# Complex Variables Based on lectures by Dr. Anandateertha Mangasuli

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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.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is how Dexter Chua describes his lecture notes from Cambridge. I could not have described mine in any better way.

# 1 Algebra

The set of complex numbers,  $\mathbb{C}$  forms a field with additive identity 0 and multiplicative identity 1.

**Definition 1** (Multiplicative inverse). The multiplicative inverse of  $z = x + iy \neq 0$  is given by

$$z^{-1} := \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} + i \frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2}$$

**Definition 2** (Roots).  $n^{th}$  roots of a complex number  $z = re^{i\theta}$  is given by

$$z^{1/n} := r^{1/n} e^{i\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n}}, \qquad (k \in \langle n \rangle)$$

**Definition 3** (Euler form).

$$e^{i\theta} := \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$$

where  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# 2 Topology

**Definition 4** (Open disk). An open disk centered at  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and radius R > 0 is the set

$$B_R(z_0) = \{ z \mid |z - z_0| < R \}$$

**Definition 5** ( $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood). An  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of  $z_0$  is the set( $\epsilon > 0$ )  $B_{\epsilon}(z_0)$ .

**Definition 6** (Deleted  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood). A deleted  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of  $z_0$  is the set $(\epsilon > 0)$   $B_{\epsilon}(z_0) \setminus \{z_0\}$ .

**Definition 7** (Interior, exterior and boundary points). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{C}$  and  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ .

 $z_0$  is an interior point of S if  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $B_{\epsilon}(z_0) \subset S$ .

 $z_0$  is an exterior point of S if  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $B_{\epsilon}(z_0) \cap S = \emptyset$ .

 $z_0$  is a boundary point of S if it is neither an interior point nor an exterior point.

Definition 8 (Open sets). A set is open if every element is an interior point of the set.

**Definition 9** (Closed sets). A set is closed if it contains all its boundary points.

**Definition 10** (Closure of a set). The union of the set and its boundary points.

**Definition 11** (Connected set).  $S \subset \mathbb{C}$  is connected if every  $z_1, z_2 \in S$  can be joined by a finite sequence of line segments lying inside S.

**Definition 12** (Domain). An open, connected set.

**Definition 13** (Bounded set).  $S \subset \mathbb{C}$  is bounded if  $\exists R > 0$  such that

$$|z| < R, \forall z \in S$$

### 3 Differential calculus

#### 3.1 Limits

**Definition 14** (Limit). Let f be defined in some deleted  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of  $z_0$ . If  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta \implies |f(z) - w_0| < \epsilon$$

then we say

$$\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z) = w_0$$

**Theorem 1** (Uniqueness of limit). Limit of a function at a point, if exists, is unique, i.e., if we find  $w_1, w_2 \in \mathbb{C}$  that satisfy the condition for the limit of a function at some  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $w_1 = w_2$ .

**Theorem 2.**  $\lim_{z\to 0} \frac{\bar{z}}{z}$  does not exist.

**Theorem 3** (Multivariable limits). Let f(z) = f(x+iy) = u(x,y) + iv(x,y) and  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ .  $\lim_{z\to z_0} f(z)$  exists iff the multivariable limits

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_0,y_0)} u(x,y), \ \lim_{(x,y)\to(x_0,y_0)} v(x,y)$$

exist. If they exist,

$$\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z) = \left(\lim_{(x,y) \to (x_0,y_0)} u(x,y)\right) + i \left(\lim_{(x,y) \to (x_0,y_0)} v(x,y)\right)$$

#### 3.2 Continuity

**Definition 15** (Continuity). Let f be defined in some  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ . f is said to be continuous at  $z_0$  if

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

provided the limit exists.

**Theorem 4.** Composition of continuous functions(at a point) is continuous(at that point).

**Theorem 5.** Continuous functions are bounded in open, bounded domains. Let  $R \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open and bounded. If f is continuous in R, then f is bounded in R.

