# Title

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## Contents

1	Friday January 10	2
2	Monday January 13th	4
3	Wednesday January 15th 3.1 Topology and Algebra of $\mathbb C$	<b>6</b>
4	Friday January 17th 4.1 Antiholomorphic Derivative	<b>8</b>
5	Wednesday January 22nd 5.1 Parameterized Curves	
6	Friday January 24th 6.1 Integral and Fourier Transform of $e^{-x^2}$	<b>14</b> 15
7	Monday January 27th 7.1 Green's Theorem	<b>18</b> 18
8	Wednesday January 29th 8.1 Cauchy's Integral Formula	<b>22</b> 22
9	Friday January 31st 9.1 Fundamental Theorem of Algebra	<b>25</b> 25
10	Monday February 3rd 10.1 Mean Value Theorem	<b>28</b> 28
11	Wednesday February 5th  11.1 Cauchy/Morera Theorems	34
12	Friday February 7th	38

13	Wednesday February 12th 13.1 Singularities	
14	Friday February 14th 14.1 Defining Residues	
15	Monday February 17th  15.1 Getting a Holomorphic Function from a Laurent Series	
16	Wednesday February 26th 16.1 Argument Principle and Application	<b>51</b> 51
17	Friday February 28th 17.1 The Complex Logarithm	<b>54</b> 55
18	Friday March 6th	56
	Appendix 19.1 Useful Techniques	

## 1 Friday January 10

Recall that  $\mathbb C$  is a field, where

$$z = x + iy \implies \overline{z} = x - iy$$

and if  $z \neq 0$  then

$$z^{-1} = \frac{\overline{z}}{|z|^2}$$

Lemma 1.1 (Triangle Inequality).

$$|z+w| \le |z| + |w|.$$

Proof.

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

1 FRIDAY JANUARY 10

**Lemma 1.2** (Reverse Triangle Inequality).

$$||z| - |w|| \le |z - w|.$$

Proof.

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

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

#### Definition 1.1.

$$\lim z_n = z \iff |z_n - z| \longrightarrow 0 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

### Definition 1.2.

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 1.3. 
$$\sum_{k} z_k \text{ converges iff } S_N \coloneqq \sum_{|k| < N} z_k \text{ converges.}$$

Note that  $z_n \longrightarrow z$  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 1.4.

$$S_N = \sum_{k=1}^{N} z_k$$
 converges absolutely iff  $\tilde{S} := \sum_{k=1}^{N} |z_k|$  converges.

Note that the partial sums  $\sum_{k=1}^{N} |z_k|$  are monotone, so  $\tilde{S}_N$  converges iff the partial sums are bounded above.

#### Definition 1.5.

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=1and 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 2.1.

Absolute convergence implies convergence.

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

Lemma 2.2 (Divergence).

If  $\sum z_k$  converges, then  $\lim z_k = 0$ .

#### Corollary 2.3.

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  $|z| < |z|_0$ .

Note that this 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).

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

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

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

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

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

$$\sum \left| a_k z^k \right| \le \sum c r^k = \frac{c}{1 - r},$$

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 2.1.

The radius of convergence of a series 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 2.4.

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,  $\lim_{z \longrightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$  for all  $z_0 \in D_R$ .

Recall that  $S_n(z) \longrightarrow S(z)$  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  $f_n \longrightarrow \delta(1)$ . This 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  $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k z^k + \sum_{N=1}^{\infty} a_k z^k := S_N(z) + R_N(z)$ . 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  $|a_k z^k| \le C$  for all k. Then  $|a_k| \le C/T^k$  for all k, and so

$$\left| \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} a_k z^k \right| \leq \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |a_k| |z|^k$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} (c/T^k) s^k$$

$$= c \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |s/T|^k$$

$$= c \frac{r^{N+!}}{1-r} = C\varepsilon_n \longrightarrow 0,$$

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

So  $S_N(z) \longrightarrow f(z)$  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:  $\lim_{k} |a_{k+1}/a_k| = L \implies R = \frac{1}{r}$ .

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  $f:\Omega\longrightarrow\Omega$
- 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

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

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

### Example 3.1.

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 3.2.

Given  $f(z) = \overline{z}$ , we have  $f(z+h) - f(z) = \overline{h}$ , so the ratio is  $\frac{\overline{h}}{h}$  and the limit doesn't exist.

Note that if  $h \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\overline{h} = h$  and the ratio is identically 1, while if h is purely imaginary, then  $\overline{h} = -h$  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  $\Omega$ .

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

$$\lim_{h_1 \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + iy_0 + h_1) - f(x_0 + iy_0)}{h_1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)$$

$$\lim_{h_2 \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + iy_0 + ih_2) - f(x_0 + iy_0)}{ih_2} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}.$$

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:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

$$\iff \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}.$$

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

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

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

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

•

### 4 Friday January 17th

### 4.1 Antiholomorphic Derivative

Reference: See Lang's Complex Analysis, there are plenty of solution manuals. Note: look for 13 statements equivalent to holomorphic: Springer GTM Lipman.

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

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  $u_y = -v_x$ .

We want to define  $\partial$ ,  $\overline{\partial}$  operators. We have the identities

$$x = \frac{z + \overline{z}}{z}$$
  $y = \frac{z - \overline{z}}{iz}$ .

We can then write

$$dz = dx + idy$$
$$d\overline{z} = dx - idy.$$

We define the dual operators by  $\left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial z},\ dz \right\rangle = 1$  and similarly  $\left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{z}},\ d\overline{z} \right\rangle = 1$ .

By the chain rule, we can write

$$f_z = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{1}{2i}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f,$$

and similarly

$$f_{\overline{z}} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \overline{z}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial z}{\partial \overline{z}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f.$$

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

$$\partial f := \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz$$

$$\overline{\partial} f := \frac{\partial f}{\partial \overline{z}} d\overline{z}$$

$$\implies df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \overline{z}} d\overline{z}.$$

**Definition 4.1** (Holomorphic and Antiholomorphic Derivatives).

$$\begin{split} \partial f &= \frac{1}{2} \bigg( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \bigg) f \\ \overline{\partial} f &= \bigg( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \bigg) f. \end{split}$$

Proposition 4.1(Holomorphic Functions have vanishing antiholomorphic derivatives). f is holomorphic iff  $\bar{\partial} f = 0$ .

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

Proof.

$$\overline{\partial} f = 0 \text{ iff } \frac{1}{2}(f_x + if_y) = 0, \text{ so } (u_x - v_y) + i(v_x + u_y) = 0.$$

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  $\Delta f = 0$ , sp f satisfies Laplace's equation and is said to be harmonic.

Corollary 4.2 (Holomorphic Functions Have Harmonic Components).

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

Theorem 4.3 (Chain Rule).

Let w = f(z) and g(w) = g(f(z)). Then

$$h_z = g_w f_z + g_{\overline{w}} \overline{f}_z$$

$$h_{\overline{z}} = g_w f_{\overline{z}} + g_{\overline{w}} \overline{f}_{\overline{z}}.$$

If f, g are holomorphic,  $f_{\overline{z}} = g_{\overline{w}} = 0$ , so  $h_{\overline{z}} = 0$  and h is holomorphic and

$$h_z = g_w f_z.$$

Example 4.1.

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,  $R = (\limsup |a_n|^{1/n})^{-1} = \liminf |a_n/a_{n+1}| = (\limsup |a_{k+1}/a_k|)^{-1}$ .

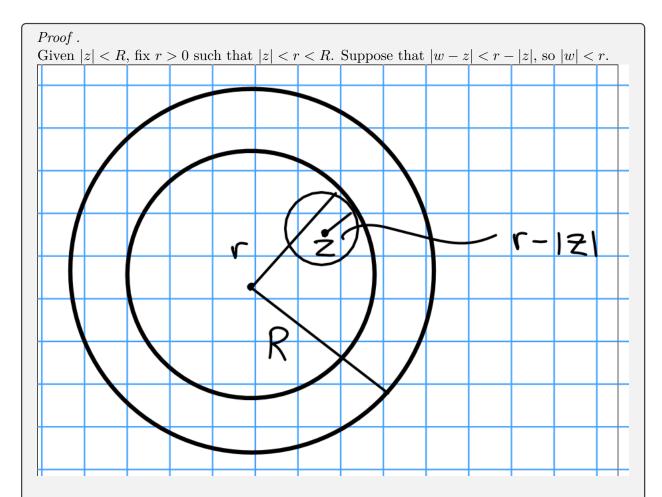
Recall the ratio test:

$$\sum |a_k| < \infty \iff \limsup |a_{k+1}/a_k| < 1$$

Theorem 4.4 (Holomorphic series can be differentiated term-by-term).

