomposition for a function of bounded variation

The above decomposition of a function of bounded variation f as the sum g+h of two functions of bounded variation, where g is absolutely continuous and h is singular, is called a Lebesgue decomposition of f.

Young's Inequality

Young's Inequality

For 1 , q the conjugate of p, and any two positive numbers a and b,

$$ab \le \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}$$

Holder's Inequality

Holder's Inequality

Let E be a measurable set,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , and q the conjugate of p. If f belongs to  $L^p(E)$  and g belongs to  $L^q(E)$ , then their product  $f \cdot g$  is integrable over E and Hölder's Inequality Moreover, if  $f \neq 0$ , the function  ${}^2f^* = \|f\|_n^{1-p} \cdot \operatorname{sgn}(f) \cdot |f|^{p-1}$  belongs to  $L^q(X, \mu)$ ,

$$\int_{E} f \cdot f^* = ||f||_p \text{ and } ||f^*||_q = 1$$

It is convenient, for  $f \in L^p(E)$ ,  $f \neq 0$ , to call the function  $f^*$  defined above the conjugate function of f.

Minkowski's Inequality

Minkowski's Inequality

Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \le p \le \infty$ . If the functions f and g belong to  $L^p(E)$ , then so does their sum f + g and, moreover,

$$||f + g||_p \le ||f||_p + ||g||_p$$

The Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

The Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

Let E be a measurable set and f and g measurable functions on E for which  $f^2$  and  $g^2$  are integrable over E. Then their product  $f \cdot g$  also is integrable over E and

$$\int_{E} |fg| \le \sqrt{\int_{E} f^2 \cdot \sqrt{\int_{E} g^2}}$$

The Riesz-Fischer Theorem

The Riesz-Fischer Theorem

Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \le p \le \infty$ . Then  $L^p(E)$  is a Banach space. Moreover, if  $\{f_n\} \to f$  in  $L^p(E)$ , a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  converges pointwise a.e. on E to f. The Riesz Representation Theorem for the Dual of  $L^p(E)$ 

The Riesz Representation Theorem for the Dual of  $L^p(E)$ 

Let E be a measurable set,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , and q the conjugate of p. For each  $g \in L^q(E)$ , define the bounded linear functional  $\mathcal{R}_q$  on  $L^p(E)$  by

$$\mathcal{R}_g(f) = \int_E g \cdot f \text{ for all } f \text{ in } L^p(E)$$

Then for each bounded linear functional T on  $L^p(E)$ , there is a unique function  $g \in L^q(E)$  for which

$$\mathcal{R}_q = T$$
, and  $||T||_* = ||g||_q$ .

 $\epsilon - \delta$  Criterion for Continuity

 $\epsilon - \delta$  Criterion for Continuity

A mapping f from a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  to a metric space  $(Y, \sigma)$  is continuous at the point  $x \in X$  if and only if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is  $a\delta > 0$  for which if  $\rho(x, x') < \delta$ , then  $\sigma(f(x), f(x')) < \epsilon$ , that is,

$$f(B(x,\delta)) \subseteq B(f(x),\epsilon)$$

The Lebesgue Covering Lemma

The Lebesgue Covering Lemma

Let  $\{\mathcal{O}_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda}\in\Lambda}$  be an open cover of a compact metric space X. Then there is a number  $\epsilon>0$ , such that for each  $x\in X$ , the open ball  $B(x,\epsilon)$  is contained in some member of the cover.

## <u>Define</u>

Connectedness

Connectedness

A metric space (X, d) is connected if the only subsets of X which are both open and closed are  $\square$  and X. If  $A \subset X$  then A is a connected subset of X if the metric space (A, d) is connected.

Cauchy sequence

Cauchy sequence

A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is called a Cauchy sequence if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an integer N such that  $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$  for all  $n, m \ge N$ .

Uniform convergence

Uniform convergence

Let X be a set and  $(\Omega, \rho)$  a metric space and suppose  $f, f_1, f_2, \ldots$  are functions from X into  $\Omega$ . The sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to f-written  $f = u - \lim f_n$ -if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an integer N (depending on  $\epsilon$  alone) such that  $\rho(f(x), f_n(x)) < \epsilon$  for all x in X, whenever  $n \geq N$ .

Analytic function

Analytic function

A function  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  is analytic if f is continuously differentiable on G.

Principal branch of the logarithm

Principal branch of the logarithm

If G is an open connected set in  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $f:G\to\mathbb{C}$  is a continuous function such that  $z=\exp f(z)$  for all z in G then f is a branch of the logarithm. We designate the particular branch of the logarithm defined above on  $\mathbb{C}-\{z:z<0\}$  to be the principal branch of the logarithm.

Definition of Mobius map

Definition of Mobius map

A mapping of the form  $S(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$  is called a linear fractional transformation. If a, b, c, and d also satisfy  $ad - bc \neq 0$  then S(z) is called a Mobius transformation.

Symmetry Principle

Symmetry Principle

If a Mobius transformation T takes a circle  $\Gamma_1$  onto the circle  $\Gamma_2$  then any pair of points symmetric with respect to  $\Gamma_1$  are mapped by T onto a pair of points symmetric with respect to  $\Gamma_2$ .

Orientation Principle

Orientation Principle

Let  $\Gamma_1$  and  $\Gamma_2$  be two circles in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$  and let T be a Mobius transformation such that  $T(\Gamma_1) = \Gamma_2$ . Let  $(z_1, z_2, z_3)$  be an orientation for  $\Gamma_1$ . Then T takes the right side and the left side of  $\Gamma_1$  onto the right side and left side of  $\Gamma_2$  with respect to the orientation  $(Tz_1, Tz_2, Tz_3)$ .

