

# Complex Analysis

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## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Friday January 10</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Monday January 13th</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Wednesday January 15th</b>	<b>4</b>
	3.1 Topology and Algebra of $\mathbb{C}$ . . . . .	5
<b>4</b>	<b>Friday January 17th</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Wednesday January 22nd</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Friday January 24th</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Monday January 27th</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>Wednesday January 29th</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>9</b>	<b>Friday January 31st</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>10</b>	<b>Monday February 3rd</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>11</b>	<b>Wednesday February 5th</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>12</b>	<b>Friday February 7th</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>13</b>	<b>Appendix</b>	<b>34</b>
	13.1 Useful Techniques . . . . .	36
	13.2 Residues . . . . .	36

## 1 Friday January 10

Recall that  $\mathbb{C}$  is a field, where  $z = x + iy \implies \bar{z} = x - iy$ , and if  $z \neq 0$  then  $z^{-1} = \bar{z}/|z|^2$ .

**Lemma (Triangle Inequality):**  $|z + w| \leq |z| + |w|$

*Proof:*

$$(|z| + |w|)^2 - |z + w|^2 = 2(|z\bar{w}| - \Re z\bar{w}) \geq 0.$$

**Lemma (Reverse Triangle Inequality):**  $||z| - |w|| \leq |z - w|$ .

*Proof:*

$$|z| = |z - w + w| \leq |z - w| + |w| \implies |w| - |z| \leq |z - w| = |w - z|.$$

**Claim:**  $(\mathbb{C}, |\cdot|)$  is a normed space.

**Definition:**  $\lim z_n = z \iff |z_n - z| \rightarrow 0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition:** A disc is defined as  $D_r(z_0) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z - z_0| < r\}$ , and a subset is open iff it contains a disc. By convention,  $D_r$  denotes a disc about  $z_0 = 0$ .

**Definition:**  $\sum_k z_k$  converges iff  $S_N := \sum_{|k| < N} z_k$  converges.

Note that  $z_n \rightarrow z$  and  $z_n = x_n + iy_n$ , and

$$|z_n - z| = \sqrt{(x_n - x)^2 + (y_n - y)^2} < \varepsilon \implies |x - x_n|, |y - y_n| < \varepsilon.$$

Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete iff every Cauchy sequence converges iff every bounded monotone sequence has a limit.

Note: This is useful precisely when you don't know the limiting term.

Note that  $\sum_k z_k$  thus converges if  $\left| \sum_{k=m}^n z_k \right| < \varepsilon$  for  $m, n$  large enough, so sums converges iff they have small tails.

**Definition:**  $S_N = \sum_{k=0}^N z_k$  converges absolutely iff  $\tilde{S} := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |z_k|$  converges.

Note that the partial sums  $\sum_{k=0}^N |z_k|$  are monotone, so  $\tilde{S}_N$  converges iff the partial sums are bounded above.

**Definition:** A sum of the form  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z_k$  is a power series.

*Examples:*

$$\sum x^k = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

$$\sum (-x^2)^k = \frac{1}{1+x^2}.$$

Note that both of these have a radius of convergence equal to 1, since the first has a pole at  $x = 1$  and the second as a pole at  $x = i$ .

## 2 Monday January 13th

Recall that  $\sum z_k$  converges iff  $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n z_k$  converges.

**Lemma:** Absolute convergence implies convergence.

The most interesting series:  $f(z) = \sum a_k z^k$ , i.e. power series.

**Divergence lemma:** If  $\sum z_k$  converges, then  $\lim z_k = 0$ .

*Corollary:* If  $\sum z_k$  converges,  $\{z_k\}$  is uniformly bounded by a constant  $C > 0$ , i.e.  $|z_k| < C$  for all  $k$ .

**Proposition:** If  $\sum a_k z_k$  converges at some point  $z_0$ , then it converges for all  $|z| < |z_0|$ .

The inequality is necessarily strict. For example,  $\sum \frac{z^{n-1}}{n}$  converges at  $z = -1$  (alternating harmonic series) but not at  $z = 1$  (harmonic series).

*Proof:* Suppose  $\sum a_k z_1^k$  converges. The terms are uniformly bounded, so  $|a_k z_1^k| \leq C$  for all  $k$ . Then we have

$$|a_k| \leq C/|z_1|^k$$

, so if  $|z| < |z_1|$  we have

$$|a_k z^k| \leq |z|^k \frac{C}{|z_1|^k} = C(|z|/|z_1|)^k.$$

So if  $|z| < |z_1|$ , the parenthesized quantity is less than 1, and the original series is bounded by a geometric series. Letting  $r = |z|/|z_1|$ , we have

$$\sum |a_k z^k| \leq \sum cr^k = \frac{c}{1-r},$$

and so we have absolute convergence. ■

*Exercise (future problem set):* Show that  $\sum \frac{1}{k} z^{k-1}$  converges for all  $|z| = 1$  except for  $z = 1$ . (Use summation by parts.)

**Definition** The radius of convergence is the real number  $R$  such that  $f(z) = \sum a_k z^k$  converges precisely for  $|z| < R$  and diverges for  $|z| > R$ . We denote a disc of radius  $R$  centered at zero by  $D_R$ .

If  $R = \infty$ , then  $f$  is said to be *entire*.

**Proposition:** Suppose that  $\sum a_k z^k$  converges for all  $|z| < R$ . Then  $f(z) = \sum a_k z^k$  is continuous on  $D_R$ , i.e. using the sequential definition of continuity,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$  for all  $z_0 \in D_R$ .

Recall that  $S_n(z) \rightarrow S(z)$  uniformly on  $\Omega$  iff  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $M \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n > M \implies |S_n(z) - S(z)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $z \in \Omega$

Note that arbitrary limits of continuous functions may not be continuous. Counterexample:  $f_n(x) = x^n$  on  $[0, 1]$ ; then  $f_n \rightarrow \delta(1)$ . Note that it uniformly converges on  $[0, 1 - \varepsilon]$  for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

*Exercise:* Show that the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous.

Hint: Use the triangle inequality.

Proof of proposition: Write  $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^k + \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} a_k z^k := S_N(z) + R_N(z)$ . Note that if  $|z| < R$ , then there exists a  $T$  such that  $|z| < T < R$  where  $f(z)$  converges uniformly on  $D_T$ .

Check!

We need to show that  $|R_N(z)|$  is uniformly small for  $|z| < s < T$ . Note that  $\sum a_k z^k$  converges on  $D_T$ , so we can find a  $C$  such that  $|a_k z^k| \leq C$  for all  $k$ . Then  $|a_k| \leq C/T^k$  for all  $k$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} a_k z^k \right| &\leq \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |a_k| |z|^k \\ &\leq \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} (c/T^k) s^k \\ &= c \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |s/T|^k \\ &= c \frac{r^{N+1}}{1-r} = C\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

which follows because  $0 < r = s/T < 1$ .

So  $S_N(z) \rightarrow f(z)$  uniformly on  $|z| < s$  and  $S_N(z)$  are all continuous, so  $f(z)$  is continuous.

There are two ways to compute the radius of convergence:

- Root test:  $\lim_k |a_k|^{1/k} = L \implies R = \frac{1}{L}$ .
- Ratio test:  $\lim_k |a_{k+1}/a_k| = L \implies R = \frac{1}{L}$ .

As long as these series converge, we can compute derivatives and integrals term-by-term, and they have the same radius of convergence.

### 3 Wednesday January 15th

See references: Taylor's Complex Analysis, Stein, Barry Simon (5 volume set), Hormander (technically a PDEs book, but mostly analysis)

Good Paper: Hormander 1955

We'll mostly be working from Simon Vol. 2A, most problems from from Stein's Complex.

### 3.1 Topology and Algebra of $\mathbb{C}$

To do analysis, we'll need the following notions:

1. Continuity of a complex-valued function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
2. Complex-differentiability: For  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  open and  $z_0 \in \Omega$ , there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $D_\varepsilon = \{z \mid |z - z_0| < \varepsilon\} \subset \Omega$ , and  $f$  is **holomorphic** (complex-differentiable) at  $z_0$  iff

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} (f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0))$$

exists; if so we denote it by  $f'(z_0)$ .

*Example:*  $f(z) = z$  is holomorphic, since  $f(z + h) - f(z) = z + h - z = h$ , so  $f'(z_0) = \frac{h}{h} = 1$  for all  $z_0$ .

*Example:* Given  $f(z) = \bar{z}$ , we have  $f(z + h) - f(z) = \bar{h}$ , so the ratio is  $\frac{\bar{h}}{h}$  and the limit doesn't exist. Note that if  $h \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\bar{h} = h$  and the ratio is identically 1, while if  $h$  is purely imaginary, then  $\bar{h} = -h$  and the limit is identically  $-1$ .

We say  $f$  is holomorphic on an open set  $\Omega$  iff it is holomorphic at every point, and is holomorphic on a closed set  $C$  iff there exists an open  $\Omega \supset C$  such that  $f$  is holomorphic on  $\Omega$ .

If  $f$  is holomorphic, writing  $h = h_1 + ih_2$ , then the following two limits exist and are equal:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + iy_0 + h_1) - f(x_0 + iy_0)}{h_1} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) \\ \lim_{h_2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + iy_0 + ih_2) - f(x_0 + iy_0)}{ih_2} &= \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) \\ &\implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}. \end{aligned}$$

So if we write  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ , we have

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} = \frac{1}{i} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)},$$

and equating real and imaginary parts yields the Cauchy-Riemann equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} &= -i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \\ \iff \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}. \end{aligned}$$

The usual rules of derivatives apply:

$$1. (\sum f)' = \sum f'$$

Proof: Direct.

2.  $(\prod f)' = \text{product rule}$

Proof: Consider  $(f(z+h)g(z+h) - f(z)g(z))/h$  and use continuity of  $g$  at  $z$ .

3. Quotient rule

Proof: Nice trick, write  $q = \frac{f}{g}$  so  $qg = f$ , then  $f' = q'g + qg'$  and  $q' = \frac{f'}{g} - \frac{fg'}{g^2}$ .

4. Chain rule

Proof: Use the fact that if  $f'(g(z)) = a$ , then

$$f(z+h) - f(z) = ah + r(z, h), \quad |r(z, h)| = o(|h|) \rightarrow 0.$$

Write  $b = g'(z)$ , then

$$f(g(z+h)) = f(g(z) + bh + r_1) = f(g(z)) + f'(g(z))bh + r_2$$

by considering error terms, and so

$$\frac{1}{h}(f(g(z+h)) - f(g(z))) \rightarrow f'(g(z))g'(z)$$

## 4 Friday January 17th

Reference: See Lang's Complex Analysis, there are plenty of solution manuals.

Let  $f; \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a complex-valued function. Recall that  $f$  is *complex differentiable* iff the usual ratio/limit exists. Note that  $h = x + iy$  and  $h \rightarrow 0 \iff x, y \rightarrow 0$ .

We can write  $f'(z) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ . This follows from Cauchy-Riemann since  $u_x = v_y$  and  $u_y = -v_x$ .

Definition: We want to define  $\partial, \bar{\partial}$  operators. We have the identities

$$x = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} \quad y = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}.$$

We can then write

$$\begin{aligned} dz &= dx + i dy \\ d\bar{z} &= dx - i dy. \end{aligned}$$

We define the dual operators by  $\left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial z}, dz \right\rangle = 1$  and similarly  $\left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}}, d\bar{z} \right\rangle = 1$ . By the chain rule, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
f_z &= f_x x_z + f_y y_z \\
&= \frac{1}{2} f_x + f_y \frac{1}{2i} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f,
\end{aligned}$$

and similarly  $f_{\bar{z}} = f_x x_{\bar{z}} + f_y y_{\bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f$ .

We thus find  $\partial_x = \partial_z + \partial_{\bar{z}}$  and  $\partial_y = i(\partial_z - \partial_{\bar{z}})$ , and define

$$\begin{aligned}
\partial f &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz \\
\bar{\partial} f &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} d\bar{z} \\
df &= f_z dz + f_{\bar{z}} d\bar{z}.
\end{aligned}$$

Proposition:  $f$  is holomorphic iff  $f_{\bar{z}} = 0$ .

This means that  $f$  depends on  $z$  alone and not  $\bar{z}$ .

