

# Complex Functions

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# **1 Lecturer Information**

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# **2 Recommended Reading**

1. James Ward Brown & Ruel V. Churchill, “Complex Variables and Applications”, McGraw-Hill, Inc. 1996.
2. D. Zill, P. Shanahan, “Complex Variables with Applications”, Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

# **3 Additional Reading**

1. Saff, Edward B., and Arthur David Snider. Fundamentals of Complex Analysis with Applications to Engineering, Science, and Mathematics. 3rd ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2002. ISBN: 0139078746.
2. Sarason, Donald. Complex Function Theory. American Mathematical Society. ISBN: 0821886223
3. Alfhors, Lars. Complex Analysis: An Introduction to the Theory of Analytic Functions of One Complex Variable. McGraw-Hill Education, 1979. ISBN: 0070006571.

# Part I

## Complex Numbers

**Definition 1.** A number of the form

$$z = x + iy$$

where

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$y \in \mathbb{R}$$

is called a complex number.

**Definition 2** (Real part of a complex number). If

$$z = x + iy$$

then  $x$  is called the real part of  $z$ , and is denoted as

$$x = \Re(z)$$

**Definition 3** (Imaginary part of a complex number). If

$$z = x + iy$$

then  $y$  is called the imaginary part of  $z$ , and is denoted as

$$x = \Im(z)$$

**Definition 4** (Complex conjugate). If

$$z = x + iy$$

then

$$\bar{z} = x - iy$$

is called the complex conjugate of  $z$ .

**Theorem 1.**

$$z\bar{z} = |z|^2$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} z &= x + iy \\ \therefore \bar{z} &= x - iy \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} z\bar{z} &= (x + iy)(x - iy) \\ &= x^2 - ixy + ixy + y^2 \\ &= x^2 + y^2 \\ &= |z|^2 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 5** (Polar representation). If

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta \end{aligned}$$

then  $(r, \theta)$  is called the polar representation of  $(x, y)$ .

**Theorem 2** (Euler's Formula).

$$r \cos \theta + ir \sin \theta = re^{i\theta}$$

**Definition 6** (Absolute value or Norm).

$$\begin{aligned} |z| &= |x + iy| \\ &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \end{aligned}$$

is called the absolute value, or the norm of  $z$ .

**Theorem 3.**

$$|z| \leq |\Re(z)| + |\Im(z)| \leq \sqrt{2}|z|$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} &\leq |x| + |y| \leq \sqrt{2x^2 + 2y^2} \\ \iff x^2 + y^2 &\leq x^2 + y^2 + 2|x||y| \leq 2x^2 + 2y^2 \\ \iff x^2 + y^2 - 2|x||y| &\geq 0 \\ \iff (|x| - |y|)^2 &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 7** (Argument). Let  $z$  be a complex number. Then,  $\theta$ , such that  $\theta \in (-\pi, \pi]$ , and

$$z = (r, \theta)$$

is called the argument of  $z$ . It is denoted as

$$\theta = \text{Arg}(z)$$

If  $\theta \notin (-\pi, \pi]$ , but

$$z = (r, \theta)$$

then

$$\theta = \arg(z)$$

**Theorem 4.**

$$z^n = |z|^n e^{in \text{Arg}(z)}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} z &= |z| e^{i \text{Arg}(z)} \\ \therefore z^n &= \left( |z| e^{i \text{Arg}(z)} \right)^n \\ &= (|z|)^n \left( e^{i \text{Arg}(z)} \right)^n \\ &= |z|^n e^{in \text{Arg}(z)} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 5.** *Let*

$$\begin{aligned} z &= r e^{i\theta} \\ w &= \rho e^{i\varphi} \end{aligned}$$

*The solutions to*

$$w = \sqrt[n]{z}$$

*are*

$$\varphi_k = \frac{\theta}{n} + \frac{2\pi k}{n}$$

*where  $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ .*

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}w &= \sqrt[n]{z} \\ \therefore w^n &= z\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\rho^n e^{in\varphi} = r e^{i\theta}$$

Therefore, for  $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= \sqrt[n]{r} \\ n\varphi &= \theta + 2\pi k \\ \therefore \varphi &= \frac{\theta}{n} + \frac{2\pi k}{n}\end{aligned}$$

□



## Part II

# Complex Sequences and Series

**Definition 8** (Convergence of complex sequences). Let

$$z_n = x_n + iy_n$$

The sequence  $\{z_n\}$  is said to converge to the limit  $z = x + iy$ , if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N$ , such that  $\forall n > N, |z_n - z| < \varepsilon$ , i.e. there is a circular region of radius  $\varepsilon$ , centred at  $z$ , in which  $z_n$  lies.

**Theorem 6.**  $\{z_n\} \rightarrow z$ , i.e.  $\{z_n\}$  converges to  $z$  if and only if all subsequences of  $\{z_n\}$  converge to  $z$ .

**Exercise 1.**

Find the limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+i}{2n-i}$ .

**Solution 1.**

$$\begin{aligned} z_n &= \frac{n+i}{2n-i} \\ &= \frac{(n+i)(2n+i)}{4n^2+1} \\ &= \frac{2n^2+1}{4n^2+1} + i \frac{3n}{4n^2+1} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^2+1}{4n^2+1} + i \frac{3n}{4n^2+1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 2.**

Show that for

$$z_n = -2 + \frac{(-1)^n}{n}i$$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}(z_n)$  does not exist, but  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |z_n|$  exists.

**Solution 2.**

The magnitude of  $z_n$  is

$$\begin{aligned}|z_n| &= \left| -2 + \frac{(-1)^n}{n}i \right| \\&= \sqrt{4 + \frac{(-1)^{2n}}{n^2}} \\&= \sqrt{4 + \frac{1}{n^2}}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |z_n| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{4 + \frac{1}{n^2}} \\&= 2\end{aligned}$$

The argument of  $z_{2n}$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Arg}(z_{2n}) &= \text{Arg}\left(-2 + \frac{(-1)^{2n}}{2n}i\right) \\ \therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}(z_{2n}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}\left(-2 + \frac{i}{2n}\right) \\&= \pi\end{aligned}$$

The argument of  $z_{2n+1}$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Arg}(z_{2n+1}) &= \text{Arg}\left(-2 + \frac{(-1)^{2n+1}}{2n+1}i\right) \\ \therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}(z_{2n}) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Arg}\left(-2 - \frac{i}{2n}\right) \\&= -\pi\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, as the limit of two subsequences are not equal, the limit does not exist.

## Part III

# Topology on the Complex Plane

**Definition 9** (Neighbourhood of a complex number). A circular region of radius  $\varepsilon$  centred at  $z$ , is called the  $\varepsilon$  neighbourhood of  $z$ .

$$B(z, \varepsilon) = D(z, \varepsilon) = \{w \in \mathbb{C} : |w - z| < \varepsilon\}$$

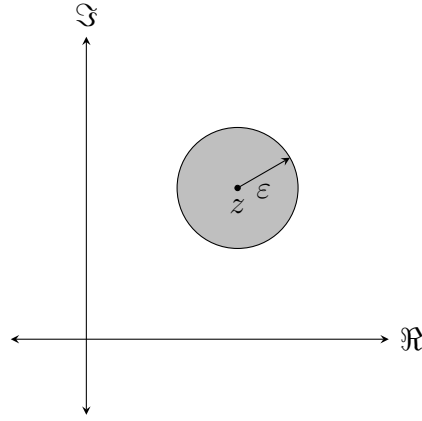


Figure 1: Neighbourhood of a complex number

**Definition 10** (Interior point). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

$z \in \mathbb{C}$  is called an inner or interior point of  $A$  if there exists at least one  $\varepsilon_z > 0$ , such that  $B(z, \varepsilon_z) \subset A$ .

The set of all interior points of  $A$  is denoted by  $\text{Int}(A)$  or  $A^\circ$ .

**Definition 11** (Exterior point). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

$z \in \mathbb{C}$  is called an outer or exterior point of  $A$  if there exists at least one  $\varepsilon_z > 0$ , such that  $B(z, \varepsilon_z) \subset (\mathbb{C} \setminus A)$ . The set of all exterior points of  $A$  is denoted by  $\text{Ext}(A)$ .

**Definition 12** (Edge point). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

$z \in \mathbb{C}$  is called an edge or boundary point of  $A$  if it is neither an inner point of  $A$ , nor an outer point of  $A$ . The set of all boundary points of  $A$  is denoted by  $\partial(A)$ .

