

# Year 2 — Complex Analysis

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These notes are not endorsed by the lecturers, and I have modified them (often significantly) after lectures. They are nowhere near accurate representations of what was actually lectured, and in particular, all errors are almost surely mine.

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# 1 Introduction to Complex Analysis

In this introduction we are going to prove some foundational things about complex numbers, which make them a field. Firstly we define the set,

$$\mathbb{C} = \{x + iy : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

as the complexes, so they are a set of ‘2D numbers’. This is most obvious in Lean where my convention is to write them as  $\langle a, b \rangle = a + ib$ .

**Addition:** Let  $z = a + ib$  and  $w = c + id$ , then we can deduce,

$$z + w = (a + c) + (b + d)i$$

hence  $\mathbb{C}$  is closed under addition (and by `sub_eq_neg_add` subtraction aswell).

**Multiplication:** Again let  $z = a + ib$  and  $w = c + id$ , then we can deduce,

$$z \cdot w = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$$

hence  $\mathbb{C}$  is closed under multiplication.

**Division:** Again let  $z = a + ib$  and  $w = c + id$ , then we can deduce,

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

hence closed. In technicalities with a few more lemmas we have a field, but we don’t bother too much about that, yet (hopefully).

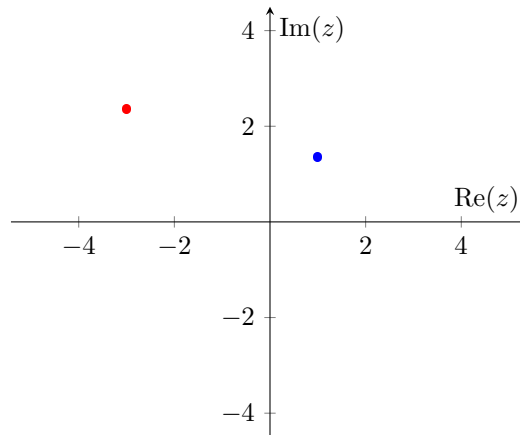
**Lemma 1.1.** Let  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , then we can say  $z\bar{z} = |z|^2$

*Proof.*

$$z\bar{z} = (x + iy)(x - iy) = x^2 + y^2 = |z|^2$$



**Argand Diagrams:** An argand diagram is a way to visualise complex numbers. Let us plot  $z = -3 + 2i$  and  $w = 1 + i$ .



**Lemma 1.2.** Let  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ , then,

$$(i) \quad (z \pm \bar{w}) = (\bar{z} \pm \bar{w})$$

$$(ii) \quad \overline{(zw)} = \bar{z}\bar{w}$$

$$(iii) \quad \overline{\left(\frac{z}{w}\right)} = \frac{\bar{z}}{\bar{w}} \quad \text{if } w \neq 0$$

**Corollary 1.3.** If  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $|zw| = |z||w|$

*Proof.*  $|zw|^2 = (zw)(\overline{zw}) = (z\bar{z})(w\bar{w}) = |z|^2|w|^2$



**Corollary 1.4.** Triangle Inequality If  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$  then,  $|z + w| \leq |z| + |w|$ .

*Proof.* If  $z + w = 0$ , then proof complete. If  $z + w \neq 0$ ,

$$\frac{z}{z+w} + \frac{w}{z+w} = 1$$

and then,

$$\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{z}{z+w}\right) + \operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{w}{z+w}\right) = 1$$

We know also that,

$$\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{z}{z+w}\right) \leq \left|\frac{z}{z+w}\right|$$

and similarly for the other. Hence,

$$\left|\frac{z}{z+w}\right| + \left|\frac{w}{z+w}\right| \geq 1$$

$$|z+w| \leq |z| + |w|$$



**Polar Form:** We can say

$$z = re^{i\theta} = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

## 1.1 Roots of complex numbers and equations

**Lemma 1.5.** Every complex number has  $n$ -distinct  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots

**Theorem 1.6.** (*De Moivre's*) For all,  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $r, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$z^n = r^n(\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta)$$

Let  $z = re^{i\theta} = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$  and  $\mu = \rho e^{i\alpha} = \rho(\cos \alpha + i \sin \alpha)$ , then,

$$r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = \rho^n(\cos n\alpha + i \sin n\alpha)$$

Which implies,

$$\rho^n = r \quad n\alpha = \theta + 2k\pi \quad (k \in \mathbb{Z}^+)$$

Hence,

$$\rho = r^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad \alpha = \frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n}$$

## 1.2 Complex Functions


We shall consider functions of the form  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , where  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ .

**Lemma 1.7.** (*Remainder Theorem*) If  $g$  is a polynomial over  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $\exists h(z)$  over  $\mathbb{C}$  st,  $g(z) = (z - b)h(z) + g(b)$ .

**Theorem 1.8.** If  $g(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0$  with  $a_n \neq 0$  and  $a_i \in \mathbb{C} (i \in \mathbb{N}_1)$ , then  $g(z)$  has at most  $n$  complex roots.

*Proof.* In general, every polynomial over  $\mathbb{C}$  can be written as,

$$a(z - z_1)(z - z_2) \dots (z - z_n)$$

and the only polynomials  $p(z)$  over  $\mathbb{C}$  with no solutions are  $p(z) = 0$  (by FTA). 

### 1.2.1 Exponential and Logarithm

**Definition 1.9.** The complex Exponential is defined as,

$$e^z = e^x(\cos y + i \sin y)$$

**Lemma 1.10.**  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ , we have,

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

**Lemma 1.11.**  $\forall z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$(i) \quad e^{z+w} = e^z e^w$$

$$(ii) \quad e^{z+2\pi i} = e^z$$

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

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} |e^z| &= |e^{x+iy}| \\ &= |e^x| |e^{iy}| \\ &= |e^x| |\cos y + i \sin y| \\ &= |e^x| \cdot 1 \\ &= e^x = e^{\operatorname{Re}(z)} \end{aligned}$$



**Definition 1.12.** (*Complex Trigonometry*)  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \quad \sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$

**Definition 1.13.** (*Complex Hyperbolic Trigonometry*)  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\cos ix = \frac{e^{-x} + e^x}{2} = \cosh x \quad \sin ix = \frac{e^{-x} - e^x}{2i} = i \sinh x$$

**Lemma 1.14.** For  $\theta, \phi \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $e^{i(\theta+\phi)} = e^{i\theta} e^{i\phi}$

*Proof.* `lemma comp_exp_add (θ φ : ℝ) : exp(θ * I) * exp(φ * I) = exp((θ + φ) * I) :=`  
`begin`  
`repeat {rw exp_mul_I},`  
`simp only [add_mul, mul_add],`  
`rw [add_comm, mul_comm (sin ↑φ) I, mul_assoc _ I _,`  
`tactic.ring.mul_assoc_rev I I _, ← pow_two, I_sq],`  
`simp only [neg_mul_eq_neg_mul_symm, one_mul, mul_neg_eq_neg_mul_symm],`  
`rw ← [mul_assoc (cos ↑θ), mul_comm (cos ↑θ), ← add_assoc, add_comm (I * cos ↑θ *`  
`sin ↑φ),`  
`add_right_comm (-(sin ↑θ * sin ↑φ)), add_comm (-(sin ↑θ * sin ↑φ)),`  
`tactic.ring.add_neg_eq_sub, ← cos_add, mul_comm _ I, add_assoc],`  
`have H1 : I * cos ↑θ * sin ↑φ + I * sin ↑θ * cos ↑φ = I * (cos ↑θ * sin ↑φ + sin ↑θ *`  
`cos ↑φ),`  
`{ ring },`  
`rw [H1, add_comm (cos ↑θ * sin ↑φ), ← sin_add, mul_comm],`  
`end`



