MA 205 Complex Analysis: Some More Theorems

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I. For instance suppose there exists a constant C such that $|f(z)| \leq \frac{C}{|z'|}$ for sufficiently large |z| and for some r > 1 (here f(z) is an extension of f(x) to a function of the complex variable). Note that this happens for instance in the case when f(x) = P(x)/Q(x) where $\deg Q(x) \geq \deg P(x) + 2$. Then close up the interval with a semicircle into the upper half plane and integrate along the contour and take limit as the radius of semicircle goes to infinity. Use ML inequality to show that the integral along the semicircle goes to zero as radius goes to $\frac{1}{2}$

In case the integral is from 0 to ∞ , try and relate it to some integral from $-\infty$ to ∞ . For instance the function may have a natural continuation to the negative reals. In case this is not possible, often because f(x) has a singularity at origin; usually a pole, then try using a half annular region A(0; r, R) like we have done in earlier examples.

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Otherwise, try a rectangular contour and show that the integral over the extra sides goes to zero in the limit.

II. If the integrand is of the form $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} sin(x) dx$, where P(x) and Q(x) are polynomials with deg(Q(x)) at least one more than that of P(x), close up the interval by the semicircular region in the upper half plane and use Jordan's lemma to show that the integral over the semicircle goes to zero. (We have seen this when we integrated sin(x)/x).

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III. If the integrand is of the type $\int_0^{2\pi} P(\cos(t),\sin(t))dt$, set $z=e^{it}$ and use $\cos(t)=\frac{z+z^{-1}}{2}$ and $\sin(t)=\frac{z-z^{-1}}{2i}$. dt becomes $\frac{dz}{iz}$ and then the integral assumes the form $\int_{|z|=1} P(\frac{z+z^{-1}}{2},\frac{z-z^{-1}}{2i})\frac{dz}{iz}$ which can then be computed by using residue theorem.

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IV. If the integrand has infinitely many poles going to infinity, you are usually better off using a rectangular contour which emcompasses only finitely many poles.

As before one tries to show that in the limit, the integral over the extra added vertical sides goes to zero in the limit and the intergals over the two horizontal sides are related; usually proportional to each other. Thus taking limit as the length of the rectangular sides goes to infinity, one gets the desired answer.

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Fractional Residue Theorem : Suppose z_0 is a simple pole of f(z) and C_δ is an arc of the circle $|z-z_0|=\delta$ of angle α , then

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0} \int_{C_{\delta}} f(z) dz = \alpha i \operatorname{Res}(f(z), z_0)$$

Argument principle

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Argument Principle: Let γ be a simple closed contour contained in $\mathbb C$ and let f(z) be a meromorphic function on an open set containing γ and its interior such that γ does not pass through any of the zeros and poles of f(z). Then

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

where N and P denote the number of zero's and poles enclosed by γ with each zero and pole counted as many times as its order.

Argument principle

Proof: Let $z_1,...,z_r$ be the set of zeros of f(z) inside γ with multiplicities m_i at z_i and let $p_1,...,p_s$ be the set of poles of f(z) inside γ with multiplicites n_j at p_j . As in the proof of the residue theorem, we break up the integral into sum of integrals along each of the zeros and poles. Let γ_i 's be the loops around the zero's and Γ_j 's be the loops around the poles. Thus

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{i=1}^{r} \int_{\gamma_{i}} \frac{f'(z)dz}{f(z)} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \int_{\Gamma_{j}} \frac{f'(z)dz}{f(z)}$$

Consider the zero z_i with multiplicity m_i . Then locally around z_i , $f(z) = (z - z_i)^{m_i} g(z)$ for some holomorphic function g(z) with $g(z) \neq 0$ at any point inside γ_i . Then $\frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \frac{m_i}{z - z_0} + \frac{g'(z)}{g(z)}$. Since g(z) has no zero's in γ_i , it follows that $\int_{\gamma_i} \frac{g'(z)dz}{g(z)} = 0$ by Cauchy's theorem. Hence $\int_{\gamma_i} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = m_i$. Similar argument shows that every pole of order n_j contributes $-n_j$ to the integral. Hence we get $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_i} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = N - P$ as desired.

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Remark: The hypothesis |f(z) - g(z)| < |f(z)| on γ implies that f and g have no zeros on γ .

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Let us compute the number of zero's of $f(z)=z^6+11z^4+z^3+2z+4$ inside the unit disc. Take $g(z)=11z^4$. Then $|g(z)-f(z)|=|z^6+z^3+2z+4|<8$ on the unit circle. Hence |g(z)-f(z)|<|g(z)| on the unit circle. Hence g(z) has the same number of roots as f(z) inside the unit circle. But the number of roots of g(z) inside unit circle is 4 (counting mutiplicity) which therefore equals number of roots of f(z).