**Definition 13** (Open set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  is called an open set if  $A = A^\circ$ , i.e. for any point  $z \in A$ ,  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ , such that  $D(z, \varepsilon) \subset A$ .

**Definition 14** (Closur of a set). The closer of  $A$  is defined to be

$$\overline{A} = A^\circ \cup \partial A$$

**Definition 15** (Closed set). A set  $A$  is called a closed set if  $\partial A \subset A$ , i.e.  $A = \overline{A}$ .

**Definition 16** (Connected set). A set  $A$  is called a connected set if for any  $z_1, z_2 \in A$ , there exists a polygonal path, i.e. a finite set of connected straight lines, which connects  $z_1$  and  $z_2$ , and belongs to  $A$ .

**Definition 17** (Domain). An open connected set is called a domain.

**Definition 18** (Bound set). A set  $A$  is said to be a bound set if it is bound inside a disk.

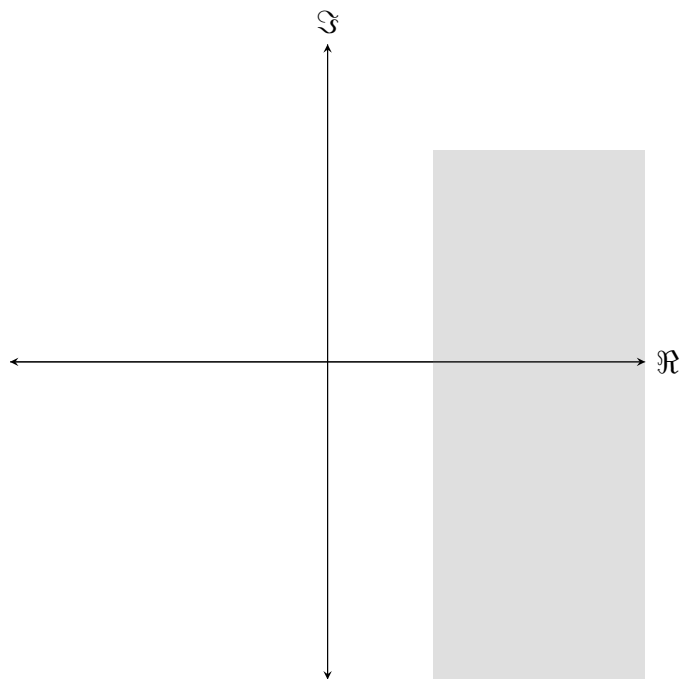
**Exercise 3.**

Describe geometrically and list the properties of the following sets.

1.  $A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \Re(z) \geq 2, \Im(z) \leq 4\}$
2.  $B = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - 1 + 3i| > 3\}$

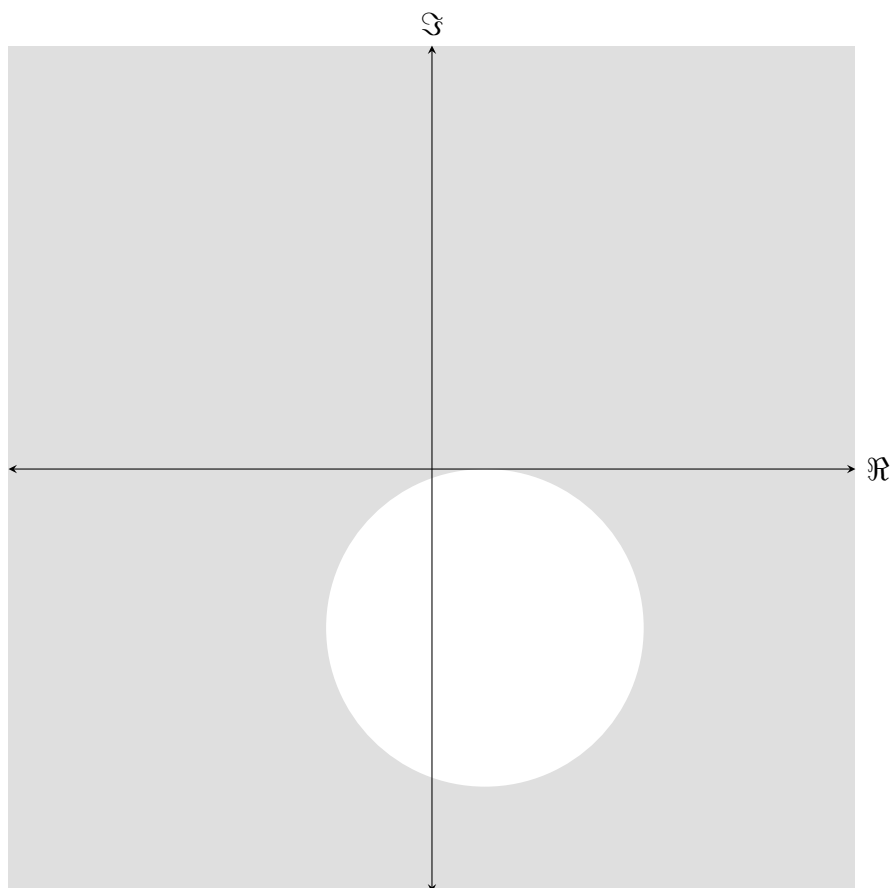
**Solution 3.**

1.  $A$  is the union of the bottom half plane with respect to the line  $y = 4$ , and the right half plane with respect to the line  $x = 2$ .



Therefore, as  $A = A^\circ + \partial A$ , it is a closer, unbounded set.

2.  $A$  is the complement of a disk, centred at  $1 - 3i$ , with radius 3.



Therefore, it is an open, unbounded set.

**Exercise 4.**

Prove that the upper half plane  $U = \{z : \Im(z) > 0\}$  is open.

**Solution 4.**

Let

$$z = x + iy$$

Therefore, as  $z \in U$ ,  $y > 0$ .

Therefore, consider the disk  $D\left(z, \frac{y}{2}\right)$ .

Let  $w \in D\left(z, \frac{y}{2}\right)$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |w - z| &< \frac{y}{2} \\ \therefore |\Im(w - z)| &\leq |w - z| \\ &\leq \frac{y}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{y}{2} &\leq \Im(w) - \Im(z) \leq \frac{y}{2} \\ \therefore -\frac{y}{2} &\leq \Im(w) - y \leq \frac{y}{2} \\ \therefore \Im(w) &\geq \frac{y}{2} > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, as  $\Im(w) > 0$ ,  $w \in U$ . Therefore,  $U$  is open. □

## Part IV

# Complex Functions

## 1 Complex Functions

**Definition 19** (Complex function). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called a complex function, which matches  $z \in A$  to  $f(z) \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Theorem 7.** Any complex function  $f$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + iy) &= \Re f(x + iy) + i\Im f(x + iy) \\ &= u(x, y) + iv(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

## 2 Limits

**Definition 20** (Limit of a function). Let  $f$  be a complex function defined on a neighbourhood of  $z_0$ , but may or may not be defined at  $z_0$ . Then, the limit of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$  is defined as

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

if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$ , such that  $\forall z \in \mathbb{X}$  such that  $|z - z_0| < \delta$ ,  $|f(z) - w| < \varepsilon$ .

### Exercise 5.

Show that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{iz}{2} = \frac{i}{2}$$

### Solution 5.

Let  $|z - 1| < \delta$ . Therefore, for  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| f(z) - \frac{i}{2} \right| &= \left| \frac{iz}{2} - \frac{i}{2} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{i}{2} \right| |z - 1| \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |z - i| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, for  $\delta \leq 2\varepsilon$ ,  $\left| f(z) - \frac{i}{2} \right| < \varepsilon$ . □

**Theorem 8.** *If*

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= f(x + iy) \\ &= u(x, y) + iv(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

*then*

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = u_0 + iv_0$$

*if and only if*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} u(x, y) &= u_0 \\ \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} v(x, y) &= v_0 \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 9** (Limit arithmetics). *If*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) &= w_1 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} g(z) &= w_2 \end{aligned}$$

*then, as long as all quantities are defined,*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) \pm g(z) &= w_1 \pm w_2 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)g(z) &= w_1w_2 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} &= \frac{w_1}{w_2} \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 6.**

For the function  $f(z) = \bar{z}^2$ , prove

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) &= f(z_0) \\ &= \bar{z}_0^2 \end{aligned}$$

**Solution 6.**

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{z} &= \overline{(x + iy)}^2 \\ &= (x - iy)^2 \\ &= x^2 - y^2 - 2xyi \end{aligned}$$



Therefore, let

$$\begin{aligned}u(x, y) &= x^2 - y^2 \\v(x, y) &= -2xy\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} u(x, y) &= x_0^2 - y_0^2 \\ \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} v(x, y) &= -2x_0y_0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) &= u_0 + iv_0 \\ &= x_0^2 - y_0^2 - 2x_0y_0i \\ &= \overline{z_0}^2\end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 21** (Infinite limit). The limit of  $f(z)$  is said to be infinite, i.e.

