

# Complex Analysis

Swayam Chube

July 14, 2023

### **Abstract**

The main reference for these notes is [Con78], which I find much more readable than [Ahl66].

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Preliminaries . . . . .	2
1.2	Power Series . . . . .	2
1.3	Analytic Functions . . . . .	4
1.4	Cauchy Riemann Equations . . . . .	6
1.5	Analytic Functions as Mappings . . . . .	7
<b>2</b>	<b>Complex Integration</b>	<b>9</b>
2.1	Riemann Stieltjes Integral . . . . .	9
2.2	Power Series for Analytic Functions . . . . .	17
2.3	Zeros of Analytic Functions . . . . .	21
2.4	Cauchy's Theorem . . . . .	23
2.5	Winding Numbers . . . . .	26
2.6	The Open Mapping Theorem . . . . .	28
2.7	The Complex Logarithm . . . . .	29
<b>3</b>	<b>Singularities and Residue Calculus</b>	<b>30</b>
3.1	Classification of Singularities . . . . .	30
3.2	Residues . . . . .	31
3.3	Argument Principle . . . . .	34
3.4	Runge's Theorem . . . . .	36
<b>4</b>	<b>Conformal Maps</b>	<b>37</b>
4.1	Schwarz Lemma and applications . . . . .	37
4.1.1	Automorphisms of $\mathbb{D}$ and $\mathbb{H}$ . . . . .	38
4.1.2	Upper Half Plane . . . . .	39
4.2	The Riemann Mapping Theorem . . . . .	39
4.2.1	Montel's Theorem . . . . .	39
4.2.2	Proof of the Riemann Mapping Theorem . . . . .	40
<b>5</b>	<b>Series and Product Developments</b>	<b>42</b>
5.1	Weierstrass' Theorem . . . . .	42

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Preliminaries

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a real sequence. Define the limit superior and the limit inferior of a sequence to be

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf\{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\}$$
$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup\{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\}$$

**Proposition 1.2.**  $\mathbb{C}$  is complete.

*Proof.* Let  $\{z_n = x_n + iy_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{C}$ . For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $m, n \geq N$ ,  $|z_n - z_m| < \varepsilon$ , and thus,  $|x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon$  and  $|y_n - y_m| < \varepsilon$ . Consequently, both the sequences  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$  are Cauchy and converge and therefore, so does  $\{z_n\}$ . ■

### 1.2 Power Series

**Definition 1.3 (Power Series).** Let  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ . A power series about  $a$  is an infinite series of the form  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - a)^n$  where  $\{a_n\}$  is an infinite sequence of complex numbers.

**Example 1.4.** The power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$  converges if  $|z| < 1$  and diverges if  $|z| > 1$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $|z| < 1$ . We shall show that the sequence of partial sums is Cauchy. Indeed, for  $m \geq n$ , we have

$$|z^n + \dots + z^m| < |z|^n \frac{1}{1 - |z|}$$

On the other hand, if  $|z| > 1$ , we shall show that the sequence is not Cauchy. If  $s_n$  denotes the  $n$ -th partial sum of the series, we note that

$$|s_{n+1} - s_n| = |z|^{n+1}$$

This completes the proof. ■

**Theorem 1.5.** For a given power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$ , define the number  $R \in [0, \infty]$  by

$$\frac{1}{R} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n}$$

then

- (a) if  $|z-a| < R$ , the series converges absolutely
- (b) if  $|z-a| > R$ , the series diverges
- (c) if  $0 < r < R$ , then the series converges uniformly on  $\bar{B}(a, r)$

This  $R$  is known as the radius of convergence of the power series.

*Proof.* For simplicity, let  $a = 0$  (this does not affect the correctness of the proof).

- (a) Since  $|z| < R$ , there is a real number  $r$  such that  $|z| < r < R$ . Consequently, by definition, there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $|a_n|^{1/n} < \frac{1}{r}$ . In other words, for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $|z|^n |a_n| < 1$ . It is evident from here that the partial sums form a Cauchy sequence.
- (b) If  $|z| > R$ , there is a positive real number  $r$  such that  $|z| > r > R$ , consequently, there is a subsequence  $\{n_k\}$  such that  $|a_{n_k}|^{1/n_k} r > 1$ . If  $A_n$  denotes the partial sums of the sequence, then  $|A_{n_k} - A_{n_k-1}| > 1$  and thus, the sequence is not Cauchy, and therefore, divergent.
- (c) There is a positive real number  $\rho$  such that  $r < \rho < R$  and a natural number  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $|a_n| < \frac{1}{\rho^n}$ . Consequently, for all  $z \in \bar{B}(0, r)$ ,  $|a_n z^n| < \left(\frac{r}{\rho}\right)^n$  and we are done due to the Weierstrass M-test.

■

**Theorem 1.6 (Mertens).** Let  $\{a_n\}$ ,  $\{b_n\}$  and  $\{c_n\}$  be complex sequences such that

- (a)  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely and  $\sum b_n$  converges
- (b)  $\sum a_n = A$  and  $\sum b_n = B$
- (c)  $\{c_n\}$  is the Cauchy product of  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$

Then,  $\sum c_n$  converges to  $AB$ .