**Corollary 1.15.** For  $r, s, \theta, \phi \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $re^{i\phi}(se^{i\theta}) = rse^{i(\theta+\phi)}$

*Proof.* `lemma exp_form_mul (φ θ : ℝ) (r s : ℂ) : (r*exp(φ * I)) * (s*exp(θ * I)) = r * s * exp((θ + φ) * I) := by rw [mul_mul_mul_comm, comp_exp_add, add_comm]`



**Definition 1.16.** (*Complex Logarithm*) If we have  $e^z = w$ , then we can solve and get,

$$z = \log r + i(\theta + 2k\pi) \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

**Definition 1.17.** (*Principle Complex Logarithm*) We define the principle logarithm as,

$$\text{Log}(w) = \log|w| + i \arg(w)$$

and we can deduce that,

**Lemma 1.18.**  $\forall z, w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus 0$ ,

$$\log(zw) = \text{Log}(z) + \text{Log}(w) + 2n\pi \quad (n \in \mathbb{N})$$

## 2 Topology

**Definition 2.1.** (*Open Disc*)  $D(a, r) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a| < r\}$

**Definition 2.2.** (*Closed Disc*)  $\overline{D}(a, r) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a| \leq r\}$

**Definition 2.3.** (*Punctured Disc*)  $D'(a, r) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : 0 < |z - a| < r\}$

**Definition 2.4.** (*Open Set*) A set  $S \subset \mathbb{C}$  is open  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}, \exists r > 0, D(z; r) \subset S$ .

**Definition 2.5.** (*Closed Set*) A set  $S \subset \mathbb{C}$  is closed if  $\mathbb{C} \setminus S$  is open.

**Definition 2.6.** (*Limit point*) A point  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  is a limit point of  $S$  if  $D'(z; r) \cap S \neq \emptyset \forall r > 0$ . A point of  $S$  which isn't a limit point is an isolated point.

**Definition 2.7.** (*Closure*) the closure of  $S$  is the union of  $S$  and it's limit points.

**Definition 2.8.** (*Interior Point*)  $\exists r > 0, D(z; r) \subset S$

**Definition 2.9.** (*Exterior Point*)  $\exists r > 0, D(z; r) \cap S = \emptyset$

**Definition 2.10.** (*Boundary Point*)  $z$  is a boundary point if it's neither a interior or exterior point of  $S$ .

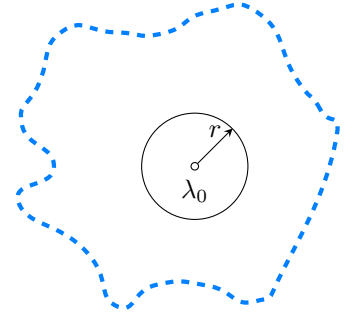
**Lemma 2.11.** Let  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$ , each point  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  is either an interior of  $A$ , an exterior of  $A$  or a boundary point of  $A$ .

**Proposition 2.12.** (i) The following three statements are equivalent,

- $S$  is closed.
- $S$  contains all it's limit points.
- $\overline{S} = S$ .

(ii)  $z \in \overline{S} \iff V \cap S \neq \emptyset \forall z \in \text{open set } V$

(iii)  $\overline{S}$  is a closed set.



A disk,  $D(\lambda_0; r)$  in an open set  $S$ .

*Proof.* TO DO



**Definition 2.13.** (*Bounded Set*)  $S \subset \mathbb{C}$  is bounded if  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, |z| \leq M \forall z \in S$ .

**Definition 2.14.** (*Compactness*) A set is bounded and closed is compact.

**Definition 2.15.** An open set  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  is connected if any two points  $a$  and  $b$  in  $U$ , one can join  $a$  to  $b$  in a finite sequence of straight lines segments contained within  $U$ .

**Definition 2.16.** (*Domain*) If  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$  is a domain if  $A$  is nonempty, open and connected.

### 3 Continuity

**Definition 3.1.** (*Limit*) Let  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$ ,  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  be a limit point of  $A$ .  $f(z) \rightarrow l$ , as  $z \rightarrow a$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0, z \in D(a, \delta) \cap A$  then  $f(z) \in D(l, \varepsilon)$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** Let  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  be a limit point of  $A$ . Then  $f(z) \rightarrow l$  as  $z \rightarrow a \iff f(a_n) \rightarrow l, \forall a_n : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, a_n \rightarrow a$ .

**Question.** Does a limit only exist when  $a$  is a limit point?

**Definition 3.3.** (*Continuous at*) Let  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . If  $a \in A$  is a limit point of  $A$ , and if  $f(z) \rightarrow f(a)$  as  $z \rightarrow a$ , we say that  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ .

**Definition 3.4.** (*Continuous on*) Let  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Suppose that each point of  $A$  is a limit point of  $A$ . We say  $f$  is continuous on  $A$  if  $f$  is continuous at all  $a \in A$ .

**Theorem 3.5.** Continuity holds under addition, multiplication and their inverses, with the usual caveats.

**Remark.** Polynomials are continuous on all of  $\mathbb{C}$ , rational functions are continuous where defined.



## 4 Holomorphic Functions

**Definition 4.1.** (*Differentiable*) Let  $A \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open,  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . We say  $f$  is differentiable at  $a \in A$  if,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a} \text{ exists}$$

This limit is called  $f'(a)$ .

**Definition 4.2.** (*Holomorphic*) Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , which is differentiable at every point of  $U$  is Holomorphic.

**Theorem 4.3.** If  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $g$  are differentiable then,

$$f \pm g \quad fg \quad fg^{-1} \quad f \circ g \quad g \circ f$$

are differentiable

**Theorem 4.4.** (*Cauchy Riemann Equations*) Let  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open. Suppose that  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a function,

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

$x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $u, v : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If  $z_0 \in U$  and if  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$ ,

$$u_x = v_y \quad u_y = -v_x$$

**Lemma 4.5.** (*Partial Converse of C-R*) Suppose  $f(x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  is a function on an open set  $U$  and suppose  $z_0 \in U$ . If  $f$  satisfies the CR (with  $u_x, v_y$  are continuous at  $z_0$ ), then  $f$  is differentiable.

## 5 Integration

### 5.1 Path Integrals

**Definition 5.1.** (*Path*) A path is a continuous map  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . It is called smooth if  $\gamma$  is differentiable and  $\gamma'$  is continuous.

We write  $\gamma(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$  where  $x, y : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

- $\gamma$  is continuous if  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  are continuous.
- $\gamma$  is differentiable if  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  are differentiable.

**Example.** Let  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ . The line segment from  $z_1 \rightarrow z_2$  is the path  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,

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

**Example.** Let  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $(r \in \mathbb{R}) > 0, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, a < \beta$ . We define  $\gamma : [\alpha, \beta] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,

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

Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,

- $\gamma(a)$  is the starting point
- $\gamma(b)$  is the end point
- If  $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$ , then the path is closed
- If  $\forall t, s \in (a, b)$  and  $\gamma(t) = \gamma(s) \iff t = s$  (i.e.  $\gamma$  is injective)

**Notation.**  $\gamma^-$  is a map  $\gamma^- : [-b, -a] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , i.e. the reversal of  $\gamma$

**Definition 5.2.** (*Path Integral*) Let  $f$  be continuous on an open set  $U$ ,  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a smooth path contained within  $U$ . The path integral is defined as,

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

**Example.** Let  $f(z) = z$  and  $\gamma$  be the line segment from 1 to  $2 + 2i$ ,

$$\gamma(t) = 1 + (1 + 2i)t \quad t \in [0, 1]$$

then,

$$\int_{\gamma} z dz = \int_0^1 (1 + (1 + 2i)t)(1 + 2i) dt = -\frac{1}{2} + 4i$$

#### 5.1.1 Properties of the path integral

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} f + g dz &= \int_{\gamma} f dz + \int_{\gamma} g dz \\ \int_{\gamma} af dz &= a \int_{\gamma} f dz \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{C} \\ \int_{\gamma^-} f dz &= - \int_{\gamma} f dz \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem.** (*FTC for  $\mathbb{C}$* ) Assume  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is holomorphic and  $U$  is open. Assume also that  $f'$  is continuous. Then,

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

If  $\gamma$  is closed, then,

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

## 5.2 Contour Integral

**Definition.** (*Contour*) A contour,  $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n)$  is a sequence of smooth paths arranged end to end.