Proof:  $\bar{\partial} f = 0$  iff  $\frac{1}{2}(f_x + i f_y) = 0$ , so  $(u_x - v_y) + i(v_x + u_y) = 0$ . ■

Application to PDEs: We can write  $u_{xx} = v_{xy}$ ,  $u_{yy} = v_{yx}$  and so  $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0 = v_{xx} + v_{yy}$ . Thus  $\Delta f = 0$ , and  $f$  satisfies Laplace's equation and is said to be *harmonic*.

Corollary: If  $f$  is analytic, then  $u, v$  are both harmonic functions.

**Theorem (Chain Rule):** Let  $w = f(z)$  and  $g(w) = g(f(z))$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
h_z &= g_w f_z + g_{\bar{w}} \bar{f}_z \\
h_{\bar{z}} &= g_w f_{\bar{z}} + g_{\bar{w}} \bar{f}_{\bar{z}}.
\end{aligned}$$

If  $f, g$  are holomorphic,  $f_{\bar{z}} = g_{\bar{w}} = 0$ , so  $h_{\bar{z}} = 0$  and  $h$  is holomorphic and  $h_z = g_w f_z$ .

Example: Given a power series  $f = \sum a_n (z - z_0)^n$ . Then

1. There exists a radius of convergence  $R$  such that  $f$  converges precisely on  $D_R(z_0)$ .
2.  $f$  is continuous on  $D_R(z_0)^\circ$ .
3. By the root test,  $R = (\limsup |a_n|^{1/n})^{-1} = \liminf |a_n/a_{n+1}| = (\limsup |a_{k+1}/a_k|)^{-1}$ .

Recall the ratio test:  $\sum a_k$  converges absolutely iff  $\limsup |a_{k+1}/a_k| < 1$

**Theorem:** If  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  is holomorphic on  $|z| < R$  for  $R > 0$  then  $f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n n z^{n-1}$ .

*Exercise:* Show  $\lim_n n^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$ . Also tricky: show  $\lim \sin(n)$  doesn't exist, and  $\sin(n)$  is dense in  $[-1, 1]$ .

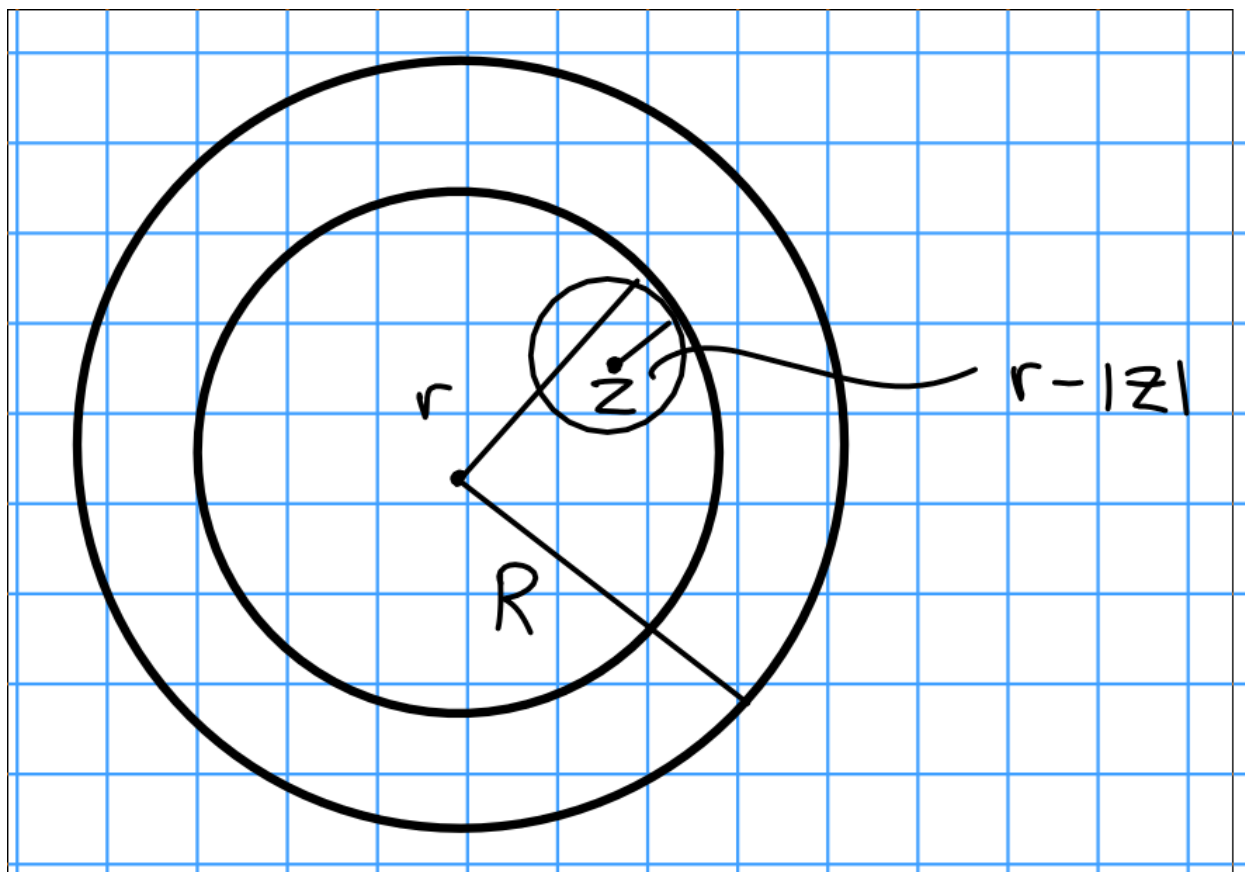


Figure 1: Image

Proof: Consider  $\limsup |a_n n|^{\frac{1}{n}}$ .

Remark: An analytic function is holomorphic in its domain of convergence, so analytic implies holomorphic. The converse requires Cauchy's integral formula.

Note: look for 13 equivalent statements, Springer GTM Lipman.

Proof: Given  $|z| < R$ , fix  $r > 0$  such that  $|z| < r < R$ . Suppose that  $|w - z| < r - |z|$ , so  $|w| < r$ .

We want to show

$$|S| = \left| \frac{f(w) - f(z)}{w - z} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n n z^{n-1} \right| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } w \rightarrow z.$$

Idea: write everything in terms of power series. Use the fact that  $a^n - b^n = (a - b)(a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}b + \dots)$ , and so  $\left| \frac{w^k - z^k}{w - z} \right| \leq k r^{k-1}$ .



$$\begin{aligned}
S &= \sum_{n=1} a_n \left( \frac{w^n - z^n}{w - z} - nz^{n-1} \right) \\
&= \sum_{n=1} a_n (w^{n-1} + w^{n-2}z + \cdots + z^{n-1} + nz^{n-1}) \\
&= \sum_{n=1} a_n ((w^{n-1} - z^{n-1}) + (w^{n-2} - z^{n-2})z + \cdots + (w - z)z^{n-2}) = \sum_{n=1} a_n (w - z) (\cdots + z^{n-2}) \\
&\leq \sum_{n=2} |a_n| \frac{1}{2} n(n-1) r^{n-2} |z - w|.
\end{aligned}$$

■

Next time: trying to prove holomorphic functions are analytic.

## 5 Wednesday January 22nd

Note: multiple complex variables, see Hormander or Steven Krantz

Recall from last time that if  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  with  $z_0 \neq 0$  has radius of convergence  $R = (\limsup |a_n|^{1/n})^{-1} > 0$ , then  $f'$  exists and is obtained by differentiating term-by-term. We have  $f$  analytic implies  $f$  holomorphic (and smooth), we want to show the converse. For this, we need integration.

**Definition:** A parameterized curve is a function  $z(t)$  which maps a closed interval  $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition:** The curve is said to be smooth iff  $z'$  exists and is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and  $z'(t) \neq 0$  for any  $t$ . At the boundary  $\{a, b\}$ , we define the derivative by taking one-sided limits.

**Definition:** A curve is said to be piecewise smooth iff  $z(t)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and there are  $a < a_1 < \cdots < a_n = b$  with  $z$  smooth on each  $[a_k, a_{k+1}]$ .

Note: may fail to have tangent lines at  $a_i$ .

**Definition:** Two parameterizations  $z : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\tilde{z} : [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  are equivalent iff there exists a  $C^1$  bijection  $s : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$  where  $s \mapsto t(s)$  such that  $s' > 0$  and  $\tilde{z}(s) = z(s(t))$ .

Note that  $s' > 0$  preserves orientation and  $s' < 0$  reverses orientation.

**Definition:**

$$\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \implies \gamma^- := [a, b] \text{ to } \mathbb{C}, \quad t \mapsto \gamma(a + b - t).$$

**Definition:** A curve is closed iff  $z(a) = z(b)$ , and is simple iff  $z(t) \neq z(t_1)$  for  $t \neq t_1$ .

**Definition:** For  $C_r(z_0) := \{z \mid |z - z_0| = r\}$ , the positive orientation is given by  $z(t) = z_0 + re^{2\pi it}$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ .

**Definition:** The integral of  $f$  over  $\gamma$  is defined as

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

Note: This doesn't depend on parameterization, since if  $t = t(s)$ , then a change of variables yields

$$\int_{\gamma} f \, dz = \int_c^d f(z(t(s))) z'(t(s)) t'(s) \, ds = \int_c^d f(\tilde{z}(s)) \tilde{z}'(s) \, ds.$$

**Definition:** The length of  $\gamma$  is defined as  $|\gamma| = \int |z'(t)| \, dt$ .

**Proposition:**

1. We can extend this definition to piecewise smooth curves by

$$\int_{\gamma} f \, dz = \sum \int_{a_k}^{a_{k+1}} f \, dz$$

2. This integral is linear and  $\int_{\gamma} f = - \int_{\gamma^-} f$ .

3. We have an inequality

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f \right| \leq \max_{a \leq t \leq b} |f(z(t))| |\gamma|.$$

**Definition:** A function  $F$  is a primitive for  $f$  on  $\Omega$  iff  $F$  is holomorphic on  $\Omega$  and  $F'(z) = f(z)$  on  $\Omega$ .

Recall that in  $\mathbb{R}$ , we have  $F(x) \int_a^x f(t) \, dt$  as an antiderivative with  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , and  $\int_a^b f = F(b) - F(a)$ .

**Theorem:** If  $f$  is continuous, has a primitive  $F$  in  $\Omega$ , and  $\gamma$  is a curve beginning at  $w_0$  and ending at  $w_1$ , then  $\int_{\gamma} f = F(w_1) - F(w_0)$ .

*Proof:* Use definitions, write  $z(t)$  where  $z(a) = w_1, z(b) = w_2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} f &= \int_a^b f(z(t)) z'(t) \, dt \\ &= \int_a^b F'(z(t)) z'(t) \, dt \\ &= \int_a^b F_t \, dt \\ &= F(z(b)) - F(z(a)) \quad \text{by FTC} \\ &= F(w_1) - F(w_2). \end{aligned}$$

Note that if  $\gamma$  is piecewise smooth, the sum of the integrals telescopes to yield the same conclusion.

**Corollary:** If  $f$  is continuous and  $\gamma$  is a closed curve in  $\Omega$ , and  $f$  has a primitive in  $\Omega$ , then  $\oint f = 0$ .

## 6 Friday January 24th

**Corollary:** If  $\gamma$  is a closed curve on  $\Omega$  an open set and  $f$  is continuous with a primitive in  $\Omega$  (i.e. an  $F$  holomorphic in  $\Omega$  with  $F' = f$ ) then  $\int_{\gamma} f dz = 0$ .

*Proof (easy):*

$$\int_{\gamma} f dz = \int_{\gamma} F' = F'(z)z(t) dt = F(z(b)) - F(z(a)) = 0.$$

Corollary: If  $f$  is holomorphic with  $f' = 0$  on  $\Omega$ , then  $f$  is constant.

*Proof (easy):* Pick  $w_0 \in \Omega$ ; we want to fix  $w_0 \in \Omega$  and show  $f(w) = f(w_0)$  for all  $w \in \Omega$ .

Take any path  $\gamma : w_0 \rightarrow w$ , then

$$0 = \int_{\gamma} f' = f(w) - f(w_0).$$

**Example:** Let  $f(z) = e^{-z^2}$ , this is holomorphic. Write  $f(z) = \sum (-1)^n z^{2n}/n!$ , so  $\int f = \sum (-1)^n z^{2n+1}/(n!(2n+1))$ . Since  $f$  is entire,  $\int f$  is entire, and  $(\int f)' = f$  so this function has a primitive. Thus  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) = 0$  for *any* closed curve. So take  $\gamma$  a rectangle with vertices  $\pm a, \pm a + ib$ .