*Proof.* Define  $A_n$ ,  $B_n$  and  $C_n$  in the obvious way. Further, let  $\beta_n = B_n - B$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} C_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n a_k B_{n-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n a_k (B + \beta_{n-k}) \\ &= BA_n + \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \beta_{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\gamma_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \beta_{n-k}$ . We shall show  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_n = 0$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Let  $\alpha = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n|$  (since it is known that it converges absolutely). From (b), we know that  $\beta_n \rightarrow 0$ , therefore, there is  $N$  such that  $|\beta_n| < \varepsilon/\alpha$  for

all  $n \geq N$ . Consequently, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\gamma_n| &\leq |\beta_0 a_n + \cdots + \beta_N a_{n-N}| + |\beta_{N+1} a_{n-N-1} + \cdots + \beta_n a_0| \\ &\leq |\beta_0 a_n + \cdots + \beta_N a_{n-N}| + \varepsilon \alpha \end{aligned}$$

Which immediately gives us

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma_n| \leq \varepsilon \alpha$$

and since  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary, we have the desired conclusion. ■

### 1.3 Analytic Functions

**Definition 1.7.** If  $G \subset \mathbb{C}$  is open, and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  then  $f$  is *differentiable* at a point  $a \in G$  if

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

exists. The value of this limit is denoted by  $f'(a)$  and is called the *derivative* of  $f$  at  $a$ . If  $f$  is differentiable at each point of  $G$  we say that  $f$  is differentiable on  $G$ . If  $f'$  is continuous then we say that  $f$  is *continuously differentiable*.

**Proposition 1.8.** If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is differentiable at  $a \in G$ , then  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ .

*Proof.* One line:

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} |f(z) - f(a)| = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{|f(z) - f(a)|}{|z - a|} |z - a| = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \left| \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a} \right| \lim_{z \rightarrow a} |z - a| = 0$$
■

**Definition 1.9 (Analytic Function).** A function  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is *analytic* if  $f$  is continuously differentiable on  $G$ .

**Theorem 1.10 (Chain Rule).** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be analytic on  $G$  and  $\Omega$  respectively and suppose  $f(G) \subseteq \Omega$ . Then  $g \circ f$  is analytic on  $G$  and

$$(g \circ f)'(z) = g'(f(z))f'(z)$$

for all  $z \in G$ .

*Proof.* Define the function  $h \equiv g \circ f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . We shall show that the function  $h$  is differentiable at every point  $a \in G$  and that the derivative at  $a$  equals  $g'(f(a))f'(a)$ . Notice that the latter implies analyticity.

Let  $z = f(a)$ . Then, by definition, we have functions  $u : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $v : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} u(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow z} v(x) = 0$  satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) - f(a) &= (x - a)(f'(a) + u(x)) \\ g(x) - g(z) &= (x - z)(g'(z) + v(x)) \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 h(x) - h(a) &= g(f(x)) - g(f(a)) \\
 &= (f(x) - f(a))(g'(z) + v(f(x))) \\
 &= (x - a)(f'(a) + u(x))(g'(z) + v(f(x)))
 \end{aligned}$$

Taking the limit gives the desired result. ■

**Theorem 1.11.** Let  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$  have radius of convergence  $R > 0$ . Then

(a) For each  $k \geq 1$ , the series

$$\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1) a_n (z-a)^{n-k} \quad (\star)$$

has radius of convergence  $R$

(b) The function  $f$  is infinitely differentiable on  $B(a, R)$  and furthermore,  $f^{(k)}(z)$  is given by the series  $(\star)$  for all  $k \geq 1$  and  $|z-a| < R$

(c) For  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(a)$$

*Proof.* It suffices to prove the theorem for  $a = 0$ .

(a) We shall prove it for  $k = 1$  since the general case would follow inductively. Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{1/(n-1)} = 1$ , it suffices to show that

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/(n-1)}$$

Note that we may write

$$f(z) = a_0 + z \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n z^{n-1}}_{g(z)}$$

It is not hard to argue that both  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  have the same radius of convergence, and thus  $\limsup |a_n|^{1/n} = \limsup |a_n|^{1/(n-1)}$ .

(b) Again, we shall only show this for  $k = 1$  since the general case would follow inductively. Define

$$s_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k \quad \text{and} \quad e_n = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} a_k z^k$$

Obviously,  $f = s_n + e_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $g(z) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n z^{n-1}$ .

Let  $w \in B(0, R)$  and choose a positive real number  $r$  such that  $0 < |w| < r < R$ . Let  $\delta > 0$  be chosen such that  $B(w, \delta) \subseteq B(0, r)$ . Choose any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Then, we have

$$\frac{f(z) - f(w)}{z - w} - g(w) = \left( \frac{s_n(z) - s_n(w)}{z - w} - g(w) \right) + \frac{e_n(z) - e_n(w)}{z - w}$$

Note that

$$\left| \frac{e_n(z) - e_n(w)}{z - w} \right| \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} |z^{k-1} + \dots + w^{k-1}| \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} kr^{k-1}$$

Since the series on the right is the trailing sum of a convergent series, there is  $N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N_1$ ,  $\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} kr^{k-1} < \varepsilon/3$ .

Similarly, there is  $N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N_2$ ,  $|s'_n(w) - g(w)| < \varepsilon/3$ . Finally, there is  $\delta' > 0$  such that for all  $z \in B(w, \delta')$ ,

$$\left| \frac{s_n(z) - s_n(w)}{z - w} - s'_n(w) \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

Putting these together, we see that for all  $z \in B(w, \min\{\delta, \delta'\})$ , and  $n \geq \max\{N_1, N_2\}$

$$\left| \frac{f(z) - f(w)}{z - w} - g(w) \right| \leq \left| \frac{s_n(z) - s_n(w)}{z - w} - s'_n(w) \right| + |s'_n(w) - g(w)| + \left| \frac{e_n(z) - e_n(w)}{z - w} \right| \leq \varepsilon$$

And we are done.