**Definition.** (*Closed Contour*) A contour is closed if  $\gamma_1 = \gamma_n$ .

**Definition.** (*Contour Integral*) We define an integral over the contour  $\gamma$  as,

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{\gamma_i} f(z) dz$$

**Definition.** (*Path Length*) If  $\gamma$  is a smooth path,  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , then we define it's length to be,

$$\ell(\gamma) = \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

**Definition.** (*Contour Length*) If we have a smooth contour we define it's length to be,

$$\ell(\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_a^b |\gamma'_i(t)| dt$$

**Example.** If  $\gamma$  is a line segment from  $w_1$  to  $w_2$ ,  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , then,

$$\ell(\gamma) = \int_0^1 |w_2 - w_1| dt = |w_2 - w_1|$$

**Lemma.** If  $f$  is complex valued then,

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

**Corollary 5.3.** (*M-L Bounds*) Consider a contour  $\gamma$  and continuous function  $f$  on  $\gamma$ . Suppose  $|f(z)| \leq M \quad \forall z \in \gamma$ . Then,

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq ML \quad \text{where } L = \ell(\gamma)$$

## 6 Sequences and Series of Complex Numbers

Let  $a_n$  be a sequence of complex numbers, let  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ , we say that  $a$  is the limit of  $a_n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n > N$ ,

$$|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$$

**Theorem 6.1.** Let  $z_n$  be a sequence of complex numbers, let  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , then the following are equivalent,

- (i)  $z_n \rightarrow z$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- (ii)  $|z_n - z| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- (iii)  $\operatorname{Re}(z_n) \rightarrow \operatorname{Re}(z), \operatorname{Im}(z_n) \rightarrow \operatorname{Im}(z)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

**Definition 6.2.** (*Cauchy Sequences*) A sequence  $a_n$  of complex numbers is a cauchy sequence if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{R}$ , if  $n, m \geq N$ , then

$$|a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon$$

**Theorem 6.3.** If  $a_n$  is a convergent sequence of complex numbers, then  $(a_n)$  is cauchy.

*Proof.* Since  $a_n$  is convergent  $a_n \rightarrow l$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Take  $\varepsilon > 0$ , by def,  $\exists N$ , if  $n > N$ , then  $|a_n - l| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . Suppose  $n, m > N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n - a_m| &= |a_n - l + l - a_m| \\ &\leq |a_n - l| + |a_m - l| \\ &< \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$



**Definition 6.4.** (*Convergent Series*) Let  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z_n$  be an infinite series of complex numbers, we say the series converges if,  $\sum_{n=0}^N z_n$  converges.

**Definition 6.5.** (*Absolutely convergent*)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z_n$  converges absolutely if  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |z_n|$  converges.

**Lemma 6.6.** If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |z_n|$  converges so does,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z_n$ .

**Corollary 6.7.** Let  $(z_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of complex numbers. If  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N, \left| \sum_{m+1}^n z_k \right| < \varepsilon$  and  $n, m > N$ , then  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z_k$  is convergent.

### 6.1 Sequences of functions

**Definition 6.8.** (*Pointwise Limit of a sequence of functions*) Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of functions on  $U$ . Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , we say that  $f$  is pointwise limit on  $f$  of  $f_n$  if  $\forall x \in U$ , we have  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

**Definition 6.9.** (*Uniform Convergence*) Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of functions in  $U$ . we say that  $f$  is the uniform limit of  $f_n$  if,

$$\sup_{x \in U} |f_n - f| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

we say that  $(f_n)$  is uniformly convergent to  $f$ .

**Theorem 6.10.** Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of continuous functions that converge uniformly to  $f$  on  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ , st,  $\forall z \in U$ ,  $z$  is a limit point. Then  $f$  is continuous.

**Theorem 6.11.** Let  $\gamma$  be a contour and  $f_n$  a sequence of functions integrable on  $\gamma$ . Assume that  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $\gamma$ . Then,

$$\int_{\gamma} f_n dz \rightarrow \int_{\gamma} f dz$$

**Definition 6.12.** (*Uniform Cauchy*)  $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  defined on  $U$  is uniformly cauchy on  $U$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N, \forall n, m > N, \forall z \in U$ ,

$$|f_n(z) - f_m(z)| < \varepsilon$$

**Lemma 6.13.** A sequence of functions defined on  $U$  is uniformly convergent on  $U$  if and only if it is uniformly cauchy on  $U$ .

**Lemma 6.14.** Let  $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of functions on  $U$ , the series  $\sum_{n=0}^i n f_n(z)$  converges uniformly on  $U$  if,

$$S_N(z) = \sum_1^N f_n(z)$$

**Theorem 6.15.** (*Weirstrass M-Test*) Let  $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of functions defined on a subset of  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ . The series,  $\sum_1^{\infty} f_n$  converges uniformly and absolutely on  $U$  if,  $\exists (M_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \geq 0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , st,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall z \in U$  we have,

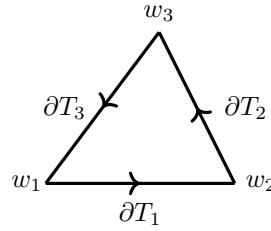
$$|f_n(z)| \leq M_n \text{ and } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} M_n \text{ converges}$$

## 7 Cauchy Theorem(s) - Many of them

**Theorem 7.1.** (*Vauge Cauchy Theorem*) If  $f$  is holomorphic at every  $z \in \gamma$  (a closed contour) then,

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

**Definition 7.2.** (*Interior point  $\gamma$  in triangles*) Given any two edge points on distinct edges any point on the interval between these two points on the interior point.

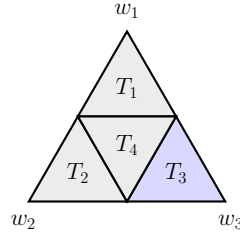


**Theorem 7.3.** If  $f$  is holomorphic on a domain  $U$  and  $T \subset U$  is a triangle in  $U$ , then  $\partial T = \partial T_1 + \partial T_2 + \partial T_3$  and,

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

**Lemma 7.4.** Take a triangle  $T$  with vertices  $w_1, w_2, w_3$ . Subdivide  $T$  into subtriangles  $T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4$ , where each subtriangle has half the dimensions of the original triangle. Then,

$$\int_{\partial T} f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^4 \int_{\partial T_j} f(z) dz$$



**Lemma 7.5.** (*Gorsats Lemma*) Let  $f$  be holomorphic in  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  and take  $\alpha \in U$ . Then,  $\exists v(z)$  defined on  $U$ , st,

$$f(z) = f(\alpha) + (z - \alpha)f'(\alpha) + (z - \alpha)v(z)$$

and such that,  $v(z) \rightarrow 0$  as  $z \rightarrow \alpha$

## 7.1 Nested Sequence of compact sets

**Lemma 7.6.** Let  $U$  be a closed subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  and let  $(a_n)$  be a convergent sequence of elements of  $U$  with limit  $a$ . Then  $a \in U$ .

**Lemma 7.7.** Let  $U_1 \supseteq U_2 \supseteq \dots \supseteq U_n \supseteq \dots$  be a decreasing sequence of compact subsets of  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then  $\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ , st,  $\alpha \in U_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

**Definition 7.8.** (*Star Domain*) A domain in  $\mathbb{C}$  is star if it has a star center.

**Definition 7.9.** (*Star Center*) We call  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  a star center of  $U$  if,  $\forall z \in U$ , the line segment between  $z_0$  and  $z$  is contained in  $U$ .