If  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  is holomorphic on |z| < R for R > 0 then

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



We want to show

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

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

$$S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \left( \frac{w^n - z^n}{w - z} - nz^{n-1} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \left( w^{n-1} + w^{n-2}z + \dots + z^{n-1} + nz^{n-1} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \left( (w^{n-1} - z^{n-1}) + (w^{n-2} - z^{n-2})z + \dots + (w - z)z^{n-2} \right) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n (w - z) \left( \dots + z^{n-2} \right)$$

$$\leq \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} |a_n| \frac{1}{2} n(n-1) r^{n-2} |z - w|.$$

**Exercise** Show  $\lim_{n \to \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$ .

Also tricky: show  $\lim \sin(n)$  doesn't exist, and  $\sin(n)$  is dense in [-1, 1].

Proof.

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

Note that an analytic function is holomorphic in its domain of convergence, so analytic implies holomorphic. The converse requires Cauchy's integral formula.

Next time: trying to prove holomorphic functions are analytic.

### 5 Wednesday January 22nd

### 5.1 Parameterized Curves

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 know that f analytic  $\implies$  f holomorphic (and smooth), and we want to show the converse. For this, we need integration.

#### Definition 5.1.

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

#### Definition 5.2.

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 5.3.

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 that such a curve may fail to have tangent lines at  $a_i$ .

### Definition 5.4.

Two parameterizations  $z:[a,b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}, \tilde{z}:[c,d] \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  are equivalent iff there exists a  $C^1$  bijection  $s:[c,d] \longrightarrow [a,b]$  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 5.5.

A curve in reverse orientation is defined by

$$\gamma: [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{C} \implies \gamma^-: [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

$$t \mapsto \gamma(a + b - t).$$

### Definition 5.6.

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 5.7.

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  $t \in [0, 1]$ .

### 5.2 Definition of the Integral

#### Definition 5.8.

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 5.9.

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

**Proposition 5.1.** 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

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

### Definition 5.10.

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  $\int f = F(b) - F(a)$ .

Theorem 5.2 (Evaluating Integrals with Primitives).

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

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

$$= \int_{a}^{b} F'(z(t))z'(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} F_{t} dt$$

$$= F(z(b)) - F(z(a)) \text{ by FTC}$$

$$= F(w_{1}) - F(w_{2}).$$

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

Corollary 5.3 (Functions with Primitives Integrate to Zero Along Loops). 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 6.1.

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 6.2.

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  $\gamma: w_0 \longrightarrow w$ , then

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

## **6.1** Integral and Fourier Transform of $e^{-x^2}$

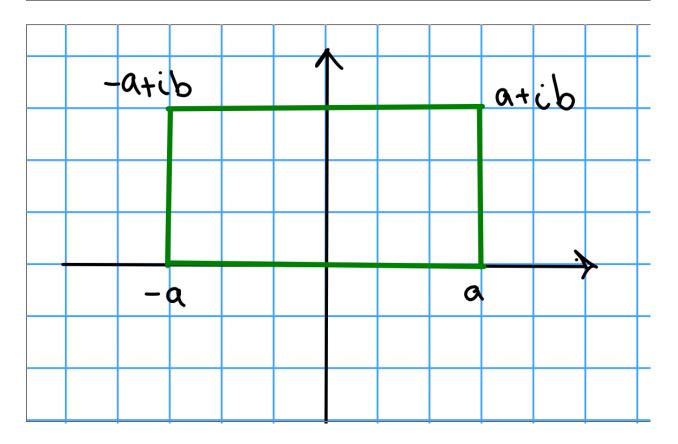
Example 6.1. Let  $f(z) = e^{-z^2}$ , this is holomorphic. Write

$$f(z) = \sum \frac{(-1)^n z^{2n}}{n!},$$

SO

$$\int f = \sum \frac{(-1)^n z^{2n+1}}{n!(2n+1)}.$$

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,

$$e^{-(a+iy)^2} = e^{-(a^2+2iay-y^2)}$$

$$= e^{-a^2+y^2}e^{2iay}$$

$$\leq e^{-a^2+y^2}$$

$$\leq e^{-a^2+b^2},$$

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

$$\int_{-a}^a e^{-(x^2+2ibx)-b^2} = e^{b^2} \int_{-a}^a e^{-x^2}(\cos(2bx) - i\sin(2bx))$$

$$\stackrel{\text{odd fn}}{=} e^{b^2} \int_{-a}^a e^{-x^2}\cos(2bx) \ dx.$$

Now take  $a \longrightarrow \infty$  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 6.3 (Holomorphic Integrals Vanish).

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 6.4 (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 .

Omitted.

Proof (that holomorphic integrals vanish).

Write  $\gamma = \partial \Gamma$ , and noting that  $f_z = f_x = \frac{1}{i} f_y$  implies that  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \overline{z}}$ , so

$$\int_{\gamma} f \, dz = \int_{\gamma} f(z) \, (dx + idy)$$

$$= \int_{\gamma} f(z) \, dx + if(z) \, dy$$

$$= \iint_{\Gamma} (if_x - f_y) \, dA$$

$$= i \iint_{\Gamma} \left( f_x - \frac{1}{i} f_y \right) dA$$

$$= i \iint_{\Gamma} 0 \, dA$$

$$= 0.$$

Next up, we'll prove that this integral over any triangle is zero by a limiting process.

### 7 Monday January 27th

Open question: does a PDE involving analytic functions always have solutions? Or does this hold with analytic replaced by smooth?

### 7.1 Green's Theorem

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

Theorem 7.1(Green's).

Given  $f, g \in C^{1}\overline{\Omega}$ , we can take a vector field  $F = \langle f, g \rangle$  and have

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} f \ dx + g \ dy = \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) dA$$

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} -f \ dx + g \ dy = \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) dA$$

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} f \ dy - g \ dy = \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right) dA$$

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} F \cdot \mathbf{n} \ ds = \iint_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot F \ dA$$

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} \operatorname{curl}(F) \ ds = \iint_{\Omega} \operatorname{div}(F) \ dA,$$

7 MONDAY JANUARY 27TH

where we take **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

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} f \ dz = \int_{\partial\Omega} f \ (dx + idy)$$

$$= \int_{\partial\Omega} f \ dx + if \ dy$$

$$= \iint_{\Omega} (if_x - f_y) \ dA$$

$$= 0,$$

which follows since f holomorphic, we can write

$$f'(z) = f_x = \frac{1}{i} f_y,$$

so  $if_x = f_y$  and thus  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \overline{z}} = 0$ .

See Taylor's Introduction to Complex Analysis

### Theorem 7.2 (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:

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

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

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

To prove rigorously, need to write

$$\Delta_h f(z) = \frac{1}{h} (f(z+h) - f(z))$$

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

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.

Proof (of claim used in main proof).

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

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

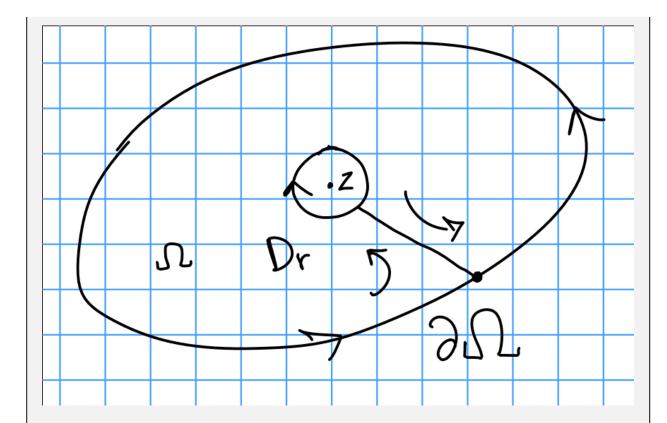
where we use the fact that

$$f(z + re^{i\theta}) = f(z) + f'(z)re^{i\theta} + o(r) \xrightarrow{r \longrightarrow 0} f(z)$$

Letting

$$F(\xi) = \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z},$$

this is holomorphic on  $\Omega \setminus D_r(z)$ . Let  $\Omega_r = \partial \Omega \bigcup (-C_r)$ . 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.

Corollary 7.3 (implies smooth).

If f is holomorphic, then  $f \in C^{1}(\Omega)$  implies that  $f \in C^{\infty}(\Omega)$ .

