## Week 4

## ???

## 4.1 Poles and Maximum Moduli

4/9: • Announcement.

- Midterm next week in class.
- Material up through today, though probably not much on today's content.
- Last time.
  - Cauchy integral formula: If U is a domain,  $D \subset\subset U$ , and  $z \in D$ , then

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

- This implies Riemann's removable singularity theorem, which states that if  $f \in \mathcal{O}(U \setminus \{z_0\})$  and f is bounded near  $z_0$ , then there exists a  $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{O}(U)$  which continues f at  $z_0$ .
  - Example:  $\sin(z)/z \in \mathcal{O}(\mathbb{C}^*)$  has a continuation to  $\mathbb{C}$ .
  - In particular, take the Taylor series at zero and evaluate:

$$\widehat{\frac{\sin(z)}{z}}(0) = 1 - \frac{0^3}{3!} + \frac{0^5}{5!} - \dots = 1$$

- Alternatively, if  $f \in \mathcal{O}(U \setminus \{z_0\})$  and  $|f(z)| \to \infty$  as  $z \to z_0$ , then  $z_0$  is a **pole** of f.
- Today.
  - Finish up what we couldn't last time.
  - Say something about harmonic functions.
- Meromorphic (function): A function  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f \in \mathcal{O}(U \setminus P)$  and each  $p \in P$  is a pole, where  $P \subset U$  is a finite set of points.
- Example: Consider  $1/z \in \mathcal{O}(\mathbb{C}^*)$ .
  - This has a pole at zero.
  - Thus, 1/z is holomorphic on the punctured plane  $\mathbb{C}^*$ , but meromorphic on the whole complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- Example: The same argument applies to  $1/z^k$   $(k \in \mathbb{N})$ .
- Example: The function from PSet 2, Q2c:

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

• It follows that

$$\{f: f \text{ is holomorphic}\} \subset \{f: f \text{ is meromorphic}\}\$$

- Fact: All of the examples kind of look the same.
  - More generally, suppose f has a pole at p and is holomorphic on  $U \setminus \{p\}$ . Pick a disk  $D \ni p$  such that  $f \neq 0$  on D. Then  $g = 1/f \in \mathcal{O}(D \setminus \{p\})$  and as  $z \to p$ ,  $g(z) \to 0$ .
  - Thus, we've got a function that's holomorphic and bounded near a point, so by Riemann's removable singularity theorem, it has a unique holomorphic extension  $\hat{q} \in \mathcal{O}(D)$ .
    - In particular, g(p) = 0.
  - Note: We do not need to choose D small enough such that it contains only one point in P.
     However, we will for the time being just to simplify things. The reason we can do this is because singularities as points of a finite set are isolated.
- There exists a power series for g about p such that

$$g(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - p)^k$$

- We know that  $a_0 = 0$  because g(p) = 0.
- It can also happen such that some (or [potentially infinitely] many) of the remaining  $a_i$  are zero.
  - Example: if  $f = 1/z^3$ , then  $g = z^3$  and  $a_i = 0$  (i > 3).
- Now let L be the largest natural number such that  $a_i = 0$  for all  $0 \le i < L$ .
  - Because  $a_0 = 0, L \ge 1$ .
  - Additionally,  $a_L \neq 0$ .
- Then we can rewrite the power series as

$$g(z) = (z - p)^{L} h(z)$$

where...

- 1.  $h(z) = \sum_{k=L}^{\infty} a_k (z-p)^{k-L};$
- 2.  $h(p) \neq 0$  (and h is nonzero near p).
- We say that g has a **zero** (of order L at p).
  - $\blacksquare$  Similarly, we say that f has a **pole** (of order L at p).
- Thus,

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-p)^L} \frac{1}{h(z)}$$

where, moreover,  $1/h \in \mathcal{O}(D')$  for some smaller disk D'.