**Theorem 7.10.** If  $f$  is holomorphic on a star domain  $U$ , then  $f = g'$  for some  $g$  holomorphic on  $U$ .

**Corollary 7.11.** (*Cauchy Theorem on Star Domains*) If  $U$  is a star domain with  $f$  as holomorphic on  $U$ , and  $\gamma$  is closed contour on  $U$ , then,

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

**Theorem 7.12.** (*Cauchy Theorem*) Let  $U$  be a domain. Let  $\gamma$  be a closed contour, st,  $U$  contains  $\gamma^*$  and the interior of  $\gamma$ . Let  $F$  be holomorphic on  $U$ , then,

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

## 7.2 Jordan Closed Curve

**Theorem 7.13.** Let  $\gamma$  be a simple closed curve, then  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma^*$  is the disjoint union of a bounded region called the interior of  $\gamma$  and an unbounded region called the exterior of  $\gamma$ .

**Theorem 7.14.** (*Deformation Theorem*) Let  $f$  be a function, holomorphic on a domain  $U$ . Let  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  be contours with the the same start and end points, st,  $U$  contains  $\gamma_1^*$  and  $\gamma_2^*$  and the region between them. Then,

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

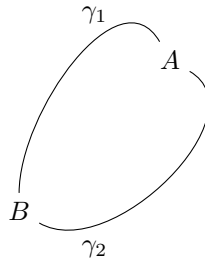


Figure 1: Diagram for Deformation Theorem

**Definition 7.15.** (*Positively Oriented Curve*) A simple closed curve is said to be positively oriented if the interior is to the left of the curve when travelling in the direction of the contour.

**Theorem 7.16.** Let  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  be positively oriented simple contours with  $\gamma_2^*$  lying inside  $\gamma_1$ . If  $f$  is holomorphic on some domain that contains  $\gamma_1^*$  and  $\gamma_2^*$  and the region between the contours,

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

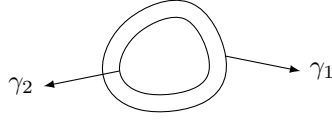


Figure 2: Diagram for Thm 7.16

**Theorem 7.17.** (*Cauchy Integral Formula*) Let  $U$  be a domain,  $\gamma$  be a positively oriented simple contour with its image and interior lying entirely inside  $U$ . Suppose that  $a \in \gamma$ . If  $f$  is holomorphic on  $U$ , then,

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

**Example.** Let  $\gamma$  be the circle with center  $(0,0)$  and radius 2. Then,

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{z^2}}{z+1} dz = 2\pi i e$$

We can then get from CIF,

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

Let  $a = -1$  and  $f(z) = e^{z^2}$ ,

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

### 7.3 Cauchy's Integral Formula for the $n$ th derivative

**Theorem 7.18.** (*Cauchy's Integral Formula for the  $n$ th derivative*) Let  $U$  be a domain,  $\gamma$  a positively oriented simple contour with its image and interior lying entirely in  $U$ . Suppose  $a$  is a path in the interior of  $\gamma$ . If  $f$  is holomorphic on  $U$ , then,

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

**Example.** Let  $\gamma$  be the unit circle, compute  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{\sin z}{z^4}$ . First take  $a = 0$  and  $n = 3$ ,

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z^4} = \frac{2\pi i}{3!} f^{(3)}(0) = -\frac{\pi i}{3}$$

### 7.4 Morera's Theorem

**Theorem 7.19.** Let  $U$  be a domain,  $f$  continuous on  $U$ , st, for all positively oriented simple contours  $\gamma$ ,

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

st,  $\gamma^*$  and its interior are contained in  $U$ , then  $\exists g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  st,

$$g' = f' \quad \forall z \in U$$

**Theorem 7.20.** (*Morera's Theorem*) Let  $U$  be a domain, let  $f$  be continuous on  $U$ . If

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0 \quad \forall \text{ positively oriented simple closed contours}$$

st,  $\gamma^*$  and its interior is contained in  $U$ , then  $f$  is holomorphic on  $U$ .



## 7.5 Cauchy Estimates

Let  $f$  be holomorphic on a domain containing  $\overline{D}(a, r)$ . If  $M$  is an upper bound for  $|f(z)|$  on the boundary of the disc, st,

$$|f(z)| \leq M, \forall z \in D(a, r)$$

then,

$$f^{(n)}(a) \leq \frac{n!M}{r^n} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

**Proposition 7.21.** Let  $U$  be a compact subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  and let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. Then,  $f$  is bounded.

**Definition 7.22.** (*Entire Function*) An entire function is holomorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$

**Theorem 7.23.** (*Louville's Theorem*) Let  $f$  be entire, if  $f$  is bounded then,  $f$  is constant.

**Theorem 7.24.** (*Generalised Louville*) Let  $f$  be entire, if  $\exists n, C, R$ , st,

$$|f(z)| \leq C|z|^n$$

whenever  $|z| > R$ . Then  $f$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $n$ .

**Example.** Suppose  $f$  is an entire function, satisfying

$$|f(z)| \leq |z| + 1 \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$$

Prove that  $f(z)$  is a polynomial of degree 1, where  $|A| \leq 1$  and  $B \leq 1$ .

So let  $n = 1$ , and so we want to show things when  $|z| \geq 1$ , then,

$$|z| + 1 \leq 2|z| \quad \text{so let } C = 2 \text{ and } R = 1$$

We now know that  $f(z) = Az + B$ . We can differentiate and plug in zero to get the required inequalities,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(0)| &= |A(0) + B| \\ &\leq |0| + 1 \\ |B| &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

and now use Cauchy's estimate,

$$\begin{aligned} |f^{(n)}(a)| &\leq \frac{n!M}{r^n} \\ &= \frac{M}{r} && \text{as } n = 1 \\ &\leq \frac{1}{r} && \text{as } z = 0 \\ &\leq 1 && \text{as we are in } D(1, 1) \end{aligned}$$

## 8 Power Series

Let  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $(a_n)$  is a sequence of complex numbers,  $\forall n \geq 0$  we define  $f_n : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by  $f_n(z) = a_n(z - a)^n$ ,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n \quad \text{is the power series about } a$$

**Lemma 8.1.** Any differentiable complex function has a local power series expansion.

**Theorem 8.2.** (*Taylor's Theorem*) Let  $f$  be holomorphic on a domain  $U$ , suppose that the  $D(a, r) \subset U$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $r > 0$ . Then  $\exists (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  of complex numbers st,  $\forall z \in D(a, r)$

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

$\gamma$  is a circular contour,  $D(a, r)$ , where,

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

*Proof.* Assume  $a = 0$ , let  $f$  be holomorphic on a domain  $U$ . Suppose that  $D(0, R) \subset U$ . Let  $z \in D(0, R)$ , st,  $|z| < R$ . Let  $\mu = D(0, S)$  with  $|z| < S < R$ .

By Cauchy's Integral Formula we have,

$$f^{(n)}(a) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{(w - a)^{n+1}} dw \quad (*)$$

Take  $n = 0$  in  $(*)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(0)}(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu} \frac{f(w)}{(w - z)} dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu} \frac{f(w)}{w(1 - \frac{z}{w})} dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu} \frac{f(w)}{w} \cdot \frac{1}{(1 - \frac{z}{w})} dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu} \frac{f(w)}{w} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{w}\right)^n dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{f(w)}{w^{n+1}} z^n\right) dw \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu} \left(\frac{f(w)}{w^{n+1}}\right) dw z^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f^{(n)}(0) z^n \end{aligned}$$



Let  $f$  be holomorphic on a domain  $U$  and suppose  $aR \subset U$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $R > 0$ . Then,  $\exists (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  of complex numbers,  $\forall z \in D(a, R)$ ,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - a)^n \quad \text{where } a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$$

$\gamma$  is any circular contour,  $D(a, r)$ , ( $r < R$ ).