**Theorem 6.** Let f be continuous at  $z_0$ . If  $f(z_0) \neq 0, \exists \epsilon > 0$  such that

$$f(z) \neq 0, \forall z \in B_{\epsilon}(z_0)$$

#### 3.3 Derivative

From now onwards,  $\Omega$  represents an open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  unless stated otherwise.

**Definition 16** (Differentiability).  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  is differentiable at  $z_0$  if

$$\lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$$

exists. This limit is denoted by  $f'(z_0)$  and is called the derivative of f at  $z_0$ . This is equivalent to

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z}$$

**Example 1.** Find the points where  $f(z) = e^{\bar{z}}$  is differentiable.

**Theorem 7.**  $f(z) = \bar{z}$  is not differentiable anywhere.

 $f(z) = |z|^2$  is only differentiable at z = 0.

**Theorem 8.** Differentiability(at a point)  $\Longrightarrow$  Continuity(at that point).

#### 3.4 Cauchy-Riemann equations

**Definition 17** (Cauchy-Riemann equations). Let  $u: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}, v: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ . The Cauchy-Riemann equations of u, v are given by

$$u_x = v_y$$

$$v_x = -u_y$$

provided the partial derivatives exist.

In polar coordinates, the equivalent set of equations are

$$ru_r = v_\theta$$

$$u_{\theta} = -rv_{r}$$

**Theorem 9.** If f = u + iv is differentiable at  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ , then u, v satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann(CR) equations at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

**Theorem 10.** If f is differentiable in an open and connected set  $\Omega$  such that  $f'(z) = 0, \forall z \in \Omega$ , then

$$f(z) = \text{constant}, \forall z \in \Omega$$

**Theorem 11.** f = u + iv is differentiable at  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$  if

- 1. The first-order partial derivatives of u(x,y), v(x,y) exist in some neighbourhood of  $(x_0,y_0)$ .
- 2. These partial derivatives are continuous at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .
- 3. u, v satisfy the CR equations at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

If these conditions are satisfied, we have

$$f'(z_0) = u_x(x_0, y_0) + iv_x(x_0, y_0)$$

Corollary 11.1. f = u + iv is differentiable at  $z_0 = r_0 e^{i\theta_0}$  if

- 1. The first-order partial derivatives of  $u(r,\theta), v(r,\theta)$  exist in some neighbourhood of  $(r_0,\theta_0)$ .
- 2. These partial derivatives are continuous at  $(r_0, \theta_0)$ .
- 3. u, v satisfy the CR equations at  $(r_0, \theta_0)$ .

If these conditions are satisfied, we have

$$f'(z_0) = e^{-i\theta_0} (u_r(r_0, \theta_0) + iv_r(r_0, \theta_0))$$

# 4 Analytic Functions

#### 4.1 Analytic functions

**Definition 18** (Analytic function). f is analytic at  $z_0$  if it is differentiable in some neighbourhood of  $z_0$ .

**Definition 19** (Entire function). A function is entire if it is analytic everywhere in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 20** (Singular point).  $z_0$  is a singular point of f if

- 1. f is not analytic at  $z_0$
- 2. f is analytic in some deleted neighbourhood of  $z_0$ .

**Theorem 12.** If f is analytic in  $\Omega$ , then it is continuous in  $\Omega$ .

**Theorem 13** (Rational functions). A polynomial is an entire function. A rational function is analytic everywhere in its domain.

**Theorem 14.** If f = u + iv is analytic at  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ , then u, v have continuous, partial derivatives of all orders at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

**Theorem 15.** f = u + iv is analytic in a domain  $\mathscr{D}$  iff

- 1. The first-order partial derivatives of u, v exist in  $\mathcal{D}$ .
- 2. These partial derivatives are continuous in  $\mathcal{D}$ .
- 3. u, v satisfy the CR equations in  $\mathscr{D}$ .

#### 4.2 Harmonic conjugates

**Definition 21** (Laplace equation). Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ . The Laplacian of f at  $(x_0, y_0)$  is defined as

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

evaluated at  $(x_0, y_0)$  and is denoted by  $\nabla^2 f(x_0, y_0)$  or  $\Delta f(x_0, y_0)$ .

