## Complex Analysis

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## 1 Power Series

- $\bullet P(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + a_3 z^3 \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n.$
- If P(z) converges at z = a then it converges absolutely for all |z| < |a|.
- If P(z) diverges at z = d then it diverges absolutely for all |z| > |d|.
- If two power series  $A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  and

 $B(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n \text{ agree on an infinite sequence}$   $(\neq 0)$  converging to zero then they are same i.e.  $a_i = b_i \ \forall i$ .

- In general for  $P_b(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-b)^n$  above holds as in displacement or translation of b to o i.e.  $P_b(z) = P(w)$  for w = z b.
- if radius of convergence of  $P(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  is R then:

$$\blacksquare R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|.$$

$$\blacksquare R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{1}{|a_n|^{1/n}} \right|.$$

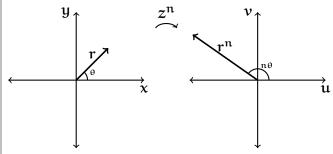
$$\blacksquare \ R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{{}_{1}}{\operatorname{limsup} |\alpha_{n}|^{1/n}} \right|.$$

• Radius of convergence of the power series of f(z) at k is equal to distance between k and closest singularity of f(z) to k.

## **2 Transformations**

2.1 Z<sup>n</sup>.

- $w = z^n = r^n e^{in\theta}$ .
- so from above each z is magnified  $|z|^n$  times and rotated  $n \arg(z)$  times in the plane i.e.

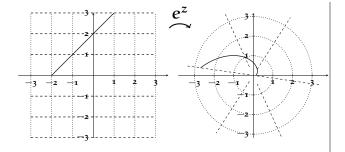


- Images of circles are circle (with expanded or contracted radius), lines are lines
- Most geometric shapes just expand/diminished (amplified) and gets rotated (twist)

2.2  $e^z$ .

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- $w = e^z = e^x e^{iy} = e^x \cos y + i e^x \sin y = u + iv$ .
- $e^z = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots$ and radius of convergence  $=\infty$ .
- $e^z$  takes all values in  $\mathbb{C}$  infinitely many times except zero i.e. range( $e^z$ )= $\mathbb{C} \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .
- if x is constant then  $u^2 + v^2 = e^x = r$  $\implies$  horizontal lines are mapped to circle.
- if y is constant then  $\frac{v}{u} = \tan y$  or v = cu  $\implies$  vertical lines are mapped to lines passing through origin (not including the origin).
- every other line is mapped to a spiral centred at origin (not including).



## 2.3 Trigonometric functions

$$\cos(z) = 1 - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \frac{z^6}{6!} \dots$$

$$= \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}$$

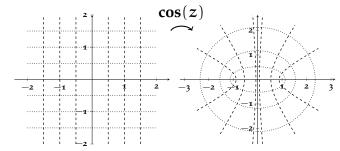
$$\sin(z) = z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \frac{z^7}{7!} \dots$$

$$= \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$

- $\cos(z-\pi/2) = \sin(z)$ .
- $\cosh(z) = \cos(iz)$ .
- $\sinh(z) = -i \sin(iz)$ .
- so exploring only one of trigonometric functions namely **cos** *z* is sufficient
- now  $\cos(x + iy) = \frac{e^{ix}e^{-y} + e^{-ix}e^{y}}{2}$ =  $\frac{e^{y} + e^{-y}}{2}\cos(x) - i\frac{e^{y} - e^{-y}}{2}\sin(x)$ =  $\cosh y \cos x - i \sinh y \sin x = u + iv$ .
- for z = x + iy and  $w = \cos(z) = u + iv$  if  $y = y_0$ , is kept constant then  $\frac{u^2}{\cosh^2 y_0} + \frac{v^2}{\sinh^2 y_0} = 1$ .
- ullet so every horizontal line is transformed to an ellipse with foci's  $\pm 1$ .

(as  $\alpha = \sinh y_0$   $b = \cosh y_0 \implies c = b^2 - \alpha^2 = 1$  (unit from origin) so foci's = (1,0), (-1,0).)

- similarly  $x=x_0$ . is kept constant then  $\frac{u^2}{\cos^2 x_0} \frac{v^2}{\sin^2 x_0} = \mathbf{1}.$
- so every vertical line is transformed to hyperbola with foci's  $\pm 1$ .



- 2.4  $\log(z)$ .
- it denotes the inverse function of exponential
- $log(re^{i\theta}) = ln(r) + i\theta$ .
- Clearly  $\log$  is a multifunction as  $\log(re^{i\theta}) = \ln(r) + i(\theta + 2n\pi)$ .
- properties of multifunctions:
- a region in range where multifunction takes ordinary single value is called a branch.
- typically branches are connected regions (simply or multiply)
- q is branch point of multifunction if after a revolution around the point in domain the multifunction changes its values on the original observed point
- **q** is algebraic branch point of f(z) if f(z) returns to original observed value after N revolutions around q, its order is N-1, a simple branch point has order 1.
- ullet q is logarithmic branch point if order is  $\infty$  i.e. the original value is not restored by any number of revolution around the point.
- any curve drawn from branch point to  $\infty$  is called a branch cut, typically is -ve real axis.
- eg:  $z^{\frac{m}{n}}$  is one—n mutifunction has branch point o of order n-1,  $z^{\tau}$  for  $\tau$  irrational has logarithmic branch point of o.,
- a function can have more than one branch point eg:  $\sqrt{z^2 + 1} = \sqrt{(z i)(z + i)}$  has  $\pm i$  as simple branch points.
- if a complex function or a branch of multifunction can be expressed as power series then the **radius of convergence** is distance to the nearest singularity or branch point.
- log(z) has logarithmic branch point at **o**.

- Log(z) =  $\ln |z| + i \operatorname{Arg}(z)$  where the branch cut is -ve real axis and  $-\pi < \operatorname{Arg}(z) \le \pi$  is called principle branch.
- continuity of Log(z) breaks down at  $Arg(z) = \pi$ .
- Log(1+z) =  $z \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{3} \frac{z^4}{4} + ...$  is a power series centered at 1 with radius of convergence 1 converges on this unit circle except for z = -1.
- other branches of log(z) can be explored by writing  $log(z) = Log(z) + 2n\pi i$ .
- $z^k = e^{k\log(z)} = e^{2n\pi ki}e^{k\log(z)} = e^{2n\pi ki}[z^b]$  where  $[z^k]$  denotes root in principle branch. thus
- $z^{p/q} = e^{p/q 2n\pi i} [z^{p/q}].$
- Now for complex powers

$$[z^{a+ib}] = e^{(a+ib)(Log(z))}$$

$$= e^{(a+ib)(ln(r)+i\theta)}$$

$$= e^{a ln(r)} e^{-b\theta} e^{i(a\theta+b ln(r))}$$

so 
$$[z^{a+ib}] = |z|^a e^{-b \operatorname{Arg}(z)} e^{i(a \operatorname{Arg}(z) + b \ln |z|)}$$
  
and  $z^{a+ib} = e^{i2\pi na} e^{-2\pi nb} [z^{a+ib}]$ 

#### 2.5 Geometric transforms

- translation by  $v: J_v(z) = z + v$  translates  $0 \rightarrow v$ .
- rotation about origin by  $\theta$  :  $R_o^{\theta}(z) = e^{i\theta}z$ .
- rotation about w by  $\theta$ .:  $R_w^{\theta} = J_w \circ R_o^{\theta} \circ J_{-w}(z)$ .
- Properties:
- $\{J_w\}$  forms a group under composition
- $\mathbf{R}_{w}^{\theta} = \mathbf{J}_{v} \circ \mathbf{R}_{o}^{\theta} \text{ where } \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{1} \mathbf{e}^{\theta})$
- i.e. rotation about any point is equal to a rotation around origin proceeded by translation.
- if  $\theta + \phi = 2n\pi$  then  $R_a^{\theta} \circ R_b^{\phi} = J_v$  where  $v = (b a)(1 e^{i\phi})$ .
- Reflection about a line  $L_1 = \Re_{L_1}$ .
- Reflection about real axis  $\Re_{y=0} = \overline{z}$ .