### 8.1 Radius of Convergence

The sum  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$  converges if  $|z| < 1$  and diverges if  $|z| > 1$ . This is the series converges inside the unit circle at  $(0,0)$  and diverges outside. So we can ask,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{for what values does it converge?}$$

There are three possibilities,

- (i) The series converges only when  $z = a$
- (ii) The series converges everywhere  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$
- (iii) The series converges where  $\exists R$ , st, the series converges in  $D(a, R)$  only.

**Lemma 8.3.** Let  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$  be a power series. If the series converges for  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $z_0 \neq a$ ,  $\forall r$ , st,  $0 < r < |z_0 - a|$  the series converges uniformly and absolutely on  $\overline{D}(a, r)$

**Theorem 8.4.** (*Radius of Convergence*) Let  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$  be a power series. Suppose  $\exists z_0 \neq a$ , st, the power series converges when  $z = z_0$ . If the series doesn't converge  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $\exists R > 0$ ,  $R \in \mathbb{R}$ , st, the series converges absolutely when  $|z-a| < R$  and diverges when  $|z-a| > R$ .

The number  $R$  is called a radius of convergence of the power series,

- If a power series converges  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ , we say it has infinite radius of convergence.
- If the series converges only at  $a$ , the radius of convergence must be zero.

**Theorem 8.5.** Let  $f$  be a function of  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  defined by,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{with Radius of convergence, } R$$

Then,  $f$  is holomorphic on  $D(a, R)$  and,

$$f'(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n(z-a)^{n-1} \quad \forall z \in D(a, R)$$

**Theorem 8.6.** If,  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$  is a power series that converges in a domain containing a  $D(a, R)$

where  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $R > 0$  ( $R \in \mathbb{R}$ ) then,  $f(z)$  is holomorphic on  $D(a, R)$  and  $a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

**Example.** What is the power series of  $f(z) = z \sin z$  around  $\pi$ ?

We know that,

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

Let  $w = z - \pi$ ,

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

and so,

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

**Example.** Find the Taylor series for  $f(z) = \cos(3z^2)$  around  $z = 0$  and state the radius of convergence, Let  $w = 3z^3$  and let us use the Taylor series for  $\cos w$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cos w &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n w^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (3z^3)^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 9^n z^{6n}}{(2n)!}
 \end{aligned}$$

This series converges  $\forall w$  and so it converges  $\forall z$ .

## 9 Zeros of holomorphic functions

Let  $f$  be a holomorphic function of a complex variable. A zero of  $f$  is a complex number  $z_0$ , st,  $f(z_0) = 0$ .

Suppose  $f$  is holomorphic in a domain containing a point  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then,  $\exists r > 0$ , st,  $f$  has a power series,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{in } D(a, r)$$

and now suppose that  $a$  is a zero of  $f$ . Then,

- Either all of  $a_n = 0$ ,  $\forall n > 0 \implies f(x) = 0$  on  $D(a, r)$ .
- $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ , st,  $a_0 = a_1 = \dots = a_{N-1}$  and  $a_N \neq 0$ .

For the second point there, we say that  $f$  has a zero of order  $N$  at  $a$ . By Taylors Theorem,  $f$  has a zero of order  $N$  at  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  if  $f(a) = f'(a) = \dots = f^{(N-1)}(a) = 0$  and  $f^{(N)}(a) \neq 0$ .

**Definition.** (*Simple Zero*) A zero of order one is a simple zero, i.e.  $f(a) = 0$ , but  $f'(a) \neq 0$ .

**Definition.** (*Double Zero*) A zero of order two is a double zero.

**Example.** Let  $f(z) = z$ , then we have a simple zero at  $z = 0$  as,

- $f(0) = 0$
- $f'(z) = 1 \implies f'(0) = 1$

and now let  $f(z) = z^2$ , then we have a double zero at  $z = 0$  as,

- $f(0) = 0^2 = 0$
- $f'(z) = 2z, \implies f'(0) = 0$
- $f''(z) = 2, \implies f''(0) = 2$

**Lemma 9.1.** Suppose that  $f$  and  $g$  have zeros of order  $n$  and  $m$  respectively at  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $fg$  has a zero of order  $n + m$  at  $a$ .

**Lemma 9.2.** (*Isolated Zeros*) Let  $f$  be holomorphic on a domain  $U$  containing a point  $a$ . If  $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ , st,  $f$  has a zero of order  $m$  at  $a$ , then the zero is isolated.

More intuitively, a zero is isolated, if  $\exists r > 0$ , st,  $f(z) \neq 0$  if  $z \in D'(a, r)$

**Theorem 9.3.** Let  $f$  be holomorphic on a domain  $U$ , if  $\exists a \in U$  and  $r > 0$ , st,  $D(a, r) \subset U$  and st,  $f(z) = 0 \forall z \in D(a, r)$ , then  $f(z) = 0 \forall z \in U$ .

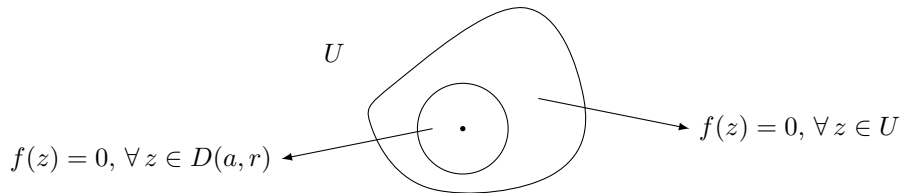


Figure 3: Diagram for locally zero  $\implies$  globally zero

Let  $S$  be an open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ , consider all  $A \subset S$ , st,

- $A$  is open

–  $S \setminus A$  is open

If the only set  $A$  that satisfy (1) and (2) are  $\emptyset$  and  $S$  itself, then  $S$  is topologically connected.

**Lemma 9.4.**  $S$  is topologically connected if and only if it is connected.

**Theorem 9.5.** (*Identity Theorem*) Let  $U$  be a domain and let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic. The following are equivalent:

- (i)  $f(z) = 0 \quad \forall z \in U$
- (ii)  $\exists a \in U, r > 0$ , st,  $f(z) = 0, \forall z \in D(a, r)$
- (iii) The set  $S$  of zeros of  $f$  has a limit point  $z_0 \in U$ .

## 9.1 Laurent Series

Let,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n = a_0 + a_1(z-a) + \dots$$

**Theorem 9.6.** (*Laurent Theorem*) If  $f$  is holomorphic on an annulus,

$$A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : R < |z-a| < S\}$$

for  $0 < R \leq S$ , then,  $\exists (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} \in \mathbb{C}$ , st,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} b_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{the laurent series } \forall z \in A$$

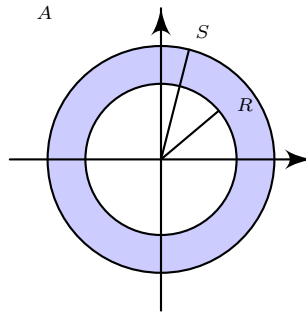


Figure 4: Then annulus  $A$  from  $R$  to  $S$

$f(z)$  moreover  $\forall r$ , st,  $R < r < S$  and  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , if  $\gamma$  is the circular contour with center  $a$  and center  $r$ , then,

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

Suppose  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$  is a laurent series convergent on the annulus. Then,

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} a_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{is the principle part of the Laurent Series.}$$

**Theorem 9.7.** (*Uniqueness*) Let  $A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : R < |z - a| < S\}$ ,  $0 < R < S < \infty$ . If the series  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} b_n(z - a)^n$  converges  $\forall z \in A$ , then,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} b_n(z - a)^n \quad \text{is holomorphic on } A \text{ and } \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ with the usual } b_n \text{ defined above.}$$

where  $\gamma$  is the circular contour,  $D(a, r)$ ,  $R < r < S$ .