(c) Straightforward. ■

**Corollary 1.12.** If the series  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - a)^n$  has radius of convergence  $R > 0$  then  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $B(a, R)$ .

## 1.4 Cauchy Riemann Equations

Let  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be analytic and let  $u(x, y) = \Re f(x + iy)$  and  $v(x, y) = \Im f(x + iy)$ . Then, we must have, for all  $z \in G$ ,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + h) - f(z)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + ih) - f(z)}{ih}$$

The analyticity of  $f$  implies the differentiability of  $u$  and  $v$  and thus, the above equality is equivalent to

$$u_x + iv_x = f'(z) = \frac{1}{i} (u_y + iv_y)$$

or,

$$u_x = v_y \quad \text{and} \quad u_y + v_x = 0 \tag{CR}$$

Suppose  $u$  and  $v$  have continuous partial derivatives, in which case, recall that second order mixed derivatives exist and do not depend on the order of derivatives taken, that is,  $u_{xy} = u_{yx}$  and  $v_{xy} = v_{yx}$ .

Straightforward algebraic manipulation would yield

$$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$$

In other words,  $u$  and  $v$  are harmonic conjugates.



**Theorem 1.13.** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  and  $u, v : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  have continuous partial derivatives. Then  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  defined by  $f(z) = u(z) + iv(z)$  is analytic if and only if  $u$  and  $v$  satisfy (CR).

*Proof.* Suppose the functions  $u$  and  $v$  satisfy the hypothesis of the theorem. Let  $z = x + iy$ . We shall show that

$$\lim_{s+it \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + (s + it)) - f(z)}{s + it}$$

exists.

Define

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(s, t) &= (u(x + s, y + t) - u(x, y)) - (u_x(x, y)s + u_y(x, y)t) \\ \psi(s, t) &= (v(x + s, y + t) - v(x, y)) - (v_x(x, y)s + v_y(x, y)t)\end{aligned}$$

It is not hard to see, using (CR), that

$$\varphi(s, t) + i\psi(s, t) = f(z + (s + it)) - f(z) - (s + it)(u_x(x, y) + iv_x(x, y))$$

and hence, it would suffice to show that

$$\lim_{s+it \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(s, t) + i\psi(s, t)}{s + it} = 0$$

We have

$$u(x + s, y + t) - u(x, y) = u(x + s, y + t) - u(x, y + t) + u(x, y + t) - u(x, y)$$

Due to the Mean Value Theorem, there are real numbers  $s_1$  and  $t_1$  with  $|s_1| < s$  and  $|t_1| < t$  such that

$$u(x + s, y + t) - u(x, y) = u_x(x + s_1, y + t)s + u_y(x, y + t_1)t$$

Thus,

$$\varphi(s, t) = (u_x(x + s_1, y + t) - u_x(x, y))s + (u_y(x, y + t_1) - u_y(x, y))t$$

Using continuity, it is not hard to see that

$$\lim_{s+it \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(s, t)}{s + it} = 0$$

and a similar result can be obtained for  $\psi(s, t)$ .

This completes the proof. ■

**Theorem 1.14.** Let  $G$  be either the whole complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$  or some open disk. If  $u : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a harmonic function then  $u$  has a harmonic conjugate.

*Proof.* ■

## 1.5 Analytic Functions as Mappings

We shall suppose in this section that all paths are continuously differentiable.

**Theorem 1.15.** If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic, then  $f$  preserves angles at each point  $z_0 \in G$  where  $f'(z_0) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* Straightforward. ■

Maps which preserve angles are known as **conformal maps**. Thus, if  $f$  is analytic on  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  and  $f'(z) \neq 0$  for all  $z \in G$ , it is conformal.

**Definition 1.16.** A mapping of the form  $S(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}$  where  $S : \mathbb{C}_\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_\infty$  is called a *linear fractional transformation*. If  $a, b, c, d$  are such that  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , then  $S(z)$  is called a Möbius Transformation.

A Möbius Transformation is invertible, where

$$S^{-1}(z) = \frac{dz - b}{-cz + a}$$

## Chapter 2

# Complex Integration

### 2.1 Riemann Stieltjes Integral

The following definition is taken from [Rud53]

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $[a, b]$  be a given interval. By a partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  we mean a finite set of points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  where

$$a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b$$

Let  $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be monotonically increasing. Corresponding to each partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$ , write

$$\Delta\alpha_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1}) \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq n$$

Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be bounded. For each partition  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , let

$$M_i = \sup_{x_{i-1} \leq x \leq x_i} f(x) \quad m_i = \inf_{x_{i-1} \leq x \leq x_i} f(x)$$

Define

$$U(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta\alpha_i \quad L(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta\alpha_i$$

and

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} U(P, f, \alpha) \quad \int_a^b f d\alpha = \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} L(P, f, \alpha)$$

If the above two values are equal, we say that  $f$  is *Riemann-Stieltjes integrable* with respect to  $\alpha$  on  $[a, b]$  and denote the common value as  $\int_a^b f d\alpha$ .