Theorem  $7.4 (Holomorphic\ implies\ analytic)$ .

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

Proof.

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

$$\frac{1}{\xi - z} = \frac{1}{\xi - z_0 - (z - z_0)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\xi - z_0} \frac{1}{1 - \left(\frac{z - z_0}{\xi - z_0}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\xi - z_0} \sum_{n} \left(\frac{z - z_0}{\xi - z_0}\right)^n \quad \text{for } |z - z_0| < |\xi - z_0|.$$

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

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

### Corollary 7.5.

f is holomorphic iff f is analytic.

Counterexample to keep in mind:

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

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

### 8 Wednesday January 29th

### 8.1 Cauchy's Integral Formula

Theorem 8.1 (Cauchy's Integral Formula).

Let  $f: \Omega \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  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

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

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

We can thus shrink integrals:

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

### Proposition 8.2 (Homotopy Invariance).

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

$$\gamma_s(t) = \gamma(s,t) : [a,b] \times [0,1] \longrightarrow \Omega.$$

We have 
$$\gamma_s(0) = \gamma_s(1)$$
 so  $\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial s}(s,0) = \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial s}(s,1)$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial s} = \int_0^1 \left( f'(r(s,t)) \frac{\partial r}{\partial s} \frac{\partial r}{\partial t} + f(r(s,t)) \frac{\partial^2 \gamma}{\partial s \partial t} \right) dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left( f'(r(s,t)) \frac{\partial r}{\partial s} \frac{\partial r}{\partial t} + f(r(s,t)) \frac{\partial^2 \gamma}{\partial t \partial s} \right) dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f(\gamma(s,t)) \gamma_s)$$

$$= f(\gamma(s,1)) \gamma_s(s,1) - f(\gamma(s,0)) \gamma_s(s,0)$$

$$= 0$$

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

### Proposition 8.3 (Pointwise Limit of Locally Uniform is Locally Uniform).

Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open and  $f_v : \Omega \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Suppose that each  $f_v$  is holomorphic,  $f_v \longrightarrow f$  pointwise, and locally uniform, i.e.  $f_v \longrightarrow f$  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

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

.

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

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

.

### Theorem 8.4 (Cauchy's 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  $||f||_{C_R} = \max_{|z-z_0|=R} |f(z)|$ 

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

#### Corollary 8.5 (Liouville's Theorem).

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  $R \longrightarrow \infty$  yields  $f'(z_0) = 0$ , so f is constant.

Corollary 8.6 (Weak Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).

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

Remark: A general proof technique is when proving something 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

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

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

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

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

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

### 9.1 Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

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

Corollary 9.1 (Weak Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).

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

Proof.

See previous notes.

### Corollary 9.2 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).

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

$$p(z) = p(z - w_1 + w_1)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k (z - w_1 + w_1)^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k \sum_{j=1}^{n} {k \choose j} w_1 k - j (z - w_1)^j$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_k {k \choose j} w_1^{k-j} (z - w_1)^j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( \sum_{k \ge j} a_k {k \choose j} \right) (z - w_1)^j$$

$$= b_0 + b_1 (z - w_1) + \dots + b_n (z - w_1)^n.$$

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

$$b_1(z - w_1) + \dots + b_n(z - w_1)^n = (z - w_1) (b_1 + \dots + b_n(z - w_1)^{n-1})$$
  
$$\coloneqq (z - w_1)\phi(z),$$

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

### Definition 9.1.

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 9.3.

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  $w_k \longrightarrow z$  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

$$f(z) = \sum a_n n(z - z_0)^n.$$

Since  $f(z_0) = 0$ , we have  $a_0 = 0$ .

Suppose  $f \not\equiv 0$ . Then there exists a smallest  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $a_n \neq 0$ , so  $f(z) = a_n(z-z_0)^n + \cdots$ . 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  $|g(w_k - z_0)| \le \frac{1}{2}$  by continuity of g. Then

$$|1 + g(w_k - z_0)| > 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

So

$$|f(w_k)| = |a_n(w_k - z_0)^n (1 + g(w_k - z_0))| > |a_n| |w_k - z_0|^n \frac{1}{2} > 0,$$

a contradiction. So U is open, closed, and nonempty, so  $U = \Omega$ .

Corollary 9.4.

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

Theorem 9.5 (Mean Value).

Let  $z_0$  be a point in  $\Omega$  and  $C_{\gamma}$  the boundary of  $D_r(z_0)$ . Then

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_{\gamma}} f(z)/(z - z_0) dz$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})/re^{i\theta} rie^{i\theta} d\theta \quad \text{by } z = z_0 + re^{i\theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi r} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) rd\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{|C_{\gamma}|} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z) ds,$$

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

### 10.1 Mean Value Theorem

Theorem 10.1 (Mean Value for Holomorphic functions).

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{D_r(z_0)} f(z) dA$$

Proof (of MVT?).

Let  $f: \Omega \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  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,

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + se^{i\theta}) d\theta$$

$$\implies s \cdot f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} s \cdot f(z_0 + se^{i\theta}) d\theta$$

$$\implies \cdot f(z_0) \int_0^r s ds = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r f(z_0 + se^{i\theta}) \cdot s ds d\theta$$

$$\implies \frac{1}{2} r^2 f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \iint_{D_r(z_0)} f(z) dA$$

$$\implies f(z_0) = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{D_r(z_0)} f(z) dA$$

$$\implies f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) d\theta.$$

### Proposition 10.2 (Maximum in Interior Implies Constant).

Let f be holomorphic on  $\Omega$  be open and connected, and suppose that there is a  $z_0 \in \Omega$  such that

$$|f(z_0)| = \sup_{z \in \Omega} |f(z)|,$$

i.e.  $z_0$  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  $O = \{ \xi \in \Omega \mid f(\xi) = f(z_0) \}$ .

Claim . 1. O is not empty, since  $z_0 \in O$ .

- 2. O is closed, since if  $\xi_n \longrightarrow \xi$  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)  $|f(\xi_0)| \ge |f(z)|$  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 the claim):).

Suppose that  $\sup_{\alpha \in \Omega} |f(z)| = |f(\xi_0)|$  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  $D_{\rho}(z_0)$ , 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 10.3 (Stein 2.1, Biholomorphisms of the Open Disc are Contractions). Suppose f is holomorphic on  $D_1(0)$  and  $|f(z)| \le 1$  for all |z| < 1 with f(0) = 0. Then  $|f(z)| \le |z|$ 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  $\rho \longrightarrow 1^-$ . Then  $|g(z)| \le 1$ , so  $\left| \frac{f(z)}{z} \right| \le 1$  and  $|f(z)| \le |z|$ . 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 10.4 (Characterization of Biholomorphisms of the Disc). Recall that

$$\Phi_a(z) := \frac{z-a}{1-az}.$$

If  $f: D_1(0) \longrightarrow D_1(0)$  is a biholomorphism, then

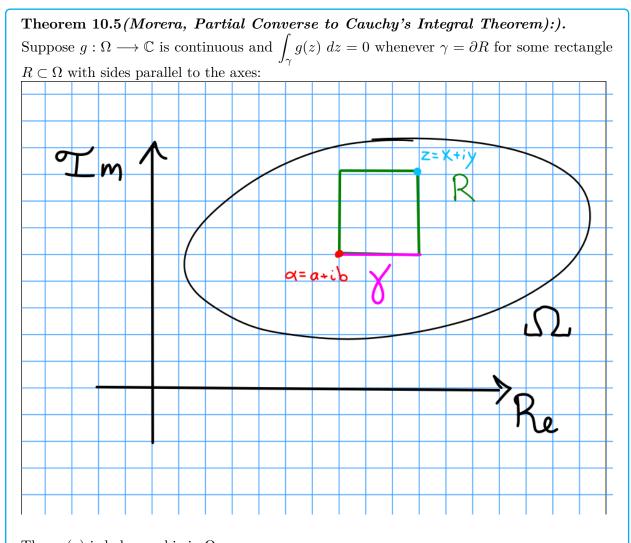
$$f(z) = c\Phi_a(z) = e^{i\theta}\Phi_a(z)$$

So every such function is a rotated form of  $\Phi_a$ .