• Reflection about line ax + by = c is

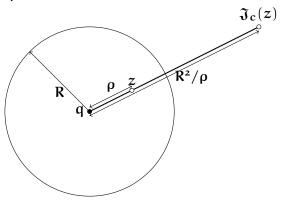
$$\mathfrak{R}_{ax+by=c} = \frac{(b-ia)\overline{z} + 2ic}{b+ia}.$$

(can be done by transforming line to real axis by translation and rotation then conjugation and followed by inverse back to same line transformation).

- Properties:
- If L1 and L2 intersect at O, and the angle from L1 to L2 is  $\phi$ , then  $\mathfrak{R}_{L_2} \circ \mathfrak{R}_{L_1}$  is a rotation of  $2\phi$  about O i.e.  $R_O^{2\phi}$ .
- If L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> are parallel, and v is the perpendicular vector to both lines, connecting L<sub>1</sub> to L<sub>2</sub> (i.e. distance vector), then  $\mathfrak{R}_{L_2} \circ \mathfrak{R}_{L_1}$  is a translation of 2v i.e.  $J_{2v}$ .

2.6 
$$\frac{1}{7}$$

- before studying  $\frac{1}{z}$  we can study inversion about a circle :
- ullet  ${\mathfrak J}_{c}(z)$  is the inversion of points in circle c centered at  ${\mathfrak q}$  with radius  ${\mathfrak R}$  i.e. it transforms interior of circle to exterior and points on circle remain fixed
- some defining properties of  $\mathfrak{J}_c$  (inversion of about circle c of radius R and centred at q.):
  - $\blacksquare q \to \infty$ .
- if z is at distance  $\rho$  from q then it is moved to distance  $R^2/\rho$  along same direction as z from q i.e.



$$\mathfrak{J}_{c}(z) = \frac{R^{2}}{\overline{z} - \overline{q}}$$

(as 
$$\overline{(z-q)}(\mathfrak{J}_{c}(z)-q)=R^{2}$$
.)

- Properties of inversion ( $\mathfrak{J}_c$  centred q radius R.):
- inversion is involutory i.e.  $\mathfrak{J}_c \circ \mathfrak{J}_c(z) = z$  or  $\mathfrak{J}_c^2 = I$ .
- if  $\tilde{\mathfrak{a}} = \mathfrak{J}_{c}(\mathfrak{a})$  and  $\tilde{\mathfrak{b}} = \mathfrak{J}_{c}(\mathfrak{b})$  then  $\triangle \tilde{\mathfrak{a}} q \tilde{\mathfrak{b}}$  is similar to  $\triangle \mathfrak{a} q \mathfrak{b}$ .
- every line that does not pass through q is mapped to a circle passing through q.
- $\blacksquare$  as inversion is involutory it swaps the above point i.e. a circle passing through  $\mathfrak{q}$  is mapped to a line not passing through  $\mathfrak{q}$ .
- A circle not passing through **q** is mapped to another circle not passing through **q** i.e. **inversion preserves circles**.
- if a circle k cuts circle c at a and b at right angles i.e. k is orthogonal to c then k is mapped to itself i.e. inversion maps orthogonal circles to c to itself.
- Inversion in a circle is anticonformal map
- If  $\mathfrak a$  and  $\mathfrak b$  are symmetric with respect to circle k then their inversion images  $\tilde{\mathfrak a}$  and  $\tilde{\mathfrak b}$  are also symmetric with respect to the inversion image circle  $\tilde{k}$  of k.
- i.e. Inversion maps any pair of orthogonal circles to another pair of orthogonal circles.
- also if  $\alpha$  and b are symmetric w.r.t line  $L_1$  (i.e. are reflections) then their inversion images are also symmetric to the inversion line  $\tilde{L_1}$ .
- now  $\frac{1}{z} = \overline{\left(\frac{1}{\overline{z}}\right)}$  so  $\frac{1}{z}$  is reflection of inversion centered at origin with unit radius on real axis, so all properties of inversion holds as reflection preserves shapes.
- now as both inversion and conjugation are anticonformal implies 1/z is a conformal map
- define inverse point w.r.t. circle  $C_{(z_0,R)} = \{z | |z-z_0| = R\}$  as  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha^*$  are inverse points w.r.t  $C_{(z_0,R)}$  if  $\alpha \mapsto \alpha^*$  under  $\mathfrak{F}_{C_{(z_0,R)}}(z)$  i.e. if  $\alpha^* = z_0 + \frac{R^2}{\alpha z_0}$  or  $(\alpha^* z_0)\overline{(\alpha z_0)} = R^2$ .

### 2.7 Mobius Transforms

$$M(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}$$

$$= \frac{a}{c} - \frac{ad - bc}{c^2} \left( \frac{1}{z + \frac{d}{c}} \right)$$

$$= J_{a/c} \circ Az \circ \overline{\mathfrak{J}_u} \circ J_{d/c}(z)$$

where  $A = \frac{ad - bc}{-c^2}$ ,  $u \equiv \{|z| = 1\}$ .

- The only shape changing transformation in M(z) is conjugate inversion, so all symmetries and properties of inversion follow to mobius transform.
- Properties
- every mobius transform maps circles and straight lines onto circles and straight lines.
- above point may not be same order i.e. some circles can be mapped to straight lines and visaviz. namely a straight line or a circle maps onto a straight line if it passes through the point z = -d/c, and onto a circle if it does not i.e. lines and circles not passing trough -d/c are mapped to circle.
- mobius transform is conformal
- more over mobius transforms are the only transforms that **map circles to circles**
- To be specific A Mobius transformation maps an oriented circle  $\mathbf{C}$  to an oriented circle  $\tilde{\mathbf{C}}$  in such a way that the region to the left of  $\mathbf{C}$  is mapped to the region to the left of  $\tilde{\mathbf{C}}$ .
- Symmetric principle: If two points are symmetric with respect to a circle i.e. inverse points w.r.t a circle, then their images under a Mobius transformation are symmetric with respect to the image circle. transformation are symmetric with respect to the image circle.
- every mobius transform has only 2 fixed points
- there exist a unique mobius transform sending any three points to any three points.
- the coefficients of a mobius transform  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  are not unique as any  $k \neq o$ .  $\{ka, kb, kc, kd\}$  gives same mobius transform
- define cross ratio as  $[z, a, b, c] = \frac{(z-a)(b-c)}{(z-c)(b-a)}$

• p, q, r, s are mapped to  $\tilde{p}$ ,  $\tilde{q}$ ,  $\tilde{r}$ ,  $\tilde{s}$  by a Mobius Transformation iff

$$[p, q, r, s] = [\tilde{p}, \tilde{q}, \tilde{r}, \tilde{s}].$$

i.e. Mobius transforms are cross-ratio invariant.