**Definition 2.2.** A function  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  for  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is of *bounded variation* if there is a constant  $M > 0$  such that for any partition  $P = \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_m = b\}$  of  $[a, b]$

$$v(\gamma, P) = \sum_{k=1}^m |\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})| \leq M$$

The total variation of  $\gamma$ ,  $V(\gamma)$  is defined by

$$V(\gamma) = \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}([a,b])} v(\gamma, P)$$

**Proposition 2.3.**  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is of bounded variation if and only if  $\Re \gamma$  and  $\Im \gamma$  are of bounded variation.

*Proof.* Follows from the following inequality:

$$\max\{|u(t_k) - u(t_{k-1})|, |v(t_k) - v(t_{k-1})|\} \leq |\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})| \leq |u(t_k) - u(t_{k-1})| + |v(t_k) - v(t_{k-1})|$$

■

**Proposition 2.4.** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be of bounded variation. Then

- (a) If  $P$  and  $Q$  are partitions of  $[a, b]$  with  $Q$  a refinement of  $P$ , then  $v(\gamma, P) \leq v(\gamma, Q)$
- (b) If  $\sigma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is also of bounded variation and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  then  $\alpha\gamma + \beta\sigma$  is of bounded variation and  $V(\alpha\gamma + \beta\sigma) \leq |\alpha|V(\gamma) + |\beta|V(\sigma)$

*Proof.*

1. Let  $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$  be an interval in the partition of  $P$ . Let  $y \in Q \setminus P$  such that  $y \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]$ . Then, note that

$$|\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})| \leq |\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(y)| + |\gamma(y) - \gamma(t_i)|$$

giving us the desired conclusion.

2. Similar to above, we have

$$|(\alpha\gamma + \beta\sigma)(t_i) - (\alpha\gamma + \beta\sigma)(t_{i-1})| \leq |\alpha||\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})| + |\beta||\sigma(t_i) - \sigma(t_{i-1})|$$

Consequently,

$$v(\alpha\gamma + \beta\sigma, P) \leq |\alpha|v(\gamma, P) + |\beta|v(\sigma, P)$$

The conclusion is obvious.

■

**Definition 2.5 (Smooth, Piecewise Smooth).** A path in a region  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  is a continuous function  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow G$  for some  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . If  $\gamma'(t)$  exists for each  $t \in [a, b]$  and  $\gamma' : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is continuous, then  $\gamma$  is said to be *smooth*.  $\gamma$  is said to be *piecewise smooth* if there is a partition  $a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b$  of  $[a, b]$  such that  $\gamma$  is smooth on each subinterval  $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

**Proposition 2.6.** If  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is piecewise smooth then  $\gamma$  is of bounded variation and

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

*Proof.* We shall prove the statement in the case when  $\gamma$  is smooth on  $[a, b]$ . The general case follows from applying our proof to each piecewise smooth subinterval of  $[a, b]$ .

Let  $a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_m = b$  be a partition, denoted by  $P$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} v(\gamma, P) &= \sum_{k=1}^m |\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})| \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m \left| \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_k} \gamma'(t) dt \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^m \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_k} |\gamma'(t)| dt \\ &= \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt \end{aligned}$$

First, this shows that  $\gamma$  is of bounded variation and further,  $V(\gamma) \leq \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$ . We shall show the reverse inequality, which would prove the theorem.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\gamma'$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , it must be uniformly continuous, therefore, there is  $\delta > 0$  such that whenever  $|s - t| < \delta$ , we have  $|\gamma'(s) - \gamma'(t)| < \varepsilon$ .

Let  $a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_m = b$  be a partition with mesh smaller than  $\delta$ . Consequently, for all  $1 \leq i \leq m$ , we have for all  $t \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]$ ,

$$|\gamma'(t) - \gamma'(t_i)| < \varepsilon \implies |\gamma'(t)| < |\gamma'(t_i)| + \varepsilon$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} |\gamma'(t)| dt &= |\gamma'(t_i)| \Delta t_i + \varepsilon \Delta t_i \\ &= \left| \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \gamma'(t_i) - \gamma'(t) + \gamma'(t) dt \right| + \varepsilon \Delta t_i \\ &\leq \left| \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \gamma'(t_i) - \gamma'(t) dt \right| + \left| \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \gamma'(t) dt \right| + \varepsilon \Delta t_i \\ &\leq \varepsilon \Delta t_i + |\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})| + \varepsilon \Delta t_i \\ &= |\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})| + 2\varepsilon \Delta t_i \end{aligned}$$

Adding together all these inequalities, we have

$$\int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt \leq v(\gamma, P) + 2\varepsilon(b - a) \leq V(\gamma) + 2\varepsilon(b - a)$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary, we have the desired conclusion. ■

**Theorem 2.7.** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be of bounded variation and suppose that  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is continuous. Then there is a complex number  $I$  such that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that when  $P$  is a partition of  $[a, b]$  with  $\|P\| < \delta$ , then

$$\left| I - \sum_{k=1}^m f(\tau_k)(\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})) \right| < \varepsilon$$

for whatever choice of points  $\tau_k \in [t_{k-1}, t_k]$ .