So

$$\int_{\gamma} f = \int_{-a}^a e^{-x^2} dx + \int e^{-(a+iy)^2} i dy - \int_a^{-a} e^{-(x+ib)^2} dx - \int_0^b e^{-(a+iy)^2} i dy = 0.$$

We can do some estimates,



Figure 2: Image

$$\begin{aligned}
e^{-(a+iy)^2} &= e^{-(a^2+2iaiy-y^2)} \\
&= e^{-a^2+y^2} e^{2iaiy} \\
&\leq e^{-a^2+y^2} \\
&\leq e^{-a^2+b^2},
\end{aligned}$$

$$\left| \int_0^b e^{-(a+iy)^2} i \, dy \right| \leq e^{-a^2+b^2} \cdot b$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-a}^a e^{-(x^2+2ibx)-b^2} &= e^{b^2} \int_{-a}^a e^{-x^2} (\cos(2bx) - i \sin(2bx)) \\
&\stackrel{\text{odd fn}}{=} e^{b^2} \int_{-a}^a e^{-x^2} \cos(2bx) \, dx.
\end{aligned}$$

Now take  $a \rightarrow \infty$  to obtain

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} \, dx = e^{b^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} \cos(2bx) \, dx.$$

We can compute

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} = \left[ \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} = \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\infty e^{-r^2} r \, dr \, d\theta \right) = \sqrt{\pi}.$$

and then conclude

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} \cos(2bx) = \sqrt{\pi} e^{-b^2}.$$

Make a change of variables  $2b = 2\pi\xi$ , so  $b = \pi\xi$ , then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} \cos(2\pi\xi x) \, dx = \sqrt{\pi} e^{-\pi^2\xi^2}.$$

Thus  $\mathcal{F}(e^{-x^2}) = \sqrt{\pi} e^{-\pi^2\xi^2}$ , allowing computation of the Fourier transform. Note that this can be used to prove the Fourier inversion formula.

**Exercise:** Show that this is an approximate identity and prove the Fourier inversion formula.

**Exercise:** Show  $\mathcal{F}(e^{-ax^2}) = \sqrt{\pi/a} e^{-\pi^2/a \cdot \xi^2}$ , and thus taking  $a = \pi$  makes  $e^{\pi x^2}$  is an eigenfunction of  $\mathcal{F}$  with eigenvalue 1.

**Theorem:** If  $f$  has a primitive on  $\Omega$  then  $F(z)$  is holomorphic and  $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$ . If  $f$  is holomorphic, then  $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$ .

**Theorem (Green's):** Take  $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^2$  bounded with  $\partial\Omega$  piecewise smooth. If  $f, g \in C^1\overline{\Omega}$ , then

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} f \, dx + g \, dy = \iint_{\Omega} (g_x - f_y) \, dA.$$

*Proof:* Not given here!

**Proof of Theorem:** Write  $\gamma = \partial\Gamma$ , and noting that  $f_z = f_x = \frac{1}{i}f_y$  implies that  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}}$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} f \, dz &= \int_{\gamma} f(z) (dx + i dy) \\ &= \int f(z) \, dx + i \int f(z) \, dy \\ &= \iint_{\Gamma} (if_x - f_y) \, dA \\ &= i \iint_{\Gamma} \left( f_x - \frac{1}{i} f_y \right) \, dA \\ &= i \iint_{\Gamma} 0 \, dA = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Next class: We'll prove that this integral over any triangle is zero by a limiting process.

## 7 Monday January 27th

Fix a connected domain  $\Omega$  which is bounded with a piecewise  $C^1$  boundary.

**Theorem (Green's):** Given  $f, g \in C^1\overline{\Omega}$ , we can take a vector field  $F = \langle f, g \rangle$  and have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\partial\Omega} f \, dx + g \, dy &= \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) \, dA \\ \int_{\partial\Omega} -f \, dx + g \, dy &= \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) \, dA \\ \int_{\partial\Omega} f \, dy - g \, dx &= \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right) \, dA \\ \int_{\partial\Omega} F \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds &= \iint_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot F \, dA \\ \int_{\partial\Omega} \text{curl}(F) \, ds &= \iint_{\Omega} \text{div}(F) \, dA, \end{aligned}$$

where we take  $\mathbf{n}$  to be orthogonal to  $\partial\Omega$ . The quantities appearing on the RHS are referred to as the flux.

For  $f(z) \in C^1(\Omega)$  holomorphic, we can then write

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\partial\Omega} f \, dz &= \int_{\partial\Omega} f (dx + idy) \\ &= \int_{\partial\Omega} f \, dx + if \, dy \\ &= \iint_{\Omega} (if_x - f_y) \, dA \\ &= 0,\end{aligned}$$

which follows since  $f$  holomorphic, we can write  $f'(z) = f_x = \frac{1}{i}f_y$ , so  $if_x = f_y$  and thus  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0$ .

See Taylor's Introduction to Complex Analysis

**Theorem (Cauchy's Integral Formula):** If  $f \in C^1(\overline{\Omega})$  and  $f$  is holomorphic, then for any  $z \in \Omega$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{d(\xi)}{\xi - z} \, d\xi.$$

*Proof:* Since  $z \in \Omega$  an open set, we can find some  $r > 0$  such that  $D_r(z) \subset \Omega$ . Then  $\frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z}$  is holomorphic on  $\Omega \setminus D_r(z)$ . Let  $C_r = \partial D_r(z)$ .

*Claim 1:*  $\int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} \, d\xi = \int_{C_r} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} \, d\xi.$

*Proof:* Use the parameterization of  $C_r$  given by  $\xi = z + re^{i\theta}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} \, d\xi &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{f(z + re^{i\theta})}{re^{i\theta}} i r d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z + re^{i\theta}) \, d\theta \\ &\xrightarrow{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} \, d\xi.\end{aligned}$$

where we use the fact that  $f(z + re^{i\theta}) = f(z) + f'(z)re^{i\theta} + o(r) \rightarrow f(z)$ .

Letting  $F(\xi) = f(\xi)/(\xi - z)$ , this is holomorphic on  $\Omega \setminus D_r(z)$ . Let  $\Omega_r = \partial\Omega \cup (-C_r)$ . Take the following path integral:

Then

$$0 = \int_{\partial\Omega_r} F(\xi) \, d\xi = \int_{\partial\Omega} F(\xi) \, d\xi - \int_{C_r} F(\xi) \, d\xi,$$

which forces these integrals to be equal.

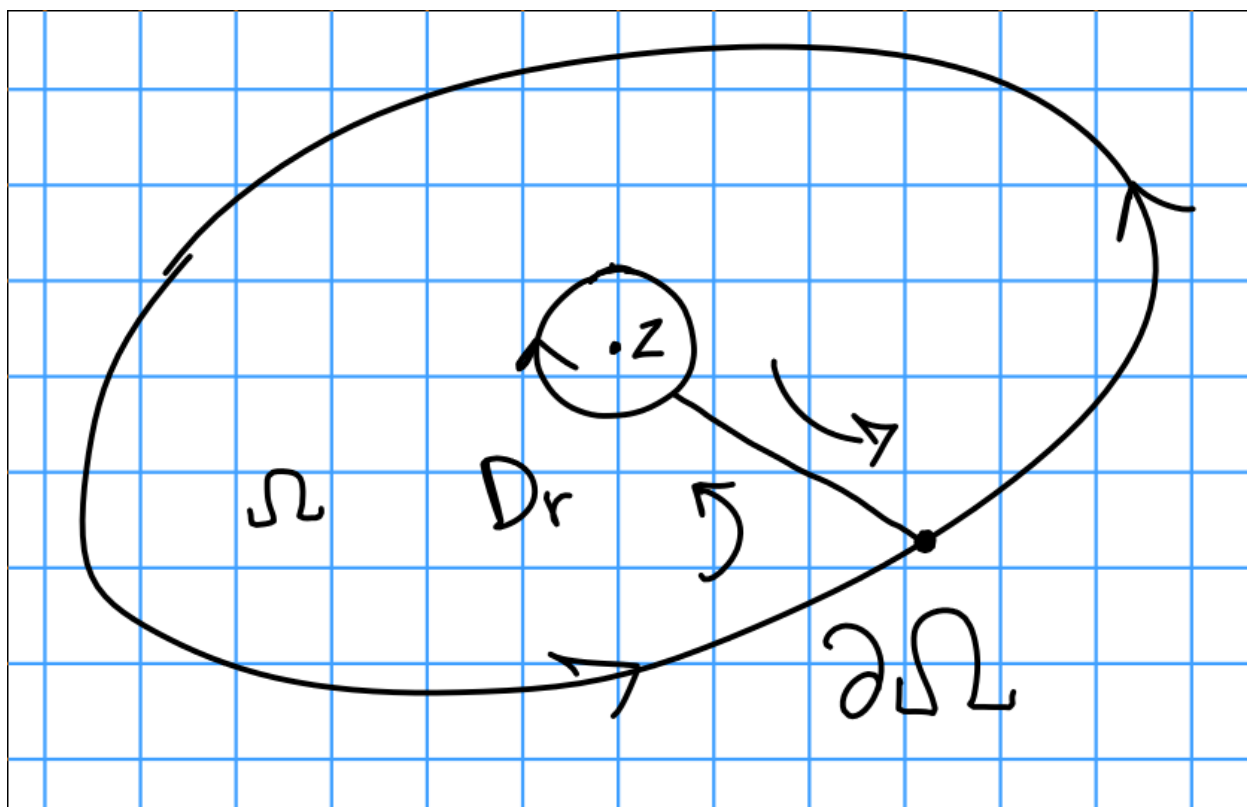


Figure 3: Image



■

If we can differentiate through the integral, we can obtain

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^2} d\xi.$$

and thus inductively

$$(D_z)^n f(z) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{n+1}} d\xi.$$

To prove rigorously, need to write

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_h f(z) &= \frac{1}{h} (f(z+h) - f(z)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i h} \int_{\partial\Omega} f(\xi) \left( \frac{1}{\xi - (z+h)} - \frac{1}{\xi - z} \right) d\xi = \frac{1}{2\pi i h} \int_{\partial\Omega} f(\xi) \left( \frac{1}{(\xi - z - h)(\xi - z)} \right) d\xi, \end{aligned}$$

and show the integrand converges uniformly, where

$$\frac{1}{(\xi - z - h)(\xi - z)} \xrightarrow{u} \frac{1}{(\xi - z)^2}.$$

Continuing inductively yields the integral formula.

**Corollary:** If  $f$  is holomorphic, then  $f \in C^1(\Omega)$  implies that  $f \in C^\infty(\Omega)$ .

**Theorem:** If  $f$  is holomorphic in  $\Omega$ , then  $f$  is equal to its Taylor series (i.e.  $f(z_0)$  is analytic.)

Fix  $z_0 \in \Omega$  and let  $r = |z - z_0|$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\xi - z} &= \frac{1}{\xi - z_0 - (z - z_0)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\xi - z_0} \frac{1}{1 - \left( \frac{z - z_0}{\xi - z_0} \right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\xi - z_0} \sum_n \left( \frac{z - z_0}{\xi - z_0} \right)^n \quad \text{for } |z - z_0| < |\xi - z_0|. \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\sum z^n$  converges uniformly for any  $|z| < \delta < 1$ .

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\xi \in \partial\Omega} f(\xi) \sum \frac{(z - z_0)^n}{(\xi - z_0)^{n+1}} d\xi \\
&= \sum \left( \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z_0)^{n+1}} d\xi \right) (z - z_0)^n \\
&= \sum \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z - z_0)^n.
\end{aligned}$$

■

Thus  $f$  is holomorphic iff  $f$  is analytic.

Counterexample to keep in mind:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}.$$

In the case of  $\mathbb{R}$ , smooth and analytic are very different categories of functions.

Open question: does a PDE involving analytic functions always have solutions? Or does this hold for smooth functions instead?