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

if and only if

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

if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{1}{f(z)} = 0$$

**Definition 22** (Limit at infinity). The limit of a function  $f(z)$ ,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = w$$

if

$$\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = w$$

Alternatively,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists R > 0$ , such that for  $|z| > R$ ,  $|f(x) - w| < \varepsilon$ .

**Exercise 7.**

Show that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{z^2} = 0$$

**Solution 7.**

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $R > 0$ , such that  $\frac{1}{R^2} < \varepsilon$ .

Therefore, if  $|z| > R$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z) - 0| &= \left| \frac{1}{z^2} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{|z^2|} \\ &= \frac{1}{|z|^2} \\ &< \frac{1}{R^2} \\ &< \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{z^2} = 0$ .

### 3 Continuity

**Definition 23** (Continuous function).  $f(z)$  is said to be continuous at  $z_0$  if  $f(z)$  is defined at  $z_0$  and

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

**Theorem 10** (Continuity arithmetics). *If*

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

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} g(z) = g(z_0)$$

*then, as long as all quantities are defined,*

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

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

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

## 4 Differentiability

**Definition 24** (Differentiable function). Let  $f(z)$  be defined in a neighbourhood of  $z_0$ .  $f$  is said to be differentiable at  $z_0$  if the limit  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$  exists.

**Theorem 11** (Differentiation arithmetics). If  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  are differentiable, then, as long as all quantities are defined,

$$\begin{aligned}(f(z) \pm g(z))' &= f'(z) \pm g'(z) \\ (f(z)g(z))' &= f'(z)g(z) + f(z)g'(z) \\ \left(\frac{f(z)}{g(z)}\right)' &= \frac{f'(z)g(z) - f(z)g'(z)}{g(z)^2}\end{aligned}$$

## 5 Cauchy-Riemann Equations

**Theorem 12** (Cauchy-Riemann Equations).  $u(x, y)$  and  $v(x, y)$  are said to be satisfying Cauchy-Riemann Equations at a point  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , if

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(a, b) &= v_y(a, b) \\ u_y(a, b) &= -v_x(a, b)\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 13.** Let

$$f(x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$$

Then,  $u$  and  $v$  satisfying the Cauchy-Riemann Equations is a necessary condition for  $f$  to be differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

**Theorem 14.** If  $f = u + iv$  is differentiable at  $z_0 = a + ib$ , then  $(u, v)$  satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann Equations at  $(a, b)$ .

**Definition 25** (Analytic functions). If  $f = u + iv$  is differentiable at any  $z \in W$ , where  $W$  is a neighbourhood of  $z_0$  except maybe at  $z_0$ , then  $f$  is said to be analytic at  $z_0$ . If  $f$  is analytic at all  $z \in W$ , then it is said to be analytic in  $W$ .

**Exercise 8.**

Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function in  $U$ , such that  $\bar{f}$  is also analytic in  $U$ . Show that  $f' = 0$ , i.e.  $f = c$ .

**Solution 8.**

As  $f = u + iv$  is analytic, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations, for  $(x, y) \in U$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(x, y) &= v_y(x, y) \\u_y(x, y) &= -v_x(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

As  $\bar{f} = u - iv$  is analytic, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations, for  $(x, y) \in U$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(x, y) &= -v_y(x, y) \\u_y(x, y) &= v_x(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}v_y &= -v_y \\&= 0 \\v_x &= -v_x \\&= 0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}u_x(x, y) &= 0 \\u_y(x, y) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $u$  and  $v$  are constant functions.

## 6 Harmonic Functions

**Definition 26** (Laplacian). Let  $u$  be an equation in  $x$  and  $y$ . The Laplacian is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta u &= \nabla^2 u \\&= u_{xx} + u_{yy}\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 27** (Harmonic function). A real function in two variables,  $u(x, y)$ , which is twice differentiable, is called a harmonic function if it satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta u &= u_{xx} + u_{yy} \\&= 0\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 15.** *If  $u$  and  $v$  are twice differentiable, and satisfy Cauchy-Riemann Equations, then  $(u, v)$  are harmonic.*

**Theorem 16** (Sufficient condition for differentiability). *Let  $f = u + iv$  be defined in a neighbourhood of  $z_0 = a + ib$ . Assume that  $u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y$  exist in this neighbourhood and are continuous at the point  $(a, b)$ . If  $(u, v)$  satisfying Cauchy-Riemann Equations at  $(a, b)$  then  $f'(z_0)$  exists.*

**Definition 28** (Harmonic conjugate). Let  $u : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a harmonic function. Its harmonic conjugate is defined to be  $v : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $f = u + iv$  is analytic.

## 7 Analytic Functions

**Definition 29.**  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is said to be differentiable on  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ , if  $f$  is differentiable at any  $z \in D$ .

**Definition 30** (Analytic functions). If  $f = u + iv$  is differentiable at any  $z \in W$ , where  $W$  is a neighbourhood of  $z_0$  except maybe at  $z_0$ , then  $f$  is said to be analytic at  $z_0$ . If  $f$  is analytic at all  $z \in W$ , then it is said to be analytic in  $W$ .

**Theorem 17.** *Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$  be an open set. Then,  $f$  is differentiable on  $D$  if and only if  $f$  is analytic on  $D$ .*

**Theorem 18.** *Let  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a domain. Assume that  $f$  is analytic on  $D$ , and for any  $z \in D$ ,  $f'(z) = 0$ . Then,  $f$  is constant.*

**Theorem 19.** *Let  $u(x, y) : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function such that  $\nabla u = 0$  in a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then,  $u$  is constant in  $D$ .*

### Exercise 9.

1. Prove that

$$v(x, y) = \ln \left( (x - 1)^2 + (y - 2)^2 \right)$$

is harmonic in any domain that does not include the point  $(1, 2)$ .

2. Find  $u(x, y)$  such that  $u + iv$  is analytic in some domain. Note:  $v$  is the conjugate harmonic of  $u$ .
3. Express  $u + iv$  as a function of  $z$ .

**Solution 9.**

1.

$$v_x = \frac{2(x-1)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2}$$

$$v_y = \frac{2(y-2)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2}$$

Therefore,

$$v_{xx} = \frac{2 \left( (x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 \right) - (2(x-1))^2}{((x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2)^2}$$

$$v_{yy} = \frac{2 \left( (x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 \right) - (2(y-2))^2}{((x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2)^2}$$

2. For  $u + iv$  to be analytic, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations,

$$u_x = v_y$$

$$u_y = -v_x$$

Therefore,

$$u_x = v_y$$

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

Therefore,

$$u = \int \frac{2(y-2)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{2(y-2)}{(y-2)^2} \int \frac{1}{1 + \left( \frac{x-1}{y-2} \right)^2} dx$$

$$= 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + g(y)$$

Therefore,

$$u_y = -v_x$$

$$\therefore -\frac{2(x-1)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2} = \frac{2}{1 + \frac{(x-1)^2}{(y-2)^2}} \left( -\frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + g'(y)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} g'(y) &= 0 \\ \therefore g(y) &= c \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$u = 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + c$$

3.

$$\begin{aligned} u + iv &= \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x-1}{y-2} \right) + i \ln \left( (x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 \right) \\ &= 2i \operatorname{Log} (-i(x-1) + (y-2)) \\ &= 2i \operatorname{Log} (-iz - 2 + i) \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 10.**

Prove that there is no  $f = u + iv$  analytic in the unit disk, such that

$$xu(x, y) = yv(x, y) + 2013$$

Hint: Use the function  $zf(z)$ .