This number  $I$  is called the *integral of  $f$  with respect to  $\gamma$  over  $[a, b]$*  and is designated by

$$I = \int f d\gamma$$

We first need the following lemma due to Cantor:

**Lemma 2.8 (Cantor).** Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a sequence of non-empty compact, closed subsets of a topological space  $X$  such that  $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq \dots$ . Then,

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k \neq \emptyset$$

*Proof.* Suppose  $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k = \emptyset$ . Define  $B_i = X \setminus A_i$ , then,  $\{B_i\}$  forms an open cover for  $A_1$ , consequently, has a finite subcover, say  $\{B_{n_1}, \dots, B_{n_k}\}$ . Now, since

$$A_1 \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^k B_{n_i} \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{n_k} B_j$$

This immediately implies that

$$A_{n_k} = A \cap \bigcap_{i=1}^{n_k} B_i = \emptyset$$

a contradiction. ■

*Proof of Theorem 2.7.* Since  $f$  is continuous, it must be uniformly continuous. Thus, we can find positive numbers  $\delta_1 > \delta_2 > \dots$  such that if  $|s - t| < \delta_m$ , then  $|f(s) - f(t)| < \frac{1}{m}$ . Let  $\mathcal{P}_m$  denote the collection of all partitions  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  with  $\|P\| < \delta_m$ . Note that we have  $\mathcal{P}_1 \supseteq \mathcal{P}_2 \supseteq \dots$ . Finally define  $F_m$  to be the closure of

$$\left\{ S(P) := \sum_{k=1}^n f(\tau_k)(\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})) \mid P \in \mathcal{P}_m, t_{k-1} \leq \tau_k \leq t_k \right\} \quad (\diamond)$$

We shall show that the following hold:

$$\begin{cases} F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq \dots \\ \text{diam } F_m \leq \frac{2}{m} V(\gamma) \end{cases}$$

The first sequence of containments follows trivially from the definition of  $\mathcal{P}_m$ . Recall that in a metric space,  $\text{diam } \bar{E} = \text{diam } E$  for all  $E \subseteq X$ . With this in mind, it suffices to show that the diameter of the set  $(\diamond)$  is at most  $\frac{2}{m} V(\gamma)$ .

We shall show that if  $P \in \mathcal{P}_m$  and  $P \subseteq Q$  are partitions of  $[a, b]$ , then  $|S(P) - S(Q)| < \frac{1}{m} V(\gamma)$ .

Choose any interval  $[t_{k-1}, t_k]$  in the partition  $P$  and let  $Q$  refine it as

$$t_{k-1} = s_0 < s_1 < \dots < s_n = t_k$$

Let  $\chi_1, \dots, \chi_n$  be a tagging of the refinement. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| f(\tau_k) \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma(s_i) - \gamma(s_{i-1}) - \sum_{i=1}^n f(\chi_i)(\gamma(s_i) - \gamma(s_{i-1})) \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{i=1}^n (f(\tau_k) - f(\chi_i))(\gamma(s_i) - \gamma(s_{i-1})) \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n |\gamma(s_i) - \gamma(s_{i-1})| \end{aligned}$$

Adding together these inequalities for each subinterval  $[t_{k-1}, t_k]$ , we have that  $|S(P) - S(Q)| \leq \frac{1}{m} V(\gamma)$ . Let  $P, R \in \mathcal{P}_m$  and  $Q$  be their common refinement. Then, we have

$$|S(P) - S(R)| \leq |S(P) - S(Q)| + |S(Q) - S(R)| \leq \frac{2}{m} V(\gamma)$$

From this it follows that  $\text{diam } F_m \leq \frac{2}{m} V(\gamma)$ . Now, since  $\text{diam } F_m \rightarrow 0$  as  $m \rightarrow \infty$ , it must be the case that  $\bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} F_m$  is a singleton set, containing a single complex number, say  $I$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $m > \frac{2}{\varepsilon} V(\gamma)$ . Choose  $\delta = \delta_m$ . Since  $I \in F_m$ , it must be the case that  $F_m \subseteq B(I, \varepsilon)$ , giving us the desired conclusion. ■

**Proposition 2.9.** Let  $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous functions and let  $\gamma, \sigma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be functions of bounded variation. Then for any scalars  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ,

1.  $\int_a^b \alpha f + \beta g \, d\gamma = \alpha \int_a^b f \, d\gamma + \beta \int_a^b g \, d\gamma$
2.  $\int_a^b f \, d(\alpha\gamma + \beta\sigma) = \alpha \int_a^b f \, d\gamma + \beta \int_a^b f \, d\sigma$

*Proof.* ■

**Lemma 2.10.** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be of bounded variation and let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. If  $a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b$  then

$$\int_a^b f \, d\gamma = \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_k} f \, d\gamma$$

**Theorem 2.11.** If  $\gamma$  is piecewise smooth and  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is continuous, then

$$\int_a^b f \, d\gamma = \int_a^b f(t) \gamma'(t) \, dt$$

*Proof.* It suffices to consider the case where  $\gamma$  is smooth, since the general statement follows by applying our result to each piecewise smooth component and adding them up using Lemma 2.10.

We have that  $\gamma = u + iv$  is smooth where  $u, v : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ; thus, both  $u$  and  $v$  must be smooth, furthermore,  $\gamma' = u' + iv'$ . As a result, it suffices to prove the theorem for  $\gamma$  being real valued and smooth. We shall require the fact that it is real valued to apply the Mean Value Theorem.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$  be such that for any partition  $P = \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b\}$ ,

$$\left| \int_a^b f \, d\gamma - \sum_{k=1}^n f(\tau_k) (\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})) \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$\left| \int_a^b f(t) \gamma'(t) \, dt - \sum_{k=1}^n f(\tau_k) \gamma'(\tau_k) (t_k - t_{k-1}) \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

for any choice of  $\tau_k \in [t_{k-1}, t_k]$ . Using the mean value theorem, choose  $\tau_k$  such that

$$\gamma'(\tau_k) = \frac{\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})}{t_k - t_{k-1}}$$

Consequently,

$$\left| \int_a^b f \, d\gamma - \int_a^b f(t) \gamma'(t) \, dt \right| < \varepsilon$$

and we have the desired conclusion. ■

**Definition 2.12 (Bounded Variation).** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a path. The set  $\{\gamma(t) \mid a \leq t \leq b\}$  is called the *trace* of  $\gamma$  and is denoted by  $\{\gamma\}$ . The path  $\gamma$  is said to be *rectifiable* if it is of bounded variation.