Riemann-Stieltjes integral

Riemann-Stieltjes integral

Let  $\gamma: [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be of bounded variation and suppose that  $f: [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$  is continuous. Then there is a complex number I such that for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that when  $P = \{t_0 < t_1 < \ldots < t_m\}$  is a partition of [a, b] with  $||P|| = \max\{(t_k - t_{k-1}) : 1 \le k \le m\} < \delta$  then

$$\left|I - \sum_{k=1}^{m} f\left(\tau_{k}\right) \left[\gamma\left(t_{k}\right) - \left(t_{k-1}\right)\right]\right| < \varepsilon$$

for whatever choice of points  $\tau_k, t_{k-1} \leq \tau_k \leq t_k$ . This number I is called

the integral of f with respect to  $\gamma$  over [a,b] and is designated by

$$I = \int_a^b f d\gamma = \int_a^b f(t) d\gamma(t).$$

Cauchy's Estimate

Cauchy's Estimate

Let f be analytic in B(a;R) and suppose  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all z in B(a;R). Then

$$\left| f^{(n)}(a) \right| \le \frac{n! \, M}{R^n}$$

Liouville's Theorem

Liouville's Theorem

If f is a bounded entire function then f is constant.

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

If p(z) is a non constant polynomial then there is a complex number a with p(a) = 0.

Maximum Modulus Theorem

## Maximum Modulus Theorem

If G is a region and  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  is an analytic function such that there is a point a in G with  $|f(a)| \ge |f(z)|$  for all z in G, then f is constant.

Index of a closed rectifiable curve  $\gamma$  in  $\mathbb C$  with respect to a point  $a \notin \gamma$ 

Index of a closed rectifiable curve  $\gamma$  in  $\mathbb C$  with respect to a point  $a \notin \gamma$ 

If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in  $\mathbb{C}$  then for  $a \notin \{\gamma\}$ 

$$n(\gamma; a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} (z - a)^{-1} dz$$

is called the index of  $\gamma$  with respect to the point a. It is also sometimes called the winding number of  $\gamma$  around a.

When is an open set simply connected?

When is an open set simply connected?

An open set G is simply connected if G is connected and every closed curve in G is homotopic to zero.

A rectifiable curve homologous to zero

A rectifiable curve homologous to zero

If G is an open set then  $\gamma$  is homologous to zero, in symbols  $\gamma \approx 0$ , if  $n(\gamma; w) = 0$  for all w in  $\mathbb{C} - G$ .

Removable singularity of an analytic function at a point z = a

Removable singularity of an analytic function at a point z = a

A function f has an isolated singularity at z = a if there is an R > 0 such that f is defined and analytic in  $B(a; R) - \{a\}$  but not in B(a; R).

The point a is called a removable singularity if there is an analytic function  $g: B(a; R) \to \mathbb{C}$  such that g(z) = f(z) for 0 < |z - a| < R.

Pole of a function

## Pole of a function

If z = a is an isolated singularity of f then a is a pole of f if  $\lim_{z\to a} |f(z)| = \infty$ . That is, for any M > 0 there is a number  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $|f(z)| \ge M$  whenever  $0 < |z - a| < \epsilon$ . If an isolated singularity is neither a pole nor a removable singularity it is called an essential singularity.

Cauchy's Integral Formula (First Version)

Cauchy's Integral Formula (First Version)

Let G be an open subset of the plane and  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  an analytic function. If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in G such that  $n(\gamma; w) = 0$  for all w in  $\mathbb{C} - G$ , then for a in  $G - \{\gamma\}$ 

$$n(\gamma; a)f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z - a} dz.$$

Cauchy's Integral Formula (Second Version)

Cauchy's Integral Formula (Second Version)

Let G be an open subset of the plane and  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  an analytic function. If  $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_m$  are closed rectifiable curves in G such that  $n(\gamma_1; w) + \cdots + n(\gamma_m; w) = 0$  for all w in  $\mathbb{C} - G$ , then for a in  $G - \bigcup_{k=1}^m {\{\gamma_k\}}$ 

$$f(a) \sum_{k=1}^{m} n(\gamma_k; a) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_k} \frac{f(z)}{z - a} dz.$$

If f is analytic on an open connected set G and f is \_\_\_\_, then for each a in G with \_\_\_\_ there is an integer  $n \geq 1$  and an \_\_\_\_  $g: G \to \mathbb{C}$  such that \_\_\_\_ and for all z in G. That is, \_\_\_\_

If f is analytic on an open connected set G and f is \_\_\_\_, then for each a in G with \_\_\_\_ there is an integer  $n \geq 1$  and an \_\_\_\_  $g: G \to \mathbb{C}$  such that \_\_\_\_ and for all z in G. That is, \_\_\_\_

If f is analytic on an open connected set G and f is not identically zero, then for each a in G with f(a)=0 there is an integer  $n\geq 1$  and an analytic function  $g:G\to\mathbb{C}$  such that  $g(a)\neq 0$  and

$$f(z) = (z - a)^n g(z)$$

for all z in G. That is, each zero of f has finite multiplicity.

If  $\gamma:[0,1]\to\mathbb{C}$  is a closed rectifiable curve and  $a\notin\{\gamma\}$  then \_\_\_\_

is an \_\_\_\_.

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is an integer.

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is an integer.

Let  $\gamma$  be a closed rectifiable curve in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then

(i) 
$$n(\gamma; a) \longrightarrow \text{ of } G = \mathbb{C} - \{\gamma\}; \text{ and }$$

(ii)  $n(\gamma; a) = 0$  for a belonging  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} G$ .

Let  $\gamma$  be a closed rectifiable curve in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then

(i) 
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(ii) 
$$n(\gamma; a) = 0$$
 for  $a$  belonging  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} G$ .

Let  $\gamma$  be a closed rectifiable curve in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then

(i)  $n(\gamma; a)$  is constant for a belonging to a component of  $G = \mathbb{C} - \{\gamma\}$ ; and (ii)  $n(\gamma; a) = 0$  for a belonging to the unbounded component of G. is an integer.