**Solution 10.**

If possible, let there exist  $f(z)$  such that

$$xu(x, y) = yv(x, y) + 2013$$

Therefore, as  $zf(z)$  is analytic,

$$\begin{aligned} zf(z) &= (x + iy)(u + iv) \\ &= xu - yv + i(yu + xv) \\ &= 2013 + i(yu + xv) \end{aligned}$$

By the polar form of Cauchy-Riemann Equations,  $yu + xv$  is constant.

Therefore,  $zf(z)$  is constant.

Therefore, this contradicts the assumption.

Therefore, such a  $f$  does not exist.

## 8 Elementary Functions

### 8.1 Exponential Functions

**Theorem 20.**

$$|e^z| = e^{\Re(z)}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} |e^z| &= \left| e^{\Re(z)} \right| \left| e^{\Im(z)} \right| \\ &= \left| e^{\Re(z)} \right| \left| \cos(\Im(z)) + i \sin(\Im(z)) \right| \\ &= e^{\Re(z)} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 21.** *Let  $z$  and  $w$  be complex. Then*

$$e^{z+w} = e^z e^w$$

**Theorem 22.**  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$(e^z)^n = e^{nz}$$

**Theorem 23.** *The function  $e^z$  is onto with respect to  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .*

### 8.2 Trigonometric Functions

**Definition 31** (Trigonometric functions of complex numbers). Trigonometric functions of complex numbers are defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(z) &= \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \\ \sin(z) &= \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} \\ \cosh(z) &= \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2} \\ \sinh(z) &= \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2} \end{aligned}$$



### 8.3 Logarithmic Functions

**Definition 32** (Power set). The set of all subsets of a set is called the power set of the set. The power set of a set  $A$  is denoted as  $P(A)$ .

**Definition 33** (Multiple valued function). A set which maps a set  $A$  to its power set  $P(A)$  is called a multiple valued set.

A multiple valued function gets over  $\mathbb{C}$  gets a complex number as input and returns a set of complex numbers as output.

**Definition 34** (Natural logarithmic function). The natural logarithmic function over the complex plane is defined to be

$$\log w = \{z : e^z = w\}$$

**Theorem 24.**

$$\log w = \ln |w| + i \arg(w)$$

*Proof.* Let

$$\begin{aligned} e^z &= w \\ &= |w|e^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\theta = \arg(w)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\Re(z) + i\Im(z)} &= |w|e^{i\theta} \\ \therefore e^{\Re(z)} e^{i\Im(z)} &= |w|e^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\Re(z)} &= |w| \\ \Im(z) &= \theta + 2\pi k \end{aligned}$$

where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \ln e^{\Re(z)} &= \ln |w| \\ \therefore \Re(z) &= \ln |w| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \log w &= \{z : e^z = w\} \\ &= \{\ln |w| + iy : y = \arg(w)\} \end{aligned}$$

For any  $w \in \log z$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} e^w &= e^{\ln|z| + i(\operatorname{Arg} z + 2\pi k)} \\ &= e^{\ln|z|} e^{i(\operatorname{Arg} z + 2\pi k)} \\ &= |z| e^{i \operatorname{Arg} z} \\ &= z \end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 35** (Branch of  $\log z$ ). A branch of  $\log z$  is a continuous function  $L(z)$  defined on a  $U$ , a connected open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  such that  $L(z)$  is a logarithm of  $z$  for each  $z \in U$ .

**Definition 36** ( $\operatorname{Log} z$ ).  $\operatorname{Log} z$  is defined to be

$$\operatorname{Log} z = \ln|z| + i \operatorname{Arg} z$$

As  $\operatorname{Arg} z$  is not continuous on the negative real axis, in order to make it continuous, the line  $\operatorname{Arg} z = \pi$  is excluded. Hence,  $\log z$  is continuous on  $U = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^-$ , and is a branch of  $\log z$ .

Similarly, any other ray can be excluded in order to get a branch of  $\log z$ .

**Definition 37.** For any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\operatorname{Log}_\alpha z$  is defined to be

$$\operatorname{Log}_\alpha z = \ln|z| + i \operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z$$

where  $\operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z = \theta$ , such that  $\theta \in (\alpha, \alpha + 2\pi]$  and  $\theta = \arg z$ .

Any choice of  $\operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z$  defines a branch of logarithm.

**Definition 38** (Branch cut). The boundary of the domain of a branch is called a branch cut.

**Definition 39** (Principal value). The value returned by  $\operatorname{Log} z = \operatorname{Log}_{-\pi} z$  is called the principal value.

**Theorem 25.**  $\operatorname{Log} z$  is analytic on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \cup \mathbb{R}^-$ .

**Exercise 11.**

Find the principal value of  $\sqrt{i}$ .

**Solution 11.**

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{pv} \left( i^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) &= e^{\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Log} i} \\ &= e^{\frac{1}{2} (\ln|i| + i \operatorname{Arg} i)} \\ &= e^{\frac{1}{2} i \frac{\pi}{2}} \\ &= e^{i \frac{\pi}{4}} \end{aligned}$$

## 8.4 Power

**Definition 40** (Power function). Let  $z, c \in \mathbb{C}$ , such that  $z \neq 0$ . The power multifunction as

$$z^c = e^{c \log z}$$

The branch of the power multifunction for  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  is defined as

$$z^w = e^{w \log z}$$

**Theorem 26.**

$$\operatorname{Log}_\alpha z - \operatorname{Log}_\beta z = i \left( \operatorname{Arg}_\alpha z - \operatorname{Arg}_\beta z \right)$$

## Part V

# Complex Integrals

## 1 Complex Integrals

**Definition 41** (Integral of complex functions). Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Let

$$f(t) = u(t) + iv(t)$$

Therefore, the integrals of  $u(t)$  and  $v(t)$  are defined as

$$\int_a^b u(t) \, dt = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n u(t_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $T$  is a splitting of  $[a, b]$ , such that

$$a = t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$$

and

$$\int_a^b v(t) \, dt = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n v(t_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $T$  is a splitting of  $[a, b]$ , such that

$$a = t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$$

These integrals are defined when the limit exists without depending on  $T$ .

When they exist, the integral of  $f(t)$  is defined as

$$\int_a^b f(t) \, dt = \int_a^b u(t) \, dt + i \int_a^b v(t) \, dt$$

**Theorem 27.** *All properties of real integrals are also valid for complex integrals.*

**Theorem 28.**

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

## 2 Curves in $\mathbb{C}$

**Definition 42.** A continuous function  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called a curve.

**Definition 43** (Parametric representation of a curve). The curve  $\gamma(t)$  can be represented as

$$\gamma(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$$

where  $t$  is a parameter.

**Definition 44** (Differentiability).  $\gamma$  is said to be differentiable if  $x$  and  $y$  are both differentiable.

**Theorem 29** (Parametric representation of a straight line). *Let  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ . The straight line passing through  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  can be represented parametrically as*

$$\gamma(t) = z_1 + t(z_2 - z_1)$$

*The slope of this line is  $z_2 - z_1$ .*

**Theorem 30** (Parametric representation of a circle). *A circle with radius  $r$ , centred at the origin, can be represented parametrically as*

$$\gamma(t) = re^{it}$$

*with  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .*

**Exercise 12.**

Parametrize the curve  $\left\{ z = x + iy : \frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 = 1 \right\}$  starting from 2, and going anti-clockwise twice.

**Solution 12.**

The curve is an ellipse centred at  $(0, 0)$ , with  $a = 2$ , and  $b = 1$ .

$$\gamma(t) = 2 \cos t + i \sin t$$

Therefore, as the curve goes anti-clockwise twice,  $t \in [0, 4\pi]$ .

**Definition 45** (Simple curve). A curve  $\gamma$  is said to be simple if it is non self-intersecting, i.e. it is one-to-one with respect to the parameter  $t$ , except maybe at the extreme values of  $t$ .

**Definition 46** (Closed curve). A curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is said to be closed, if and only if

$$\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$$

**Definition 47** (Jordan curve). A closed simple curve is called a Jordan curve.

**Theorem 31.** *A Jordan curve enclosed a region inside it.*

**Definition 48** (Piecewise differentiability).  $\gamma$  is said to be piecewise differentiable if there exists a splitting

$$a = t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$$

such that  $\gamma$  is differentiable on each segment  $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$ .