• Unique Mobius transform M(z) = w that transforms  $a \rightarrow r, b \rightarrow s, c \rightarrow t$  is

$$[w, r, s, t] = [z, a, b, c]$$

or

$$\frac{(z-a)(b-c)}{(z-c)(b-a)} = \frac{(w-r)(s-t)}{(w-t)(s-r)}.$$

#### 2.8 More on Mobius Transforms

• now as coefficients of mobius transform are not unique if ad - bc = 1 in M(z) then we can associate a matrix for each of these mobius transforms from which resembling matrix properties can be associated to properties of transform i.e.

$$M(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d} \longleftrightarrow [M] = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Properties:
- $M_3 = M_1 \circ M_2(z)$  them  $[M_3] = [M_2][M_1]$ .
- if inverse of M(z) is  $M^{-1}(z)$  then  $[M^{-1}] = [M]^{-1}$ .
- identity transform [I] = [1, 0; 0, 1].
- Thus M(z) of form a group (for  $ad bc \neq 0$ , = 1) as  $SL(\mathbb{R}, 2)$  is a subgroup of  $GL(\mathbb{R}, 2)$ .
- Homogeneous coordinates  $z = \frac{v_1}{v_2}$  for  $v_i \in \mathbb{C}$ .
- [M] is a liner transform on homogeneous coordinates of z that transforms homogeneous coordinates of z to homogeneous coordinates of M(z) i.e if  $z = \nu_1/\nu_2$ ,  $M(z) = w = \rho_1/\rho_2$ . then

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \nu_1 \\ \nu_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \rho_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(although homogeneous coordinates may not be unique but their ratios ought to be )

- **★** Properties:
- $z = (v_1/v_2)$  is a fixed point of M(z) iff  $[v_1 \quad v_2]^T$  is an eigenvector of [M].

# 3 Automorphisms, Conformality and map of unit disks

- any disk or half plain can be mapped to itself using mobius transform i.e. under specified mobius transforms say  $M_1$  we can have  $M_1(D) = D$  for a disk  $D = \{z | |z a| \le r\}$  and for  $M_2(\mathbb{H}) = \mathbb{H}$  for any half plane  $\{z = x + iy | ax + by \ge c\}$  (note: this is mere a bijection with restrictions, not the identity map in disk or half plane).
- more over the only conformal bijections (automorphisms) of disks  $\mapsto$  disks, half planes  $\mapsto$  half planes are **Mobius Transforms only**.
- Let C be a unit circle in C and D be the unit disk it covers then :
- mobius transform's are the only automorphisms conformal on this unit disk
- this mobius automorphism's on unit disk has 3 degree of freedom (only 3 real numbers specify it)
- Now if two Mobius automorphisms on unit disk are say M and N map two interior points to same image points i.e. the agree on two interior points then M=N (as this takes 4 degree of freedom from both transforms)
- if **D** is centered at origin then these 3 degrees of freedom are a point in **D** (a = (x + iy),  $x, y \rightarrow 2$  degrees) that maps to origin and a point  $e^{i\theta}$  on the disk **C** ( $\theta \rightarrow 1$  degree) that 1 is mapped to (i.e.  $a = x + iy \mapsto 0$ ,  $1 \mapsto e^{i\theta}$ ).
- as  $\alpha$  is mapped to o, and mobius transform preserves symmetry between points and their images (inversion) we have the point  $1/\overline{\alpha}$  is mapped to  $\infty$  (as C maps to itself,  $\alpha$ ,  $1/\overline{\alpha}$  are symmetric w.r.t C their images should be 0,  $\infty$ ).
- so now  $a \mapsto o \implies M(z) = \frac{k(z-a)}{d}$ ,  $\mathbf{1}/\overline{a} \mapsto \infty \implies M(z) = k\frac{z-a}{\overline{a}z-1}$  and as  $M(\mathbf{1}) \in C \implies |M(\mathbf{1})| = \mathbf{1} \implies k = e^{\mathbf{1}\Phi}$  so the automorphism of unit disk  $(|z| \le \mathbf{1})$  i.e. mobius transform is determined only by  $a = x + \mathbf{i}y \mapsto o(|a| < \mathbf{1})$  and  $b \mapsto \mathbf{1}(|b| = \mathbf{1})$  this is given by:

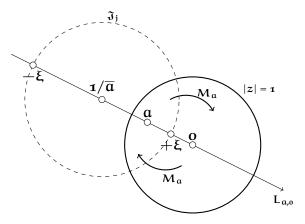
$$M_{\mathfrak{a}}^{\Phi}(z) = e^{i\Phi} \frac{z - \mathfrak{a}}{\overline{\mathfrak{a}}z - \mathfrak{1}}.$$

now for

$$M(w) = \frac{pz + q}{\overline{q}z + \overline{p}}$$

for  $|\mathbf{p}| > |\mathbf{q}|$  then  $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{w})$  is an automorphism of unit disk (transform this to  $\mathbf{M}_{\alpha}^{\Phi}$  for  $\alpha = q/p$  and  $e^{i\Phi} = p/\overline{p}$ .)

- clearly  $M_{\alpha}^{\Phi}(z) = e^{i\Phi}M_{\alpha}^{0}(z)$  so is just rotation of  $M_{\alpha}^{0} = M_{\alpha}(z)$ .
- properties of  $M_{\alpha}$ :
- $M_{\alpha}$  is the only Mobius automorphism that swaps  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma$  (i.e.  $M_{\alpha}(\alpha) = \sigma$ ,  $M_{\alpha}(\sigma) = \alpha$ .)
- now as an inversion about circle c maps circles orthogonal c to themselves (automorphism) thus automorphisms of unit circle can be viewed as inversions about circles orthogonal to unit circle to uncover this we break down that as  $a \mapsto o$  and inversion circle is orthogonal to unit circle the center of inversion is on the line between a to o and as inversion is symmetric  $1/\overline{a} \mapsto \infty$  we conclude that center of inversion is  $1/\overline{a}$ .
- as  $M_{\alpha}$  is conformal the above inversion should be coupled with reflection (on line perhaps) to give the exact map, as this reflection leaves  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$  fixed we conclude this is reflection about line  $\alpha$  to  $\alpha$  ( $L_{\alpha,\alpha}$ .)
- thus  $M_{\alpha} = \Re_{L_{\alpha,0}} \circ \mathfrak{J}_{j}$ .
- thus fixed points  $(\pm \xi)$  of  $M_{\alpha}$  is the intersection of  $L_{\alpha,0}$  and j.
- $M_{\alpha}$  is Involutory.