Let  $\Omega$  be a connected open domain and  $f:\Omega\longrightarrow\mathbb{C}$  holomorphic with  $f\in C^1$ . Then

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

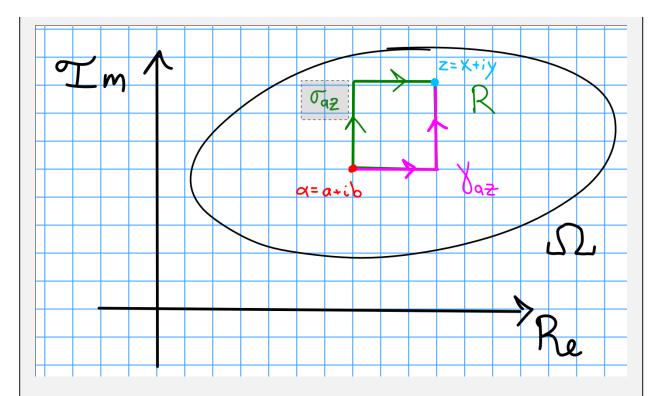
for every closed curve  $\gamma \subset \Omega$ , which implies that  $f^{(k)}(z)$  exists for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and f is smooth/holomorphic.



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  $\gamma_{az}$  be the path given by traversing the bottom edge of R, and  $\sigma_{az}$  by the top path.



Let

$$f(z) = \int_{\gamma_{az}} g(z) dz$$
  
=  $\int_a^x g(s+ib) ds + i \int_b^y g(x+it) dt$ .

Since

$$\int_{\partial R} g(z) \ dz = 0 = \int_{\gamma_{az}} \dots - \int_{\sigma_{az}} \dots ,$$

we have

$$f(z) = \int_{\sigma_{az}} g(z) dz$$
$$= i \int_{b}^{y} g(a+it) dt + \int_{x}^{a} g(s+iy) ds.$$

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).

10 MONDAY FEBRUARY 3RD

### 11 Wednesday February 5th

### 11.1 Cauchy/Morera Theorems

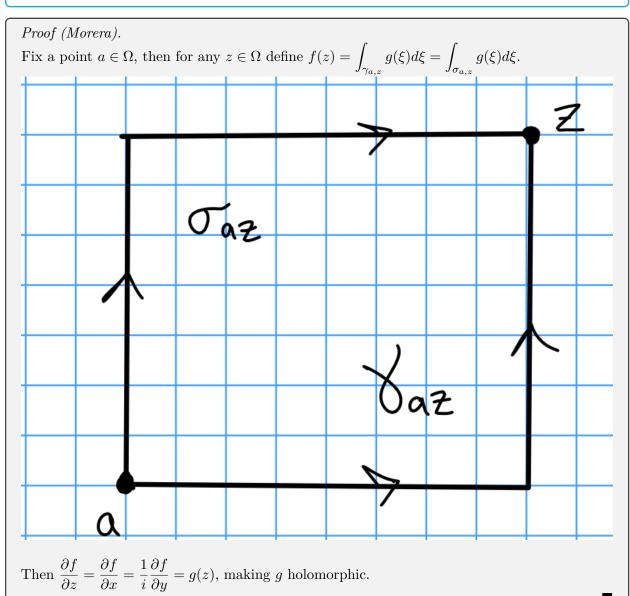
Recall last time: We have Cauchy's theorem, which says that if  $f:\Omega\longrightarrow\mathbb{C}$  is holomorphic then

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

We have a partial converse:

### Theorem 11.1 (Morera).

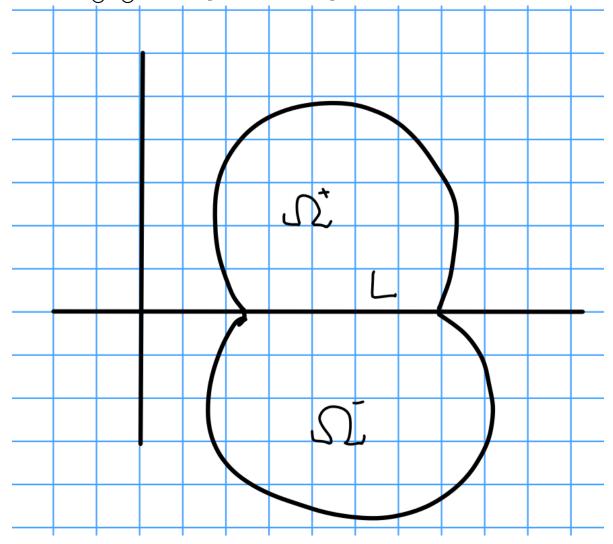
If  $g:\Omega\longrightarrow\mathbb{C}$  is continuous and  $\int_R g\ dz=0$  for every rectangle  $R\subset\Omega$  with sides parallel to the axes, then g is holomorphic.



### 11.2 Schwarz Reflection

Theorem 11.2(Schwarz Reflection, Extending Holomorphic Functions Across Reflected Regions).

Let  $\Omega = \Omega^+ \bigcup L \bigcup \Omega^-$  be a region of the following form:



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

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

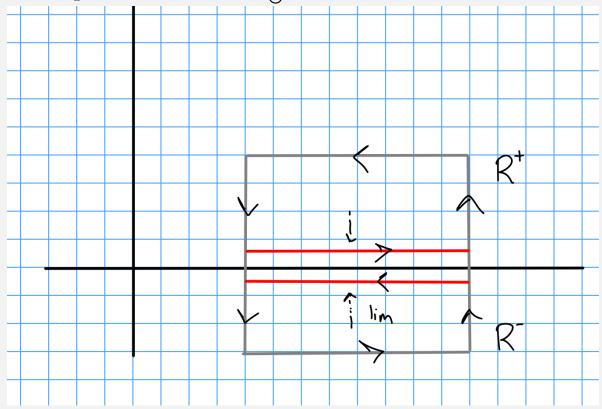
$$g(z) = \begin{cases} f(z) & z \in \Omega^+ \bigcup L \\ \overline{f(z)} & z \in \Omega^- \end{cases}.$$

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

Proof (Schwarz Reflection).

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  $R = R^+ \bigcup R^-$ :



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

### 11.3 Goursat's Theorem

Theorem 11.3 (Goursat, implies smooth).

If  $f:\Omega\longrightarrow\mathbb{C}$  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 (Goursat).

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

$$I = \int_{R} f = \sum_{j=1}^{4} \int_{R_{j}} f = \sum_{j=1}^{4} I_{j} \implies |I| \le \sum_{j} |I_{j}|.$$

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

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

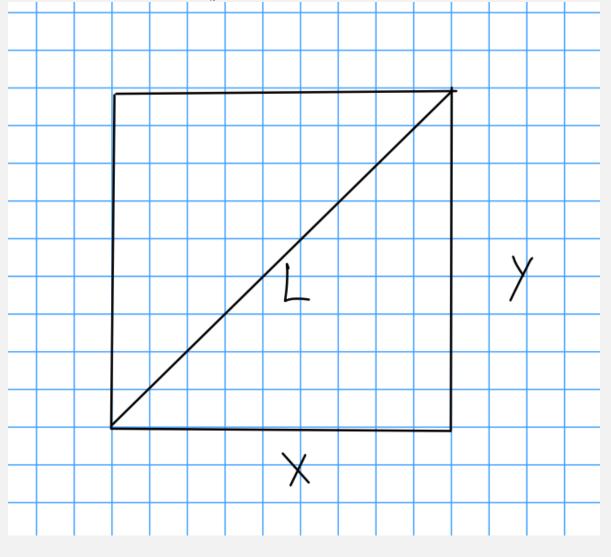
This is a sequence of nested compact intervals, so there is some  $z_0 \in \bigcap R_k$ . Write  $f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \delta(z, z_0)$ , and since

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

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  $\delta_k \longrightarrow 0$  as  $k \longrightarrow \infty$ .