- Example:  $1/(z^2+z)$  goes to z(z+1).
- Takeaway: Near any pole p, f must look like

$$\frac{1}{(z-p)^L} \cdot \phi(z)$$

where  $\phi$  is holomorphic around p.

- This implies that there exists a **Laurent series** expansion around any pole.
- In particular, near p,

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=-L}^{\infty} a_k (z - p)^k$$

• **Zero** (of order L at p): A point p of a holomorphic complex function g such that g(p) = 0 and  $g(z) = (z - p)^L h(z)$  where  $h(p) \neq 0$ .

- **Pole** (of order L at p): A point p of a holomorphic complex function f such that 1/f(p) = 0 and  $f(z) = 1/(z-p)^L h(z)$  where  $h(p) \neq 0$ .
- Laurent series: A power series including a finite number of negative coefficients. Given by

$$\sum_{k=-L}^{\infty} a_k (z-p)^k$$

- TPS: Consider  $\cot(z) = \cos(z)/\sin(z)$ , which has a pole at zero. What is the order of the pole? What is the Laurent series?
  - The pole is order 1.
    - One way to see this is to observe how  $\tan z$  has a nonzero tangent at 0, so  $\tan z = z + \cdots$ . Thus, we can only divide one z out of its power series.
    - Alternatively, we have

$$\cot(z) = \frac{1}{z} \cdot \frac{z}{\sin(z)} \cdot \cos(z)$$

from which we can observe that  $\cos(z) \in \mathcal{O}(\mathbb{C})$ , and  $\sin(z)/z \in \mathcal{O}(\mathbb{C})$  (at zero, the extension gives 1) so  $z/\sin(z)$  is holomorphic near zero. Thus, we can define  $\phi(z) = z\cos(z)/\sin(z)$ .

- What if we tried  $\tilde{\phi}(z) = z^2 \cos(z)/\sin(z)$ ? What's different? Well,  $\tilde{\phi}$  is still holomorphic, but  $\tilde{\phi}(0) = 0$ , which is a problem. Notice that  $\phi(0) = 1$ !
- As a last way, we could investigate the power series of  $\cot(z)^-1 = \tan(z)$  directly:

$$\tan z = z + \frac{z^3}{3} + \frac{2z^5}{15}$$

- The Laurent series was not discussed in class, but here's some comments.
  - It would begin from k = -1.
  - We could construct it from the power series for cosine and sine using Calderon's formula above.
  - Figuring out the formula for the power series of an inverted power series is a good exercise!!
- What if  $|f(z)| \to \infty$  as  $|z| \to \infty$ ? Then we say that f has a **pole** (at  $\infty$ ).
  - Otherwise, there exist sequences  $z_n \to \infty$  and  $w_n \to \infty$  such that  $f(z_n) \to \infty$  and  $f(w_n)$  stays bounded. This is an **essential singularity** (at  $\infty$ ).
  - We can mull over this until Thursday when we introduce the solution, the **Riemann sphere**.
  - If f(z) stays bounded, then f has a removable singularity (at  $\infty$ ).
- Pole (at  $\infty$ ): A function f such that  $|f(z)| \to \infty$  as  $|z| \to \infty$ .
- Essential singularity (at  $\infty$ ): A function f for which there exist sequences  $z_n \to \infty$  and  $w_n \to \infty$  such that  $f(z_n) \to \infty$  and  $f(w_n)$  stays bounded.
- Removable singularity (at  $\infty$ ): A function f that stays bounded as  $|z| \to \infty$ .
- We're now going to switch to a completely different topic.
- Suppose  $f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$ . When does |f(z)| get the biggest? Equivalently, where does |f(z)| take a local max? *Hint*: Look at the Cauchy integral formula!
  - There are no such points, at least on the interior of U!

• Theorem (maximum modulus principle): Let  $f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$ . If |f(z)| has a local maximum on U, then f is constant.