## 8 Wednesday January 29th

Cauchy integral formula: Let  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic, so  $f \in C^1(\overline{\Omega})$ . Then for any  $z \in \Omega$ ,

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi.$$

In general,

$$f^{(n)}(z) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{n+1}} d\xi.$$

This implies that  $f$  is analytic, i.e.  $f(z) = \sum a_n(z - z_0)^n$  where  $a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!}$ . Thus  $f$  is holomorphic iff  $f$  is analytic,

and

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} f = 0 \implies \int_{\partial\Omega_r} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi = 0.$$

where  $\Omega_r = \Omega \setminus D_r(z)$ , and  $\partial\Omega_r = \partial\Omega \cup (-\partial D_r)$ .

We can thus shrink integrals:

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} f(\xi)/(\xi - z) d\xi = \int_{C_r} f(\xi)/(\xi - z) d\xi.$$

**Proposition:** Let  $f \in C^1(\Omega)$  be holomorphic on  $\Omega$ . Let  $\gamma_s(t)$  be a family of smooth curves in  $\Omega$ ; then  $\int_{\gamma_s} f$  is independent of  $s$ .

**Proof:** Write  $\gamma_s(t) = \gamma(s, t) : [a, b] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$ . We have  $\gamma_s(0) = \gamma_s(1)$  so  $\frac{\partial\gamma}{\partial s}(s, 0) = \frac{\partial\gamma}{\partial s}(s, 1)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial\gamma}{\partial s} &= \int_0^1 \left( f'(r(s, t)) \frac{\partial r}{\partial s} \frac{\partial r}{\partial t} + f(r(s, t)) \frac{\partial^2 \gamma}{\partial s \partial t} \right) dt \\ &= \int_0^1 \left( f'(r(s, t)) \frac{\partial r}{\partial s} \frac{\partial r}{\partial t} + f(r(s, t)) \frac{\partial^2 \gamma}{\partial \mathbf{t} \partial \mathbf{s}} \right) dt \\ &= \int_0^1 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f(\gamma(s, t)) \gamma_s) \\ &= f(\gamma(s, 1)) \gamma_s(s, 1) - f(\gamma(s, 0)) \gamma_s(s, 0) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

where we can just take the paths  $\gamma(s, t) = z_0 \in \Omega$  for all  $s, t$ .

**Proposition:** Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open and  $f_v : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Suppose that each  $f_v$  is holomorphic,  $f_v \rightarrow f$  pointwise, and *locally uniform*, i.e.  $f_v \rightarrow f$  uniformly on every compact  $K \subset \Omega$ . Then  $f$  is holomorphic in  $\Omega$  and  $f$  is locally uniform.

**Proof:** Given a compact set  $K \subset \Omega$ , pick an  $O$  with smooth boundary such that  $K \subset O \subset \overline{O} \subset \Omega$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} f_v(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial O} \frac{f_v(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi \\ f_v^{(n)}(z) &= \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial O} \frac{f_v(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{n+1}} d\xi \end{aligned}$$

Then on  $\partial O$ , we have uniform convergence

$$\frac{f_v(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{n+1}} \xrightarrow{u} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{n+1}}.$$

By moving the limits inside, we obtain

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial O} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi$$

$$f^{(n)}(z) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial O} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{n+1}} d\xi$$

**Cauchy Inequality:** Given  $z_0 \in \Omega$ , pick the largest disc  $D_R(z_0) \subset \Omega$  and let  $C_R = \partial D_R$ . Using the integral formula, defining  $\|f\|_{C_R} = \max_{|z-z_0|=R} |f(z)|$

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\|f\|_{C_R}}{R^{n+1}} R d\theta = \frac{n! \|f\|_{C_R}}{R^n}.$$

**Corollary:** If  $f$  is entire and bounded, then  $f$  is constant.

Proof: For all  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , there exists an  $M$  such that  $|f(z)| \leq M$ . Then  $|f'(z_0)| \leq \frac{M}{R}$  for any  $R > 0$ . Taking  $R \rightarrow \infty$  yields  $f'(z_0) = 0$ , so  $f$  is constant. ■

Corollary: Every non-constant polynomial  $p(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \cdots + a_n z^n$  has a root in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

General proof technique: proving for  $f(z)$ , consider  $\frac{1}{f(z)}$  and  $f(\frac{1}{z})$ .

Proof: Suppose  $p$  is nonconstant and does not have a root,  $\frac{1}{p}$  is entire. Assume that  $a_n \neq 0$ , then

$$\frac{p(z)}{z^n} = a_n \left( \frac{a_{n-1}}{z} + \cdots + \frac{a_0}{z^n} \right) := a_n + y$$

We can note that  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n-k}}{z^k} \rightarrow 0$ , so there exists an  $R > 0$  such that

$$\left| \frac{p(z)}{z^n} \right| \geq \frac{1}{2} |a_n| \quad \text{for } |z| > R$$

$$\implies |p(z)| \geq \frac{1}{2} |a_n| |z|^n \geq \frac{1}{2} |a_n| R^n.$$

Since  $p(z)$  is continuous and has no root in the disc  $|z| \leq R$ ,  $|p(z)|$  is bounded from below in this disc. Since  $p(z)$  is continuous on a compact set, it attains a minimum, and so  $|p(z)| \geq \min_{|z| \leq R} |p(z)| = c_2 \neq 0$ .

Then  $|p(z)| \geq A = \min(C_2, \frac{1}{2} |a_n| R^n)$ , so  $\frac{1}{p}$  is bounded. Then  $f$  is constant, a contradiction.

## 9 Friday January 31st

Recall that if  $f$  is holomorphic, we have Cauchy's integral formula.

Corollary: If  $P(z)$  is a polynomial in  $\mathbb{C}$  then  $P$  has a root in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Corollary: Every polynomial of degree  $n$  has precisely  $n$  roots in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Proof: By induction on the degree of  $P$ . From the first corollary,  $P$  has a root  $w_1$ , so write  $z = z - w_1 + w_1$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(z) &= p(z - w_1 + w_1) \\
 &= \sum_k^n a_k (z - w_1 + w_1)^k \\
 &= \sum_k^n a_k \sum_j^k \binom{k}{j} w_1^{k-j} (z - w_1)^j \\
 &= \sum_k^n \sum_j^k a_k \binom{k}{j} w_1^{k-j} (z - w_1)^j \\
 &= \sum_j^n \left( \sum_{k \geq j} a_k \binom{k}{j} \right) (z - w_1)^j \\
 &= b_0 + b_1(z - w_1) + \cdots + b_n(z - w_1)^n.
 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $P(w_1) = 0$ , we must have  $b_0 = 0$ , and thus this equals

$$\begin{aligned}
 b_1(z - w_1) + \cdots + b_n(z - w_1)^n &= (z - w_1)(b_1 + \cdots + b_n(z - w_1)^{n-1}) \\
 &:= (z - w_1)\phi(z),
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\phi(z)$  is degree  $n - 1$ , which has  $n - 1$  roots by induction. ■

Definition: For a sequence  $\{z_n\}$ , TFAE

1.  $z$  is a limit point.
2. There exists a subsequence  $\{z_{n_k}\}$  converging to  $z$ .
3. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there are infinitely many  $z_i$  in  $D_\varepsilon(z)$ .

**Theorem:** Suppose  $f$  is holomorphic on a bounded connected region  $\Omega$  and  $f$  vanishes on a sequence of distinct points with a limit point in  $\Omega$ .

Proof: WLOG by restricting to a subsequence, suppose that  $\{w_k\} \in \Omega$  with  $f(w_i) = 0$  for all  $i$  and  $z_0$  is a limit point of  $\{w_i\}$ . Let  $U = \{z \in \Omega \mid f(z) = 0\}$ . Then

1.  $U$  is nonempty since  $f(w_k) = f(z_0) = 0$ .
2. Since holomorphic functions are continuous, if  $w_k \rightarrow z$  then  $z \in U$ , so  $U$  is closed.

3. (To prove)  $U$  is open.

Since  $U$  is closed and open,  $U = \Omega$ .

We will first show that  $f(z) \equiv 0$  in a disk containing  $z_0$ . Choose a disc  $D$  containing  $z_0$  and contained in  $\Omega$ . Since  $f$  is holomorphic on  $D$ , we can write  $f = \sum a_n n(z - z_0)^n$ . Since  $f(z_0) = 0$ , we have  $a_0 = 0$ .

Suppose  $f \neq 0$ . Then there exists a smallest  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $a_n \neq 0$ , so  $f(z) = a_n(z - z_0)^n + \dots$ . Since  $a_n \neq 0$ , we can factor this as  $a_n(z - z_0)^n(1 + g(z - z_0))$  where  $g(z - z_0) = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{a_n}(z - z_0)^{k-n}$ .

Note that  $g$  is holomorphic, and  $g(z_0 - z_0) = 0$ .

Choose some  $w_k$  such that  $f(w_k) = 0$  and  $|g(w_k - z_0)| \leq \frac{1}{2}$  by continuity of  $g$ . Then  $|1 + g(w_k - z_0)| > 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ . Then  $|f(w_k)| = |a_n(w_k - z_0)^n(1 + g(w_k - z_0))| > |a_n||w_k - z_0|^n \frac{1}{2} > 0$ , a contradiction. So  $U$  is open, closed, and nonempty, so  $U = \Omega$ . ■

Corollary: Suppose  $f, g$  are holomorphic in a region  $\Omega$  with  $f(z_k) = g(z_k)$  where  $\{z_k\}$  has a limit point. Then  $f(z) \equiv g(z)$ .

Mean Value Theorem: Let  $z_0$  be a point in  $\Omega$  and  $C_\gamma$  the boundary of  $D_r(z_0)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(z_0) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_\gamma} f(z)/(z - z_0) dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})/re^{i\theta} rie^{i\theta} d\theta \quad \text{by } z = z_0 + re^{i\theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi r} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) r d\theta = \frac{1}{|C_\gamma|} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z) ds, \end{aligned}$$

which is the average value of  $f$  on the circle.

Note that there is another formula that averages over the disc (see book for derivation?)

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{D_s(z_0)} \int_{P_s} \int_{D_s} f(z) dA.$$

These imply the maximum modulus principle, since the average can not be the max or min unless  $f$  is constant. Note that  $|f(z)|$  is continuous!

Next time: maximum modulus principle.

## 10 Monday February 3rd

**Theorem (Mean Value for Holomorphic functions):** Let  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic where  $\Omega$  is open and connected. Then by Cauchy's integral formula, we have  $f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) d\theta$  for any  $z_0 \in \Omega$ . We can consider  $D_r(z_0)$ , in which case we have for all  $0 < s < r$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
f(z_0) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + se^{i\theta}) d\theta \\
\implies s \cdot f(z_0) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} s \cdot f(z_0 + se^{i\theta}) d\theta \\
\implies f(z_0) \int_0^r s ds &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r f(z_0 + se^{i\theta}) \cdot s ds d\theta \\
\implies \frac{1}{2} r^2 f(z_0) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \iint_{D_r(z_0)} f(z) dA \\
\implies f(z_0) &= \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{D_r(z_0)} f(z) dA \\
\implies f(z_0) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) d\theta.
\end{aligned}$$

Proposition: If  $\Omega$  is open and connected with  $f$  holomorphic on  $\Omega$  and suppose that }or any  $z_0 \in \Omega$ ,  $|f(z_0)| = \sup_{z \in \Omega} |f(z)|$ , so  $z_0$  is a maximal point of  $f$ . Then  $f$  is constant on  $\Omega$ .

If  $\Omega$  is additionally bounded then  $f$  is continuous on  $\overline{\Omega}$ , then  $\sup_{z \in \overline{\Omega}} |f(z)| = \max_{z \in \overline{\Omega}} |f(z)|$ .

Proof: Since  $|f|$  is continuous and  $\overline{\Omega}$  is compact,  $|f|$  attains a maximum at some point in  $\overline{\Omega}$ . We want to show that if  $|f(z_0)| = \sup_{z \in \Omega} |f(z)|$ , then  $f$  is constant.

Assume that there exists a  $z_0 \in \Omega$  such that  $f(z) = f(z_0)$ . Let  $O = \left\{ \xi \in \Omega \mid f(\xi) = f(z_0) \right\}$ .

1.  $O$  is not empty, since  $z_0 \in O$ .
2.  $O$  is closed, since if  $\xi_n \rightarrow \xi$  then  $f(\xi_n) = f(z_0)$  implies  $f(\xi) = f(z_0)$  since  $f$  is continuous.
3. (Claim)  $O$  is open.