Cauchy's Theorem for functions analytic in a disk

Cauchy's Theorem for functions analytic in a disk

if G is an open disk then

$$\int_{\gamma} f = 0$$

for any analytic function f on G and any closed rectifiable curve  $\gamma$  in G.

Cauchy's Integral Formula for Derivatives

## Cauchy's Integral Formula for Derivatives

Let G be an open subset of the plane and  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function. Let  $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_m$  be closed rectifiable curves in G such that

$$n(\gamma_1; w) + \dots + n(\gamma_m; w) = 0$$

for all w in  $\mathbb{C} - G$ . Then for a in  $G - \{\gamma\}$  and  $k \geq 1$ , we have

$$f^{(k)}(a) \sum_{j=1}^{m} n(\gamma_j; a) = k! \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_j} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{k+1}} dz$$

A region G is \_\_\_\_ if and only if  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty} - G$ , its complement in the extended plane, is connected in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$ .

A region G is \_\_\_\_ if and only if  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty} - G$ , its complement in the extended plane, is connected in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$ .

A region G is simply connected if and only if  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty} - G$ , its complement in the extended plane, is connected in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$ .

Let G be \_\_\_\_ and let  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function such the  $f(z) \neq 0$  for any z in G. Then there exists an analytic function  $g: G \to \mathbb{C}$  such that \_\_\_\_. If  $z_0 \in G$  and  $e^{w_0} = f(z_0)$ , we may choose g such that \_\_\_\_

Let G be  $\_\_$  and let  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function such the  $f(z) \neq 0$  for any z in G. Then there exists an analytic function  $g: G \to \mathbb{C}$  such that  $\_\_$ . If  $z_0 \in G$  and  $e^{w_0} = f(z_0)$ , we may choose g such that  $\_\_$ 

Let G be simply connected and let  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function such the  $f(z) \neq 0$  for any z in G. Then there exists an analytic function  $g: G \to \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = \exp g(z)$ . If  $z_0 \in G$  and  $e^{w_0} = f(z_0)$ , we may choose g such that  $g(z_0) = w_0$ 

Let z = a be an isolated singularity of f and let  $f(z) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - a)^n$  be its Laurent Expansion in ann (a; 0, R). Then:

(a) 
$$z = a$$
 is a \_\_\_\_ if and only if  $a_n = 0$  for  $n \le -1$ ;

(b) 
$$z = a$$
 is a \_\_\_\_ of order  $m$  if and only if  $a_{-m} \neq 0$  and  $a_n = 0$  for  $n \leq -(m+1)$ ;

(c) z = a is an\_\_\_\_ if and only if  $a_n \neq 0$  for infinitely many negative integers n.

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(c) z = a is an\_\_\_\_ if and only if  $a_n \neq 0$  for infinitely many negative integers n.

Let z = a be an isolated singularity of f and let  $f(z) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - a)^n$  be its Laurent Expansion in ann (a; 0, R). Then:

(a) z = a is a removable singularity if and only if  $a_n = 0$  for  $n \le -1$ ;

(b)  $\overline{z} = a$  is a pole of order m if and only if  $a_{-m} \neq 0$  and  $a_n = 0$  for  $n \leq -(m+1)$ ;

(c) z = a is an essential singularity if and only if  $a_n \neq 0$  for infinitely many negative integers n.

Suppose f has a pole of order m at z=a and put g(z)=\_\_\_; then \_\_\_\_

Suppose f has a pole of order m at z = a and put g(z) =; then

Suppose f has a pole of order m at z = a and put  $g(z) = (z - a)^m f(z)$ ; then

$$Res(f; a) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} g^{(m-1)}(a)$$

Polynomially convex hull of a compact set

Polynomially convex hull of a compact set

Let K be a compact subset of the plane; the polynomially convex hull of K, denoted by  $\hat{K}$ , is defined to be the set of all points w such that for every polynomial p

$$|p(w)| \le \max\{|p(z)| \colon z \in K\}.$$

That is, if the right hand side of this inequality is denoted by  $||p||_K$ , then

$$\hat{K} = \{w : |p(w)| \le ||p||_K \text{ for all polynomials } p\}.$$

harmonic conjugate

harmonic conjugate

If  $f: G \to \mathbb{C}$  is an analytic function then u = Re f and v = Im f are called harmonic conjugates.

Harmonic function

Harmonic function

If G is an open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  then a function  $u: G \to \mathbb{R}$  is harmonic if u has continuous second partial derivatives and

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

 $C(G,\Omega)$ 

 $C(G,\Omega)$ 

If G is an open set in  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $(\Omega, d)$  is a complete metric space then designate by  $C(G, \Omega)$  the set of all continuous functions from G to  $\Omega$ .

equicontinuous

equicontinuous

A set  $\mathscr{F} \subset C(G,\Omega)$  is equicontinuous at a point  $z_0$  in G iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that for  $|z - z_0| < \delta$ ,

$$d\left(f(z),f\left(z_{0}\right)\right)<\epsilon$$

for every f in  $\mathscr{F}.\mathscr{F}$  is equicontinuous over a set  $E\subset G$  if for every  $\epsilon>0$  there is a  $\delta>0$  such that for z and z' in E and  $|z-z'|<\delta$ ,

$$d\left(f(z), f\left(z'\right)\right) < \epsilon$$

normal

normal

A set  $\mathscr{F} \subset C(G,\Omega)$  is normal if each sequence in  $\mathscr{F}$  has a subsequence which converges to a function f in  $C(G,\Omega)$ .