The Laplace equation of f is given by

$$\Delta f = 0$$

**Definition 22** (Harmonic function).  $H: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  is harmonic in a domain  $\mathscr{D}$  if

- 1. First and second order partial derivative of H exist in  $\mathscr{D}$ .
- 2. H satisfies Laplace equation in  $\mathscr{D}$ .

**Theorem 16.** If f = u + iv is analytic in  $\mathcal{D}$ , then u, v are harmonic in  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Definition 23** (Harmonic conjugates). Let u, v be harmonic in  $\mathcal{D}$ . If they satisfy the CR equations in  $\mathcal{D}$ , v is called the harmonic conjugate of u in  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Theorem 17.** Let v(x,y) be a harmonic conjugate of u(x,y). The set of all harmonic conjugates of u is given by

$$\{v(x,y)+k\mid k\in\mathbb{R}\}$$

**Definition 24** (Level curve). Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  be a multivariable function.  $f(x,y) = c, c \in \mathbb{R}$  is called a level curve of f.

**Example 2.** Sketch the family of level curves of the real and imaginary parts of  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z-1}$ .

**Theorem 18.** If v is a harmonic conjugate of u, then their level curves always intersect orthogonally in the xy-plane.

**Theorem 19.** f = u + iv is analytic in  $\mathscr{D}$  iff v is a harmonic conjugate of u in  $\mathscr{D}$ .

**Example 3.** Let u(x,y) = 2x(1-y),  $v(x,y) = x^2 - y^2 + 2y$ . Show that v is a harmonic conjugate of u.

**Example 4.** Let  $u(x,y) = \cos x \cosh y$ ,  $v(x,y) = -\sin x \sinh y$ . Show that v is a harmonic conjugate of u.(Hint:  $\cos z$  is analytic, Definition 29Cosine functiondefn.29)

# 5 Important functions

# 5.1 Exponential

Definition 25 (Exponential function).

$$\exp(x+iy) := e^x e^{iy}$$

where  $e^x$  is the real exponential function.

Domain:  $\mathbb{C}$ Range:  $\mathbb{C}\setminus\{0\}$ Analytic:  $\mathbb{C}$ 

#### 5.2 Logarithm

**Definition 26** (Logarithm multi-valued function). Let  $z = re^{i\theta}$ .

$$\log(z) := \ln r + i\theta$$

where ln is the real logarithm function.

Domain:  $\mathbb{C}\setminus\{0\}$ Range:  $\mathbb{C}$ 

When we put in the restriction  $-\pi < \theta \le \pi$ , we get the principle logarithm Log(z).

**Definition 27** (Branch of logarithm). As the complex logarithm is multi-valued, we often restrict  $\theta$  to intervals of length  $2\pi$ . These functions are called branches of the logarithm function. We have already defined the principle branch.

**Theorem 20.** A branch of the logarithm function is analytic in  $\mathbb{C}\setminus\{x\in\mathbb{R}\mid x\leq 0\}$ .

Corollary 20.1. Log(z) is analytic if  $-\pi < \text{Arg}(z) < \pi$ .

Theorem 21.  $\frac{d}{dz} \text{Log}(z) = \frac{1}{z}, -\pi < \text{Arg}(z) < \pi$ 

#### 5.3 Power

**Definition 28** (Power function).

$$z^c := \exp(c \log z)$$

This is also a multi-valued function and its branches are defined by the branch of the logarithm in the function.

Domain:  $\mathbb{C}\setminus\{0\}$ Range:  $\mathbb{C}\setminus\{0\}$ 

Analytic: Any branch is analytic in its domain

Theorem 22.  $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z}z^c=cz^{c-1}$ 

#### 5.4 Trigonometric

**Definition 29** (Cosine function).

$$\cos(z) := \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}$$

Domain:  $\mathbb{C}$ Range:  $\mathbb{C}$ Analytic:  $\mathbb{C}$  **Definition 30** (Sine function).

$$\sin(z) := \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2}$$

Domain:  $\mathbb{C}$  Range:  $\mathbb{C}$  Analytic:  $\mathbb{C}$ 

Using these, we may define tan, sec, cosec. These are analytic in their domains. The complex trigonometric functions satisfy most of the relations satisfied by the real trigonometric functions.