Suppose  $\xi_0 \in O$ , then there exists a disc  $D_\rho(\xi_0) \subset \Omega$  such that  $f(\xi_0) = \frac{1}{\pi \rho^2} \int_{D_\rho(\xi_0)} f(z) dA$ . Then (claim)  $|f(\xi_0)| \geq |f(z)|$  for all  $z \in D_\rho(\xi_0)$ , which forces  $f(z) = f(\xi_0)$  for all  $z \in D_\rho(\xi_0)$ .

Proof of this fact: Suppose that  $\sup_{a \in \Omega} |f(z)| = |f(\xi_0)|$  and write  $f(\xi_0) = Be^{i\alpha}$  for  $B > 0$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Then define  $g(z) = f(z)e^{-i\alpha}$ ; then  $g(\xi_0) = B$  is real, and thus

$$0 = g(\xi_0) - B = \frac{1}{\pi \rho^2} \iint_{D_\rho(\xi_0)} \Re(g(z) - B) dA.$$

Note that  $\Re(g(z) - B) \leq 0$  implies that  $\Re(g(z) - B) \equiv 0$  on  $D_\rho(\xi_0)$ , so we can write  $g(z) = B + iI(z)$  for some real-valued function  $I$ . But then  $|g(z)|^2 = B^2 + I(z)^2 = B^2$  by the previous statement, and so  $I(z) = 0$ , forcing  $g(z) = B$  and thus  $f(z) = Be^{i\alpha}$ .

This shows that  $O$  is open, and thus  $O = \Omega$ . ■

**Proposition (Stein 2.1):** Suppose  $f$  is holomorphic on  $D_1(0)$  and  $|f(z)| \leq 1$  for all  $|z| < 1$  with  $f(0) = 0$ . Then  $|f(z)| \leq |z|$  for all  $|z| < 1$ .

Moreover, there is a point  $z_0 \in D_1(0)$  such that  $|f(z_0)| = |z_0|$  iff  $f(z) = c(z)$  for some  $c \in S^1$ .

*Proof:* Define

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(z)}{z} & z \neq 0 \\ f'(0) & z = 0 \end{cases}.$$

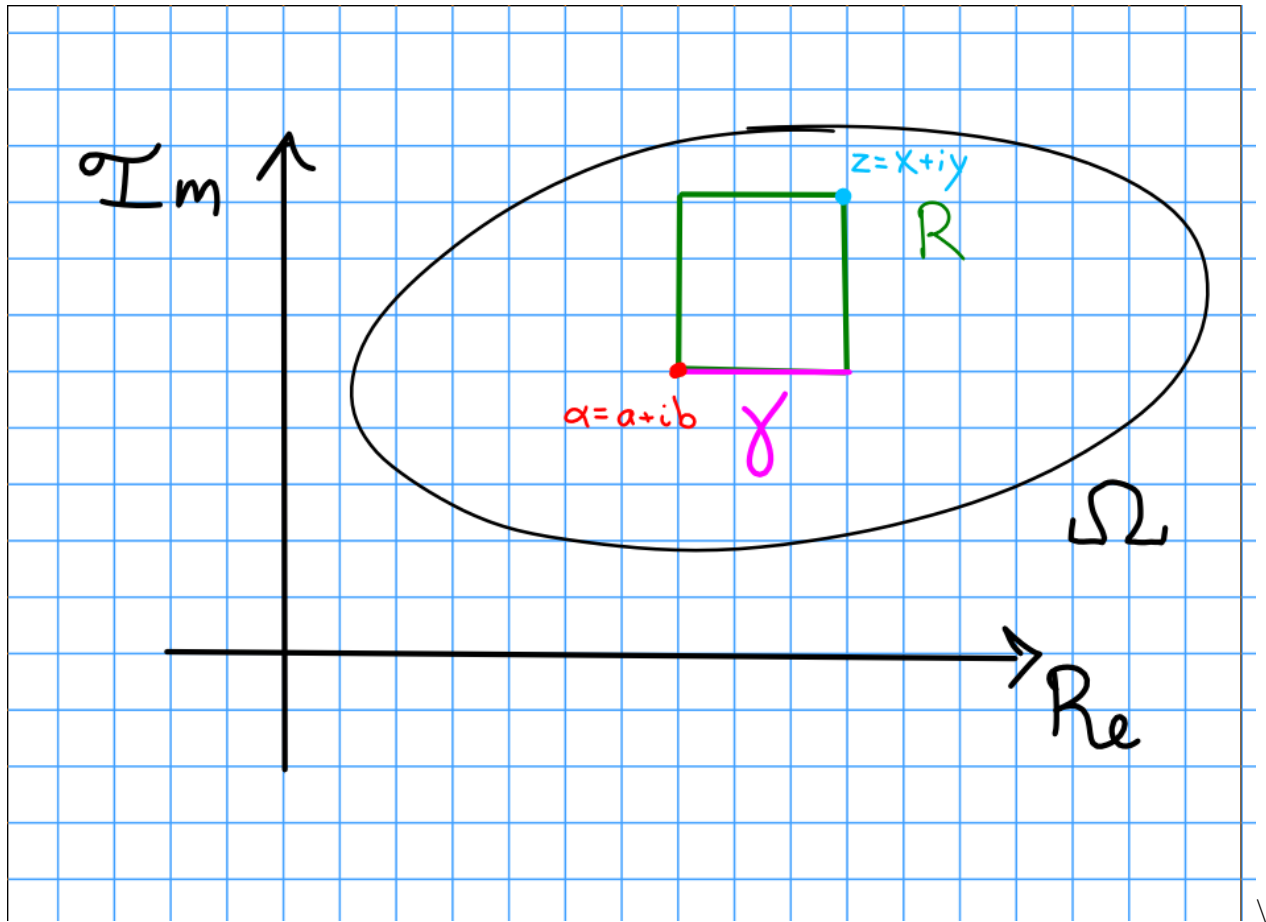
Then  $g$  is holomorphic on  $D_1(0)$  and  $|g(z)| \leq \frac{1}{\rho}$  for all  $|z| < \rho < 1$ . Now apply the maximum principle: since this is true for all  $\rho < 1$ , consider the limit  $\rho \rightarrow 1^-$ . Then  $|g(z)| \leq 1$ , so  $\left| \frac{f(z)}{z} \right| \leq 1$  and  $|f(z)| \leq |z|$ . If  $|f(z_0)| = |z_0|$  for any point, then  $|g(z_0)| = 1$  implies  $g(z_0) = c$  and  $c \in S^1$ . Thus  $f(z) = cz$  for some  $c \in S^1$ . ■

**Corollary:** Recall that  $\Phi_a(z) := \frac{z-a}{1-az}$ . If  $f : D_1(0) \rightarrow D_1(0)$  is a biholomorphism, then  $f(z) = c\Phi_a(z) = e^{i\theta}\Phi_a(z)$ ; so every such function is a rotated form of  $\Phi_a$ .

Let  $\Omega$  be a connected open domain and  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic with  $f \in C^1$ . Then  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$  for every closed curve  $\gamma \subset \Omega$ , which implies that  $f^{(k)}(z)$  exists for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $f$  is smooth/holomorphic. Morera's theorem is a converse to Cauchy's integral theorem.

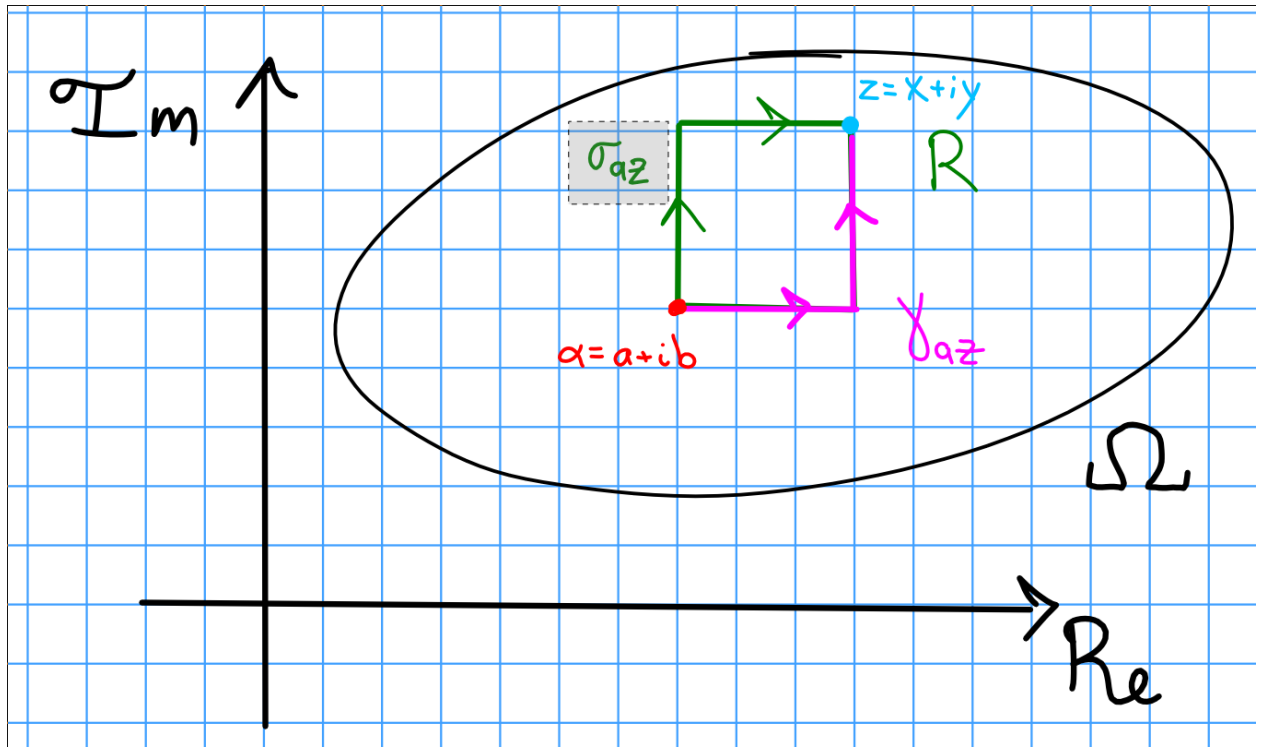
**Theorem (Morera):** Suppose  $g : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is continuous and  $\int_{\gamma} g(z) dz = 0$  whenever  $\gamma = \partial R$  for some rectangle  $R \subset \Omega$  with sides parallel to the axes:





Then  $g(z)$  is holomorphic in  $\Omega$ .

*Proof:* Fix a point  $\alpha = a + ib$  and given  $z = x + iy$ , construct a rectangle  $R$  containing  $z$ . Then by assumption,  $\int_{\partial R} g(z) dz = 0$ . Let  $\gamma_{\alpha z}$  be the path given by traversing the bottom edge of  $R$ , and  $\sigma_{\alpha z}$  by the top path.



Let

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \int_{\gamma_{\alpha z}} g(z) \, dz \\ &= \int_a^x g(s + ib) \, ds + i \int_b^y g(x + it) \, dt. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\int_{\partial R} g(z) \, dz = 0 = \int_{\gamma_{\alpha z}} \cdots - \int_{\sigma_{\alpha z}} \cdots$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \int_{\sigma_{\alpha z}} g(z) \, dz \\ &= i \int_b^y g(a + it) \, dt + \int_x^a g(s + iy) \, ds. \end{aligned}$$

Exercise: Apply  $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$  to the first identity and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  to the second.