• if  $\mathbb{H}^{\pm}$  represents the upper or lower half plane (Im(z) > 0 or < 0),  $\delta = \Delta(0,1)$  unit disk at origin and  $\partial \Delta = \{|z| = 1\}$  then :

■ for fixed  $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  if  $Im(\beta) > o$  then

$$w = f(z) = e^{i\theta} \frac{z - \beta}{z - \overline{\beta}}.$$

are the only conformal maps that maps  $\mathbb{H}^+ \mapsto \delta \text{ , } \beta \mapsto \text{ o and real line} + \infty = \mathbb{R}_\infty \mapsto \frac{\partial \Delta}{|\alpha|} \text{ (to see assume } |w| < \text{ 1} \iff |z - \overline{\beta}|^2 - |z - \beta|^2 > \text{ o} \iff -2\text{Re}(z(\beta - \overline{\beta})) = \frac{4(\text{Im}(z))(\text{Im}(\beta)) > \text{ o.)}}{|\alpha|}$ 

• now if we use transform  $R_0^{\pi}(z) = e^{i\pi}z = -z$  which rotates  $\mathbb{H}^+$  to  $\mathbb{H}^-$  we get  $g = f \circ R_0^{\pi}(z)$ .

$$g(z) = e^{i\theta} \frac{z - b}{z - \overline{b}}.$$

for  $Im(\mathfrak{b})$  < 0, are the only conformal maps that map  $\mathbb{H}^-\mapsto \delta$  ,  $\mathfrak{b}\mapsto 0$  and  $\mathbb{R}_\infty\mapsto \partial\Delta$ .

• similarly if  $h(z) = f \circ R_0^{\pi/2}$ 

$$h(z) = e^{i\theta} \frac{z - \gamma}{z + \overline{\gamma}}.$$

for Re(b) > o, are the only conformally maps that map Right half plane  $(Re(z) > o) \mapsto \delta$ ,  $\gamma \mapsto o$ .

- a Mobius transform w = az + b/cz + d maps  $\mathbb{H}^+ \mapsto \mathbb{H}^+$  iff  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ , ad bc > o (i.e. automorphisms of  $\mathbb{H}^+$ .)
- similar to above point a Mobius transform w = az + b/cz + d maps  $\mathbb{H}^- \mapsto \mathbb{H}^-$  iff  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}, ad bc < o$  (i.e. automorphisms of  $\mathbb{H}^-$ .)

## 4 Stereographic projection

- To visually represent the whole complex plane and the point  $\infty$  Riemann project the whole complex plane to a sphere: Riemann sphere ( $\Sigma$ ) centered at origin a unit radius in 3 dimensions where the xy plane is  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- The point N = (0,0,1) (north pole) maps to  $\infty$  (in a pseudo sense) and every other point (z) is mapped to  $(\hat{z})$ the point of intersection of the Riemann sphere and the line through N and the point.
- Properties:
- Unit circle C = |z| = 1 remains fixed

- interior of C is mapped to Southern hemisphere particularly  $\mathbf{o} \mapsto (\mathbf{o}, \mathbf{o}, -\mathbf{1}) = \mathbf{S}.(\text{south pole})$
- exterior of **C** is mapped to Northern hemisphere
- A line in C is mapped to circle passing through N particularly the tangent of this circle at N is parallel to the line (in 3 dimensions)
- It is **conformal map** in accordance to an observer **from inside of**  $\Sigma$ .
- Stereographic projection is can be broken down as inversion in the plane through  $\{N, z \mapsto \hat{z}\}$ : if **K** is a circle centered at **N** of radius  $\sqrt{2}$  in the plane where line through **N** and z passes then  $\hat{z}$  is the image  $\mathfrak{J}_{K}(z)$  in this plane (this plane is considered as  $\mathbb{C}$  for  $\mathfrak{J}_{K}(z)$ .)
- From above it is clear that Circles are mapped to circles in particular origin centered circles are mapped to horizontal circles (i.e circles in planes parallel to xy. plane)
- Properties related to functions:
- lacktriangle Complex conjugation in  $\Bbb C$ . induces a reflection of the Riemann sphere in the vertical plane passing through the real axis.
- Inversion of  $\mathbb{C}$  in the unit circle induces a reflection of the Riemann sphere in its equatorial plane (i.e. Northern hemisphere  $\longleftrightarrow$  Southern Hemisphere).
- The mapping  $z \to (\mathbf{1}/z)$  in  $\mathbb C$  induces a rotation of the Riemann sphere about the real axis through an angle of  $\pi$ .
- $lue{}$  properties functions like conformality at  $\infty$  can be checked through Stereographic projection.
- formulas of Projection
- $\blacksquare$  if  $z \mapsto (X, Y, Z)$  then:

$$Z = \frac{|z|^2 - 1}{|z|^2 + 1} , X + iY = \frac{2z}{1 + |z|^2} = \frac{2x + i2y}{1 + x^2 + y^2}$$

- if  $z \mapsto (\theta, \phi)$  for  $\theta$  angle subtended around z axis in xy plane and  $\phi$  angle subtended at center by N and  $\hat{z}$  then:
- $z = \cot(\phi/2)e^{i\theta} \text{ or }$   $\theta = \operatorname{Arg}(z), \quad \phi = 2\cot^{-1}(|z|).$

## 5 Analyticity

• if  $z(x + iy) \mapsto f(z) = w(u + iv)$  then  $df = du + idv du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}dy$  and  $dv = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial v}{\partial u}dy$  i.e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} du \\ dv \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vartheta_x u & \vartheta_y u \\ \vartheta_x v & \vartheta_y v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} dx \\ dy \end{bmatrix}.$$

- where the linear transform is the Jacobian matrix of **f**.
- now in  $\mathbb{C}$  if df(w) = f'(z)dz to be true f'(z) should not depend on dz i.e. each infinitesimal vector dz at z should transform to dw at w = f(z) by the same factor f'(z) no matter the direction of dz..
- this condition tells us that dw is just the amplification and rotation or twist or together amplitwist of dz (as  $f'(z) \in \mathbb{C} \implies dw = f'(z)dz = r'e^{i\theta'}dz$ .)
- now if f is diffrentiable at z then f'(z) exist so the infinitesimal map at point z is an amplitwist.
- clearly amplitwist is conformal (as amplification and twist is)
- now for the converse if a map is conformal at z then it is not presupposed to be amplitwist at z as the amplification may vary but if we presuppose that the map is locally conformal at z (i.e in some whole neighborhood) then clearly the map is locally amplitwist at z (as infinitesimal  $\triangle$  is mapped to similar infinitesimal  $\triangle$ ).
- By above we define **Analytic functions**: functions in  $\mathbb{C}$  whose effect are locally (infinitesimal) an amplitwist or a function is analytic at z if it is diffrentiable at z and in a neighborhood of z. (as diffrentiable in neighborhood makes it locally conformal).
- Thus we have an **Analytic function is Conformal**.
- Geometric properties of Analytic function:
- infinitesimal circles are mapped to infinitesimal circles
- A mapping between spheres represents an analytic function iff it is conformal.