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

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



$$R_k = 2(x+y) \implies R^2/4 = x^2 + y^2 + x + y \le_{CS} x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 2(x^2 + y^2)$$

$$\implies x^2 + y^2 \le R^2/8 \implies L = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \le R^8/2\sqrt{2}$$

$$\implies |z - z_0| \le \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \le R_k/2\sqrt{2} \text{ and } R_k = \frac{1}{2^k}|R|.$$

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

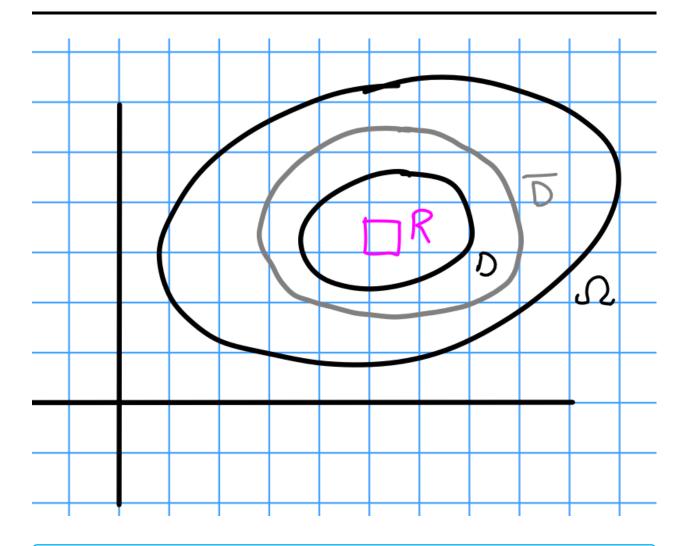
Theorem 12.1(The Uniform Limit of Holomorphic Functions is Holomorphic). Suppose  $\{f_n\} \longrightarrow f$  is a sequence of holomorphic functions converging uniformly on any compact subset  $K \subset \Omega$ . Then f is holomorphic.

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  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  uniformly,  $\int_R f \ dz = 0$  and thus f is holomorphic in D.



# ${\bf Theorem~12.2} ({\it Uniform~Convergence~of~Derivatives}).$

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

Proof.

See Stein.

**Corollary 12.3** (When Functions Defined by Integrals are Holomorphic). Suppose  $F(z,s): \Omega \times [a,b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  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

$$|f_n(z) - f(z)| = \left| \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{s_{k-1}}^{s_k} F(z, s_k) - F(z, s) \, ds \right|$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{s_{k-1}}^{s_k} |F(z, s_k) - F(z, s)| \, ds$$

$$\leq \varepsilon(b - a).$$

Thus  $f_n \stackrel{u}{\longrightarrow} f$ .

Remark: this is useful for showing

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-s} s^{z-1} \ ds$$

is holomorphic for  $\Re z > 0$ .

Question: can every function be uniformly approximated by polynomials?

**Answer**: 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 )hey are entire) for any loop  $\gamma$  around 0, but  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} = 2\pi i$ .

# Theorem 12.4(5.2, Uniform Approximation by Polynomials).

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 12.5(5.7, Uniform Approximation by Rational Functions).

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 12.6 (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  $z \in K$ , ???.

Proof (of Lemma, Idea).

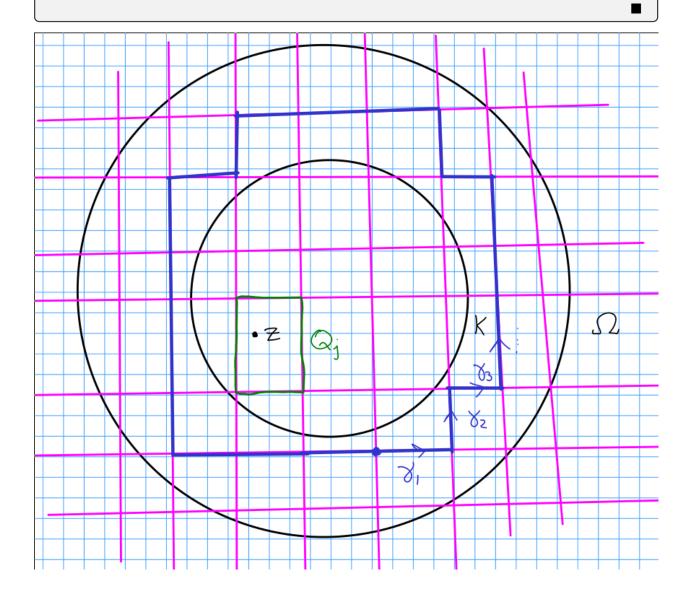
Divide region into squares, take  $\gamma_i$  to be line segments such that they enclose K.

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

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 Wednesday February 12th

# 13.1 Singularities

Let f(z) be holomorphic on  $\Omega$ , then we have Cauchy's integral formula:

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

Example: Note that  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$  is holomorphic on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus 0$ .

Let  $\Omega$  be an open set containing a disk D and  $\Omega \setminus p$  be a punctured domain.

#### Definition 13.1.

We say f has an isolated singularity at p iff f is defined and holomorphic on some deleted neighborhood of p.

Classification of singularities:

1. **Removable**: |f(z)| is bounded on some  $D_r(p) \setminus p$ . Example:  $f(z) = \sin(z)/z$ .

2. Poles:  $\lim_{z \to p} |f(z)| = \infty$ .

Example:  $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{z^n}$  at p = 03. Essential: neither 1 nor 2.

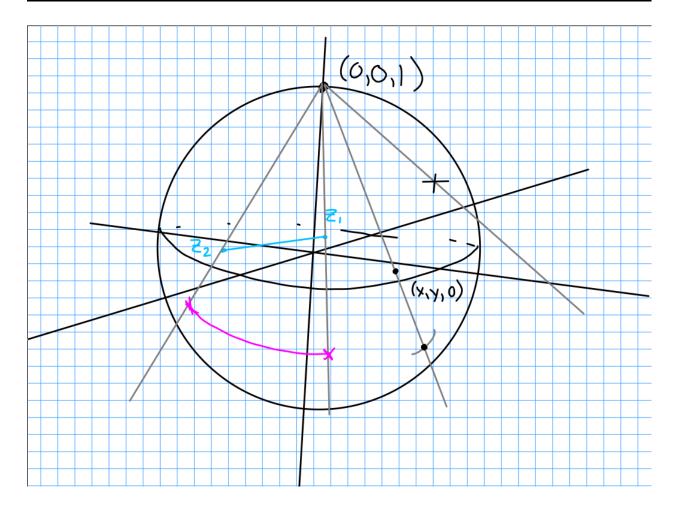
Example:  $f(z) = e^{\frac{1}{z}}$  at z = 0.

Note that for singularities at  $\infty$ , we can just make the change of variables  $z\mapsto \frac{1}{z}$ . Defining  $F(z) = f(\frac{1}{z})$ , the singularities at 0 of f correspond to singularities at infinity for F.

# 13.2 Spherical Projection

We can solve for a spherical projection map  $S^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Let (0,0,1) be the North pole of the sphere; then to map to (x, y, 0) on the plane we can take the parameterization  $\ell : (tx, ty, 1 - t)$ . This yields

$$t \mapsto \left(\frac{2\Re(z)}{1+|z|^2}, \frac{2\Im(z)}{1+|z|^2}, 1 - \frac{2}{1+|z|^2}\right).$$



From this we can induce a spherical metric:

$$\phi(z_1, z_2) = \frac{z|z_1 - z_2|}{\sqrt{|z|_1^2 + 1}\sqrt{|z|_2^2 + 1}}.$$

# Proposition 13.1 (Continuous Extension Over Removable Singularities).

Let p be a removable singularity of f. Then

- 1.  $\lim_{z \to p} f(z)$  exists.
- 2. The function

$$\tilde{f}(x) = \begin{cases} f(z) & z \neq p \\ \lim_{z \to p} f(z) & z = p \end{cases}$$

is holomorphic on  $D_r(p)$ .

#### Example 13.1.

Consider

$$\frac{\sin(z)}{z} \stackrel{z}{\longrightarrow} 0$$
 1.

Proof (of Proposition).

Take p = 0 and consider  $g(z) = z^2 f(z)$ . We can verify directly that g satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations on  $D_r(0)$ . Then g is holomorphic on  $D_r(0)$  and vanishes to order 2 at z = 0, and

$$f(z) = \frac{g(z)}{z^2}$$

is holomorphic on  $D_r(0)$ .

If f(z) has a pole at  $z_0$ , then  $\lim_{z \to z_0} |f(z)| \to \infty$  by definition, iff  $\lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{1}{|f(z)|} = 0$  and thus the reciprocal has a zero at z = z + 0. If  $z_0$  is a zero of a nontrivial holomorphic function f, then  $z_0$  is isolated, i.e. there exists a punctured disc  $D_r(z_0) \setminus z_0$  on which f is nonzero.

Theorem 13.2(???).

If f is holomorphic in a connected domain  $\Omega$  with a zero  $z_0$ , then there exists a non-vanishing holomorphic function g(z) and some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

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

Proof.

Since f is holomorphic, expand its power series  $f(z) = \sum a_k (z - z_0)^k$ . Since  $f(z_0) = 0$ , we have  $a_0 = 0$ . Choose the smallest n such that  $a_n \neq 0$ , so

$$f(z) = a_n(z - z_0)^n + a_{n+1}(z - z_0)^{n+1} + \cdots$$
  
=  $(z - z_0)^n (a_n + \cdots)$   
:=  $(z - z_0)^n g(z)$ .