Series representation for  $e^z$ 

Series representation for  $e^z$ 

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!}$$

Series representation for  $\log(z)$ 

Series representation for log(z)

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} \frac{(z-1)^k}{k}$$

Series representation for  $\sin(z)$ 

Series representation for  $\sin(z)$ 

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

Series representation for  $\cos(z)$ 

Series representation for  $\cos(z)$ 

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

Automorphisms of the unit disk

Automorphisms of the unit disk

$$f(z) = \frac{z_1 - z}{1 - \overline{z}_1 z} e^{i\theta}$$

sends  $z_1$  to zero

The Simple Approximation Lemma

The Simple Approximation Lemma

Let f be a measurable real-valued function on E. Assume f is bounded on E, that is, there is an M > 0 for which  $|f| \le M$  on E. Then for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there are simple functions  $\varphi_{\epsilon}$  and  $\psi_{\epsilon}$  defined on E which have the following approximation properties:

$$\varphi_{\epsilon} \leq f \leq \psi_{\epsilon} \text{ and } 0 \leq \psi_{\epsilon} - \varphi_{\epsilon} < \epsilon \text{ on } E$$

The Simple Approximation Theorem.

The Simple Approximation Theorem.

An extended real-valued function f on a measurable set E is measurable if and only if there is a sequence  $\{\varphi_n\}$  of simple functions on E which converges pointwise on E to f and has the property that

$$|\varphi_n| \le |f|$$

on E for all n. If  $f \geq 0$ , we may choose  $\{\varphi_n\}$  to be increasing.

Egoroff's Theorem

Egoroff's Theorem

Assume E has finite measure. Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of measurable functions on E that converges pointwise on E to the real-valued function f.

Then for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a closed set F contained in E for which

 $\{f_n\} \to f$  uniformly on F and  $m(E \sim F) < \epsilon$ .

Lusin's Theorem

Lusin's Theorem

Let f be a real-valued measurable function on E. Then for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a continuous function g on  $\mathbb{R}$  and a closed set F contained in E for which f = g on F and  $m(E \sim F) < \epsilon$ .

Continuous, Borel, and measurable functions

## Continuous, Borel, and measurable functions

f is continuous  $\iff$  for every open set  $\mathcal{O}$  we have  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$  is open.

f is Borel  $\iff$  for every open set  $\mathcal{O}$  we have  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$  is Borel.

f is measurable  $\iff$  for every open set  $\mathcal{O}$  we have  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$  is measurable.

The Bounded Convergence Theorem

### The Bounded Convergence Theorem

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of measurable functions on a set of finite measure E. Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is uniformly pointwise bounded on E, that is, there is a number  $M \geq 0$  for which

$$|f_n| \leq M$$

on E for all n. If  $\{f_n\} \to f$  pointwise on E, then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_E f_n = \int_E f.$$

Chebychev's Inequality

Chebychev's Inequality

Let f be a nonnegative measurable function on E. Then for any  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$m(\{x \in E : f(x) \ge \lambda\}) \le \frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot \int_{E} f(x) dx$$

Fatou's Lemma

#### Fatou's Lemma

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of nonnegative measurable functions on E. If  $\{f_n\} \to f$  pointwise a.e. on E, then

$$\int_{E} f \le \liminf \int_{E} f_{n}$$

The Monotone Convergence Theorem

### The Monotone Convergence Theorem

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be an increasing sequence of nonnegative measurable functions on E. Assume that  $f_n \to f$  pointwise a.e. on E. Then

$$\lim_{n} \int_{E} f_{n} = \int_{E} f.$$

Beppo Levi's Lemma

Beppo Levi's Lemma

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be an increasing sequence of nonnegative measurable functions on E. If the sequence of integrals  $\{\int_E f_n\}$  is bounded, then  $\{f_n\}$  converges pointwise on E to a measurable function f that is finite a.e. on E and

$$\lim_{n} \int_{E} f_{n} = \int_{E} f < \infty$$

The Vitali Convergence Theorem

The Vitali Convergence Theorem

Let E be of finite measure. Suppose the sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  is uniformly integrable over E. If  $f_n \to f$  pointwise a.e. on E, then f is integrable over E and

$$\lim_{n} \int_{E} f_{n} = \int_{E} f$$

The Lebesgue Dominated Convergence Theorem

# The Lebesgue Dominated Convergence Theorem

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of measurable functions on E. Suppose there is a function g that is integrable over E and dominates  $\{f_n\}$  on E in the sense that

$$|f_n(x)| \le g(x)$$

for all  $x \in E$  and for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $f_n \to f$  pointwise a.e. on E, then f is integrable over E and

$$\lim_{n} \int_{E} f_{n} = \int_{E} f.$$

(Riesz)

(Riesz)

If  $\{f_n\} \to f$  in measure on E, then there is a subsequence  $\{f_{n_k}\}$  that converges pointwise a.e. on E to f.

Lebesgue's Theorem

Lebesgue's Theorem

If the function f is monotone on the open interval (a, b), then it is differentiable almost everywhere on (a, b).

Theorem 6.8 Let the function f be absolutely continuous on the closed, bounded interval [a, b].

Theorem 6.8 Let the function f be absolutely continuous on the closed, bounded interval [a, b].

Then f is the difference of increasing absolutely continuous functions and, in particular, is of bounded variation.

Theorem 6.11 A function f on a closed, bounded interval [a, b] is absolutely continuous on [a, b] if and only if

Theorem 6.11 A function f on a closed, bounded interval [a, b] is absolutely continuous on [a, b] if and only if

it is an indefinite integral over [a, b].

Theorem 6.14 Let f be integrable over the closed, bounded interval [a, b].

Theorem 6.14 Let f be integrable over the closed, bounded interval [a, b].

Then  $\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_a^x f \right] = f(x)$  for almost all  $x \in (a, b)$ .

Theorem 7.6 Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \le p \le \infty$ .

Theorem 7.6 Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \le p \le \infty$ .

Then every rapidly Cauchy sequence in  $L^p(E)$  converges both with respect to the  $L^p(E)$  norm and pointwise a.e. on E to a function in  $L^p(E)$ .

Theorem 7.7 Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \le p < \infty$ . Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence in  $L^p(E)$  that converges pointwise a.e. on E to the function f which belongs to  $L^p(E)$ .