- Conformality of analytic functions breakdown near critical points (f'(z) = o) and branch points.
- Geometric property of general transform on  $\mathbb{C}$ : as jacobian is a linear transform by singular value decomposition of  $\mathbf{2} \times \mathbf{2}$  matrices we have the local linear transform by a complex mapping is a stretch in direction  $(\mathbf{d})$ , another stretch in direction perpendicular to in  $(\mathbf{d}^{\perp})$ . and finally a twist. in particular an infinitesimal circle is transformed to an ellipse (may not be conformal).

#### • C-R equations :

■ now as f is analytic  $\implies$  f'(z) ∈  $\mathbb{C}$  so multiplying by Jacobian matrix is equivalent to a complex multiplication now as

$$(a+ib)(x+iy) = (ax-by)+i(bx+ay)$$

$$\longleftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax-by \\ bx+ay \end{bmatrix}$$
. we have  $J = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_x u & \partial_y u \\ \partial_x v & \partial_y v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$ . i.e.
$$\partial_x u = \partial_y v, \quad \partial_y u = -\partial_x v.$$

which gives the Cartesian-Cartesian form(C-C) now in Polar-Cartesian (P-C) form we have  $f(re^{i\theta}) = u + iv$  and C-R equations are

 $i\partial_x f = \partial_{11} f$ .

$$\partial_{\theta} v = r \partial_{r} u$$
,  $\partial_{\theta} u = -r \partial_{r} v$ .  
 $\partial_{\theta} f = i r \partial_{r} f$ .

(P-P) form  $f(re^{i\theta}) = Re^{i\Psi}$  C-R equations

$$\partial_{\theta}R = -rR\partial_{r}\Psi$$
,  $R\partial_{\theta}\Psi = r\partial_{r}R$ .

(C-P) form  $f(x + iy) = Re^{i\Psi}$ . C-R equations

$$\partial_x \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R} \partial_y \Psi, \quad \partial_y \mathbf{R} = -\mathbf{R} \partial_x \Psi.$$

- General properties of Analytic functions:
- if f, g are analytic then f + g,  $f \times g$ ,  $f \circ g$ ,  $f^{-1}$  are analytic when ever they are defined, in particular as f is amplitwist locally there is a 1-1 correspondence in a neighbourhood of non critical points to their images  $\implies$  that local inverse exists.

- if f is analytic in E then so is f' (i.e. f is infinitely differentiable in the defined region)
- every zero or an analytic point is isolated (generally p-point of f or pre-image of p in f doesn't have a limit point.)
- **Identity/Uniqueness Theorem**: restating the above we have, if f(z) is analytic in **D** and if **S** set of zeroes of f(z) and if **S** has a limit point in **D** then  $f(o) \equiv o$  in **D** (in general if **p**-points of **f** has a limit point then  $f(z) \equiv p$ ).
- Extending the above we get, if even an arbitrarily small segment of curve is crushed to a point by an analytic mapping, then its entire domain will be collapsed down to that point (i.e. the function is constant) (this property is known as **Rigidity**)
- from above if f, g analytic agree on a curve or more generally  $\{a_n\} \mapsto a$  then  $f \equiv g$ .
- if some identity of analytic function f(z) holds when restricted to  $\mathbb{R}$  then it holds for entire  $\mathbb{C}$ . (eg: odd and evenness.)

## 6 Analytic continuation

- an analytic function or a power series can be extended (from defined) to other regions this is analytical so called Analytic continuation.
- Analytic continuation via reflection:
- if f is an generalization of a real function (defined on  $\mathbb{R}$ ) and is known in upper or lower parts of real axis (in some region with some parts of  $\mathbb{R}$  as boundary) then it can be **analytically continued by**  $f*(z) = \overline{f(\overline{z})}$  in the other half part (reflection by  $\overline{z}$  part of region)(this holds by property of rigidity of analytic functions).
- In general if f maps a line ( $\hat{L}$ ) to another line ( $\hat{L}$ ) then we can analytically continue one side of  $\hat{L}$  to the other by using the fact that points symmetric in  $\hat{L}$  map to points symmetric in  $\hat{L}$ .
- similarly if f maps a circle  $\hat{C}$  to circle  $\hat{C}$  then mobius transforms can be used to translated these to symmetries i.e.  $M: C \mapsto L$ ,  $\hat{M}: \hat{C} \mapsto \hat{L}$  (as composition by mobius transfor

ehic are analytic doesnt change the analyticity of  $f \mapsto \hat{M} \circ f \circ M^{-1}$ ).

#### • Schwarzian Reflection:

- Given a sufficiently smooth curve K, it is possible to find an analytic function  $S_K(z)$  such that  $z \in K \implies S_K(z) = \overline{z}$  then
- Schwarz function of  $K = \tilde{z} = \mathfrak{R}_K(z) = \overline{S_K(z)}$ .
- clearly if  $q \in K$   $\tilde{q} = \overline{S_K(q)} = \overline{\overline{q}} = q$  i.e. remains unchanged.
- Also as  $S_K$  just amplitwists infinitesimal disk at  $q \in K$  to infinitesimal disk in  $\overline{q} \in \overline{K}$  we observe that for  $S_K|qp \mapsto \overline{qp}$  (for  $p,q \in K$ , qp infinitesimal) amplification = 1 and twist =  $-2\varphi$  where  $\varphi$  is the angle b/w tangent to K at q with horizontal
- so from above we get if  $\mathfrak a$  is on infinitesimal circle passing through K then  $\tilde{\mathfrak a}=\mathfrak R_K(\mathfrak a)$  is reflection along the tangent of K. i.e  $\mathfrak R_K$  near K is sort of like Reflection in K (pseudo).
- $\mathfrak{R}_K$  is anticonformal so  $\mathfrak{R}_K \circ \mathfrak{R}_K$  is conformal so analytic (as amplification=1) and as  $\mathfrak{R}_K \circ \mathfrak{R}_K$  maps infinitesimal areas around K to itself thus agrees with Identity so is Identity i.e.  $\mathfrak{R}_K \circ \mathfrak{R}_K(z) = z$ .
- Now if **K** is a smooth enough curve to posses  $S_K$  and any analytical map **f** defined on a region bordering **K** such that  $\hat{K} = f(K)$  also posses  $S_{\hat{K}}$  then we can analytically continue **f** around **K** (reflection of region by **K**) by demanding points symmetric to **K** are mapped to points symmetric to  $\hat{K}$  by **f** and this analytic continuation is given by:

$$F = \Re_{\hat{K}} \circ f \circ \Re_{K}$$
.