Then  $g(z_0) \neq 0$ , so by continuity there exists an r such that  $|g(z)| \geq |a_n|/2$ .

Definition 13.2.

A function f defined on a deleted neighborhood of  $z_0$  has a pole at  $z_0$  if the function  $F = \frac{1}{f}$  with  $F(z_0) := 0$  is holomorphic in a full neighborhood of  $z_0$ .

# 14 Friday February 14th

## 14.1 Defining Residues

Interesting open problems: dynamical systems on  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

If f is holomorphic in  $\Omega$  with  $f(z_0) = 0$  then there exists a disc on which  $f(z) = \sum a_n(z - z_0)^n$  where  $a_0 = f(z_0) = 0$ . There is then a minimal k such that  $f(z) = (z - z_0)^k g(z)$  where  $g(z_0) \neq 0$ ; this k is the *order* of the zero  $a_0$ .

#### Definition 14.1.

A function defined in a deleted neighborhood of  $z_0$  has a pole at  $z_0$  iff  $F = \frac{1}{f}$  with  $F(z_0) := 0$  is holomorphic in a full neighborhood of  $z_0$ .

### Theorem 14.1 (Extraction of Holomorphic Part).

If f has a pole at  $z_0$ , then there exists a holomorphic function h and a unique k such that  $f(z) = (z - z_0)^{-k} h(z)$ .

Proof.

Write

$$\frac{1}{f} = (z - z_0)^k g(z)$$

with  $g(z_0) \neq 0$ . Then there is an r such that  $|g(z)| \geq \frac{1}{2}|g(z_0)|$  in a disc about  $z_0$ . Then

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(z - z_0)q(z)} := (z - z_0)^{-k}h(z)$$

where h = 1/g.

We can then write

$$f(z) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} b_k (z - z_0)^{-k}\right) + b_k + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} b_{k+i} (z - z_0)^i$$

for some fixed k, where  $\sum b_i(z-z_0)^i$  is the power series expansion of k. Write this as P(z) + G(z) where  $G(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_{i+k}(z-z_0)^i$ . Denote P the principal part of f at the pole

 $z=z_0$ .

Note that

$$\int_{D_r(z_0)} f = \int_{D_r(z_0)} P(z) = 2\pi i \ a_{-1}.$$

#### Definition 14.2.

The coefficient  $a_{-1}$  is referred to as the *residue* of f at  $z = z_0$ .

#### 14.2 Residues

Note that

$$\int \frac{1}{(z-z_0)^k} = \begin{cases} 2\pi i & k=1\\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}.$$

Residues can be computed using the following formula:

$$a_{-1} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{D_r(z_0)} f. \tag{1}$$

Theorem (Residue Formula):

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} f = \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)^{k-1} (z-z_0)^k f(z).$$

Proof.

Expand in power series, direct check.

A useful special case: if  $z_0$  is a pole of order 1, then

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} f = \lim_{z \to z_0} (z - z_0) f(z).$$

A useful formula:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma(z_0)} f = \operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} f.$$

### Theorem 14.2 (Integral Residue Theorem).

Suppose that f is holomorphic in an open set containing a toy contour  $\gamma$  and its interior except for finitely many poles  $\{z_i\}$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f = \sum \operatorname{Res}_{z=z_i} f(z).$$

Proof.

Omitted to cover some material needed for homework.

Note that if f has a pole of order k, we can expand it in Laurent series as

$$\sum_{n=-k}^{1} a_n (z-z_0)^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^k.$$

How to determine the radius of convergence of a Laurent series:

$$\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} a_n z_n = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} c_n z^n + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} d_n z^{-n}.$$

Applying the root test,

$$\limsup_{n} |c_n(z-a)|^{1/n} < 1$$

$$\iff \limsup_{n} |c_n|^{1/n} |z-z_0|^n < 1$$

$$\iff |z-a| \le \frac{1}{\limsup_{n} |c_n|^{1/n}} := \rho_1.$$

Similarly, we need

$$\rho_2 := \limsup_n |d_n|^{1/n} < |z - a|.$$

If  $\rho_1 > \rho_2$ , this will converge on an annulus.

# 15 Monday February 17th

See Hans Lewy 1957 Annals, Folland and Stein 1973. Does a linear system of PDEs with analytic functions have an analytic solution? What about just  $C^{\infty}$ ?

## 15.1 Getting a Holomorphic Function from a Laurent Series

We can write a formal series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n (z - a)^n$$
  
=  $\sum_{n \ge 0} a_n (z - z_0)^n + \sum_{n \ge 0} n \le -1 a_n (z - z_0)^n$   
:=  $A(z) + B(z)$ .

Part A converges for

$$|z - a| < R_1 = \left(\limsup |x_n|^{1/n}\right)^{-1}.$$

Part B converges for

$$|z - a| > R_2 = \limsup |c_{-n}|^{1/n}$$
.

If  $R_1 < R_2$ , this does not converge. Note that if  $R_1 > R_2$ , then f converges and defines a holomorphic function on the annulus  $R_2 < |z - a| < R_1$ . Moreover, f converges uniformly on any compact subset of this annulus, so it can be differentiated term-by-term, and the derivative has the same region of convergence.

Note that if f equals its Laurent expansion, then

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

where  $\gamma$  is contained in the annulus of convergence, and  $c_{n \leq -1}0$ .

We also have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^m} dz = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{c_n}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{(z-a)^{m-n}} dz$$
$$= c_{m-1},$$

since

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{(z-a)^k} dz = \begin{cases} 2\pi i & k=1\\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases},$$

we have the following formula for the coefficients:

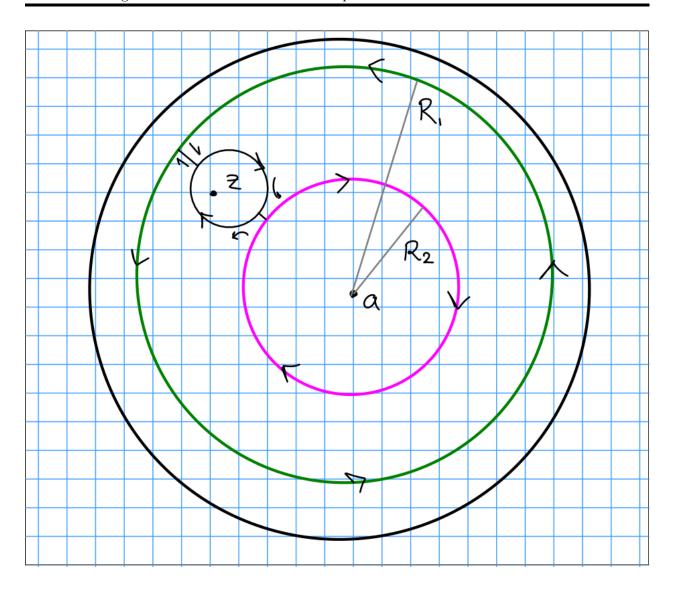
$$c_m = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{m+1}} dz.$$
 (2)

So we can start with a series and get a holomorphic function on some region.

#### 15.2 Obtaining a Laurent Series from a Holomorphic Function

We can also start with a holomorphic function and get a Laurent series. Suppose f is holomorphic on an annulus  $R_2 < |z| < R_1$ . We can then write

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-a|=R_1} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} \ dw - \int_{|w-z|=R_2} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} \ dw$$



Since |z - a|/|w - a| < 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-a|=R_1} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-a|=R_1} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)-(z-a)} dz 
= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-a|=R_1} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)} \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \frac{(z-a)^n}{(w-a)^n} dz 
= \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} (z-a)^n \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-a|=R_1} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)^{n+1}} dw 
= \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} c_n (z-a)^n.$$

Similarly,

$$-\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-a|=R_2} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} dw = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-a|=R_2} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)-(z-a)} dw$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{1}{z-a} \int_{|w-a|=R_2} \frac{f(w)}{\frac{w-a}{z-a}-1} dw$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{1}{z-a} \int_{|w-a|=R_2} \frac{f(w)}{1-\frac{w-a}{z-a}} dw$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{1}{z-a} \int_{|w-a|=R_2} f(w) \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \frac{(w-a)^n}{(z-a)^n} dw$$

$$= \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{1}{(z-a)^{n+1}} \int_{|w-a|=R_2} f(w)(w-a)^n dw$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} c_n (z-a)^n.$$

This yields a formula

$$c_m = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{m+1}} dz.$$
 (3)

In practice, we don't use this formula for extracting coefficients.