Theorem 7.7 Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \le p < \infty$ . Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence in  $L^p(E)$  that converges pointwise a.e. on E to the function f which belongs to  $L^p(E)$ .

Then

$$\{f_n\} \to f \text{ in } L^p(E) \Longleftrightarrow \lim_n \int_E |f_n|^p = \int_E |f|^p.$$

Theorem 7.12 Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \leq p < \infty$ .

Theorem 7.12 Let E be a measurable set and  $1 \le p < \infty$ .

Then  $C_c(E)$  is dense in  $L^p(E)$ .

Theorem 9.12 The following are complete metric spaces

Theorem 9.12 The following are complete metric spaces

(i) Each nonempty closed subset of Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(ii) For E a measurable set of real numbers and  $1 \le p \le \infty$ , each nonempty closed subset of  $L^p(E)$ .

(iii) Each nonempty closed subset of C[a, b].

Theorem 9.16 (Characterization of Compactness for a Metric Space)

Theorem 9.16 (Characterization of Compactness for a Metric Space)

For a metric space X, the following three assertions are equivalent: (i) X is complete and totally bounded;

(ii) X is compact;

(iii) X is sequentially compact.

Theorem 9.27 The following are separable metric spaces:

Theorem 9.27 The following are separable metric spaces:

(i) Each nonempty subset of Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ;

(ii) For E a Lebesgue measurable set of real numbers and  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , each nonempty subset of  $L^p(E)$ ;

(iii) Each nonempty subset of C[a, b].

The Baire Category Theorem Let X be a complete metric space.

The Baire Category Theorem Let X be a complete metric space.

(i) Let  $\{\mathcal{O}_n\}$  be a countable collection of open dense sets of X. Then the intersection  $\bigcap_n \mathcal{O}_n$  is also dense. (ii) Let  $\{F_n\}$  be a countable collection of closed hollow subsets of X. then the union  $\bigcup_n F_n$  is also hollow.

The Banach Contraction Principle

The Banach Contraction Principle

Let X be a complete metric space and the mapping  $T: X \to X$  be a contraction. Then T has exactly one fixed point.

(The cross ratio of four points)

(The cross ratio of four points)

If  $z_1 \in \mathbb{C}_{\infty}$  then  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is the image of  $z_1$  under the unique Möbius transformation which takes  $z_2$  to  $1, z_3$  to 0, and  $z_4$  to  $\infty$ .

If  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  are distinct points and T is any Möbius transformation then

If  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  are distinct points and T is any Möbius transformation then

$$(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4) = (Tz_1, Tz_2, Tz_3, Tz_4)$$

for any point  $z_1$ . (Möbius transformations preserve cross ratios.)

(Unique Interpolation)

(Unique Interpolation)

If  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  are distinct points in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$  and  $\omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4$  are also distinct points of  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$ , then there is one and only one Möbius transformation S such that  $Sz_2 = \omega_2, Sz_3 = \omega_3, Sz_4 = \omega_4$ .

Let  $z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4$  be four distinct points in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$ .

Let  $z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4$  be four distinct points in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$ .

Then  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is a real number if and only if all four points lie on a circle.

For any given circles  $\Gamma$  and  $\Gamma'$  in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$  there is a Möbius transformation T such that

For any given circles  $\Gamma$  and  $\Gamma'$  in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$  there is a Möbius transformation T such that

 $T(\Gamma) = \Gamma'$ . Furthermore we can specify that T take any three points on  $\Gamma$  onto any three points of  $\Gamma'$ . If we do specify  $Tz_j$  for j=2,3,4 (distinct  $z_j$  in  $\Gamma$ ) then T is unique.

Casorati-Weierstrass Theorem.

Casorati-Weierstrass Theorem.

Suppose that f has an essential singularity at z = a, and let  $\delta > 0$ . Then

$$\{f[\operatorname{ann}(a;0,\delta)]\}^- = \mathbb{C}.$$

Maximum Modulus Theorem-First Version.

Maximum Modulus Theorem-First Version.

If f is analytic in a region G and a is a point in G with  $|f(a)| \ge |f(z)|$  for all z in G then f must be a constant function.

Maximum Modulus Theorem-Second Version.

Maximum Modulus Theorem-Second Version.

Let G be a bounded open set in  $\mathbb C$  and suppose f is a continuous function on  $G^-$ which is analytic in G. Then

$$\max \{ |f(z)| : z \in G^{-} \} = \max \{ |f(z)| : z \in \partial G \}.$$

Maximum Modulus Theorem-Third Version.

Maximum Modulus Theorem-Third Version.

Let G be a region in  $\mathbb{C}$  and f an analytic function on G. Suppose there is a constant M such that  $\limsup |f(z)| \leq M$  for all a in  $\partial_{\infty}G$ . Then  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all z in G.

If G is open in  $\mathbb{C}$  then there is a sequence  $\{K_n\}$  of compact subsets of G such that  $G = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$ . Moreover, the sets  $K_n$  can be chosen to satisfy the following conditions:

If G is open in  $\mathbb{C}$  then there is a sequence  $\{K_n\}$  of compact subsets of G such that  $G = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$ . Moreover, the sets  $K_n$  can be chosen to satisfy the following conditions:

(a) 
$$K_n \subset \text{int } K_{n+1}$$
;

(b)  $K \subset G$  and K compact implies  $K \subset K_n$  for some n;

(c) Every component of  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty} - K_n$  contains a component of  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty} - G$ .

The Weierstrass Factorization Theorem.

The Weierstrass Factorization Theorem.

Let f be an entire function and let  $\{a_n\}$  be the non-zero zeros of f repeated according to multiplicity; suppose f has a zero at z=0 of order  $m \ge 0$  ( a zero of order m=0 at z=0 means  $f(0) \ne 0$ ). Then there is an entire function g and a sequence of integers  $\{p_n\}$  such that

$$f(z) = z^m e^{g(z)} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} E_{p_n} \left( \frac{z}{a_n} \right).$$

If f is a meromorphic function on an open set G then

If f is a meromorphic function on an open set G then

there are analytic functions g and h on G such that f = g/h.