## 7 Complex Integration

- ullet we define complex integration as the generalized Riemann Integration over a given path  ${\mathfrak a}$  to  ${\mathfrak b}$  or as contour integration
- clearly integration here depends on path
- ullet complex integration can be visualized as weighted vector sum : if S is path from a to b and  $\Delta_i$  's are vector decomposition (partition

of S and linearly) that form S ,  $w_j = f(\min \Delta_j)$  i.e  $f(\min \text{ points of } \Delta_j.)$  then we can generalize as

$$\int_{S} f(z) dz = \sum_{j \to \infty} w_{j} \Delta_{j}$$

• from above we get: if  $|f| \le M$  in image of **K**. then

$$\left| \int_{S} f(z) dz \right| \leq M. \text{length of } K.$$

### • Winding number and properties :

- winding number for a closed loop L and a point a = v(L, a) is the number of revolutions z a makes as it traces L (where we fixing a direction for counter-clockwise revolution is +ve and clockwise is -ve by convention)
- A simple loop is a closed curve that doesnt intersect with itself
- now as a point moves from left to right if it crosses a boundary of the loop and the loops direction is downwards (upwards) the winding number increased (decreases) by 1 (here the first entry of the point to loop is made to be in loop moving in downwards direction).
- we define inside of a loop L to be regions (points) where  $v[L, \alpha] \neq 0$ .
- Hopf's degree Theorem(ristricted to C): A loop K may be continuously deformed into another loop L, without ever crossing the point p, if and only if K and L have the same winding number round p.
- **d** is a **p**-point of a function **f** if set of pre-images of **p** in **f** contains **d** i.e.  $\mathbf{d} \in f^{-1}(\mathbf{p}).(\text{pre-image})$
- Argument-Principle theorem: If f(z) is analytic inside and on a simple loop  $\Gamma$ , and N is the number of p-points (counted with their multiplicities) inside  $\Gamma$ , then  $N = \nu(f(\Gamma), p]$ .
- if f analytic, f(a) p = o and for  $\Delta = z a$   $f(a + \Delta) = p + \Omega(Z)\Delta^n$  (obtained by Taylor series) here algebraic multiplicity of a in f is n, for sufficiently small circle  $C_a$  around a that doesnt have any other p-points then

$$v(f(C_a), a) = n.$$

i.e.  $f(C_{\alpha})$  loops around p exactly n times.

- now we define  $\mathbf{v}(\mathfrak{a})$  for a continuous function  $\mathbf{h}$  as : if  $\mathbf{h}(\mathfrak{a}) = \mathbf{p}$ ,  $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}$  is the loop having only  $\mathfrak{a}$  and no other  $\mathfrak{p}$ -points then topological multiplicity  $\mathbf{v}(\mathfrak{a}) = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{h}(\Gamma_{\mathfrak{a}}), \mathfrak{a})$ .
- clearly as analytical maps are conformal we have  $\nu(\alpha)$  is always +ve ( $\neq 0$ .) for analytic functions
- $v(a) = \text{sign of } \det(J(a))$  where J is Jacobian
- Topological Argument-Principle theorem: for a continuous map h the total number of p-points inside  $\Gamma$ . (counted with their topological multiplicities) is equal to the winding number of  $h(\Gamma)$  round p..
- **Darboux's Theorem**: If an analytic function h maps  $\Gamma$  onto  $h(\Gamma)$  in one-to-one fashion, then it also maps the interior of  $\Gamma$  onto the interior of  $h(\Gamma)$  in one-to-one fashion.
- Rouche's Theorem : for f, g analytic in and on  $\Gamma$ , If |g(z)| < |f(z)| on  $\Gamma$  , then (f+g) must have the same number of zeros inside  $\Gamma$  as f.
- Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem: any continuous mapping of the disc to itself will have a fixed point.

In general there must be a fixed point if the disc is mapped into its interior and there are at most a finite number of fixed points. (now if the map is analytic then the number of fixed points inside the disk is only one).

- If f is analytic inside and on a simple loop  $\Gamma$  then no point outside  $f(\Gamma)$  can have a preimage inside  $\Gamma$ .(i.e interior of  $\Gamma$  maps to interior of  $f(\Gamma)$ .)
- Maximum Modulus Theorem: The maximum (minimum respectively if  $f(z) \neq 0$  inside the closed boundary) of |f(z)| on a region where f is analytic is always achieved by points on the boundary, never ones inside.
- Schwarz's Lemma: If an analytic mapping of the disc to itself leaves the center fixed, then either every interior point moves nearer to the center, or else the transformation is a simple rotation. (i.e. them map is contractive towards the center).

#### • General Schwarz's Lemma :

If  $f : \Delta(\{|z| < 1\}) \mapsto \overline{\Delta}$  is analytic and has a zero of order n at origin then:

$$|f(z)| \le |z|^n \ \forall z \in \Delta.$$

 $|f^n(o)| < n!$ 

- if Equality holds (any one) for any point inside  $\Delta$  other than  $\mathbf{0}$  then  $\mathbf{f}(z) = \alpha z^n$ ,  $|\alpha| = \mathbf{1}$ .
- modifying Schwarz's lemma we get for f analytic in  $\Delta(\alpha,R)$ ,  $|f(z)| \leq M$  in  $\Delta(\alpha,R)$  and  $f(\alpha) = o$  then (applying Schwarz's lemma for  $g(z) = f(Rz + \alpha)/M$  i.e.  $z \rightarrow Rz + \alpha$  for |z| < 1)

$$|f(z)| \le \frac{M|z - a|}{R}$$

for every  $z \in \Delta(\alpha, R)$ .

 $|f'(\alpha)| \leq \frac{M}{R}.$ 

- and if equality holds for any two then  $f = M\varepsilon(z-\alpha)/R$  for some  $|\varepsilon| = 1$ .
- Schwarz-Pick Lemma: Unless an analytic mapping of the unit disc to itself is a automorphism the hyperbolic separation of every pair of interior points decreases.

i.e.

if **f** is analytic on  $\Delta$ ,  $|\mathbf{f}(z)| \leq \mathbf{1} \forall z \in \Delta$  and  $\mathbf{f}(\alpha) = \mathbf{b}$  for some  $\alpha, \mathbf{b} \in \Delta$ , then

$$|f'(\alpha)| \leq \frac{1 - |f(\alpha)|^2}{1 - |\alpha|^2}.$$

and for  $\alpha, \alpha' \in \Delta$ 

$$\rho(f(\alpha), f(\alpha')) \leq \rho(\alpha, \alpha').$$

where  $\rho(z, \alpha) = |(z - \alpha)/(\overline{\alpha}z - 1)|$ .

- Liouville's Theorem :An analytic mapping cannot compress the entire plane into a region lying inside a disc of finite radius without crushing it all the way down to a point, i.e. a bounded entire function is constant or bounded harmonic function is constant (by Taylor series)
- Generalized Liouville's Theorem: if f is an entire function such that  $|f(z)| \leq M|z|^{\alpha}$  for all sufficiently large |z| and  $\alpha \geq 0$ , M > 0 then f

reduces to a polynomial of maximum degree n closest integer to  $\alpha$ .