### 3 Complex Line Integrals

**Definition 49** (Complex line integral). Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a curve, and let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , where  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ , and  $\gamma([a, b]) \subset D$ . Then, the integral

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \dot{\gamma}(t) dt$$

If  $\gamma$  is piecewise differentiable, then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(\gamma(t)) \dot{\gamma}(t) dt$$

**Definition 50** (Oriented contour). An oriented contour for  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , is defined to be

$$C_{\alpha, z_0} = \{w \in \mathbb{C} : |w - z_0| = \alpha\}$$

oriented anti-clockwise, starting at  $z_0 + \alpha$ .

**Theorem 32.**  $\forall \alpha > 0, z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\oint_{C_{\alpha, z_0}} \frac{dz}{z - z_0} = 2\pi i$$

*Proof.* Let

$$\gamma(t) = z_0 + \alpha e^{it}$$

with  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .

Therefore,

$$\dot{\gamma}(t) = \alpha i e^{it}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_{C_{\alpha, z_0}} \frac{dz}{z - z_0} &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{z_0 + \alpha e^{it} - z_0} \alpha i e^{it} dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} i dt \\ &= 2\pi i \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 33.** *Line integrals are linear for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ , i.e.*

$$\alpha \int_{\gamma} f dz \pm \beta \int_{\gamma} g dz = \int_{\gamma} \alpha f \pm \beta g dz$$

**Theorem 34.** *Let  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  be two curves such that the start point of  $\gamma_2$  is the end point of  $\gamma_1$ . Then, the curves can be composited to a curve  $\gamma_1 + \gamma_2$ , and*

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

**Theorem 35.** *Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a curve. Then,  $\bar{\gamma} : [-b, -a] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  has orientation opposite to that of  $\gamma$ , and*

$$\bar{\gamma}(t) = \gamma(-t)$$

$$\bar{\gamma}'(t) = -\dot{\gamma}(t)$$

Then,

$$\int_{\bar{\gamma}} f(z) dz = - \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$$

**Theorem 36** (Length of a curve). *The length of the curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is given by*

$$\text{length}(\gamma) = \int_a^b |\dot{\gamma}(t)| \, dt$$

**Exercise 13.**

Find the length of the astroid given by

$$\gamma(t) = \cos^3 t + i \sin^3 t$$

where  $\gamma : [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

**Solution 13.**

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(t) &= \cos^3 t + i \sin^3 t \\ \therefore \dot{\gamma}(t) &= -3 \sin t \cos^2 t + 3i \cos t \sin^2 t \\ \therefore |\dot{\gamma}(t)| &= \sqrt{9 (\cos^4 t \sin^2 t + \sin^4 t \cos^2 t)} \\ &= 3 |\sin t \cos t| \sqrt{\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t} \\ &= 3 |\sin t \cos t| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{length}(\gamma) &= \int_a^b |\dot{\gamma}(t)| \, dt \\ &= 3 \int_0^{2\pi} |\sin t \cos t| \, dt \\ &= 12 \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin t \cos t \, dt \\ &= 6 \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin 2t \, dt \\ &= 6 \end{aligned}$$



**Theorem 37.** Let  $f(z)$  be a function defined in a domain  $D$  including a curve  $\gamma$ . Let  $\exists M > 0$ , such that all values of  $f$  have  $|f(z)| \leq M$ , then

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) \, dz \right| \leq M \text{length}(\gamma)$$

**Definition 51** (Primitive function). Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ .  $F(z)$  is said to be the primitive function of  $f(z)$  in  $D$ , if  $\forall z \in D$ ,

$$F'(z) = f(z)$$

**Theorem 38** (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus). Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be piecewise continuous, and let  $f$  be continuous on  $\gamma$ , i.e.  $f \circ \gamma$  is continuous. Let there exist an analytic function  $F$ , defined on a domain including  $\gamma$ , such that  $\forall z \in \gamma$ ,

$$F'(z) = f(z)$$

Then,

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

**Theorem 39** (Equivalent conditions for existence of a primitive function). Let  $D$  be a domain. Let  $f$  be continuous on  $D$ . Then, the following conditions are equivalent.

1.  $f$  has a primitive function  $F$  in  $D$ .
2. For any closed path  $\gamma$  such that  $\gamma \subset D$ ,

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

3. For any curve  $\gamma$  such that  $\gamma \subset D$ , the integral  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) \, dz$  depends only on the edges of  $\gamma$ .

**Exercise 14.**

Find  $\int_{\gamma} \cos z \, dz$  where  $\gamma$  goes from  $\pi$  to  $i$ .

**Solution 14.**

$\sin z$  is the primitive of  $\cos z$  over  $\mathbb{C}$ .  
Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} \cos z \, dz &= \sin i - \sin \pi \\ &= \frac{e^{i^2} - e^{-i^2}}{2i} - 0 \\ &= \frac{e^{-1} - e}{2i} \\ &= i \frac{-\frac{1}{e} + e}{2} \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 15.**

Calculate the integral of

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^n$$

$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , where  $\gamma = C_{R, z_0}$ .

**Solution 15.**

For  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(t) &= z_0 + Re^{it} \\ \therefore \dot{\gamma}(t) &= Rie^{it} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} (z - z_0)^n \, dz &= \int_0^{2\pi} (z_0 + Re^{it} - z_0)^n (Rie^{it}) \, dt \\ &= iR^{n+1} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(n+1)t} \, dt \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\gamma} (z - z_0)^n dz &= \begin{cases} 2\pi i & ; \quad n = -1 \\ \frac{R^{n+1}}{n+1} e^{i(n+1)t} \Big|_0^{2\pi} & ; \quad n \neq -1 \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} 2\pi i & ; \quad n = -1 \\ 0 & ; \quad n \neq -1 \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 40.**

$$\int_{\gamma} P dx + Q dy = \int_a^b \left( P(\gamma(t)) \dot{x}(t) + Q(\gamma(t)) \dot{y}(t) \right) dt$$

where  $t \in [a, b]$ .

**Theorem 41.** *If*

$$f = u + iv$$

*then,*

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} u dx - v dy + i \int_{\gamma} v dx + u dy$$

**Theorem 42** (Green's Theorem). *Let*

$$F = P dx + Q dy$$

*such that  $P_x, P_y, Q_x, Q_y$  are continuous in the domain  $D$ ,*

$$\int_{\partial D} P dx + Q dy = \iint_D (Q_x - P_y) dx dy$$

**Theorem 43** (Cauchy-Goursat Theorem). *Let  $D$  be a domain, such that  $\partial D$  is obtained by a finite number of curves, ie.  $\partial D$  is piecewise differentiable. If  $f : \overline{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic, then*

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

## 4 Cauchy Integral Formula

**Theorem 44** (Cauchy Integral Formula/Mean Value Theorem). *Let  $C$  be a simple closed curve in positive orientation with respect to a domain,  $D_C$ , closed by a curve  $C$ . If  $f$  is analytic in  $D_C$ , then*

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz$$

**Theorem 45** (Cauchy Differentiation Formula). *Let  $C$  be a simple closed curve in positive orientation with respect to a domain,  $D_C$ , closed by a curve  $C$ . If  $f$  is analytic in  $D_C$ , then*

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

**Theorem 46.** *If  $f$  is analytic in  $D$ , then  $f$  is infinitely differentiable.*

*Proof.* Let  $z_0 \in D$ . Therefore,  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ , such that  $D(z_0, \varepsilon) \in D$ . Therefore, by Cauchy Differentiation Formula,

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{C_{z_0, \varepsilon}} \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

and particularly, exists. □

**Theorem 47** (Morera's Theorem). *Let  $D$  be a domain, and let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. If  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$ , for any closed curve  $\gamma$ , such that  $\gamma \in D$ , then  $f$  is analytic in  $\overset{\gamma}{D}$*

*Proof.* By Equivalent conditions for existence of a primitive function, as

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

there exists a primitive function  $F$  for  $f$ , i.e.,

$$F'(z) = f(z)$$

for all  $z \in D$ .

Therefore, as  $F$  is differentiable in  $D$ , and as  $D$  is a domain, and hence is open,  $F$  is analytic.

Therefore, as  $F$  is analytic in  $D$ ,  $F$  is infinitely differentiable, with analytic derivatives. □

**Theorem 48** (Cauchy Derivative Estimate). *Let  $f$  be analytic in  $D_{z_0,r}$ . Let  $\partial D_{z_0,r}$  be denoted as  $C_{z_0,r}$ . Let*

$$M_R = \max_{z \in C_{z_0,R}} |f(z)|$$

*Then,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,*

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!M_R}{R^n}$$

**Exercise 16.**

Find  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{2-\cos t} dt$ .