**Definition 2.13 (Line Integral).** If  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a rectifiable path and  $f$  is a function defined and continuous on the trace of  $\gamma$ . Then, the line integral of  $f$  along  $\gamma$  is

$$\int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) d\gamma(t)$$

**Theorem 2.14.** If  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a rectifiable path and  $\varphi : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$  is a continuous non-decreasing function with  $\varphi(c) = a$  and  $\varphi(d) = b$ . Then, for any function  $f$  continuous on  $\{\gamma\}$ ,

$$\int_{\gamma} f = \int_{\gamma \circ \varphi} f$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then, there is a  $\delta_1$  such that for all partitions  $P = \{c = s_0 < s_1 < \dots < s_n = d\}$  with  $\|P\| < \delta$ , and a tagging,  $\sigma_k \in [s_{k-1}, s_k]$ ,

$$\left| \int_{\gamma \circ \varphi} f - \sum_{k=1}^n f(\gamma \circ \varphi(\sigma_k))(\gamma \circ \varphi(s_k) - \gamma \circ \varphi(s_{k-1})) \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

furthermore, whenever  $s, t \in [c, d]$  with  $|s - t| < \delta_1$ ,  $|\varphi(s) - \varphi(t)| < \delta_2$  (note that we can do this since the function  $\varphi$  is uniformly continuous).

Choose  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $P = \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b\}$  with  $\|P\| < \delta_2$  and a tagging  $\tau_k \in [t_{k-1}, t_k]$ , then

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f - \sum_{k=1}^n f(\gamma(\tau_k))(\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})) \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Finally, let  $\sigma_k = \varphi(\tau_k)$ , then we have through a trivial manipulation that

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f - \int_{\gamma \circ \varphi} f \right| < \varepsilon$$

■

**Definition 2.15.** Let  $\sigma : [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be rectifiable paths. The path  $\sigma$  is *equivalent* to  $\gamma$  if there is a function  $\varphi : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$  which is continuous, strictly increasing, and with  $\varphi(c) = a$  and  $\varphi(d) = b$  such that  $\sigma = \gamma \circ \varphi$ .

A *curve* is an equivalence class of paths. A trace of a curve is the trace of any one of its members. A curve is smooth (piecewise smooth) if and only if some one of its representatives is smooth (piecewise smooth).

**Definition 2.16.** If  $\gamma$  is a rectifiable curve then denote by  $-\gamma : [-b, -a] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  the curve defined by  $(-\gamma)(t) = \gamma(-t)$  for  $-b \leq t \leq -a$ . This may also be denoted by  $\gamma^{-1}$  (although the former is more customary). For some  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ , let  $\gamma + c : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  denote the curve defined by  $(\gamma + c)(t) = \gamma(t) + c$ .



**Definition 2.17.** Let  $\gamma[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a rectifiable path and for  $a \leq t \leq b$ , let  $|\gamma|(t)$  be  $V(\gamma, [a, t])$ . That is,

$$|\gamma|(t) = \sup \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n |\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})| : \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n = t\} \text{ is a partition of } [a, t] \right\}$$

Define

$$\int_{\gamma} f |dz| = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) d|\gamma|(t)$$

**Proposition 2.18.** Let  $\gamma$  be a rectifiable curve and suppose that  $f$  is a function continuous on  $\{\gamma\}$ . Then

- (a)  $\int_{\gamma} f = - \int_{-\gamma} f$
- (b)  $\left| \int_{\gamma} f \right| \leq \int_{\gamma} |f| |dz| \leq V(\gamma) \sup\{|f(z)| : z \in \{\gamma\}\}$
- (c) If  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma+c} f(z-c) dz$

*Proof.* All follow from definitions. ■

**Theorem 2.19 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus for Line Integrals).** Let  $G$  be open in  $\mathbb{C}$  and let  $\gamma$  be a rectifiable path in  $G$  with initial and end points  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  respectively. If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a continuous function with a primitive  $F : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f = F(\beta) - F(\alpha)$$

We would require the following lemma in order to prove the above theorem

**Lemma 2.20.** If  $G$  is an open set in  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow G$  is a rectifiable path, and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is continuous then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a polygonal path  $\Gamma$  in  $G$  such that  $\Gamma(a) = \gamma(a)$ ,  $\Gamma(b) = \gamma(b)$  and  $|\int_{\gamma} f - \int_{\Gamma} f| < \varepsilon$ .

*Proof.* We shall divide the proof into two cases:

- **Case I:**  $G$  is an open disk, say  $B(c, r)$

Since  $\{\gamma\}$  is compact, there is  $\rho > 0$  such that  $\{\gamma\} \subseteq \overline{B}(c, \rho) \subseteq G$ . Consequently, we shall proceed with the assumption that  $G = \overline{B}(c, \rho)$ . Therefore,  $G$  is compact and  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $G$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then, there is a  $\delta_1$  such that whenever  $|s - t| < \delta_1$ ,  $|f(s) - f(t)| < \varepsilon$ . Similarly, there is  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that whenever  $|s - t| < \delta_2$ ,  $|\gamma(s) - \gamma(t)| < \delta_1$ .