# 5.5 Hyperbolic

Definition 31 (Hyperbolic cosine function).

$$\cosh(z) := \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}$$

Domain:  $\mathbb{C}$ Range:  $\mathbb{C}$ Analytic:  $\mathbb{C}$ 

**Definition 32** (Hyperbolic sine function).

$$\sinh(z) := \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}$$

Domain:  $\mathbb{C}$ Range:  $\mathbb{C}$ Analytic:  $\mathbb{C}$ 

Using these, we may define tanh, sech, cosech. These are analytic in their domains. The complex hyperbolic functions satisfy most of the relations satisfied by the real hyperbolic functions.

# 6 Integral calculus

#### 6.1 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

**Definition 33.** Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$  such that f(t)=u(t)+iv(t).

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t) \ dt := \int_{a}^{b} u(t) \ dt + i \int_{a}^{b} v(t) \ dt$$

Theorem 23.

$$\left| \int_{a}^{b} f(t) \ dt \right| \leq \int_{a}^{b} |f(t)| \ dt$$

**Example 5.** Let  $x \in [-1,1], \theta \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ . Show that

$$\left| \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x + i\sqrt{1 - x^2} \cos \theta)^n \ d\theta \right| \le 1$$

Theorem 24 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus).

1. Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$  be a continuous function.

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt \implies F'(x) = f(x), \forall x \in [a, b]$$

2. Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$  be a continuous function.

$$F'(t) = f(t), \forall t \in [a, b] \implies \int_a^b f(t) dt = F(b) - F(a)$$

**Example 6.** Evaluate(using a complex-valued function)

$$\int_0^{\pi} e^{2t} \cos t \ dt$$

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#### 6.2 Arcs and Contours

**Definition 34** (Arc). Let  $z:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$ . The set

$$C = \{z(t) \mid a \le t \le b\}$$

is called an arc in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

C is a **simple arc** in [a,b] if  $\forall t_1, t_2 \in [a,b]$ ,

$$t_1 \neq t_2 \implies z(t_1) \neq z(t_2)$$

C is a simple, closed arc or a **Jordan curve** in [a,b] if

1. C is simple in (a, b).

2. z(a) = z(b)

C is a differentiable arc if z is continuously differentiable in [a, b].

C is a smooth arc if it is differentiable and  $z'(t) \neq 0, \forall t \in [a, b]$ .

**Definition 35** (Orientation of arc). Let C be an arc as defined earlier. If z(t) moves in the counter-clockwise direction in the complex plane as t increases, C is said to be positively oriented. Otherwise, it is negatively oriented.

**Definition 36** (Reparameterization). Let C be the arc

$$C: z(t), t \in [a, b]$$

Let  $\varphi:[c,d]\to[a,b]$  be a continuously differentiable, strictly increasing bijective mapping such that

$$t = \varphi(s)$$

We get a reparametrization of C

$$C: Z(s), s \in [c, d]$$

where  $Z(s) = z(\varphi(s))$ .

**Definition 37** (Length of arc). Let  $C: z(t), t \in [a, b]$  be a differentiable arc.

$$\operatorname{length}(C) := \int_a^b |z'(t)| dt$$

Definition 38 (Contour). A piecewise smooth curve.