**Solution 16.**

Let

$$\begin{aligned} z &= e^{it} \\ \therefore dz &= iz dt \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{2-\cos t} dt &= \int_{\partial D_{0,1}} \frac{1}{2 - \frac{z+z^{-1}}{2}} \frac{dz}{iz} \\ &= \int_{\partial D_{0,1}} \frac{2 dz}{(4 - z - z^{-1}) iz} \\ &= \int_{\partial D_{0,1}} \frac{2 dz}{-i(z^2 - 4z + 1)} \\ &= \int_{\partial D_{0,1}} \frac{2 dz}{i(z - 2 + \sqrt{3})(z - 2 - \sqrt{3})} \\ &= 2i \int_{\partial D_{0,1}} \frac{dz}{(z - 2 + \sqrt{3})(z - 2 - \sqrt{3})} \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 &= 2 + \sqrt{3} \\ z_2 &= 2 - \sqrt{3} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, as  $z_1 \in D_{0,1}$ , by Cauchy Integral Formula/Mean Value Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{2 - \cos t} dt &= 2i \int_{\partial D_{0,1}} \frac{dz}{(z - 2 + \sqrt{3})(z - 2 - \sqrt{3})} \\
&= 2i \left( 2\pi i \left( \frac{1}{z - 2 - \sqrt{3}} \right) \right) \Big|_{z=2-\sqrt{3}} \\
&= -4\pi \left( \frac{1}{2 - \sqrt{3} - 2 - \sqrt{3}} \right) \\
&= \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{3}}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the integral is real, which is expected, as the function is real.

**Exercise 17.**

Calculate  $\int_{C_{1,3}} \frac{\cos z}{(z-i)^3} dz$ .

**Solution 17.**

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{C_{1,3}} \frac{\cos z}{(z-i)^{2+1}} dz &= \frac{2\pi i}{2} \cos z|_{z=i} \\
&= -i\pi \cos(i) \\
&= -i\pi \frac{e^{-1} + e^1}{2} \\
&= -i\pi \cosh(1)
\end{aligned}$$

## 5 Liouville's Theorem

**Theorem 49** (Liouville's Theorem). *If  $f$  is entire and bounded, then  $f$  is constant.*

**Exercise 18.**

If  $f$  is entire, such that  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}, \Re(f(z)) < M$ , show that it is constant.

**Solution 18.**

As  $e^{\Re(f(x))} < M$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |e^{f(z)}| &= e^{\Re(f(z))} \\ \therefore |e^{f(z)}| &< e^M \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $e^{f(z)}$  is an entire and bounded function. Therefore, by Liouville's Theorem,  $e^{f(z)}$  is constant.

Let

$$e^{f(z)} = c$$

Therefore,

$$f(z) = \ln |c| + 2\pi ki$$

Therefore, even though  $k$  may be dependent on  $z$ , as  $f(z)$  is continuous,  $k$  must be continuous, to ensure that there is no discontinuity in  $f(z)$ . Therefore,  $f(z)$  is constant.

**Exercise 19.**

Let  $f$  be entire and periodic, with two periods, 1 and  $i$ , i.e.  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= f(z + 1) \\ &= f(z + i) \end{aligned}$$

Then,  $f$  is constant.

**Solution 19.**

Let

$$D = \{z : 0 \leq \Re(z) \leq 1, 0 \leq \Im(z) \leq 1\}$$

be a compact set.

$f$  is continuous over  $D$ , and hence,  $|f|$  is also continuous over  $D$ .

Therefore, by Weierstrass theorem,  $f$  is bounded in  $D$ .

As the function is periodic with periods 1 and  $i$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + iy) &= f(x - [x] + i(y - [y])) \\ \therefore f(D) &= f(\mathbb{C}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $f$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and by Liouville's Theorem, it is constant.

## 6 Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

**Theorem 50.**  $\exists R > 0$ , such that,  $\forall |z| > R$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |\rho(z)| &= \left| \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k \right| \\ &\geq \frac{|a_n| |z|^n}{2} \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 51** (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). *Any polynomial  $p(z)$ , of degree  $n \geq 1$ , over  $\mathbb{C}$  has at least one root in  $\mathbb{C}$ , i.e.  $\exists z_0$ , such that*

$$p(z_0) = 0$$

*Proof.* If possible,  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ , let

$$p(z) \neq 0$$

As  $p(z)$  is a polynomial, it is an entire function.  
Therefore,

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

is also entire.

Therefore,  $\exists R > 0$ , such that  $\forall |z| > R$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |p(z)| &\geq \frac{|a_n| |z|^n}{2} \\ \therefore |p(z)| &\geq \frac{|a_n| R^n}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\forall |z| > R$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z)| &= \frac{1}{|p(z)|} \\ \therefore |f(z)| &\leq \frac{1}{\frac{|a_n| R^n}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} m_1 &= \frac{1}{\frac{|a_n| R^n}{2}} \\ &= \frac{2}{|a_n| R^n} \end{aligned}$$



Therefore,  $\forall |z| > R$ ,

$$|f(z)| \leq m_1$$

Let the closed disk  $D$  be

$$D = \{z : |z| \leq R\}$$

Therefore,  $f$  is continuous in  $D$ . Hence,  $|f|$  is also continuous in  $D$ .

By Weierstrass theorem,  $|f|$  is bounded in  $D$ .

Therefore, let

$$|f(z)| \leq m_2$$

Therefore,  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$|f(z)| \leq \max\{m_1, m_2\}$$

Therefore, as  $f(z)$  is entire and bounded, by Liouville's Theorem, it is constant.

Therefore,

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

is constant. Hence, the degree of  $p(z)$  is 0.

This contradicts the assumption the condition of  $n \geq 1$ . Hence,  $p(z)$  has at least one root in  $\mathbb{C}$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 52.** *Any polynomial of degree  $n \geq 1$  has exactly  $n$  roots, not necessarily distinct. Particularly,*

$$p(z) = a_n \prod_{k=1}^n (z - z_k)$$

where each  $z_k$  is a root of  $p(z)$ .

## 7 Maximum Modulus Principle

**Theorem 53.** *Let  $f$  be an analytic function in a domain  $D$ , and  $\forall z \in D_{z_0, \varepsilon} \subset D$ , let*

$$|f(z)| \leq |f(z_0)|$$

*Then,  $f$  is constant on  $D_{z_0, \varepsilon}$ , i.e.,  $\forall z \in D_{z_0, \varepsilon}$ ,*

$$f(z) = f(z_0)$$

*Proof.* For  $\rho < \varepsilon$ , let

$$C_\rho = \{z : |z - z_0| = \rho\}$$

Therefore,  $f$  is analytic inside and on  $C_\rho$ .

Therefore, by Cauchy Integral Formula/Mean Value Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z_0)| &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_\rho} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{f(z_0 + \rho e^{it})}{z_0 + \rho e^{it} - z_0} i\rho e^{it} dt \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + \rho e^{it}) dt \right| \\ |f(z)| &\leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0 + \rho e^{it})| dt \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0)| dt \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z_0)| &\geq |f(z_0 + \rho e^{it})| \\ \therefore |f(z_0)| &\geq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0 + \rho e^{it})| dt \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z_0)| &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0 + \rho e^{it})| dt \\ \therefore \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0)| dt &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0 + \rho e^{it})| dt \\ \therefore 0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \left( |f(z_0)| - |f(z_0 + \rho e^{it})| \right) dt \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$|f(z_0)| - \left| f(z_0 - \rho e^{it}) \right| \geq 0$$

Therefore, as the integral this non-negative expression is zero, the expression must be zero. Hence,

$$|f(z_0)| = \left| f(z_0 + \rho e^{it}) \right|$$

Similarly, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations, if  $\forall z \in D_{z_0, \varepsilon}$ ,

$$|f(z_0)| = |f(z)|$$

then

$$f(z_0) = f(z)$$

□

**Theorem 54** (Maximum Modulus Principle). *Let  $f$  be analytic in  $D$  and continuous on  $\partial D$ , and non-constant, then  $f$  has no local maximum in  $D$ , and the global maximum in  $\overline{D}$ , i.e. the closer of  $D$ , must be on  $\partial D$ .*

**Exercise 20.**

Find the maximum of

$$f(z) = e^z$$

in  $\{z : |z| \leq 3\}$ .