#### Example 15.1.

Let  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-1)}$ . This has four Laurent series.

Let  $C(a, R_1, R_2)$  be the annulus centered at a. Then at  $C(0, 0, 1) = \mathbb{D} \setminus \{0\}$ , we have

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{1-z} = -\frac{1}{z} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} z^k.$$

In  $C(1,1,0) = \mathbb{D}(1,1) \setminus \{1\}$ , we have

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

$$= \frac{1}{z - 1} \frac{1}{1 + (z - 1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{z - 1} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} (-1)^k (z - 1)^k.$$

In  $C(0,1,\infty)$ , we can write

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{z}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{z^2} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{z^k}.$$

And in  $C(1,1,\infty)$  we have

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

# 16 Wednesday February 26th

# 16.1 Argument Principle and Application

Let f be holomorphic in  $\Omega$  which is open, simple, and connected. Then  $f(z_0) = 0$  implies there exists an integer m such that  $f(z) = (z - z_0)^m g(z)$  where  $g(z_0) \neq 0$ .

Let  $N_{\Omega}(f)$  be the number of zeros of f inside  $\Omega$ , and  $N_{\Omega}(f,a)$  be the number of zeros of f-a in  $\Omega$ . Writing  $f = f_1 f_2$  where  $f_1 = (z - z_0)^m$  and  $f_2 = g(z)$ , we have

$$\frac{f'}{f} = \frac{f'_1}{f_1} + \frac{f'_2}{f_2}$$
$$= \frac{m}{z - z_0} + \frac{g'}{g}.$$

Now integrating both sides yields

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{D_r(z_0)} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \ dz = m,$$

so the integral of this function counts the number of zeros of f in  $D_r(z_0)$ .

#### Proposition 16.1 (Argument Principle).

Let f be holomorphic in a neighborhood of  $\overline{D_r(z_0)}$  and suppose that f is non-vanishing on all of  $\partial D_r(z_0)$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{D_r(z_0)} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \ dz = N_{D_r(z_0)}(f).$$

More generally, if q(z) is another holomorphic function in a neighborhood of  $\overline{D_r(z_0)}$  and  $z_1, \dots, z_k$  are the distinct zeros of f in  $D_r(z_0)$  with orders  $m_1, \dots, m_k$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{D_r(z_0)} q(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{j=1}^k q(z_k) m_k.$$

Proof.

Write  $f(z) = \prod_{j=1}^{k} (z - z_j)^{m_j} g(z)$ . By Leibniz's rule, if  $h = f_1 \cdots f_\ell$ , then

$$\frac{h'}{h} = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \frac{f'_j}{f_j}$$

$$\implies q \frac{f'}{f} = 1 \frac{g'}{g} + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{m_j q}{z - z_j}.$$

Since  $\frac{g'}{g}$  is holomorphic in the closed disc, integrating both sides yields the desired formula.

Note that if we replace f by a family  $f_t$  of continuous functions, an integer-valued continuous function must be constant.

## Corollary 16.2.

Let  $f_t(z)$  for  $0 \le t \le 1$  be a family of holomorphic functions on  $D_{r+\varepsilon}(z_0)$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ .) Suppose  $f_t(z)$  is continuous for all z in this disc, uniformly in z, and for all t,  $f_t(z)$  is nonvanishing on the boundary.

Then the following integral is independent of t:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{D_r(z_0)} \frac{f_t'(z)}{f_t(z)} dz.$$

# Theorem 16.3 (Rouché's).

Let f, g be holomorphic in a neighborhood of  $\overline{D_r(z_0)}$  and suppose that on  $\partial D_r(z_0)$  we have

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

Then f and g are nonvanishing on  $\partial D_r(z_0)$  and

$$N_{D_r(z_0)}(f) = N_{D_r(z_0)}(g). (4)$$

Proof.

If f(w) = 0 for some  $w \in \partial D_r(z_0)$ , then |-g(w)| = |g(w)|, but this contradicts condition ??.

So let  $t \in [0,1]$  with  $f_t(z) = (1-t)f(z) + tg(z)$ . Then (claim)  $f_t$  is nonvanishing on the boundary, so we can apply the previous corollary.

Suppose otherwise that there exists w on the boundary such that  $f_t(w) = 0$  for some t, so (1-t)f(w) + tg(w) = 0. Then rearranging terms yields

$$f(w) = t(g(w) - f(w))$$
  
 
$$g(w) = (1 - t)(g(w) - f(w)).$$

But then

$$|f(w) + g(w)| = t|g(w) - f(w)| + (1 - t)|g(w) - f(w)|$$
  
= |g(w) - f(w)|,

which contradicts condition ??

By the corollary, the integral is continuous in t and integer-valued, and thus constant.

Corollary 16.4 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).

Let  $p(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j z^j$  be a polynomial of degree n, so  $a_n \neq 0$ . Let  $f(z) = a_n z^n$  and g(z) = p(z). If

$$|z| > \frac{|a|_0 + \dots + |a|_m}{|a|_n} > 1$$

then

$$|f(z) - g(z)| = |a_0 + \dots + a_{n-1}z^{n-1}|$$

$$\leq |z|^{n-1} (|a|_0 + \dots + |a|_{n-1})$$

$$< |a_n||z|^n$$

$$= |f|$$

$$\leq |f| + |g|.$$

Note that this is useful because it tells you where the zeros are, namely in the disc  $|z| < \frac{\sum |a|_i}{|a|_n}$ .

Example 16.1.

Let  $p(z) = 9 - 8z + 20z^2$ , then all of the zeros are in a disc of radius  $r = \frac{7}{4}$ .

Qual alert: problems about power series, Rouché's, linear mapping, integration.

#### Example 16.2.

Let 
$$f(z) = z^9 - 2z^6 + z^2 - 8z - 2$$
.

How many zeros are in the unit disc? Take g(z) = -8z, the largest term. Then  $|f(z) - g(z)| \le 1 + 2 + 1 + 2 = 6 < |f| + |g| = 8$ , so condition ?? is satisfied. Thus they both have the same number of zeros, but g has exactly one zero.

What about |z| = 2? Then set  $g(z) = z^9$ , then check  $|f(z) - z^9| \le 150 < 152$ , so all 9 zeros lie in this disc.

**Exercise** Let  $g(z) = z^4 - 4z - 5$ , how many zeros are in  $|z| \le 1$ ? Note the root on the boundary.

# 17 Friday February 28th

### Theorem 17.1(Stein).

Suppose f, g are holomorphic in  $D_r(z_0)$  and |f(z)| > |g(z)| on  $\partial D_r(z_0)$ . Then f and f + g have the same number of zeros in  $D_r(z_0)$ .

Proof.

Let  $f_t(z) = f(z) + tg(z)$  and use the argument principle.

Theorem 17.2 (Stein 4.4: Open Mapping).

If f is holomorphic and nonconstant then f is an open map.

Proof.

Let  $w_0 \in \text{im } (f)$  and say  $f(z_0) = w_0$ . We want to show that all w near  $w_0$  are also in im (f). Define  $g(z) = f(z) - w = f(z) - w_0 + w_0 - w := F(z) + G(z)$ .

Now choose  $\delta > 0$  such that  $D_{\delta}(z_0) \subset \Omega$  and  $f(z) \neq w_0$  on  $\partial D_{\delta}(z_0)$ . We then select  $\delta$  such that  $|f(z) - w_0| \geq \varepsilon > 0$  on  $\partial D_{\delta}(z_0)$ . We have  $|F(z)| = |f(z) - w_0| \geq \varepsilon$ .

Now choose w such that  $|G(z)| = |w - w_0| < \varepsilon$ , nothing that G(z) is a constant function (?). Then  $|F(z)| \ge \varepsilon > |w - w_0| = |G(z)|$ . So apply Rouche's theorem and conclude that there exists  $z \in D_{\delta}(z_0)$  such that f(z) = w.

Qual alert, some questions related to the Open Mapping Theorem.

Theorem 17.3 (Stein 4.5: Maximum Modulus).

If f is holomorphic and nonconstant on  $\Omega$ , then |f| can not attain a maximum in  $\Omega$ .

Proof.