Contours in  $\mathbb{C}$  are analogous to intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ , in a sense that we will integrate functions along contours. The **negative of a contour** is defined as

$$C: z(t), t \in [a, b]$$

$$-C: z(-t), -t \in [-b, -a]$$

#### 6.3 Contour integral

**Definition 39** (Contour integral). Let

$$f:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$$

$$C: z(t), t \in [a, b]$$

f(z(t)) be a piecewise continuous function of t.

$$\int_C f(z) \ dz := \int_a^b f(z(t))z'(t) \ dt$$

Theorem 25.

$$\int_{C_1 + C_2} f(z) \ dz = \int_{C_1} f(z) \ dz + \int_{C_2} f(z) \ dz$$
$$\int_{-C} f(z) \ dz = -\int_{C} f(z) \ dz$$

**Example 7.** Let C be the contour consisting of the semicircle  $e^{i\theta}$ ,  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  along with the part of the treal axis  $x, x \in [-1, 1]$ . Let

$$f(z) = f(re^{i\theta}) = \sqrt{r}e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}} \qquad (r > 0, \frac{-\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{3\pi}{2})$$

Find  $\int_C f(z) dz$ .(Hint: Set f(0) = 0)

Theorem 26 (Bound of a contour integral). Let

 $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ 

 $C: z(t), t \in [a, b]$  be a contour of length L

f(z(t)) be a piecewise continuous function of t, i.e. it has an upper bound (Theorem 5thm.5) M > 0 in [a, b]. We have.

$$\left| \int_C f(z) \ dz \right| \le ML$$

**Example 8.** Let C be the right-triangle formed by the two axes and the line segment joining -4 and 3i, oriented anticlockwise. Show that

$$\left| \int_C (e^z - \bar{z}) \ dz \right| \le 60$$

**Example 9.** Let C be the circle |z| = R, R > 1, oriented anticlockwise. Show that

$$\left| \int_C \frac{\log(z)}{z^2} \ dz \right| < 2\pi \left( \frac{\pi + \ln R}{R} \right)$$

#### 6.4 Antiderivative

**Definition 40** (Antiderivative). Let f and F be defined in  $\Omega$  such that

$$F'(z) = f(z), \forall z \in \Omega$$

F is called the anti-derivative of f in  $\Omega$ .

**Theorem 27.** Antiderivatives, if exist, are analytic.

**Theorem 28.** If  $F_1, F_2$  are antiderivatives of f in  $\Omega$ ,  $\exists k \in \mathbb{C}$  such that

$$F_2(z) = F_1(z) + k, \forall z \in \Omega$$

**Theorem 29.** Let f be a continuous function defined on  $\Omega$ . The following statements are equivalent:

- f has an antiderivative F in  $\Omega$ .
- Let  $C_1, C_2$  be two contours in  $\Omega$  with the same end-points  $z_1, z_2$  and same orientation  $z_1 \to z_2$ .

$$\int_{C_1} f(z) \ dz = \int_{C_2} f(z) \ dz$$

In fact, this integral is equal to  $F(z_2) - F(z_1)$ .

• If C is a closed contour in  $\Omega$ ,

$$\int_C f(z) \ dz = 0$$

**Example 10.** Let C be the unit circle centered at 0 and  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ . Show that f does not have an antiderivative in its domain.

Can we find an antiderivative of f in some open subset of its domain? (Hint: Theorem 21thm.21)

**Example 11.** Let C be any simple contour with end-points -3,3 lying below the real axis, oriented  $-3 \rightarrow 3$ .

$$f(z) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\log z\right) \tag{0 < \arg z < 2\pi}$$

Find  $\int_C f(z) dz$ .

# 7 Cauchy's Theorem

#### 7.1 Cauchy's Theorem

**Definition 41** (Simply-connected domain). A domain  $\mathcal{D}$  is simply-connected if every simple, closed contour within it encloses only points in  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Theorem 30.** If C is a simple, closed contour, the set of points inside C form a simply-connected domain.