**Solution 20.**

$f(z)$  is entire and hence analytic in  $D_{0,3}$ . Also, it is non-constant. Hence, by Maximum Modulus Principle, the global maximum must be on  $\{z : |z| < 3\}$ . Let

$$\gamma(t) = 3e^{it}$$

where  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .

Therefore,  $\forall z \in \partial D$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |e^z| &= \left| e^{3e^{it}} \right| \\ &= \left| e^{3(\cos t + i \sin t)} \right| \\ &= \left| e^{3 \cos t} \right| \left| e^{3i \sin t} \right| \\ &= e^{3 \cos t} \\ &\leq e^3 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $z = 3$  is the global maximum.

**Theorem 55** (Minimum Modulus Principle). *If  $f$  is analytic in  $D$ , continuous on  $\partial D$  such that  $\forall z \in D, f(z) \neq 0$ , then show that  $f$  has a global minimum in  $\partial D$ .*

*Proof.* As  $f(z) \neq 0$ , let

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

Therefore, by Maximum Modulus Principle,  $g(z)$  has a global maximum in  $\partial D$ , which corresponds to the global minimum of  $f(z)$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 21.**

Let  $D$  be a bounded domain and  $f$  be a non-constant, analytic function in  $\overline{D}$ , the closer of  $D$ , such that  $\forall z \in \partial D$ ,

$$|f(z)| = 1$$

Prove that  $\exists z_0 \in D$ , such that

$$f(z_0) = 0$$

**Solution 21.**

By Maximum Modulus Principle,  $\forall z \in D$ ,

$$|f(z)| \leq 1$$

If possible,  $\forall z \in D$ , let

$$f(z) \neq 0$$

Therefore, by Minimum Modulus Principle,

$$|f(z)| \geq 1$$

Therefore,

$$|f(z)| = 1$$

Therefore, by Cauchy-Riemann Equations,  $f$  is constant.

This contradicts that  $f$  is non-constant. Therefore,  $\exists z_0 \in D$ , such that

$$f(z_0) = 0$$

**Exercise 22.**

Let  $f$  be analytic on

$$D = \{z : |z| < 1\}$$

and on  $\partial D$ .

Assuming  $\forall z \in D$ ,

$$|f(z)| \leq \left| f(z^2) \right|$$

show that  $f$  is constant.

**Solution 22.**

Let  $0 < r < 1$ . Let

$$D_r = \{z : |z| \leq r\}$$

Therefore,

$$D_{r^2} = \{z : |z| \leq r^2\}$$

Therefore, as  $0 < r < 1$ ,

$$D_{r^2} \subset D_r$$

As  $|f(z)| \leq \left| f(z^2) \right|$ , by Maximum Modulus Principle,

$$\max_{D_r} |f(z)| \leq \max_{D_{r^2}} |f(z)|$$

As  $D_{r^2} \subset D_r$ ,

$$\max_{D_{r^2}} |f(z)| \leq \max_{D_r} |f(z)|$$

Therefore,

$$\max_{D_r} |f(z)| = \max_{D_{r^2}} |f(z)|$$

Therefore, the maximum  $|f(z)|$  on  $D_r$  is at a point in the interior of  $D_r$ . Therefore, by Maximum Modulus Principle,  $f$  is constant on  $D_r$ . Therefore, as  $0 < r < 1$ ,  $f$  is constant on  $D$ .

## Part VI

# Complex Sequences and Series

## 1 Complex Series

**Definition 52** (Convergence of complex series). The complex series  $\sum z_n$  is said to converge to  $L$ , if and only if

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N z_n \\ &= L\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 56.** *If*

$$z_n = x_n + iy_n$$

*then,*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x_n + i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y_n$$

**Definition 53** (Absolute convergence of complex series). The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  is said to converge absolutely, if

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n| < \infty$$

## 2 Series of Complex Functions

**Theorem 57.** *If a series converges absolutely, then it also converges.*

**Definition 54** (Pointwise convergence of series of functions). Let  $f_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , where  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . The series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n$  is said to converge pointwise to  $f \in \Omega$ , if  $\forall z \in \Omega$ ,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z) = f(z)$$

**Definition 55** (Uniform convergence of series of functions). Let  $f_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , where  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . The series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n$  is said to converge uniformly to  $f \in \Omega$ , if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{z \in \Omega} |S_N(z) - f(z)| = 0$$

where

$$S_N(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N f_n(z)$$

## 2.1 Criteria for Uniform Convergence of Series of Functions

**Theorem 58** (Weierstrass M-test). Let  $f_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , where  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . Let  $M_n \geq 0$  be a sequence which converges, such that,  $\forall z \in \Omega$ ,

$$|f_n(z)| \leq M_n$$

Then  $\sum f_n(z)$  converges uniformly in  $\Omega$ .

## 3 Power Series

**Definition 56** (Power series). A series of the form  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - z_0)^n$  is called a power series. All  $a_n$  are called the coefficients, and  $z_0$  is called the centre.

**Theorem 59.** A power series

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

converges in a disk  $\{z : |z - z_0| < R\}$  and diverges in  $\{z : |z - z_0| > R\}$ , where

$$\frac{1}{R} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

Also, the series converges uniformly in the set  $\{z : |z - z_0| < R'\}$ ,  $\forall R'$ , such that  $0 < R' < R$ .

### 3.1 Integration of Power Series

**Theorem 60.** *Let*

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

*be convergent in  $D_{z_0, R}$ .*

*Let  $\Gamma$  be a curve in  $D_{z_0, R}$ .*

*Let  $g(z) : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous in  $\Gamma$ .*

*Then,*

$$\int_{\Gamma} g(z)f(z) \, dz = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{\Gamma} g(z)(z - z_0)^n \, dz$$

**Theorem 61.** *Let*

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

*be convergent in  $D_{z_0, R}$ .*

*Let  $\Gamma$  be a curve in  $D_{z_0, R}$ .*

*If*

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Gamma} f(z) \, dz &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{\Gamma} (z - z_0)^n \, dz \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

*then  $f$  is analytic in  $D_{z_0, R}$ .*

### 3.2 Differentiation of Power Series

**Theorem 62.** *Let*

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

*Then, in  $D_{z_0, R}$ ,*

$$f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n (z - z_0)^{n-1}$$

*where*

$$\frac{1}{R} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}$$



**Theorem 63.** *All functions of the form  $\frac{1}{n^z}$ , which converge uniformly, are analytic.*

**Definition 57** (Riemann zeta function). The Riemann zeta function is defined to be

$$\zeta(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^z}$$

**Exercise 23.**

Show that  $\zeta(z)$ , the Riemann zeta function is analytic in  $\{z : \Re(z) > 1\}$ .

**Solution 23.**

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(z) &= \left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^z} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{n^z} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{n^{x+iy}} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{n^x n^{iy}} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^x} \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Let

$$M_n = \frac{1}{n^{1+\varepsilon}}$$

Therefore, for  $z \in \{z : \Re(z) > 1 + \varepsilon\}$ , as  $\left\{M_n = \frac{1}{n^{1+\varepsilon}}\right\}$  converges, and as

$$\frac{1}{n^z} \leq \frac{1}{n^{1+\varepsilon}}$$

by the Weierstrass M-test,  $\zeta(z)$  converges in  $\{z : \Re(z) \geq 1 + \varepsilon\}$ . As this holds for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\zeta(z)$  is also analytic in  $\{z : \Re(z) > 1\}$ .

## 4 Taylor Series for Complex Functions

**Theorem 64** (Taylor Series for Complex Functions). *Let  $f$  be analytic in  $D_{z_0, R}$ . Then,*

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

where

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial D_{z_0, R'}} \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz \end{aligned}$$

where  $R' < R$ .

**Theorem 65** (First Uniqueness Theorem). *Let  $f$  and  $g$  be analytic functions in a domain  $D$ , such that for  $z_0 \in D$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,*

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = g^{(n)}(z_0)$$

Then,

$$f(z) = g(z)$$

in  $D$ .

**Theorem 66** (Second Uniqueness Theorem). *Let  $f$  and  $g$  be analytic functions in a domain  $D$ . Let there exist  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset D$  which converges to  $z_0 \in D$ , such that  $\forall n$ ,*

$$f(z_n) = g(z_n)$$

Then,

$$f(z) = g(z)$$

in  $D$ .