*Proof.* Let  $z_0$  be a local maximum of |f(z)|. Pick  $D \ni z_0$  small enough such that  $|f(z)| \le |f(z_0)|$  for all  $z \in D$ . Let r be the radius of D. Now invoking the CIF,

$$|f(z_0)| = \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial D} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z_0} d\zeta \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left| \int_{\partial D} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z_0} d\zeta \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\partial D} \left| \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z_0} \right| d\zeta$$

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

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

$$\leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot 2\pi \cdot \max_{\partial D} |f(\zeta)|$$

$$= \max_{\partial D} |f(\zeta)|$$

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

But since the above inequality begins and ends with the same value, all  $\leq$ 's must be ='s. Thus, in particular,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})| d\theta = |f(z_0)|$$
$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} (|f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})| - |f(z_0)|) d\theta = 0$$

Combining this with the fact that the above integrand is always  $\leq 0$  because  $f(z_0)$  is a local maximum, we have that

$$|f(z_0 + re^{i\theta})| - |f(z_0)| = 0$$
  
 $|f(\zeta)| = |f(z_0)|$ 

on  $\partial D$ . Note that this is true for all small  $\partial D$ 's centered at  $z_0$ .

Now since |f| is constant on  $\partial D$ , we must have that  $|f|^2 = f \cdot \bar{f}$  is constant on  $\partial D$ . Taking the Wirtinger derivative and using its product rule gets us

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (f \cdot \bar{f}) = f_z \cdot \bar{f} + f \cdot \bar{f}_z$$

Since f is holomorphic (hence satisfies the CR equations) and  $f_{\bar{z}} = \bar{f}_z$ , we have that

$$\bar{f}_z = f_{\bar{z}} = 0$$

Thus,

$$0 = f_z \cdot \bar{f} + f \cdot 0 = f_z \cdot \bar{f}$$

By the zero-product property, either  $f_z = 0$  and  $\bar{f} = 0$ . In the first case, this means that f is constant, as desired. In the second case, this means that f is zero (and hence constant), as desired.

At this point, we have shown that f is constant on a small disk. Therefore, we need only invoke the identity theorem, which tells us that since the function is constant for a little bit somewhere, it is constant everywhere.

• Another way to prove this is by considering the derivative of the Cauchy integral formula and where it's equal to zero.

- Corollary (minimum modulus principle): If  $f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$ ,  $f \neq 0$  on U (hence  $1/f \in \mathcal{O}(U)$ ), and |f(z)| takes a minimum in U, then f is constant.
- Application of the maximum modulus principle (the fundamental theorem of algebra): If p is a polynomial of degree d in  $\mathbb{C}$ , then p has d roots in  $\mathbb{C}$  (counted with multiplicity).

*Proof.* Suppose inductively that  $d \geq 1$ .

Step 1 (show that there exists one root): Suppose for the sake of contradiction that p has no zeros. Since p is a polynomial, we know that  $|p(z)| \to \infty$  as  $|z| \to \infty$ . Thus, there exists R > 0 such that for all z with |z| > R,  $|p(z)| \ge |p(0)|$ . Then |p(z)| must take a minimum on  $\overline{D}_R$ . But to keep p from being constant by the minimum modulus principle, the minimum has to be on  $\partial D_R$ . Now take a slightly bigger disk; our global minimum is now in the interior, so p is constant, a contradiction. It follows that p must have a zero in  $D_R$ .

Step 2: Suppose p has a root at  $z_0$ . Then power series for p at  $z_0$  is  $p(z) = (z - z_0)p_1(z)$ .  $p_1$  is a polynomial of degree d-1.

Step 3: Now iterate to find that p is a product of monomials.

- Algebraists love to prove this with only algebra, but in reality, the proof is complex analysis.<sup>[1]</sup>
- We did not get to say something about harmonic functions today, but Calderon will leave the content in his notes in case we want to look at it.
  - The statement: Harmonic functions follow a version of the CIF.
  - There's a related PSet problem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>How did this proof work??