**Theorem 31** (Cauchy). Let f be analytic in a simply-connected domain  $\mathscr{D}$ . For any simple, closed contour  $C \subset D$ ,

$$\int_C f(z) = 0$$

**Example 12.** Let C be the unit circle. Find

$$\int_C z|z|^4 dz$$

**Corollary 31.1.** If f is analytic in a simply-connected domain  $\mathscr{D}$ , it has an antiderivative in  $\mathscr{D}$ .(Thoerem 29thm.29) Let F be the antiderivative of f in  $\mathscr{D}$  and C be any contour in  $\mathscr{D}$  with endpoints  $z_1, z_2$  and orientation  $z_1 \to z_2$ .

$$\int_C f(z) \ dz = F(z_2) - F(z_1)$$

Corollary 31.2. If f is analytic on and inside a simple, closed contour C,

$$\int_C f(z) \ dz = 0$$

# 7.2 Cauchy's Integral Formula

**Theorem 32** (Cauchy's integral formula). Let f be analytic inside and on a simple, closed, positive contour C. If  $z_0$  is a point inside C,

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

Hence, the value of the function inside C is completely defined by its value on C.

**Example 13.** Let C be the square whose sides lie along  $x = \pm 2$ ,  $y = \pm 2$ , oriented anticlockwise. Find

$$\int_C \frac{\cos z}{z(z^2+8)} \ dz$$

**Example 14.** Let C be the circle |z|=3, oriented anticlockwise.

$$g(z) = \int_C \frac{2s^2 - s - 2}{s - z} dz$$

Find g(2) and g(4).

Corollary 32.1 (Gauss' mean value theorem). Let f be analytic in  $B_r(z_0)$ .

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

**Lemma 32.1.** Let f be analytic inside and on a simple, closed, positive contour C. If  $z_0$  is a point inside C, f is infinitely differentiable at  $z_0$ . The  $n^{th}$  derivative of f at  $z_0$  is given by

$$f^{n}(z_{0}) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{C} \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_{0})^{n+1}} dz \qquad (n = 1, 2, \dots)$$

**Example 15.** Let C be the circle |z-i|=2, oriented anticlockwise. Find

$$\int_C \frac{dz}{(z^2+4)^2}$$

(Hint:  $z^2 + 4 = (z + 2i)(z - 2i)$ )

**Theorem 33.** If f is analytic at  $z_0$  then its derivatives of all orders exist and are analytic at  $z_0$ .

Corollary 33.1. Theorem 14thm.14

#### 7.3 Morera's Theorem

**Theorem 34** (Morera). Let f be continuous in  $\Omega$  and C be a closed contour in  $\Omega$ .

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0, \forall C \implies f \text{ is analytic in } \Omega$$

**Theorem 35.** Let  $\mathscr{D}$  be a simply-connected domain and f be continuous in  $\mathscr{D}$ . Let C represent a closed contour in  $\mathscr{D}$ .

$$\int_C f(z) \ dz = 0, \forall C \iff f \text{ is analytic in } \Omega$$

# 7.4 Cauchy's Inequality

Theorem 36 (Cauchy's inequality). Let

$$D_R(z_0) = \{ z \mid |z - z_0| \le R \}$$

$$C_R(z_0) = \{z \mid |z - z_0| = R\}$$

f is an analytic function in  $D_R(z_0)$  such that  $M_R$  is the maximum value of |f(z)| on  $C_R(z_0)$ .

$$|f^n(z_0)| \le \frac{n! \ M_R}{R^n} \tag{n = 1, 2, \dots}$$

**Example 16.** f is an entire function such that

$$|f(z)| \le A|z|, \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$$
  $(A \in \mathbb{R})$ 

Show that  $f(z) = az, a \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Lemma 36.1 (Liouville). A bounded, entire function is a constant function.

# 7.5 Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Theorem 37 (Fundamental theorem of algebra). Every non-constant polynomial has at least one zero.

#### 7.6 Maximum modulus principle

**Theorem 38** (Maximum modulus principle). If f is a non-constant, analytic function in  $\mathcal{D}$ , |f(z)| has no maximum value in  $\mathcal{D}$ .

Corollary 38.1. Let f be a non-constant, analytic function in a bounded domain  $\Omega$  such that it is continuous on  $\overline{\Omega}$  (closure of  $\Omega$ , Definition 10Closure of a setdefn.10). The maximum value of |f(z)| in  $\overline{\Omega}$  exists and lies on the boundary of  $\Omega$ .