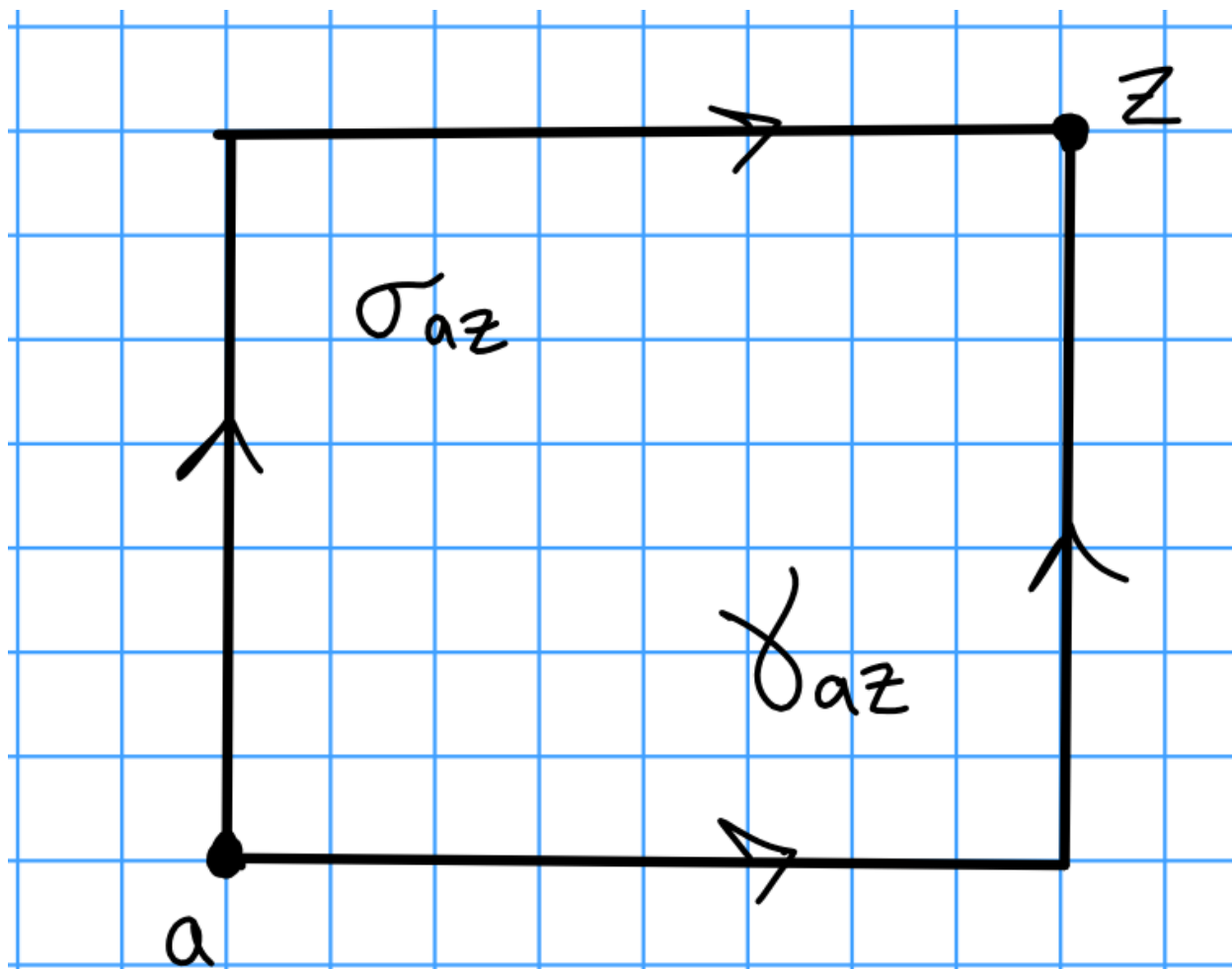
This yields  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = g(z)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = ig(z) = i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  by applying the FTC, which are precisely the Cauchy-Riemann equations for  $f$ . So  $f$  is holomorphic, and thus  $f(z) = g(z)$ .

## 11 Wednesday February 5th

Recall last time: We have Cauchy's theorem, which says that if  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is holomorphic then  $\int_{\gamma} f dz = 0$ .

We have a partial converse, Morera's theorem: If  $g : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is continuous and  $\int_R g dz = 0$  for every rectangle  $R \subset \Omega$  with sides parallel to the axes, then  $g$  is holomorphic.

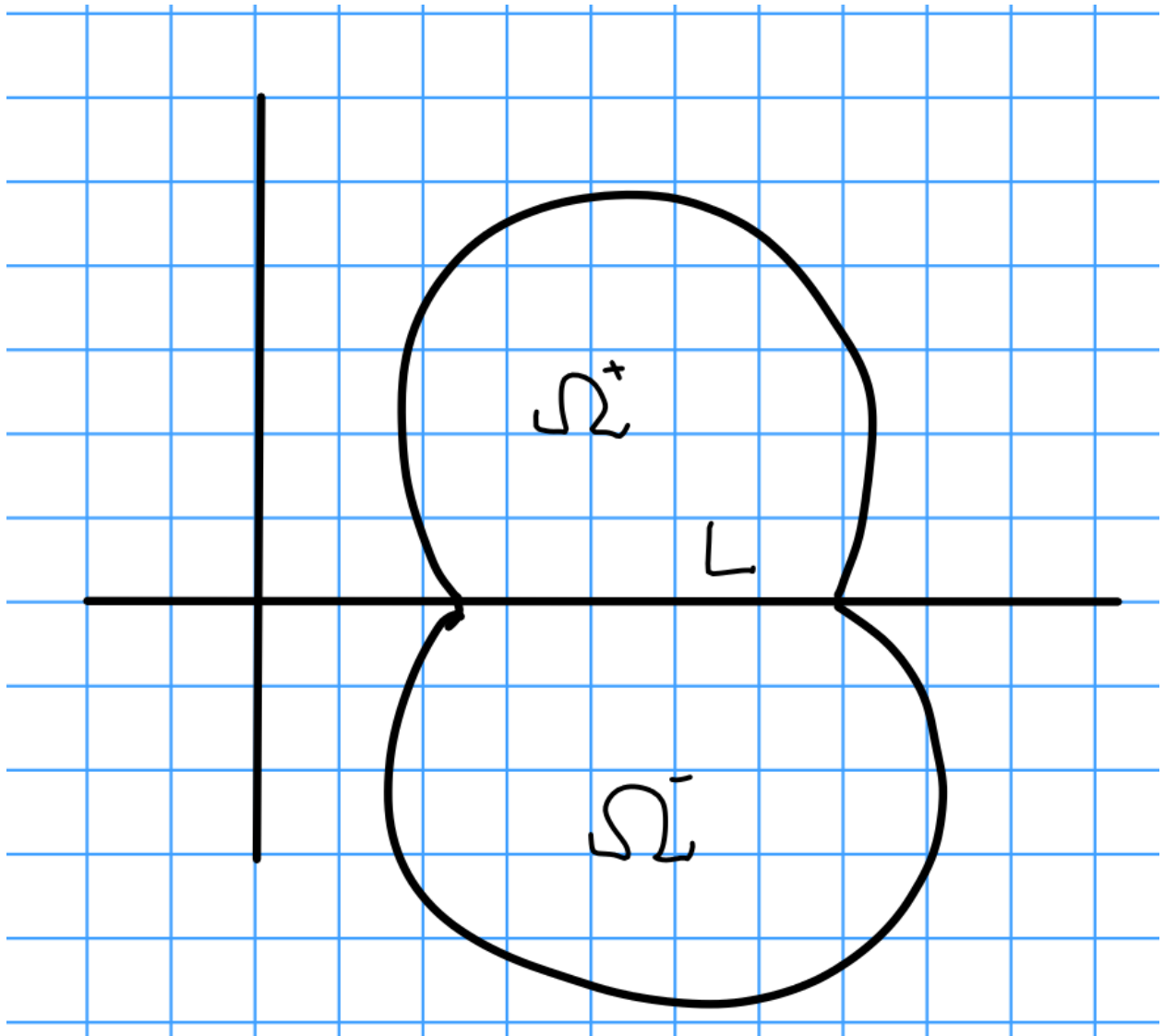
Proof: Fix a point  $a \in \Omega$ , then for any  $z \in \Omega$  define  $f(z) = \int_{\gamma_{a,z}} g(\xi) d\xi = \int_{\sigma_{a,z}} g(\xi) d\xi$ .



Then  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = g(z)$ , making  $g$  holomorphic.

■

**Theorem (Schwarz Reflection):** Let  $\Omega = \Omega^+ \cup L \cup \Omega^-$  be a region of the following form:



I.e.,  $L = \{z \in \Omega \mid \operatorname{im} z = 0\}$ ,  $\Omega^\pm = \{\pm \operatorname{im} z > 0\}$  where  $\Omega$  is symmetric about the real axis, i.e.  $z \in \Omega \implies \bar{z} \in \Omega$ .

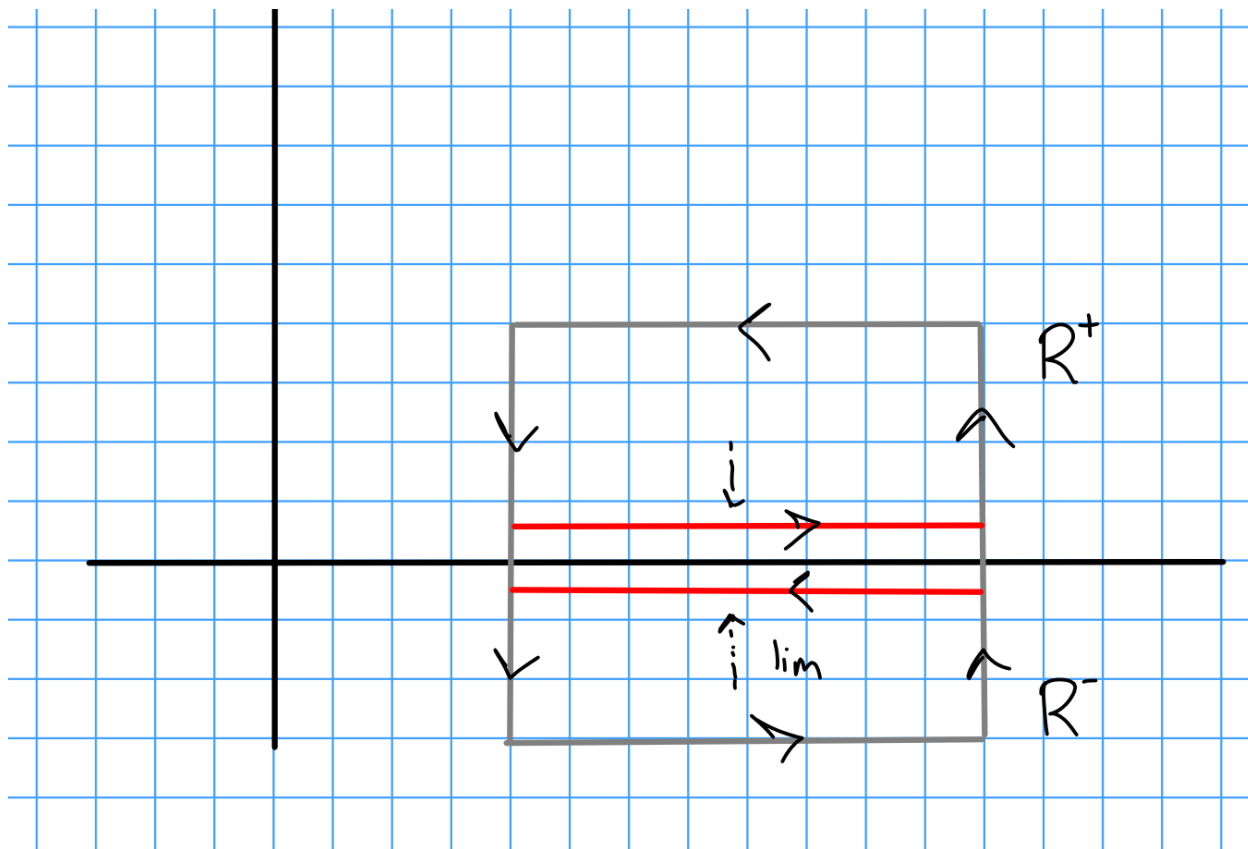
Assume that  $f : \Omega^+ \cup L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is continuous and holomorphic in  $\Omega^+$  and real-valued on  $L$ . Define

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} f(z) & z \in \Omega^+ \cup L \\ \overline{f(\bar{z})} & z \in \Omega^- \end{cases}.$$

Then  $g(z)$  is defined and holomorphic on  $\Omega$ .

Proof: Since  $g$  is  $C^1$  in  $\Omega^-$ , check that  $g$  satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations on  $\Omega^-$  and thus holomorphic there. To see that  $g$  is holomorphic on all of  $\Omega$ , we'll show the integral over every rectangle is zero.