**Example.**  $A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : 1 < |z| < 2\}$ . Let  $f : \mathbb{C} \setminus \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , st,  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)}$  and find the Laurent series about 0.

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

which is the Laurent expansion around 0.

**Example.** Let  $\mu$  be the circular contour,  $D(0, \frac{3}{2})$ . Compute,

$$I = \mu_{\mu} f(z) dz \quad \text{with } f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)}$$

and we know that,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n z^n \quad a_n = \int_{\mu} \frac{f(w)}{w^{n+1}}$$

and so let  $n = -1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} a_{-1} &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu} f(w) dw \\ 2\pi i a_{-1} &= \int_{\mu} f(w) dw \end{aligned}$$

and so as we know that  $f(z) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{2^n} + \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} z^n$ . So now compute  $a_{-1}$ . We can get that  $a_{-1} = -1$ , and so,

$$\int_{\mu} f(w) dw = -2\pi i$$

## 9.2 Singularities

**Definition 9.8.** (*Isolated Singularity*) Let  $U$  be a domain on which  $f$  is holomorphic. If  $a \notin U$ , st,  $D'(a, r)$  is a subset of  $U$  for some  $r > 0$ . Then,  $f$  has an isolated singularity.

If  $f$  has an isolated singularity at  $a$ , then by Laurents Theorem,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} b_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{above } D'(a, r) \text{ for some } r > 0$$

**Example.** Find the Laurent Series of  $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z}$ ,

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

**Definition 9.9.** (*Removable Singularity*)  $f$  has a removable singularity if it's Laurent Series has zero principle part,  $b_n = 0, \forall n < 0$

**Example.**  $f(z) = e^{\frac{1}{z}}$  has a laurent series about  $z = 0$ ,

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

**Definition 9.10.** (*Essential Singularity*) There are infinitely many terms in the principle part, hence, it is a essential singularity.  $\nexists m$ , st,  $b_n = 0, \forall n < -m$ .

To find singulaties look at the Laurent Series,

$$\cdots + \frac{1}{z^3} + \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z} + 1 + z + z^2 + \dots$$

- principle part all zeros,  $f$  has a removable singularity
- principle part not all zero,  $f$  has an essential singularity

**Theorem 9.11.** (*Picards Great Theorem*) If  $f$  is defined on a punctured disc and has an essential singularity at  $a$ , then  $f$  takes all complex values with at most one exception on  $D'(a, r)$ .



## 10 Residues and Cauchy (again...)

If  $f$  is a function holomorphic on a punctured disc,  $D'(a, r)$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $r > 0$ , with Laurent Series,

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} b_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{for } z \in D'(a, r), \text{ then,}$$

the residue of  $f$  at  $a$  is,

$$\text{Res}(f, a) = b_{-1}$$

The residue of  $f$  at  $a$  is,  $\text{Res}(f, a) = b_{-1}$  and if  $f$  has a removable singularity at  $a$ , then,  $\text{Res}(f, a) = 0$  and if  $a$  is a simple pole, then,  $\text{Res}(f, a) \neq 0$

**Theorem 10.1.** (*Cauchy Residue Theorem*) If  $\gamma$  is a closed simple contour, traversed anticlockwise, if  $f$  is a holomorphic function on a domain containing the image and the interior of  $\gamma$  except for a finite number of isolated singularities in the interior of the whole curve  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ , then,

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{j=1}^n \text{Res}(f, a_j)$$

### 10.1 Computing Residues

If  $f$  has Laurent series,

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} b_n(z-a)^n \quad \text{for } z \in D'(a, r)$$

Then,

$$\text{res}(f, a) = b_{-1}$$

Given this, we have Cauchy Residue Theorem, suppose  $\gamma$  is a closed, simple contour traversed anticlockwise.  $f$  is holomorphic except at a finite number of isolated singularities, say  $(a_1, \dots, a_k)$ , then,

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{j=1}^k \text{res}(f, a_j)$$

If  $f$  has a simple pole at  $a$ , then  $f$  has a Laurent series,

$$f(z) = \frac{b_{-1}}{z-a} + b_0 + b_1(z-a) + b_2(z-a)^2 + \dots$$

and we have,

$$\text{res}(f, a) = b_{-1} = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)f(z)$$

**Example.** Let  $\gamma$  be  $D(0, 3)$  and  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)}$ .  $f$  has two singularities.

$$\text{res}(f, 1) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1) \frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{z-2} = -1$$

$$\text{res}(f, 2) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} (z-2) \frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{z-1} = 1$$

and so,

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i(-1+1) = 0$$

**Lemma 10.2.** If  $f(z) = \frac{h(z)}{k(z)}$  and it has an isolated singularity at  $a$ ,  $h$  and  $k$  are holomorphic on  $D(a, r)$  if  $h(a) \neq 0$  and  $k$  has a simple zero at  $a$ . Then,

$$\operatorname{res}(f, a) = \frac{h(a)}{k'(a)}$$

**Example.** Consider  $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{\cos z}$  and

$$\operatorname{res}\left(f, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right) = \frac{\sin \frac{3\pi}{2}}{-\sin \frac{3\pi}{2}} = -1$$

For poles of higher order, we look towards the laurent series.

**Example.** Compute the residue of  $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{(z - \pi)^6}$ .

Firstly, let  $w = z - \pi$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(z + \pi) &= \frac{\sin(w + \pi)}{w^6} \\ &= -\frac{\sin w}{w^6} \\ &= -\frac{1}{w^6} \left( w - \frac{w^3}{3!} + \frac{w^5}{5!} + \dots \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{w^5} + \frac{1}{3!w^3} - \frac{1}{5!w} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $b_{-1} = -\frac{1}{5!}$  and hence  $\operatorname{res}(f, \pi) = \frac{1}{5!}$

**Notation.** Note that,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + w + w^2 + w^3 + \dots \\ 1 + w + w^2 + w^3 + \mathcal{O}(w^4) \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 10.3.** Suppose  $f$  has a pole of order  $n$  at  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ , then,

$$\operatorname{res}(f, a) = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{g^{(n-1)}(z)}{(n-1)!}$$

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

**Example.** Let  $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{(z - 1)^3}$  and  $f$  has a triple pole at  $z = 1$ . Let us write,

$$g(z) = (z - 1)^3 f(z) = \sin z$$

and so,

$$\operatorname{res}(f, 1) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{(\sin z)''}{2!} = -\frac{1}{2} \sin 1$$

When we consider residues at essential singularities, it suffices to just compute and consider the laurent series,

**Example.** Find  $\text{res}(f, 0)$  where  $f(z) = e^{\frac{2}{z}}$ . Let  $w = \frac{2}{z}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f\left(\frac{w}{2}\right) &= e^w \\ &= 1 + w + w^2 + w^3 + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{2}{z} + \frac{4}{z^2} + \frac{8}{z^3} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

and so,  $\text{res}(f, 0) = 2$

## 11 How to integrate 101

Complex Analysis is very useful for solving a wide amount of integrals.

### 11.1 Integrating Trigonometric Functions

If  $z = e^{it}$ , then we can write,

$$\cos t = \frac{1}{2}(z + z^{-1}) \quad \text{and} \quad \sin t = \frac{1}{2i}(z - z^{-1})$$

We want to write,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} F(\cos t, \sin t) dt$$

as a function of  $z$  alone.