Suppose toward a condraction that |f| attains a maximum in  $\Omega$ , say at  $z_0$ . Since f is

holomorphic, it is an open mapping, and therefore if  $D_{\delta}(z_0) \subset \Omega$  then  $f(D_{\delta}(z_0))$  contains a disc. Thus there exists a  $z \in D_{\delta}(z_0)$  such that  $|f(z)| > |f(z_0)|$ . But this contradicts maximality of f at  $z_0$ .

#### Corollary 17.4.

If |f(z)| = 0 on  $\partial U$  and is nonconstant, then f has a zero in U.

#### Proof.

Let c = |f(z)| for  $z \in \partial U$ . Suppose that f(z) has no zeros in U. Then  $g(z) = \frac{1}{f(z)}$  is continuous and holomorphic in U. Then for all  $z_0 \in U$ ,  $|g(z)| = \frac{1}{|f(z)|} = \frac{1}{|f(z_0)|} > \frac{1}{c}$ , since c = |f(z)| for  $z \in \partial U$  implies  $|f(z_0)| < C$ . But this contradicts the maximum principle.

Proof technique: use the fact that the reciprocal is holomorphic. Note that this is stronger than f just being smaller in the interior, the modulus actually takes on the smallest value.

# 17.1 The Complex Logarithm

For x > 0, we define  $\log(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$ , which is the inverse of  $e^x$ . For  $z \neq 0$ , we'd like to define  $\log(z) = \log(re^{i\theta}) = \log(r) + i\theta$ , but the argument  $\theta$  is not uniquely defined.

#### Theorem 17.5.

Suppose  $\Omega$  is simply connected with  $1 \in \Omega$  and  $0 \notin \Omega$ . Thin in  $\Omega$ , there is a branch of the logarithm  $F(z) = \log_{\Omega}(z)$  such that

- 1. F(z) is holomorphic on  $\Omega$ .
- 2.  $e^{F(z)} = z$  for all  $z \in \Omega$
- 3.  $F(r) = \log(r)$  for all  $r > 0 \in \mathbb{R}$  near 1.

#### Proof.

#### Part 1:

We define F(z) as a primitive of the function

$$F(z) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{w} \ dw.$$

where  $\gamma$  is any curve in  $\Omega$  connecting 1 and z. We have

$$\frac{dF}{dz} = \frac{1}{z} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h}.$$

Noting that  $F(z+h)-F(z)=\int_{\eta}\frac{1}{w}\ dw$ , we can parameterize  $\eta$  as w=(1-s)z+s(z+h)=z+sh.

$$\int \eta \frac{1}{w} dw = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{z+sh} h ds$$

$$\implies \frac{1}{h} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{w} dw = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{z+sh} ds$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{z+sh} - \frac{1}{z}\right) ds$$

$$= \frac{1}{z} - \frac{h}{z} \int_0^1 \frac{d}{z+sh} ds$$

$$\stackrel{h \longrightarrow 0}{\implies} \frac{1}{z}.$$

### Part 2:

Note that 
$$(ze^{F(z)})' = e^{F(z)} + ze^{-F(z)} \left(-\frac{1}{z}\right) = 0.$$

Part 3:

To do.

Next time: once we have the log we can say more about the argument principle.

# 18 Friday March 6th

Recall  $\hat{f}(\xi) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)e^{2\pi ix \ cdot\xi} \ dx$ . Define  $\mathcal{F}_a = ??$ .

Definition 18.1 (Decay).

 $f \in \mathcal{F}_a$  iff 1. f is holomorphic in the strip  $S_a = \left\{z = x + iy \mid |y| < a\right\}$ . 2. There exists an A > 0 such that  $|f(x + iy)| \frac{A}{1 + x^2}$ .

Examples:

- $e^{-z^2} \in \mathcal{F}_a$  for all a•  $\frac{1}{c^2 + z^2} \in \mathcal{F}_a$  for all a > c•  $\frac{1}{\cosh(\pi z)} \in \mathcal{F}_a$  for  $a < \frac{1}{2}$ .

### Lemma 18.1.

If  $f \in \mathcal{F}_a$ , then  $f^{(n)}(z) \in \mathcal{F}_b$  for all b < a.

## Theorem 18.2.

If  $f \in \mathcal{F}_a$ , then  $|\widehat{f}(\xi)| \leq Be^{-2\pi b|\xi|}$  for some constants b, B.

Proof .

If  $\xi = 0$ ,

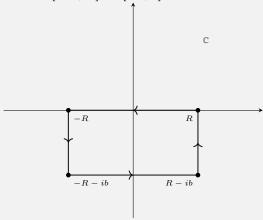
$$\left| \widehat{f}(\xi) \right| = \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(x)| \ dx$$

$$\leq A \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \ dx$$

$$= A\pi.$$

For  $\xi > 0$ , integrate over the box  $[-R, R] \times i[-b, 0]$ :



Define  $g(z) = f(z)e^{-2\pi iz\cdot\xi}$ . The integral over the rectangle is zero, since g is holomorphic, so we can equate

$$\int_{R}^{R-ib} f(z)e^{-2\pi iz\cdot\xi} dz = \int_{0}^{b} f(R-it)e^{-2\pi i(R-it)\cdot\xi}(-i) dt$$

We can use the estimate in  $\mathcal{F}_a$  to obtain

$$\int_0^b \dots \le \int_0^b \frac{A}{1+R^2} e^{-2\pi s\xi} ds$$
$$\le O(R^{-2}).$$

Then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)e^{-2\pi ix\cdot\xi} d\xi = \int_{-\infty-ib}^{\infty-ib} \cdots dz$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x-ib)e^{2\pi i(x-ib)\cdot\xi} dx$$

$$\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{A}{1+x^2}e^{-2\pi b\xi} dx$$

$$= A\pi e^{-2\pi b\xi},$$

so we can take  $B = A\pi$ .

For  $\xi > 0$ , the same argument works with the rectangle above the axis.

#### Theorem 18.3.

If  $f \in \mathcal{F}_a$ , then  $f(x) = \int \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} d\xi$ .

Proof.

Letting  $L_1 = \{x - ib\}$  and  $L_2 = \{x + ib\}$ 

$$I = \int_{0}^{\infty} \hat{f} \cdots + \int_{-\infty}^{0} \hat{f} \cdots$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} \left( \int_{L_{1}} f(z) + e^{-2\pi i z \cdot \xi} dz \right) d\xi + \int_{\infty}^{0} e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} \left( \int_{L_{1}} f(z) + e^{-2\pi i z \cdot \xi} dz \right) d\xi$$

$$= \int_{L_{1}} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{2\pi i x \xi - 2\pi i (s - ib)\xi} d\xi ds + \int_{L_{2}} f(z) \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi - 2\pi i (s + ib)\xi} d\xi ds$$
by absolute convergence, where  $z = s - ib$ 

$$= \int_{L_{1}} f(z) \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{2\pi i (x - s + ib)\xi} d\xi ds + \int_{L_{2}} f(z) \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{2\pi i (x - s + ib)\xi} d\xi ds$$

$$= \int_{L_{1}} f(z) \frac{1}{2\pi i (x - i + ib)} ds + \int_{L_{2}} f(z) \frac{1}{2\pi i (x - s - ib)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(z)}{z - x} dz$$

noting that

= f(x).

$$\int_0^\infty e^{as} \ ds = \frac{1}{a} \quad \text{for } \Re(a) > 0.$$

Note the similar trick: for  $\xi < 0$ , move up, and  $\xi > 0$  move down to form a rectangle. Use the fact that integration along the vertical edges is zero.

# 19 Appendix

$$dz = dx + i \ dy$$
 
$$d\overline{z} = dx - i \ dy$$
 
$$f_z = f_x = i^{-1} f_y$$
 
$$\int_0^{2\pi} e^{i\ell x} dx = \begin{cases} 2\pi & (\ell = 0) \\ 0 & (\ell \neq 0) \end{cases}.$$

• 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  $\|f\|_{C_R} = \max_{|z-z_0|=R} |f(z)|$ 

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

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

•  $\Delta < 0 \iff \text{ellipse}$ 

 $-\Delta < 0$  and  $A = C, B = 0 \iff$  circle

- $\Delta = 0 \iff parabola$
- $\Delta > 0 \iff \text{hyperbola}$

Completing the square:

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

**Useful Properties** 

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

**Useful Series** 

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

## Cauchy-Riemann Equations

$$u_x = v_y$$
 and  $u_y = -v_x$   
 $\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta}$  and  $\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta}$ 

## 19.1 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: Arg(z/w) = Arg(z) - Arg(w).

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

#### 19.2 Residues

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

Green's Theorem: Todo

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j z^j = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{j+1} z^j.$$