- Generalized Argument-principle theorem :Let f be analytic on a simple loop  $\Gamma$  and analytic inside except for a finite number of poles. If N and M are the number of interior p-points and poles, both counted with their multiplicities, then  $\nu(f(\Gamma), p) = N M$ .
- for any closed loop L  $\oint_L \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i \nu(L, 0)$  in general

$$\oint_{L} \frac{1}{z-p} dz = 2\pi i \nu(L, p).$$

• now as  $Im(a\overline{b}) \equiv a \times b$  it gives  $2 \times$  the area enclosed by triangle formed by sides a and b vectors so we have for a simple loop L:

$$\oint_{\mathbf{L}} \overline{z} dz = 2i \times \text{area enclosed by } \mathbf{L}.$$

for general loop L

$$\oint_{L} \overline{z} dz = 2i \times \sum_{\text{inside}} v_{j} A_{j}.$$

where  $A_j$  is the area enclosed by points which have  $v_j = v(L, p) = \alpha \neq 0$  constant (i.e form a part of loop).

- Cauchy's Theorem :If an analytic mapping has no singularities "inside" a loop, its integral round the loop vanishes (i.e. = 0).
- from above we get in integral of analytic functions are **path independent**.
- Morera's Theorem : If all the loop integrals of f are known to vanish in a region then f is analytic in that region.
- if  $m \neq -1$  then

$$\int_{A}^{B} z^{m} dz = \frac{1}{m+1} (B^{m+1} - A^{m+1})$$

• clearly from above we have

$$\oint z^{\mathbf{m}} dz = \mathbf{0} \text{ if } \mathbf{m} \neq -\mathbf{1}.$$

- **Deformation Theorem**: If a contour sweeps only through analytic points as it is deformed, the value of the integral does not change.
- Cauchy's formula : if f(z) is analytic inside a simple loop L then

$$f^{n}(\alpha) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_{L} \frac{f(z)}{(z-\alpha)^{n+1}} dz.$$

• General Cauchy's theorem : if L is not simple then

$$\nu(L,\alpha)f^{n}(\alpha) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_{L} \frac{f(z)}{(z-\alpha)^{n+1}} dz.$$

• Taylor Series: If f(z) is analytic, and a is neither a singularity nor a branch point, then f(z) may be expressed as the following power series, which converges to f(z) within the disc whose radius is the distance from  $\mathfrak a$  to the nearest singularity or branch point:

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z - a)^n$$
, where

$$c_n = \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_L \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz.$$

ullet Laurent Series: if f is analytic inside an annulus centered at  ${\mathfrak a}$  then f an be expressed as the following series (for any simple loop K inside the annulus)

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

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

ullet General Residue Theorem : from Laurent series and integral of  $z^m$  we have if f is analytic then for a loop L containing only isolated singularities  $\{a_k\}$  of f, we have:

$$\oint_{L} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k} v[L, a_{k}] Res(f, a_{k}).$$

where  $Res(f, a_i) = a_{-1}$  or coefficient of  $1/(z - a_i)$  when f is written as Laurent series centered at  $a_i$  containing no other singularity.

• if  $\alpha$  is a pole of f of order m. (i.e.  $\lim_{z\to\alpha}(z-\alpha)^m f(z)=c$  defined) then  $\operatorname{Res}(f(z),\alpha)$ 

$$= \lim_{z \mapsto a} \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} (z-a)^m f(z).$$

• if P/Q has a simple pole (order 1) at  $\alpha$  then

Res 
$$\left(\frac{P}{Q}(z), \alpha\right) = \frac{P(\alpha)}{Q'(\alpha)}$$
.

• Gauss mean value theorem : for a harmonic function  $\phi$  ( $\partial_x^2 \phi + \partial_y^2 \phi = o$ ) the mean value of  $\phi$  on a circle is equat to the vale of function at center of the circle i.e.

if f(z) is analytic then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi} f(\alpha + re^{i\theta}) d\theta = f(\alpha)$$

• Residue at infinity: for analytic f we have

$$\operatorname{Res}(\mathbf{f}(z), \infty) = -\operatorname{Res}\left(\frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{1}/z)}{z^2}, \mathbf{o}\right).$$

=  $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C^-} f(z) dz = -a_{-1}$ , where  $C^-$  is a circle oriented —vely covering all singularities  $(\neq \infty)$  of f(z).

• Extended Residue theorem: for analytic f we have

$$\operatorname{Res}\left(\frac{f(1/z)}{z^2}, o\right) = \sum_{k} \operatorname{Res}(f, a_k)$$

where  $a_k \neq \infty$  also if simple loop  $\gamma$  includes all finite singularities of f(z) then

$$\oint_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res} \left( \frac{f(1/z)}{z^2}, o \right).$$

• Argument-Principle theorem (integral form) : if f(z) is a meromorphic function in domain  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ , has finitely many zeroes and poles in D, C is any simple loop in D such that no pole or zero lie 'on' C then

$$\oint_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = 2\pi i (N - P).$$

where N and P denote the number of zeroes and poles of f inside C (counted with their multiplicities and order).

• General Rouche's Theorem : for f, g analytic in and on C with finite number of poles and zeroes inside the Domain covering C, If |g(z)| < |f(z)| on C, then

$$N_{f+q} - P_{f+q} = N_f - P_f$$

where  $N_h$ ,  $P_h$  denote the number of zeroes and poles of h inside C (counted with their multiplicities and order).

• Alternative form of Rouche's Theorem : if same conditions as above hold for g - f(z), f(z) and |g(z) - f(z)| < |f(z)| then

$$N_g - P_g = N_f - P_f$$
.

(can used for calculating the number of zeroes of polynomial in a give loop)

- Application of Rouche's Theorem to polynomials
- eg: consider the polynomial  $g(z) = z^6 5z^4 + 7$
- \* now  $|g(z) 7| \le |z|^6 + 5|z|^4 \le 7$  if  $|z| \le 1$ ( as  $1 + 5 \le 7$ ) thus g(z) has same number of zeroes as f(z)7 in  $|z| \le 1$  i.e. g(z) has no zeroes inside  $|z| \le 1$ .
- \* similarly if  $f(z) = -5z^4$  we have  $|g(z) f(z)| \le |z|^6 + 7 \le 5|z|^4$  if  $|z| \le 2$  (as  $z^6 + 7 = 71 \le 5$ .24 = 80) thus g(z) has 4 zeroes in  $|z| \le 2$ .
- \* similarly if  $f(z) = z^6$  we have  $|g(z) f(z)| \le 5|z|^4 + 7 \le |z|^6$  if  $|z| \le 3$  (as 5.3<sup>4</sup> + 7 = 412  $\le 3^6$  = 729) thus all zeroes of g(z) lie inside  $|z| \le 3$ .

## 8 Mics Properties

- A real valued function of a complex variable  $f: \mathbb{C} \mapsto \mathbb{C}$  has derivative zero or non existent i.e if f is analytic the is a constant.
- for an analytic function in domain D if one of : |f|, Re(f), Im(f), Arg(f) is constant in D then f is constant.
- Harmonic functions:

- $\phi(x, y)$  a real valued function is harmonic iff  $\nabla^2 \phi = \mathbf{0}$ .
- real and imaginary parts of analytical function's are harmonic (in the defined "Domain"(a connected open set) ) (converse is not true).
- f(z) is analytic in Domain D iff real and imaginary parts of both f(z) and zf(z) are harmonic.
- if  $\phi$  is a harmonic function in a Domain then  $f = \phi_x i\phi_u$  is analytic in the domain.
- Harmonic conjugate of harmonic function  $\phi$  is another harmonic function  $\psi$  such that  $f = \phi + i\psi$  (i.e  $\psi$  is the imaginary part od anlytic function whose real part is  $\phi$ ).
- $\blacksquare$  if  $\Phi$  is harmonic in a simply connected region then it has a harmonic conjugate in this region.
- if f is analytic in a simply connected region  $\Omega$  and  $f(z) \neq 0$  in  $\Omega$  then  $\exists h$  analytic in  $\Omega$  such that

$$e^{h(z)} = f(z)$$
.