Furthermore, due to Theorem 2.7, there is a mesh size,  $\delta_3$  such that for any partition  $P = \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b\}$  with  $\|P\| < \delta_3$ ,

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f - \sum_{k=1}^n f(\gamma(t_k))(\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})) \right|$$

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_2, \delta_3\}$  and  $P = \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b\}$  be a partition of  $[a, b]$  with  $\|P\| < \delta$ . Define the polygonal path  $\Gamma$  by

$$\Gamma(t) = \frac{1}{t_k - t_{k-1}} ((t_k - t)\gamma(t_{k-1}) + (t - t_{k-1})\gamma(t_k))$$

which is essentially the straight line joining the points  $\gamma(t_{k-1})$  and  $\gamma(t_k)$ .

First, note that

$$\int_{\Gamma} f = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})}{t_k - t_{k-1}} \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_k} f(\Gamma(t)) dt$$

Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\gamma} f - \int_{\Gamma} f \right| &\leq \varepsilon + \left| \sum_{k=1}^n f(\gamma(t_k))(\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})) - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})}{t_k - t_{k-1}} \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_k} f(\Gamma(t)) dt \right| \\ &\leq \varepsilon + \left| \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})}{t_k - t_{k-1}} \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_k} f(\gamma(t_k)) - f(\Gamma(t)) dt \right| \\ &\leq \varepsilon + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{|\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})|}{t_k - t_{k-1}} \left| \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_k} f(\gamma(t_k)) - f(\Gamma(t)) dt \right| \\ &\leq \varepsilon + \varepsilon \sum_{k=1}^n |\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})| \leq \varepsilon(1 + V(\gamma)) \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof for the first case.

- Case II:  $G$  is arbitrary

Since  $\{\gamma\}$  is compact, there is  $r > 0$  such that for all  $z \in \gamma$ ,  $B(z, r) \subseteq G$ . Using uniform continuity, there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\gamma(s) - \gamma(t)| < r$  whenever  $|s - t| < \delta$ . Let  $P = \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b\}$  be a partition with  $\|P\| < \delta$ . Define  $\gamma_k : [t_{k-1}, t_k] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Note that  $\{\gamma_k\} \subseteq B(\gamma(t_{k-1}), r)$  and thus, we can apply Case I to obtain a polygonal path  $\Gamma_k$  such that  $|\int_{\gamma_k} f - \int_{\Gamma_k} f| < \varepsilon/n$ . The conclusion is now obvious by pasting together all the  $\Gamma_k$ 's. ■

*Proof of Theorem 2.19.* Again, we divide the proof into two cases:

- Case I:  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is piecewise smooth.

Then, we trivially have

$$\int_a^b f(\gamma(t))\gamma'(t) dt = \int_a^b F'(\gamma(t))\gamma'(t) dt = \int_a^b (f \circ \gamma)'(t) dt = F(\gamma(b)) - F(\gamma(a))$$

- Case II: General case

Recall that a polygonal path is piecewise smooth. That is, for any polygonal path  $\Gamma$  that begins at  $\gamma(a)$  and ends at  $\gamma(b)$ ,  $\int_{\Gamma} f = F(\gamma(b)) - F(\gamma(a))$ . Since any rectifiable curve can be approximated by a polygonal path, we have a suitable  $\Gamma$  for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f - (F(\beta) - F(\alpha)) \right| = \left| \int_{\gamma} f - \int_{\Gamma} f \right| < \varepsilon$$

giving us the desired conclusion. ■

**Corollary 2.21.** Let  $G$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $f$  satisfy the same hypothesis as in Theorem 2.19. If  $\gamma$  is a closed curve, then

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

Recall that the fundamental theorem of calculus in real analysis claimed that each continuous function had a primitive. This is untrue in complex analysis. Consider the function  $f(z) = |z|^2$ . That is,  $f(x + iy) = x^2 + y^2$ . Suppose this has a primitive, say  $F = U + iV$ . Then, using **CR**, we must have

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} = x^2 + y^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = 0$$

This implies that  $U(x, y) = u(x)$  for some function  $u$ , but this gives

$$u'(x) = x^2 + y^2$$

which is obviously not possible.

## 2.2 Power Series for Analytic Functions

**Theorem 2.22 (Leibniz's Rule).** Let  $\varphi : [a, b] \times [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a continuous function and define  $g : [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by

$$g(t) = \int_a^b \varphi(s, t) \, ds$$

Then  $g$  is continuous. Moreover, if  $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t}$  exists and is a continuous function on  $[a, b] \times [c, d]$  then  $g$  is continuously differentiable and

$$g'(t) = \int_a^b \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t}(s, t) \, ds$$

*Proof.* We shall first show that  $g$  is continuous. Since  $\varphi$  is continuous, it is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b] \times [c, d]$ . Choose some  $t_0 \in [c, d]$ . Then, there is a  $\delta$  such that whenever  $|(s, t) - (s', t')| < \delta$ ,  $|\varphi(s, t) - \varphi(s', t')| < \varepsilon$ . Consequently, whenever  $|t - t_0| < \delta$ ,  $|g(t) - g(t_0)| < (b - a)\varepsilon$ . This implies continuity.