**Example.** Compute,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\cos 2t}{5 - 3 \cos t} dt$$

Firstly we can let  $z = e^{it}$  and perform a substitution.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\cos 2t}{5 - 3 \cos t} dt &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\frac{1}{2}z^2 + z^{-2}}{5 - \frac{3}{2}(z + z^{-1})} dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\frac{1}{2}z^2 + z^{-2}}{5 - \frac{3}{2}(z + z^{-1})} \frac{dz}{iz} \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{z^4 + 1}{z^2(3z^2 - 10z + 3)} dt \end{aligned} \quad \text{This step took half an hour of the lecture}$$

Looking at the integrand we can say, it has a double pole at  $z = 0$  and simple poles at  $z = 3$  and  $z = \frac{1}{3}$ . We shall take the disc of center 0 and radius 1. Now we can say that we want the residue of  $z = 0$  and  $z = \frac{1}{3}$ .

We can calculate the residue at  $z = 0$ , by doing the following,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{res}(f, 0) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} g'(z) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} (z^2 f(z))' \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{z^4 + 1}{3z^2 - 10z + 3} \right) \\ &= \frac{10}{9}i \end{aligned}$$

and now the other residue as  $z = \frac{1}{3}$  is a simple pole,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{res}\left(f, \frac{1}{3}\right) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}} \left(z - \frac{1}{3}\right) f(z) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}} \frac{i(z^4 + 1)}{z^2} \\ &= -\frac{41}{36}i \end{aligned}$$

and then by Cauchy Residue Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\cos 2t}{5 - 3 \cos t} dt &= 2\pi i \left[ \text{res}(f, 0) + \text{res}\left(f, \frac{1}{3}\right) \right] \\ &= 2\pi i \left[ \frac{10}{9}i + \frac{41}{36}i \right] = \frac{\pi}{18} \end{aligned}$$

## 11.2 Semi-circle Method

We want to compute  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  using a semicircle contour with radius  $R$  and letting  $R \rightarrow \infty$ .

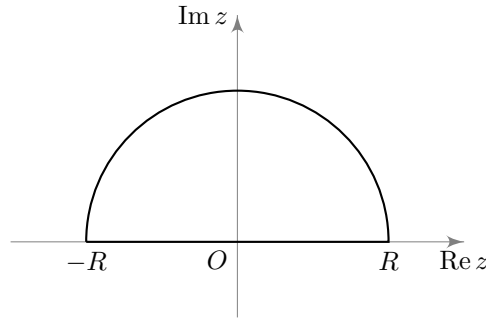


Figure 5: Semicircle Method Diagram

### 11.2.1 Odd function using Semi-circle

Consider,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

We can consider the following integral over  $\gamma = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2$ , where we define  $\gamma_1 = [-R, R]$  and  $\gamma_2 = Re^{it}$  where  $t \in [0, \pi]$ . The integrand has two singularities,  $z = \pm i$ , only one of which is in  $\gamma$ ,  $z = i$ . Consider the residue of the single pole  $z = i$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{res}(f, i) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z - i)f(z) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{1}{z + i} \\ &= \frac{1}{2i} = -\frac{i}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Hence we can say that,

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz = 2\pi i \left(-\frac{i}{2}\right) = \pi$$

and we can also split up,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz &= \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz + \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz \\ &= \int_{-R}^R \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz + \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz \end{aligned}$$

So we now consider  $I_2$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , so do the ML-inequality,

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

and we know that  $\ell(\gamma) = \pi R$ , hence,

$$\left| \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz \right| \leq \frac{\pi R}{R^2-1}$$

and so as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\int_{\gamma_1} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz \rightarrow 0$$

and now,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-R}^R f(z) dz &= \pi - \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz \\ &= \pi \end{aligned} \quad \text{as } R \rightarrow \infty$$

### 11.2.2 Trigonometric using Jordan's Inequality and Semi-circle

**Lemma 11.1.** (*Jordan's Inequality*) If  $0 < t < \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then,  $\sin t \geq \frac{2t}{\pi}$

**Example.** Compute,

$$I = \int_0^\infty \frac{x \sin x}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

Take  $f(z) = \frac{ze^{iz}}{z^2 + 1}$  and so,

$$I = \operatorname{Im} \left( \int_0^\infty \frac{ze^{iz}}{z^2 + 1} dz \right)$$

and so let  $\gamma$  be defined the same as before, then we consider  $I_2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} I_2 &= \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{ze^{iz}}{z^2 + 1} dz \\ &\leq \int_0^\pi \left| \frac{Re^{it} e^{Re^{it}}}{(Re^{it})^2 + 1} iRe^{it} \right| dt \\ &\leq \frac{R^2}{R^2-1} \int_0^\pi |e^{Re^{it}}| dt \\ &= \frac{R^2}{R^2-1} \int_0^\pi e^{-R \sin t} dt \\ &= \frac{2R^2}{R^2-1} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{-R \sin t} dt \\ &\leq \frac{2R^2}{R^2-1} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{-\frac{2Rt}{\pi}} dt \\ &= \frac{2R^2}{R^2-1} K \end{aligned} \quad K \in \mathbb{C}$$

Hence as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $I_2 \rightarrow 0$  and so we can just apply CRT to the integral and achieve the solution. There are two simple poles in the integrand at  $z = \pm i$  and as before only  $i \in \gamma$  and so we only need to calculate one residue.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{res}(f, i) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z - i) \frac{ze^{iz}}{z^2 + 1} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{ze^{iz}}{z + i} = \frac{1}{2e} \end{aligned}$$

and so, by CRT,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz &= 2\pi i \text{res}(f, i) \\ &= \frac{\pi i}{e} \end{aligned}$$

and so,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{e}$$

### 11.2.3 Even integrand using Semi-Circle

Let us consider the following integral,

$$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(1+x^2)^2} dx$$

and, as the integrand is even,

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(1+x^2)^2} dx \quad (*)$$

Hence, we consider  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(1+z^2)^2}$  over the contour  $\gamma = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2$ , where  $\gamma_1 = [-R, R]$  and  $\gamma_2 = Re^{it}$  with  $t \in [0, \pi]$ .

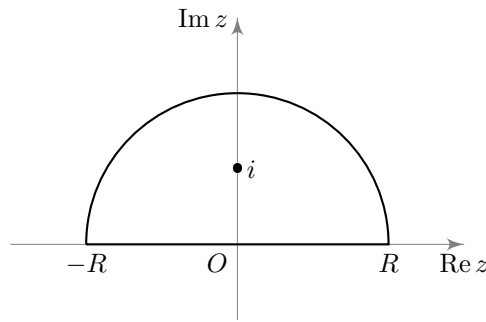


Figure 6: Diagram of  $\gamma$

The singularity of  $f(z)$  is  $z = i$ , if  $R > i$ . As  $i$  is a double pole, then let  $g(z) = (z - i)^2 f(z)$  and now,

$$g'(z) = \frac{-2}{(z + i)^3}$$

and hence,

$$\text{res}(f, i) = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{-2}{(z + i)^3} = -\frac{i}{4}$$

and so, by CRT,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz &= 2\pi i(\text{res}(f, i)) \\ &= -2\pi i \cdot \frac{i}{4} = \frac{\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

and now consider  $I_2$  under the ML-bound. We can say,

$$\begin{aligned}\left| \int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz \right| &\leq \frac{1}{(R^2 - 1)^2} \ell(\gamma) \\ &\leq \frac{\pi R}{(R^2 - 1)^2}\end{aligned}$$

and so as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $I_2 \rightarrow 0$ . Hence as we take  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz &= \int f(z) dz \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1 + z^2)^2} dz \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

and as (\*) we can say,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1 + z^2)^2} dz = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