It's clear that if  $R \subset \Omega^\pm$ ,  $\int_R g = 0$  since  $g$  is holomorphic there, so it suffices to check rectangles intersecting the real axis. Write  $R = R^+ \cup R^-$ :



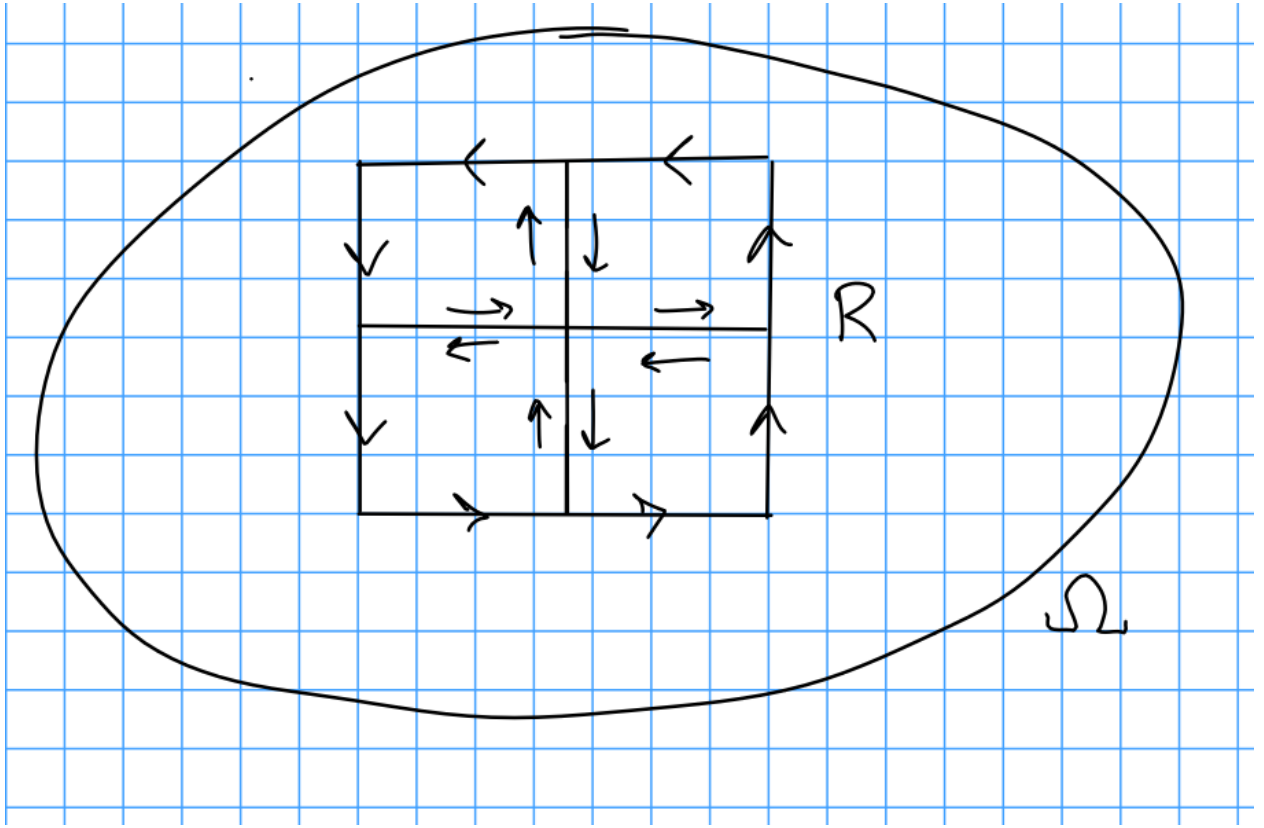
We then have  $R^+ = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} R_\varepsilon$  and  $R^- = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} R_{-\varepsilon}$ , and  $\int_{R_{\pm\varepsilon}} g = 0$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By continuity of  $f$  on  $L$ , we have  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{R_\varepsilon} g(z) dz = 0$ .

■

**Theorem (Goursat):** If  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is complex differentiable at each point of  $\Omega$ , then  $f$  is holomorphic.

I.e.  $f \in C^1(\Omega) \implies f \in C^\infty(\Omega)$ .

*Proof:* We have  $\int_R f dz = 0$  for all rectangles  $R$ . Write  $I = \int_R f dz$ . Break  $R$  into 4 sub-rectangles:



Then rewriting the integral and applying the triangle inequality yields

$$I = \int_R f = \sum_{j=1}^4 \int_{R_j} f = \sum_{j=1}^4 I_j \implies |I| \leq \sum_j |I_j|.$$

So for at least one  $j$ , we have  $|I_j| \geq \frac{1}{4}|I|$ ; wlog call it  $R_1$ . By continuing to subdivide, we can write

$$|I| \leq 4|I_k| = 4 \left| \int_{R_1} f \right| \leq 4 \left( 4 \left| \int_{R_2} f \right| \right) \cdots \leq 4^k \left| \int_{R_k} f \right|.$$

This is a sequence of nested compact intervals, so there is some  $z_0 \in \bigcap R_k$ .

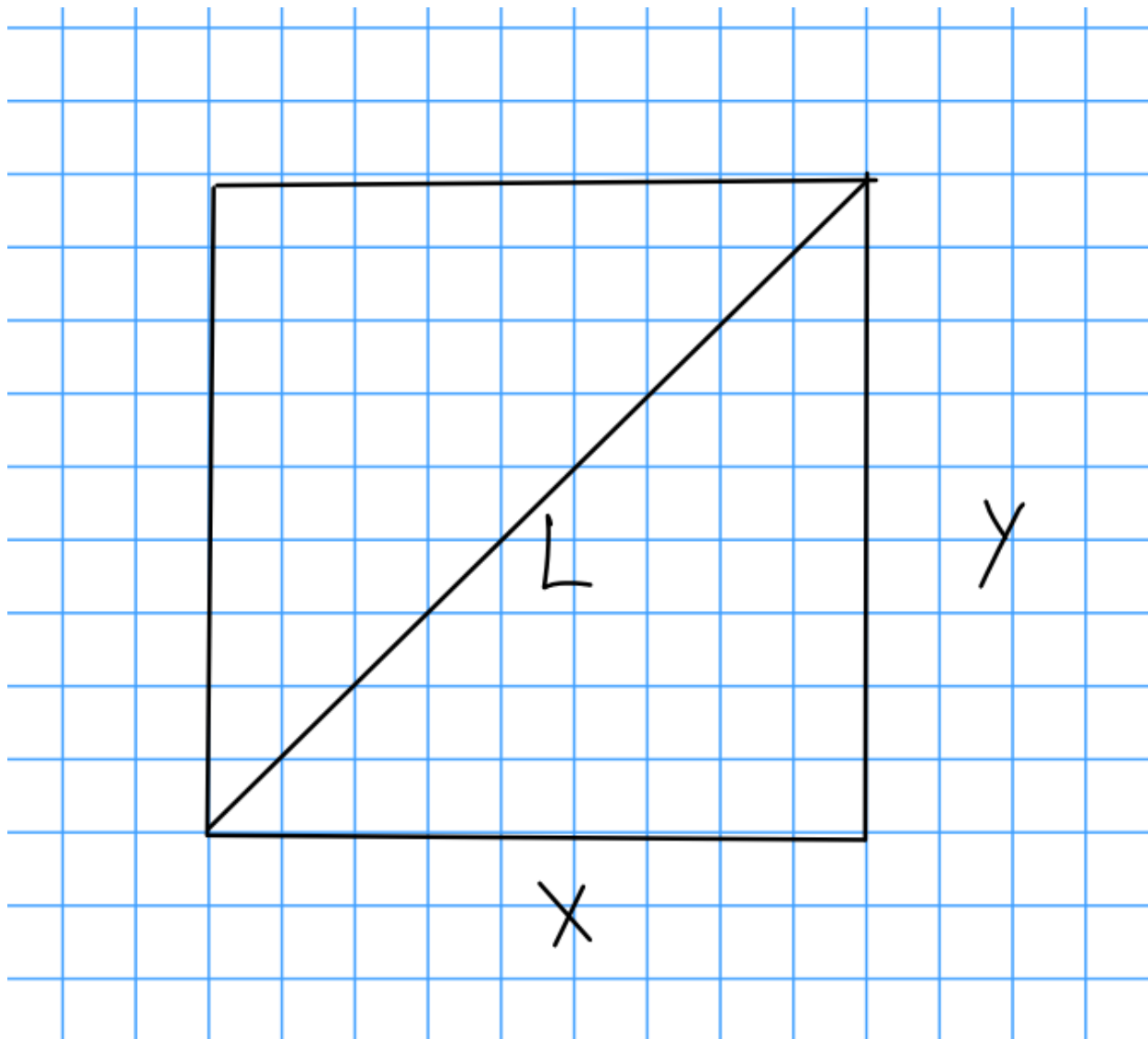
Write  $f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \delta(z, z_0)$ , and since

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{|\delta(z, z_0)|}{z - z_0} = 0,$$

we have  $\delta(z, z_0) = o(z - z_0)$ . Then  $|I| \leq 4^k \frac{1}{2^k} |R|$ . We then try to estimate the integral using the fact that  $|\delta(z, z_0)| \leq \delta_k |z - z_0|$  for some constant  $\delta_k \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{R_k} f i &= \int f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \delta(z, z_0) = \int_{R_k} \delta(z, z_0) \quad \text{since the first two terms are holomorphic} \\
&\leq \frac{1}{2^k} |R| \delta_k \frac{C}{2^k} |R| \\
&= c/4^k |R|^2 \delta_k \rightarrow 0,
\end{aligned}$$

where we use the fact that in  $R_k$  we have



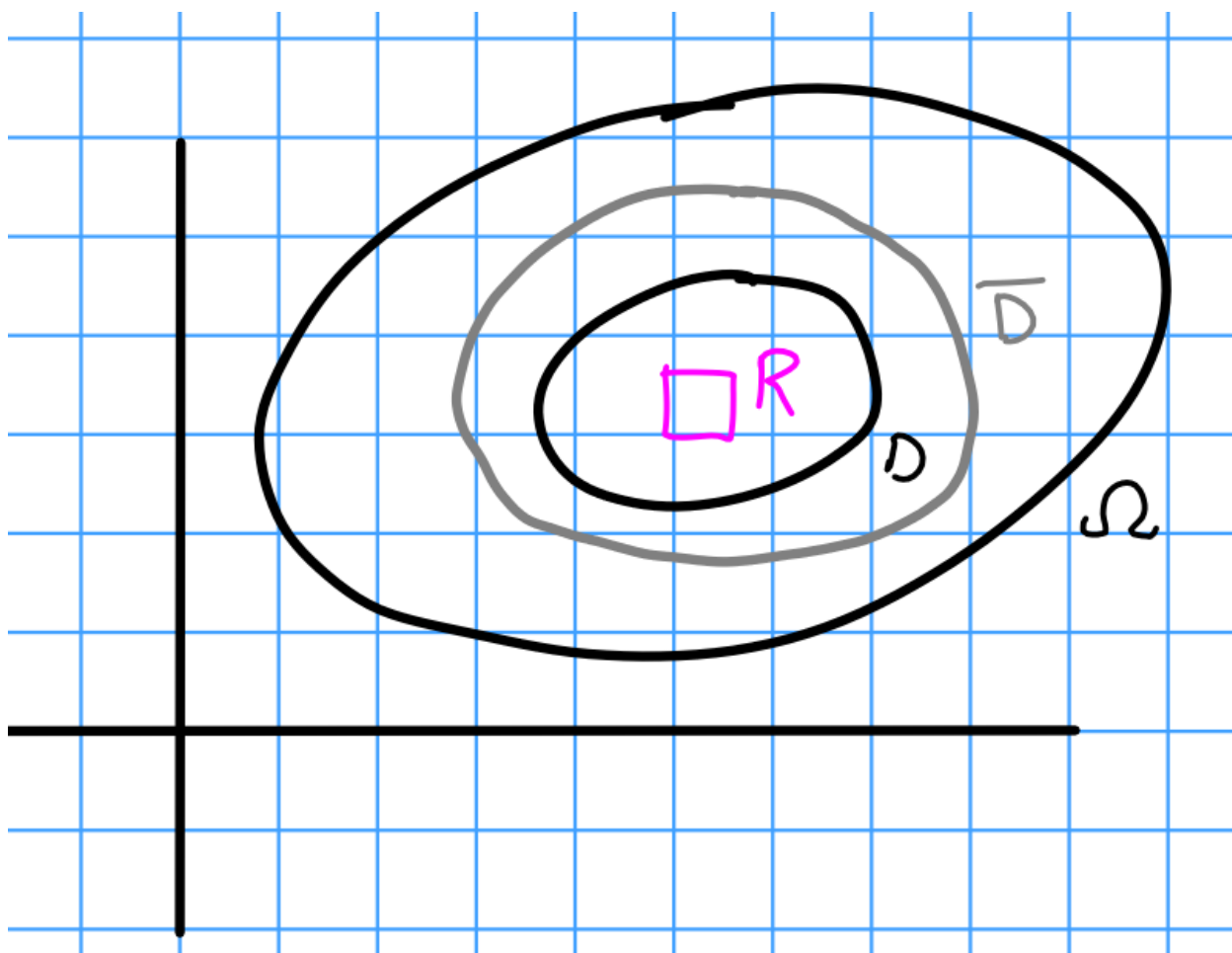
$$\begin{aligned}
R_k = 2(x + y) &\implies R^2/4 = x^2 + y^2 + x + y \leq_{CS} x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 2(x^2 + y^2) \\
&\implies x^2 + y^2 \leq R^2/8 \implies L = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \leq R^2/2\sqrt{2} \\
&\implies |z - z_0| \leq \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \leq R_k/2\sqrt{2} \text{ and } R_k = \frac{1}{2^k} |R|.
\end{aligned}$$

Note that triangles implies rectangles, but think about how to use triangles to prove it for rectangles (note that sides should be parallel to axes!)