(h'(z) = f'(z)/f(z) claim  $f.e^{-h(z)} = c = e^k$  prove by differentiating) (domain can be whole  $\mathbb{C}$ ).

- if f satisfies the above conditions then  $\exists g$  analytic in  $\Omega$  such that  $g^2(z) = f(z)$  in  $\Omega$  (choose  $g(z) = e^{h(z)/2}$ ).
- ullet Cauchy's Inequality: if f is analytic in an open disk centered at a of radius  $R=\Delta(\alpha,R)=|z-\alpha|< R$  and  $|f(z)|\leq M$  on boundary  $\overline{\Delta(\alpha,r)}$  for 0< r< R then we have

$$|f^k(\alpha)| \leq \frac{M.k!}{r^k}.$$

(use estimation of Cauchy integral).

- for an open set D if  $f_n:D\mapsto\mathbb{C}$  are analytic for each n and if  $f_n\mapsto f$  uniformly on each compact subset of D then f is analytic and more over  $f_n^k\mapsto f^k$  uniformly in the compact subsets, the same is true for series also if all conditions hold.
- every zero of an analytical function is isolated.
- from above we have if  $a_n$  are the zeros of analytical map f,  $a_n \mapsto a \in \mathbb{C}$  then  $f \equiv o$ .

- in general if if  $q_n$  are p-points of analytical map f,  $q_n \mapsto q \in \mathbb{C}$  then  $f \equiv p$  (use  $h(q_n) = f(q_n) p = o$ .)
- also if f, g analytic in Domain D, f g has set S of zeroes that has a limit point then  $f \equiv g$  in D (in general if f g has set Q of p-points that has a limit point then f(z) = g(z) + p.)
- four distinct points in  $\mathbb{C}_{\infty}$  all lie on a circle or line iff their cross ratio is real.
- a singularity at  $z_0$  of f(z) is removable if f can be defined at  $z_0$  so that it is analytic at  $z_0$ .
- Riemann's Removable Singularity theorem: if f has an isolated singularity at  $z_0$  then  $z_0$  is removable iff one of the below holds.
- f is bounded in deleted neighborhood of  $z_0$ .
- $\blacksquare \lim_{z \mapsto z_0} f(z)$ . exists
- **Picard's Little Theorem**: every non constant entire function only omits at most one value, from this we get if a entire function omits two value then it is a constant.
- **Picard's Great theorem**: if  $z_0$  is the essential singularity of f(z) analytic in  $\Delta(z_0, r) z_0$  then  $\mathbb{C} f(\Delta(z_0, r) z_0)$  is a singleton set.
- Picards little theorem for meromorphic functions: A meromorphic function omits three distinct values then it is a constant.
- if f is an even anlytic function (i.e. f(-z)=f(z)) then for  $z_0$  isolated singularity of f  $Res(f(z), z_0) = o$ . (there are no odd power terms in Laurent series expansion).
- if analytic function f is such that  $f(z) = f(z + z_1) = f(z + z_2)$  (doubly periodic)and if  $z_1/z_2 \notin \mathbb{R}$  then f is a constant (as  $z_1, z_2$  will be linearly independent).
- if p(z) is a polynomial of degree  $n \ge 1$  then every zero of p'(z):  $(z'_k)$  lies in the complex hull of zeroes of p(z):  $(z_k)$  i.e  $z'_k = \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k z_k$ , for  $\sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k = 1$ .
- if f is analytic in |z| < M iff  $\overline{f(\overline{z})}$  is also analytic in |z| < M (as amplitwistness of f(z) doesnt change).
- if  $p(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + z^n$ , simple loop C covers all ze-

roes of p(z) then

$$\oint_{C} \frac{z f'(z)}{f(z)} = -2\pi i \alpha_{n-1}.$$

$$\oint_C \frac{z^2 f'(z)}{f(z)} = 2\pi i (\alpha_{n-1}^2 - 2\alpha_{n-2}).$$

•  $z_1, z_2$  and  $z_3$  are vertices of equilateral triangle iff

$$\frac{1}{z_1-z_2}+\frac{1}{z_2-z_3}+\frac{1}{z_3-z_1}=0.$$

i.e.

$$z_1^2 + z_2^2 + z_3^2 = z_1 z_2 + z_2 z_3 + z_3 z_1$$
.

•  $z_1, z_2$  and  $z_3$  iff

$$z_3 = \mathbf{t}(z_1) + (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{t})z_2$$
 for  $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}$ 

(i.e equation of line in 2D.)

- if analytic function f(z) is real on real line and purely imaginary on imaginary axis then f(-z) = -f(z) i.e. f is odd.
- for **f**(*z*) analytic in Domain **D** then:
- if f is even i.e. f(z) = f(-z) then  $\exists g(z)$  analytic in D such that  $f(z) = g(z^2)$ .
- if f is odd i.e. -f(z) = f(-z) then  $\exists g(z)$  analytic in D such that  $f(z) = zg(z^2)$ .
- $\blacksquare$  Every meromorphic function in  $\mathbb{C}$  can be represented as quotient of two entire functions.
- Open mapping Theorem : if f(z) is a non constant analytic function in Domain D then it is open mapping i.e. f(O) is open for every open set  $O \in \mathbb{C}$ .

- Clearly if f is analytic in D a Domain (open connected set) then f(D) is also a Domain.
- Hurwitz's Theorem : if  $\{f_n\}$  are non vanishing  $(\neq 0)$  in a Domain D and converges uniformly to f on every compact subset of D then either f has no zeroes or  $f \equiv 0$ .
- Local mapping theorem : if f is analytic at  $\alpha$  the there exist a neighborhood of  $\alpha$  where f is one-one iff  $f'(\alpha) \neq 0$ . or
- if f is univalent and analytic in a Domain D then  $f'(z) \neq 0$  in D.
- if f is meromorphic at pole  $\alpha$  and is one-one in neighborhood of  $\alpha$  iff  $\alpha$  is a simple pole.
- from above if f is meromorphic and univalent in D then f has only simple poles in D.
- for f analytic at  $\infty$  is univalent at  $\infty$ (in its nbd) iff  $Res(f, \infty) \neq 0$ .
- Riemann mapping theorem : every simply connected domain which is a proper subset of  $\mathbb C$  is Conformally equivalent to a unit disk i.e. if  $\Omega$  is a simply Connected open set then there exist a function f analytic in  $\Omega$  such that  $f(\Omega) = \Delta$ .

## References

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- [2] Ponnusamy S.: Foundations of Complex Analysis, Narosa pubsishing house, (2011).