*Proof.* As  $f$  and  $g$  are analytic in  $D$ , they are continuous in  $D$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(z_n) &= f(z_0) \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(z_n) &= g(z_0) \end{aligned}$$

As  $\forall n$ ,

$$f(z_n) = g(z_n)$$

Let

$$f(z_0) = a_0$$

$$g(z_0) = a_0$$

Therefore, let

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(z_n) - f(z_0)}{z_n - z_0} &= f'(z_0) \\ &= a_1\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(z_n) - g(z_0)}{z_n - z_0} &= f'(z_0) \\ &= a_1\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, let

$$\begin{aligned}f''(z_0) &= \frac{f(z_n) - a_0 - a_1(z_n - z_0)}{(z_n - z_0)^2} \\ &= a_2 \\ g''(z_0) &= \frac{g(z_n) - a_0 - a_1(z_n - z_0)}{(z_n - z_0)^2} \\ &= a_2\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{f(z_n) - \sum_{k=0}^N a_k(z_n - z_0)^k}{(z_n - z_0)^{N+1}} &= \frac{f^{(N+1)}(z_0)}{(N+1)!} \\ &= a_{N+1} \\ \frac{g(z_n) - \sum_{k=0}^N a_k(z_n - z_0)^k}{(z_n - z_0)^{N+1}} &= \frac{g^{(N+1)}(z_0)}{(N+1)!} \\ &= a_{N+1}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore the Taylor series coefficients of  $f$  and  $g$  are equal. Therefore,

$$f = g$$

in  $D$ . □

**Exercise 24.**

Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in  $D_{0,1}$ , such that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \geq 2$ ,

$$f\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n}$$

Find  $f(z)$ .

**Solution 24.**

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \geq 2$ ,

$$\left|\frac{1}{n}\right| \leq 1$$

Therefore,

$$\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\} \subset D_{0,1}$$

The limit of the sequence is

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

Therefore, the sequences converges to 0.

Let

$$\begin{aligned} g(z) &= z \\ \therefore g\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) &= \frac{1}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by the Second Uniqueness Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= g(z) \\ &= z \end{aligned}$$

## 5 Loren Series

**Theorem 67** (Loren Theorem). *Let  $f$  be analytic in an annulus  $r < |z - z_0| < R$ . Let  $C$  be a simple closed curve around  $z_0$ , with positive orientation, inside the annulus. Then,  $f$  has a unique Loren series around  $z_0$ , which converges to  $f$  in this ring, i.e.,*

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n (z - z_0)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{(z - z_0)^n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z - z_0)^n \end{aligned}$$

where

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} \\ \frac{1}{R} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 25.**

$$f(z) = -\frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)}$$

Find the Loren series of  $f(z)$  around  $z = 0$ .

**Solution 25.**

$f$  is analytic everywhere except at  $z = 1$  and  $z = 2$ .

For  $|z| < 1$ , converting to partial fractions,

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)} &= \frac{1}{z-1} + \frac{-1}{z-2} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{1-z} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1-\frac{z}{2}} \\
 &= -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^2 \\
 &= -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{2^{n+1}} \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2^{n+1}} - 1\right) z^n
 \end{aligned}$$

For  $1 < |z| < 2$ , converting to partial fractions,

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)} &= \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{z}} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1-\frac{z}{2}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{2^{n+1}} \\
 &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{2^{n+1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

For  $2 < |z|$ , converting to partial fractions,

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\frac{1}{(z-1)(z-1)} &= \frac{1}{z-1} + \frac{-1}{z-2} \\
 &= \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{z}} - \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{1-\frac{2}{z}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^n} - \frac{1}{z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{z}\right)^2 \\
 &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^n} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{n-1}}{z^n} \\
 &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - 2^{n-1}\right) \frac{1}{z^n}
 \end{aligned}$$

## 6 Isolated Singularity Points

**Definition 58** (Isolated singular point). A point  $z_0$  is said to be an isolated singular point of  $f(z)$  if  $f$  is analytic in a perforated neighbourhood of  $z_0$ , i.e. if  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that  $f$  is analytic in  $D_{z_0, \varepsilon} \setminus \{z_0\}$ .

### Exercise 26.

Find all isolated singular points of

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

2.  $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z}$

3.  $f(z) = \operatorname{Log} z$

### Solution 26.

1.

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

Therefore,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$  around  $z = 0$ ,  $f$  is analytic. Therefore,  $z = 0$  is an isolated singular point for  $f(z)$ .

2.

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

Therefore,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$  around  $z = 0$ ,  $f$  is analytic. Therefore,  $z = 0$  is an isolated singular point for  $f(z)$ .

3.

$$f(z) = \operatorname{Log} z$$

As  $\operatorname{Log} z$  is not defined on a ray in  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $f$  is not analytic on  $D_{0, \varepsilon}$ . Therefore,  $z = 0$  is not an isolated singular point.

## 6.1 Characterization of Isolated Singular Points

**Definition 59** (Characterization of isolated singular points). Let  $z_0$  be an isolated singular point of  $f$ . Therefore, by Loren Theorem,  $f$  has a Loren series around  $z_0$  with  $r = 0$ , which converges in the ring  $0 < |z - z_0| < R$ .

1.  $z_0$  is said to be a removable isolated singular point, if  $\forall n < 0, c_n = 0$ .
2.  $z_0$  is said to be a pole on order  $N$ , if  $\forall n < -N, c_n = 0$ , and  $c_{-N} \neq 0$ .
3.  $z_0$  is said to be a principle removable isolated singular point, if  $\forall n < 0, c_n \neq 0$ .

**Definition 60** (Residue). Let  $f$  have an isolated singular point at  $z = 0$ . The residue of  $f$  at  $z_0$  is defined to be the coefficient  $c_{-1}$ , of  $\frac{1}{z-z_0}$ . It is denoted as

$$\begin{aligned} c_{-1} &= \text{Res}_f(z_0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C f(z) dz \end{aligned}$$

where  $c_{-1}$  is a Loren coefficient of  $f$ .

**Definition 61.** For any  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z_0) = 0$ , the order of the zero is defined to be  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that

$$f^{(n)} \neq 0$$

and

$$f^{(k)}(z_0) = 0$$

where  $k = 0, \dots, n-1$ .

A pole of order 1 is said to be a single pole.

### Exercise 27.

Find the order of the zero at  $z = 0$  for

1.  $f(z) = z \sin z$
2.  $f(z) = 1 - \cos z$



**Solution 27.**

1.

$$f(z) = z \sin z$$

$$\therefore f(0) = 0$$

Therefore,

$$f'(z) = \sin z + z \cos z$$

$$\therefore f'(0) = 0$$

Therefore,

$$f''(z) = \cos z + \cos z - z \sin z$$

$$\therefore f''(0) = 2$$

$$\neq 0$$

Therefore, the order of the zero at  $z = 0$  is 2.

2.

$$f(z) = 1 - \cos z$$

$$\therefore f(0) = 0$$

Therefore,

$$f'(z) = \sin z$$

$$\therefore f'(0) = 0$$

Therefore,

$$f''(z) = \cos z$$

$$\therefore f''(0) = 1$$

Therefore, the order of the zero at  $z = 0$  is 2.**Exercise 28.**

Let  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  be functions analytic at  $z_0$ . Let  $z_0$  be a zero of order  $m$  for  $f(z)$ , and  $n$  for  $g(z)$ . Then, prove that  $z_0$  is a zero of order  $m + n$  for the function  $f(z)g(z)$ .

**Solution 28.**

As  $z_0$  is a zero of order  $m$  with respect to  $f(z)$ ,

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^m h_1(z)$$

where  $h_1(z)$  is an analytic function, such that

$$h_1(z_0) \neq 0$$

As  $z_0$  is a zero of order  $n$  with respect to  $g(z)$ ,

$$g(z) = (z - z_0)^n h_2(z)$$

where  $h_2(z)$  is an analytic function, such that

$$h_2(z_0) \neq 0$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} f(z)g(z) &= (z - z_0)^m h_1(z)(z - z_0)^n h_2(z) \\ &= (z - z_0)^{m+n} h_1(z)h_2(z) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $z_0$  is a zero of order  $m + n$  for the function  $f(z)g(z)$ .