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Let us consider g(z) = -2z. Then

$$|g(z) - f(z)| = |e^z - 1| = |\sum_{1}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}| \le \sum_{1}^{\infty} \frac{|z^n|}{n!} = e - 1 < |g(z)|$$

on the unit circle. Hence by Rouche's theorem f(z) and g(z) have equal number of roots in the unit circle, namely 1.

Let us determine the number of zeros of $2z^5 - 6z^2 + z + 1$ in the annulus 1 < |z| < 2. Consider the open disc |z| < 1 bounded by the unit circle $C_1: |z|=1$. Taking $f(z)=2z^5-6z^2+z+1$ and $g(z) = -6z^2$, we find that $|f(z)-g(z)|=|2z^5+z+1|<|-6z^2|=6$ on C_1 . Hence f(z) has the same number of roots in the open unit disc as g(z) which is 2. Now consider the region |z| < 2 bounded by $C_2 : |z| = 2$. Then on $|C_2| |f(z) - 2z^5| = |-6z^2 + z + 1| < |27| < |2z^5| = 64 \text{ on } C_2.$ Hence f(z) has the same number of roots as $2z^5$ inside C_2 . Since $2z^5$ has 5 roots counting multiplicity in the region |z| < 2, it follows that f(z) has 5 roots inside the disc of radius 2. Therefore f(z) has 3 roots in the region $1 \le |z| < 2$. By the remark following Rouche's theorem, f has no zeros on |z| = 1 and hence f(z) has 3 roots in the open annulus 1 < |z| < 2as well.

FTA

Here's another quick and pretty proof of FTA using Rouche's theorem.

Let $f(z) = a_0 + a_1z + \cdots + z^n$ be a non-constant polynomial. Take $g(z) = z^n$. Then on a sufficiently large circle around 0 of radius R, |f(z) - g(z)| < |f(z)|. Hence f(z) and g(z) have same number of zero's in the disc of radius R. Since g(z) has n zero's, so does f(z)!

We now revisit a topic we studied at the beginning of the course, namely harmonic functions. Recall that a function u(x,y) of real variables is said to be harmonic if it is twice differentiable and $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$. It turns out that harmonic functions share many properties similar to holomorphic functions. We'll see some of them.

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Recall that if u is a harmonic function, then a harmonic conjugate of u is another harmonic function v such that u+iv is holomorphic. We saw some examples of computing harmonic conjugates and that time I commented that if the domain is "nice", then a harmonic conjugate always exists. The mathematical notion that replaces "nice" is simply connectedness.

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Proof: Let's dismiss the uniqueness first. Suppose u has a harmonic conjugate v. Let f(z) = u + iv. By CR equations, v_x and v_y are determined and hence v is determined upto a constant. To prove existence, let $g(z) = u_x - iu_y$. Then by CR equations, g(z) is holomorphic. Now fix $z_0 \in U$, and define f to be the anti-derivative of g:

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concludes that $\tilde{u}_x = u_x$ and $\tilde{u}_v = u_v$.

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Corollary: Harmonic functions are infinitely differentiable.

This follows since on a small open disc around each point, every harmonic function admits a harmonic conjugate by simply-connectedness of open discs. Since holomorphic functions are infinitely differentiable, the corollary follows.

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Theorem: (Mean-Value Property): Let u be a harmonic function on a disc of radius R. Then for any r < R, we have,

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In particular, *u* does not attain its maximum at any interior point unless it is constant.

Proof: Can assume w=0 without loss of generality. Since u is harmonic and the domain is simply-connected, there exists a holomorphic function f(z) such that Re(f)=u. By Cauchy's integral formula,

$$f(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=r} \frac{f(z)}{z} dz$$

Hence

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Identity Principle: Let u be a harmonic function on a domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$. If u=0 on a non-empty open subset $U\subseteq \Omega$, then u=0 throughout Ω .

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Proof: Set $f=u_x-iu_y$. Then as before, f is holomorphic on Ω . Since u=0 on U then so is f. Hence, by the Identity Principle for the holomorphic functions f=0 on Ω , and consequently, $u_x=u_y=0$ on Ω . Therefore u is constant on Ω , and as it is zero on U, it must be zero on Ω .

Identity Theorem

Remark: Recall that the identity theorem for holomorphic functions is stronger; namely if a holomorphic function vanishes on a set of points having a limit point, then it is identically zero. This is not true for harmonic functions. The function Re(z) vanishes identically on imaginary axis but is non-zero elsewhere.