#### 11.2.4 Large powered denominator using Semicircle

Now, we shall evaluate the following integral,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{1000} + 1}$$

and let  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z^{1000} + 1}$ , which has a simple pole at  $\alpha = e^{\frac{\pi}{1000}i}$ . Now, we let  $\gamma_1 = [-R, R]$  and then  $\gamma_2 = Re^{it}$  where  $t \in [0, \frac{\pi}{500}]$  and  $\gamma_3$  is reversal for  $[0, \alpha^2 R]$  which we let,

$$\gamma_3^- = \alpha^2 t \quad t \in [0, R]$$

Then  $\alpha$  is inside  $\gamma$ . Now, consider  $I_3$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}I_3 &= \int_{\gamma_3^-} \frac{dx}{z^{1000} + 1} \\ &= - \int_{\gamma} \frac{\alpha^2}{(\alpha^2 t)^{1000} + 1} \\ &= - \int_0^R \frac{\alpha^2}{(\alpha^2 t)^{1000} + 1} \\ &= -\alpha^2 I_1\end{aligned}$$

We can now see that the integrand in  $\gamma_2$  is  $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{R^{1000}})$ , hence, the length of  $\gamma$  is  $\frac{\pi R}{500}$ , by the ML-inequality,  $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{R^{999}}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . This means,

$$\int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } R \rightarrow \infty$$



Then the residue at  $f$  is simply,

$$\operatorname{res}(f, \alpha) = \frac{1}{1000\alpha^{999}}$$

and by Cauchy Residue Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} I &= 2\pi i \operatorname{res}(f, \alpha) \\ &= \frac{2\pi i}{1000\alpha^{999}} \end{aligned}$$

and so,

$$\begin{aligned} I &= I_1 + I_2 + I_3 \\ &= (1 - \alpha^2)I_2 + I_3 \\ \frac{2\pi i}{1000\alpha^{999}} &= (1 - \alpha^2)I_2 && \text{as } R \rightarrow \infty \\ \frac{2\pi i}{1000(1 - \alpha^2)\alpha^{999}} &= I_2 \\ \frac{2\pi i}{1000(\alpha^{-1} + \alpha)} &= I_2 \\ \frac{\pi}{1000} \frac{2i}{\alpha^{-1} + \alpha} &= I_2 \\ \frac{\pi}{1000} \csc\left(\frac{\pi}{1000}\right) &= I_2 \end{aligned}$$

then,

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1 + x^{1000}} dx = \frac{\pi}{1000} \csc\left(\frac{\pi}{1000}\right)$$

### 11.2.5 Large powered denominator and powered numerator using Semicircle

Compute,

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{x^{666}}{x^{1000} + 1} dx$$

Consider,  $\gamma = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3$ , where  $\gamma_1 = [0, R]$ ,  $\gamma_2 = Re^{it}$  where  $t \in [0, \frac{\pi}{500}]$  and  $\gamma_3$  is the reversal of  $[0, \alpha^2 R]$ , which we parameterised as,

$$\gamma_3^- = \alpha^2 t \quad t \in [0, R]$$

We can show  $I_2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . Then the integral over  $\gamma_3$  is,

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &= - \int_0^R \frac{(\alpha^2 t)^{666}}{(\alpha^2 t)^{1000} + 1} \alpha^2 dt \\ &= -\alpha^{2 \times 667} I_1 \end{aligned}$$

We see that the residue of the integrand at  $\alpha$  is,

$$\operatorname{res}(f, \alpha) = \frac{\alpha^{666}}{1000\alpha^{999}}$$

and so by Cauchy Residue Theorem, as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} 2\pi i \frac{\alpha^{666}}{1000\alpha^{999}} &= I_1 + I_2 + I_3 \\ &= (1 - \alpha^{2 \times 667}) I_1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 &= \frac{2\pi i \alpha^{666}}{1000(1 - \alpha^{2 \times 667})\alpha^{999}} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{1000} \frac{2i\alpha^{666}}{\alpha^{667}\alpha^{999}(\alpha^{-667} + \alpha^{667})} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{1000} \frac{2i}{(\alpha^{-667} + \alpha^{667})} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{1000} \csc\left(\frac{667\pi}{1000}\right) \end{aligned}$$

## 12 Argument Principle and Rouché's Theorem

**Definition 12.1.** (*Meromorphic*) Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a domain and take  $S \subseteq U$ . A function  $f : U \setminus S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is meromorphic on  $U$  if  $f$  is differentiable at every point of  $U \setminus S$ , and every point of  $S$  is a pole of  $f$ .

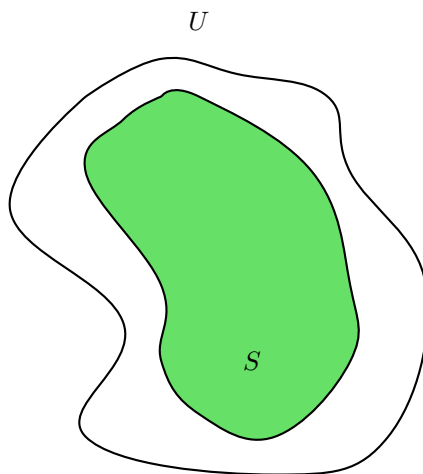


Figure 7: A Meromorphic function is holomorphic on  $U \setminus S$ .

**Theorem 12.2.** (*Argument Principle*) Let  $U$  be a domain and  $f$  be meromorphic on  $U$ . If  $\gamma$  is a simple positively oriented closed contour, such that,  $\gamma$  and its interior is contained in  $U$ , and  $\gamma$  passes through no zero or poles of  $f$ , then,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = Z + P$$

number of zeros in the interior of  $\gamma$       number of poles in the interior of  $\gamma$  (counted w/ multiplicity)

and the final main result of the course,

**Theorem 12.3.** (*Rouché's Theorem*) Let  $\gamma$  be a simple closed contour. Let  $f$  and  $g$  be holomorphic in a domain that contains the image and the interior of  $\gamma$ . Suppose for all  $z \in \gamma^*$  we have that,

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

then,  $f$  and  $g$  are non-zero on  $\gamma^*$  and  $Z_f = Z_g$ .

**Example.** Prove that all of the zeros of  $f(z) = z^5 + 7z + 12$  lie in the annulus,

$$A = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : 1 \leq |z| < 2\}$$

Let  $\gamma$  be  $D(0, 2)$  and we seek a function  $g(z)$  that approximates  $f$  well on  $\gamma$ ,

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

Take  $g(z) = z^5$  and hence, in  $D(0, 2)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z) - g(z)| &= |z^5 + 7z + 12 - z^5| \\ &= |7z + 12| \\ &\leq 7|z| + 12 \\ &= 26 \end{aligned}$$

and so now we consider  $|g(z)| = |z^5| = |z|^5 = 32$ . Hence, we have shown that,  $|f(z) - g(z)| < |f(z)| + |g(z)|$ . Hence, by Rouché's theorem, we can say that  $Z_f = Z_g$  on  $D(0, 2)$ . So we find all the zeros of  $g(z)$  on  $D(0, 2)$  and we can say that  $f(z)$  has 5 zeros on  $D(0, 2)$ . Now, let  $\gamma$  be the circular contour  $D(0, 1)$  and again  $f(z) = z^5 + 7z + 12$ . Now we want to select our  $g(z)$ . We take  $g(z) = 12$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z) - g(z)| &= |z^5 + 7z + 12 - 12| \\ &= |z^5 + 7z| \\ &\leq |z|^5 + 7|z| \\ &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

and as we can say that  $|g(z) = 12|$ , then using Rouché's Theorem we can say  $Z_f = Z_g$  and  $g(z)$  has zero zeros on  $f(z)$  on  $D(0, 1)$ .

Hence,

- $f$  has 5 zeros on  $D(0, 2)$
- $f$  has 0 zeros on  $D(0, 1)$ .

and so all of  $f$ 's zeros are in  $A$ .