 $\sin \pi z =$ 

 $\sin \pi z =$ 

$$\sin \pi z = \pi z \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( 1 - \frac{z^2}{n^2} \right)$$

The gamma function,  $\Gamma(z)$ , is the meromorphic function on with simple poles at  $z=0,-1,\ldots$  defined by

The gamma function,  $\Gamma(z)$ , is the meromorphic function on with simple poles at  $z=0,-1,\ldots$  defined by

$$\Gamma(z) = \frac{e^{-\gamma z}}{z} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( 1 + \frac{z}{n} \right)^{-1} e^{z/n}$$

where  $\gamma$  is a constant chosen so that  $\Gamma(1) = 1$ .

Bohr-Mollerup Theorem

## Bohr-Mollerup Theorem

Let f be a function defined on  $(0, \infty)$  such that f(x) > 0 for all x > 0. Suppose that f has the following properties:

(a)  $\log f(x)$  is a convex function;

(b)  $f(x+1) = x\overline{f(x)}$  for all x;

(c) f(1) = 1.

Then  $f(x) = \Gamma(x)$  for all x.

If  $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$  then

If  $\operatorname{Re} z > 0$  then

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{z-1} dt$$

Runge's Theorem.

Runge's Theorem.

Let K be a compact subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  and let E be a subset of  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty} - K$  that meets each component of  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty} - K$ . If f is analytic in an open set containing K and  $\epsilon > 0$  then there is a rational function R(z) whose only poles lie in E and such that

$$|f(z) - R(z)| < \epsilon$$

Mittag-Leffler's Theorem.

Mittag-Leffler's Theorem.

Let G be an open set,  $\{a_k\}$  a sequence of distinct points in G without a limit point in G, and let  $\{S_k(z)\}$  be the sequence of rational functions given by equation (3.1). Then there is a meromorphic function f on G whose poles are exactly the points  $\{a_k\}$  and such that the singular part of f at  $a_k$  is  $S_k(z)$ .

The function  $P_r$ 

The function  $P_r$ 

$$P_r(\theta) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^{|n|} e^{in\theta},$$

for  $0 \le r < 1$  and  $-\infty < \theta < \infty$ , is called the Poisson kernel.

$$P_r(\theta) = \frac{1 - r^2}{1 - 2r\cos\theta + r^2} = \operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{1 + re^{i\theta}}{1 - re^{i\theta}}\right)$$

The Poisson kernel satisfies the following:

The Poisson kernel satisfies the following:

(a) 
$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} P_r(\theta) d\theta = 1$$

(b) 
$$P_r(\theta) > 0$$
 for all  $\theta$ ,  $P_r(-\theta) = P_r(\theta)$ , and  $P_r$  is periodic in  $\theta$  with period  $2\pi$ ;

(c) 
$$P_r(\theta) < P_r(\delta)$$
 if  $0 < \delta < |\theta| \le \pi$ ;

(d) for each  $\delta > 0$ ,  $\lim_{r \to 1^-} P_r(\theta) = 0$  uniformly in  $\theta$  for  $\pi \ge |\theta| \ge \delta$ .

Let  $D = \{z : |z| < 1\}$  and suppose that  $f : \partial D \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function. Then

Let  $D = \{z : |z| < 1\}$  and suppose that  $f : \partial D \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function. Then

there is a continuous function  $u:D^-\to\mathbb{R}$  such that

(a) 
$$u(z) = f(z)$$
 for  $z$  in  $\partial D$ ;

(b) u is harmonic in D.

Moreover u is unique and is defined by the formula 2.5

$$u\left(re^{i\theta}\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} P_r(\theta - t) f\left(e^{it}\right) dt$$

for  $0 \le r < 1, 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ .

If  $u: D^- \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function that is harmonic in D

If  $u: D^- \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function that is harmonic in D

then

$$u\left(re^{i\theta}\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} P_r(\theta - t)u\left(e^{it}\right)dt$$

for  $0 \le r < 1$  and all  $\theta$ . Moreover, u is the real part of the analytic function

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{e^{it} + z}{e^{it} - z} u\left(e^{it}\right) dt$$

If  $u: G \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function which has the MVP then

If  $u: G \to \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function which has the MVP then

u is harmonic.

Harnack's Inequality

Harnack's Inequality

If  $u : \overline{B}(a; R) \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, harmonic in B(a; R), and  $u \ge 0$  then for  $0 \le r \le R$  and all  $\theta$ 

$$\frac{R-r}{R+r}u(a) \le u\left(a+re^{i\theta}\right) \le \frac{R+r}{R-r}u(a)$$

 $\sigma$ -algebra

 $\sigma$ -algebra

A collection of subsets of  $\mathbf{R}$  is called an  $\sigma$ -algebra provided it contains  $\mathbf{R}$  and is closed with respect to the formation of complements and countable unions; by De Morgan's Identities, such a collection is also closed with respect to the formation of countable intersections. The preceding proposition tells us that the collection of measurable sets is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

Borel set

Borel set

The intersection of all the  $\sigma$ -algebras of subsets of  $\mathbf{R}$  that contain the open sets is a  $\sigma$ -algebra called the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra; members of this collection are called Borel sets.

Measurable set

Measurable set

The collection  $\mathcal{M}$  of measurable sets is a  $\sigma$ -algebra that contains the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  of Borel sets. Each interval, each open set, each closed set, each  $G_{\delta}$  set, and each  $F_{\sigma}$  set is measurable.

A property that holds almost everywhere

A property that holds almost everywhere

For a measurable set E, we say that a property holds almost everywhere on E, or it holds for almost all  $x \in E$ , provided there is a subset  $E_0$  of E for which  $m(E_0) = 0$  and the property holds for all  $x \in E \sim E_0$ .