## 12 Friday February 7th

**Theorem:** Suppose  $\{f_n\} \rightarrow f$  is a sequence of holomorphic functions converging uniformly on any compact subset  $K \subset \Omega$ . Then  $f$  is holomorphic.

Proof: Let  $D$  be any disc such that  $\overline{D} \subset \Omega$ . For any rectangle  $R \subset D$ , we have  $\int_R f_n dz = 0$ . Since  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly,  $\int_R f dz = 0$  and thus  $f$  is holomorphic in  $D$ .



Theorem: Under the same hypotheses,  $f'_n \rightarrow f'$  uniformly on any compact subset  $K \subset \Omega$ .

Proof: See Stein.

**Corollary:** Suppose  $F(z, s) : \Omega \times [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and

1.  $F(z, s)$  is holomorphic in  $z$  for each fixed  $s \in [a, b]$ .
2.  $F(z, s)$  is continuous in  $\Omega \times [a, b]$ .



Then  $f(z) = \int_a^b F(z, s) ds$  is holomorphic on  $\Omega$ .

*Proof:* Define  $f_n(z) = \left( \sum_{k=1}^n F(z, s_k) \right) \frac{b-a}{n}$  where each  $s_k = a + \frac{b-a}{n}k \in [a, b]$ . Need to show  $f_n(z)$  converges uniformly on any compact  $K \subset \Omega$ , i.e. it's uniformly Cauchy. Fix  $K$  compact, then by a theorem in topology  $K \times [a, b]$  is again compact. Using the fact that  $F$  is continuous on a compact set and thus uniformly continuous, fix  $\varepsilon > 0$  and find  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\max_{z \in K} |F(z, s) - F(z, t)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $s, t \in [a, b]$  with  $|t - s| < \delta$ .

Thus if  $\frac{b-a}{n} < \delta$  and  $z \in K$ , we have an estimate

$$\begin{aligned} |f_n(z) - f(z)| &= \left| \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{s_{k-1}}^{s_k} F(z, s_k) - F(z, s) ds \right| \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{s_{k-1}}^{s_k} |F(z, s_k) - F(z, s)| ds \\ &\leq \varepsilon(b-a). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f_n \xrightarrow{u} f$ . ■

Note: useful for showing  $\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-s} s^{z-1} ds$  is holomorphic for  $\Re z > 0$ .

Can every function be uniformly approximated by polynomials? In general no. Take  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ , which is holomorphic on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus 0$ , but  $\int_\gamma P_N(z) = 0$  for any polynomial (since they are entire) for any loop  $\gamma$  around 0, but  $\int_\gamma \frac{1}{z} = 2\pi i$ .

**Theorem (5.2):** If  $f_n$  is a sequence of holomorphic functions converging uniformly on any compact subset  $K$  of  $\Omega$  then  $f$  is holomorphic in  $\Omega$  and if  $f(z) = \sum a_n(z - z_0)^n$  then  $P_N(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n(z - z_0)^n$ .

**Theorem (5.7):** Any holomorphic function in a neighborhood of a compact set  $K$  can be approximated by a *rational* function with singularities only in  $K^c$ . If  $K^c$  is connected, it can be approximated by a *polynomial*.

**Lemma (5.8):** Suppose  $f$  is holomorphic in an open set  $\Omega$  with  $K \subset \Omega$  compact. Then there exist finitely many segments  $\{\gamma_i\}_{i=1}^N$  in  $\Omega \setminus K$  such that for all  $z \in K$ ,

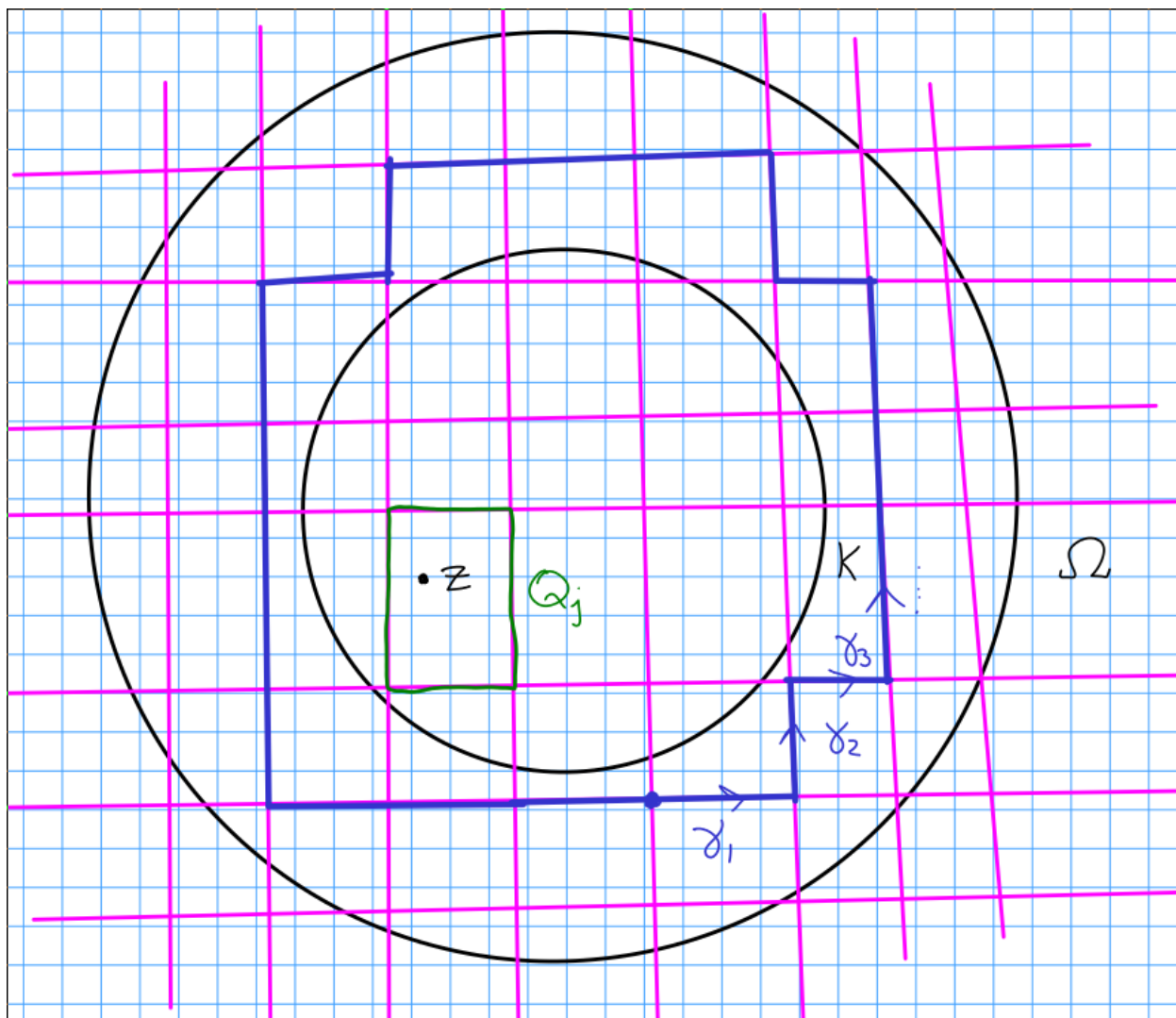
Idea: Divide region into squares, take  $\gamma_i$  to be line segments such that they enclose  $K$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=1}^N \int_{\omega_n} \frac{f(\xi)}{z - \xi} d\xi \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\Gamma \frac{f(\xi)}{z - \xi} d\xi. \end{aligned}$$

where we can rewrite

$$\int_{\gamma_n} \dots = \int_0^1 \frac{f(\gamma_n(t))}{\gamma_n(t) - z_0} \gamma_n'(t) dt = \int_0^1 F(z, s) ds$$

The idea is that we can then write  $\frac{1}{\xi - z} = \frac{1}{\xi} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z}{\xi}} = \xi^{-1} \sum_k \left(\frac{z}{\xi}\right)^k$ , which allows uniform approximation by polynomials.



## 13 Appendix

$$\begin{aligned} dz &= dx + i dy \\ d\bar{z} &= dx - i dy \\ f_z &= f_x = i^{-1} f_y. \end{aligned}$$

- Holomorphic: once complex differentiable in neighborhoods of every point.
- Analytic: equal to its Taylor series expansion

**Cauchy Inequality:** Given  $z_0 \in \Omega$ , pick the largest disc  $D_R(z_0) \subset \Omega$  and let  $C_R = \partial D_R$ . Using the integral formula, defining  $\|f\|_{C_R} = \max_{|z-z_0|=R} |f(z)|$

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\|f\|_{C_R}}{R^{n+1}} R d\theta = \frac{n! \|f\|_{C_R}}{R^n}.$$

Collection of facts used on problem sets

### Standard forms of conic sections:

- Circle:  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$
- Ellipse:  $\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 = 1$
- Hyperbola:  $\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 = 1$ 
  - Rectangular Hyperbola:  $xy = \frac{c^2}{2}$ .
- Parabola:  $-4ax + y^2 = 0$ .

Mnemonic: Write  $f(x, y) = Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + \dots$ , then consider the discriminant  $\Delta = B^2 - 4AC$ :

- $\Delta < 0 \iff$  ellipse
  - $\Delta < 0$  and  $A = C, B = 0 \iff$  circle
- $\Delta = 0 \iff$  parabola
- $\Delta > 0 \iff$  hyperbola

### Completing the square:

$$x^2 - bx = (x - s)^2 - s^2 \quad \text{where } s = \frac{b}{2}$$

$$x^2 + bx = (x + s)^2 - s^2 \quad \text{where } s = \frac{b}{2}.$$

### Useful Properties

- $\Re(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z})$  and  $\Im(z) = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \bar{z})$ .
- $z\bar{z} = |z|^2$
- $\cos(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta})$
- $\sin(\theta) = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta})$ .

### Useful Series

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^n k &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\ \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 &= \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \\ \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 &= \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}\end{aligned}$$

## Cauchy-Riemann Equations

$$\begin{aligned}u_x &= v_y & \text{and} & & u_y &= -v_x \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} &= \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} & \text{and} & & \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} &= -\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta}\end{aligned}$$

### 13.1 Useful Techniques

**Showing a function is constant:** Write  $f = u + iv$  and use Cauchy-Riemann to show  $u_x, u_y = 0$ , etc.

**Deriving Polar Cauchy-Riemann:** See walkthrough here. Take derivative along two paths, along a ray with constant angle  $\theta_0$  and along a circular arc of constant radius  $r_0$ . Then equate real and imaginary parts. See problem set 1.

**Computing Arguments:**  $\text{Arg}(z/w) = \text{Arg}(z) - \text{Arg}(w)$ .

The sum of the interior angles of an  $n$ -gon is  $(n-2)\pi$ , where each angle is  $\frac{n-2}{n}\pi$ .

### 13.2 Residues

If  $p$  is a simple pole,  $\text{Res}(p, f) = \lim_{z \rightarrow p} (z-p)f(z)$ . Example: Let  $f(z) = \frac{1}{1+z^2}$ , then  $\text{Res}(i, f) = \frac{1}{2i}$ .