The Cantor set

The Cantor set

We define the Cantor set  $\mathbf{C}$  by

$$\mathbf{C} = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} C_k.$$

The collection  $\{C_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  possesses the following two properties:

(i)  $\{C_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is a descending sequence of closed sets;

(ii) For each  $k, C_k$  is the disjoint union of  $2^k$  closed intervals, each of length  $1/3^k$ .

The Cantor-Lebesgue function  $\varphi$ 

The Cantor-Lebesgue function  $\varphi$ 

The Cantor-Lebesgue function  $\varphi$  is an increasing continuous function that maps [0,1] onto [0,1]. Its derivative exists on the open set  $\mathcal{O}$ , the complement in [0,1] of the Cantor set,

$$\varphi' = 0$$
 on  $\mathcal{O}$  while  $m(\mathcal{O}) = 1$ 

Measurable function

## Measurable function

Let the function f have a measurable domain E. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(i) For each real number c, the set  $\{x \in E \mid f(x) > c\}$  is measurable.

(ii) For each real number c, the set  $\{x \in E \mid f(x) \geq \overline{c}\}$  is measurable.

(iii) For each real number c, the set  $\{x \in E \mid f(x) < c\}$  is measurable. (iv) For each real number c, the set  $\{x \in E \mid f(x) \le c\}$  is measurable.

Each of these properties implies that for each extended real number c, the set  $\{x \in E \mid f(x) = c\}$  is measurable.

Upper and lower Riemann integrals of a bounded function

Upper and lower Riemann integrals of a bounded function

Define the lower and upper Darboux sums for f with respect to P, respectively, by

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

and

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1}),$$

where, <sup>1</sup> for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,

$$m_i = \inf \{ f(x) \mid x_{i-1} < x < x_i \} \text{ and } M_i = \sup \{ f(x) \mid x_{i-1} < x < x_i \}.$$

We then define the lower and upper Riemann integrals of f over [a, b], respectively, by  $(R) \int_a^b f = \sup\{L(f, P) \mid P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\}$  and  $(R) \overline{\int}_a^b f = \inf\{U(f, P) \mid P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\}$ 

Upper and lower Lebesgue integrals of a measurable function

Upper and lower Lebesgue integrals of a measurable function

Let f be a bounded real-valued function defined on a set of finite measure E. By analogy with the Riemann integral, we define the lower and upper Lebesgue integral, respectively, of f over E to be

$$\sup \left\{ \int_{E} \varphi \mid \varphi \text{ simple and } \varphi \leq f \text{ on } E, \right\}$$

and

$$\inf \left\{ \int_{E} \psi \mid \psi \text{ simple and } f \leq \psi \text{ on } E \right\}$$

Lebesgue integrability of a bounded function on a measurable set of finite measure

Lebesgue integrability of a bounded function on a measurable set of finite measure

A bounded function f on a domain E of finite measure is said to be Lebesgue integrable over E provided its upper and lower Lebesgue integrals over E are equal. The common value of the upper and lower integrals is called the Lebesgue integral, or simply the integral, of f over E and is denoted by  $\int_E f$ .

Convergence in measure

Convergence in measure

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of measurable functions on E and f a measurable function on E for which f and each  $f_n$  is finite a.e. on E. The sequence  $\{f_n\}$  is said to converge in measure on E to f provided for each  $\eta > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} m \{ x \in E | |f_n(x) - f(x)| > \eta \} = 0$$

Upper and lower derivatives of a function at a point in its domain

Upper and lower derivatives of a function at a point in its domain

For a real-valued function f and an interior point x of its domain, the upper derivative of f at x,  $\overline{D}f(x)$  and the lower derivative of f at x,  $\underline{D}f(x)$  are defined as follows:

$$\overline{D}f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \left[ \sup_{0 < |t| \le h} \frac{f(x+t) - f(x)}{t} \right]$$

$$\underline{D}f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \left[ \inf_{0 < |t| \le h} \frac{f(x+t) - f(x)}{t} \right].$$

Differentiability of a function at a point in its domain

Differentiability of a function at a point in its domain

We say that f is differentiable at x and define f'(x) to be the common value of the upper and lower derivatives.

Variation of function with respect to a partition

Variation of function with respect to a partition

Let f be a real-valued function defined on the closed, bounded interval [a, b] and  $P = \{x_0, \ldots, x_k\}$  be a partition of [a, b]. Define the variation of f with respect to P by

$$V(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})|$$

Total variation of a function

Total variation of a function

$$TV(f) = \sup\{V(f, P) \mid P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\}$$

Function of bounded variation

Function of bounded variation

A real-valued function f on the closed, bounded interval [a,b] is said to be of bounded variation on [a,b] provided

$$TV(f) < \infty$$

Absolute continuity of a function on a closed, bounded interval

Absolute continuity of a function on a closed, bounded interval

A real-valued function f on a closed, bounded interval [a, b] is said to be absolutely continuous on [a, b] provided for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is  $a\delta > 0$  such that for every finite disjoint collection  $\{(a_k, b_k)\}_{k=1}^n$  of open intervals in (a, b),

if 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} [b_k - a_k] < \delta$$
, then  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} |f(b_k) - f(a_k)| < \epsilon$ 

Lipschitz function

Lipschitz function

The function f is said to be Lipschitz provided there is a  $c \geq 0$  for which

$$|f(x') - f(x)| \le c \cdot |x' - x|$$
 for all  $x', x \in E$ .

Total variation function

Total variation function

Thus

Therefore the function  $x \mapsto TV\left(f_{[a,x]}\right)$ , which we call the total variation function for f, is a real-valued increasing function on [a,b]. Moreover, for  $a \le u < v \le b$ , if we take the crudest partition  $P = \{u,v\}$  of [u,v], we have

 $|f(u)-f(v_0)| \le |f(v)-f(u)| = V(f_{[u,v]}, P) \le TV(f_{[u,v]}) = TV(f_{[a,v]}) - TV(f_{[a,v]})$ 

$$f(v) + TV\left(f_{[a,v]}\right) \ge f(u) + TV\left(f_{[a,u]}\right) \text{ for all } a \le u < v \le b$$

Divided difference function and Average value function

Divided difference function and Average value function

Let f be integrable over the closed, bounded interval [a,b]. Extend f to take the value f(b) on (b,b+1]. For  $0 < h \le 1$ , define the divided difference function Diff h and average value function  $\operatorname{Av}_h f$  of [a,b] by  $\operatorname{Diff}_h f(x) = \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$  and  $\operatorname{Av}_h f(x) = \frac{1}{h} \cdot \int_x^{x+h} f$  for all  $x \in [a,b]$  By a change of variables in the integral and cancellation, for all  $a \le u < v \le b$ ,

$$\int_{u}^{v} \operatorname{Diff}_{h} f = \operatorname{Av}_{h} f(v) - \operatorname{Av}_{h} f(u)$$

A cover of a set in the sense of Vitali

A cover of a set in the sense of Vitali

A collection  $\mathcal{F}$  of closed, bounded, nondegenerate intervals is said to cover a set E in the sense of Vitali provided for each point x in E and  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an interval I in  $\mathcal{F}$  that contains x and has  $\ell(I) < \epsilon$ .

Uniform integrability

Uniform integrability

A family  $\mathcal{F}$  of measurable functions on E is said to be uniformly integrable over E provided for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that for each  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ,

if 
$$A \subseteq E$$
 is measurable and  $m(A) < \delta$ , then  $\int_A |f| < \epsilon$ 

Essentially bounded function

Essentially bounded function

We call a function  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  essentially bounded provided there is some  $M \geq 0$ , called an essential upper bound for f, for which

 $|f(x)| \le M$  for almost all  $x \in E$ 

Essential supremum of a function

Essential supremum of a function

For a function f in  $L^{\infty}(E)$ , define  $||f||_{\infty}$  to be the infimum of the essential upper bounds for f. We call  $||f||_{\infty}$  the essential supremum of f and claim that  $||\cdot||_{\infty}$  is a norm on  $L^{\infty}(E)$ .

Linear functional on a linear space

Linear functional on a linear space

A linear functional on a linear space X is a real-valued function T on X such that for g and h in X and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  real numbers,

$$T(\alpha \cdot g + \beta \cdot h) = \alpha \cdot T(g) + \beta \cdot T(h)$$

Bounded linear functional on a normed linear space

Bounded linear functional on a normed linear space

For a normed linear space X, a linear functional T on X is said to be bounded provided there is an M > 0 for which

$$|T(f)| \le M \cdot ||f||$$
 for all  $f \in X$ 

The infimum of all such M is called the norm of T and denoted by  $||T||_*$ .

Metric on a nonempty set

Metric on a nonempty set

Let X be a nonempty set. A function  $\rho: X \times X \to \mathbf{R}$  is called a metric provided for all x, y, and z in X

(i) 
$$\rho(x,y) \ge 0$$
;

(ii)  $\rho(x,y) = 0$  if and only if x = y;

(iii) 
$$\rho(x,y) = \rho(y,x)$$
;

(iv) 
$$\rho(x, y) \le \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y)$$
.

Point of closure of a subset E of a metric space X

Point of closure of a subset E of a metric space X

For a set E of real numbers, a real number x is called a point of closure of E provided every open interval that contains x also contains a point in E. The collection of points of closure of E is called the closure of E and denoted by  $\overline{E}$ .

Separable metric space

Separable metric space

A subset D of a metric space X is said to be dense in X provided every nonempty open subset of X contains a point of D. A metric space X is said to be separable provided there is a countable subset of X that is dense in X.

Contracting sequence of subsets of a metric space

Contracting sequence of subsets of a metric space

For a nonempty subset E of a metric space  $(X, \rho)$ , we define the diameter of E, diam E, by

$$\operatorname{diam} E = \sup \{ \rho(x, y) \mid x, y \in E \}$$

We say E is bounded provided it has finite diameter. A descending sequence  $\{E_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of nonempty subsets of X is called a contracting sequence provided

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \operatorname{diam}\left(E_n\right) = 0$$

Compact metric space

Compact metric space

A metric space X is called compact provided every open cover of X has a finite subcover. A subset K of X is called compact provided K, considered as a metric subspace of X, is compact.

Sequentially compact metric space

Sequentially compact metric space

A metric space X is said to be sequentially compact provided every sequence in X has a subsequence that converges to a point in X.

Totally bounded metric space

Totally bounded metric space

A metric space X is said to be totally bounded provided for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , the space X can be covered by a finite number of open balls of radius  $\epsilon$ . A subset E of X is called totally bounded provided that E, considered as a subspace of the metric space X, is totally bounded.

Lebesgue number for an open cover

Lebesgue number for an open cover

If  $\{\mathcal{O}_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda}\in\Lambda}$  is an open cover of a metric space X, then each point  $x\in X$  is contained in a member of the cover,  $\mathcal{O}_{\lambda}$ , and since  $\mathcal{O}_{\lambda}$  is open, there is some  $\epsilon>0$ , such that

$$B(x,\epsilon) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_{\lambda}$$

In general, the  $\epsilon$  depends on the choice of x. The following proposition tells us that for a compact metric space this containment holds uniformly in the sense that we can find  $\epsilon$  independently of  $x \in X$  for which the inclusion (4) holds. A positive number  $\epsilon$  with this property is called a Lebesgue number for the cover  $\{\mathcal{O}_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda}\in\Lambda}$ .

Nowhere dense subset of a metric space

Nowhere dense subset of a metric space

A subset E of a metric space X is called nowhere dense provided its closure  $\overline{E}$  is hollow.