Fix a point  $t_0 \in [c, d]$  and choose any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Further, denote  $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t}$  by  $\varphi_2$ , which is given to be continuous, and thus, is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b] \times [c, d]$ . Let  $\delta > 0$  be such that whenever  $|(s, t) - (s', t')| < \delta$ ,  $|\varphi_2(s', t') - \varphi_2(s, t)| < \varepsilon$ . That is,

$$|\varphi_2(s, t) - \varphi_2(s, t_0)| < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $|t - t_0| < \delta$  and  $a \leq s \leq b$ . Therefore, we have

$$\left| \int_{t_0}^t \varphi_2(s, \tau) \, d\tau \right| < \varepsilon |t - t_0|$$

Note that  $\Phi(t) = \varphi(s, t) - t\varphi_2(s, t_0)$  is a primitive of  $\varphi_2(s, t) - \varphi_2(s, t_0)$ . Due to the fundamental theorem of calculus, we must have

$$|\varphi(s, t) - \varphi(s, t_0) - (t - t_0)\varphi_2(s, t_0)| \leq \varepsilon |t - t_0|$$

for all  $s \in [a, b]$  whenever  $|t - t_0| < \delta$ . This is equivalent to writing

$$-\varepsilon \geq \frac{\varphi(s, t) - \varphi(s, t_0)}{t - t_0} - \varphi_2(s, t_0) \leq \varepsilon$$

Integrating both sides with respect to  $s$ , we have

$$\left| \frac{g(t) - g(t_0)}{t - t_0} - \int_a^b \varphi_2(s, t_0) \, ds \right| \leq \varepsilon(b - a)$$

This shows that  $g$  is differentiable and

$$g'(t) = \int_a^b \varphi_2(s, t) \, ds$$

Obviously the right hand side of the above equality is continuous and thus  $g$  is continuously differentiable. ■

**Example 2.23.** Let  $z$  be a complex number with  $|z| < 1$ . Then,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{e^{is}}{e^{is} - z} ds$$

and equivalently stated, if  $\gamma : [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a closed path given by  $\gamma(t) = e^{it}$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{x - z} dx = 2\pi$$

*Proof.* Define the function

$$g(t) = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{e^{is}}{e^{is} - tz} ds$$

for  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ . Note that in this region, the function

$$\varphi(s, t) = \frac{e^{is}}{e^{is} - tz}$$

is well defined, since  $|e^{is}| = 1 > |tz|$ .

Using Theorem 2.22, we have

$$g'(t) = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{ze^{is}}{(e^{is} - tz)^2} ds$$

Consider the function

$$\Phi(s) = \frac{iz}{e^{is} - tz}$$

Notice that

$$\Phi'(s) = \frac{ze^{is}}{e^{is} - tz}$$

Then, using Theorem 2.19,  $g'(t) = \Phi(2\pi) - \Phi(0) = 0$ . Therefore,  $g$  is constant. The conclusion follows from calculating  $t = 0$ . ■

**Proposition 2.24.** Let  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be analytic and suppose  $\overline{B}(a, r) \subseteq G$  where  $r > 0$ . If  $\gamma(t) = a + re^{it}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ , then

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

for  $|z - a| < r$ .

*Proof.* It is not hard to see that without loss of generality we may suppose that  $a = 0$  and  $r = 1$ . Then, we would like to show that

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{f(e^{is})e^{is}}{e^{is} - z} ds$$

for  $|z| < 1$ . This is equivalent to showing

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \left( \frac{f(e^{is})e^{is}}{e^{is} - z} - f(z) \right) ds = 0$$

Define the function

$$\varphi(s, t) = \frac{f(z + t(e^{is} - z))e^{is}}{e^{is} - z} - f(z)$$

and  $g(t) = \int_0^{2\pi} \varphi(s, t) ds$ . We would like to show that  $g(1) = 0$ .

Note that the function  $\varphi(s, t)$  is well defined and continuously differentiable on the interval  $[0, 2\pi] \times [0, 1]$  (it is here that we use the fact that  $|z| < 1$ ). Then,

$$g'(t) = \int_0^{2\pi} f(z + t(e^{is} - z))e^{is} ds$$

Consider the function  $\Phi(s) = \frac{1}{it} f(z + t(e^{is} - z))$ . Trivially note that  $\Phi'(s) = f(z + t(e^{is} - z))e^{is}$ . Using the fundamental theorem of calculus, we have

$$g'(t) = \Phi(2\pi) - \Phi(0) = 0$$

Implying that  $g$  is constant on  $[0, 1]$ . Recall that we have already calculated

$$g(0) = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{f(z)}{e^{is} - z} - f(z) ds = 0$$

This completes the proof. ■

**Lemma 2.25.** Let  $\gamma$  be a rectifiable curve in  $\mathbb{C}$  and suppose that  $F_n$  and  $F$  are continuous functions on  $\{\gamma\}$  such that the sequence  $\{F_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $F$ . Then

$$\int_{\gamma} F = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} F_n$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then, there is a positive integer  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $|F_n - F| \leq \varepsilon/V(\gamma)$ . Then, we have (for all  $n \geq N$ )

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} F - F_n \right| \leq \int_{\gamma} |F - F_n| |dz| \leq \varepsilon$$

This completes the proof. ■

**Theorem 2.26.** Let  $f$  be analytic in  $B(a, R)$ ; then  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$  for  $|z-a| < R$ , where  $a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(a)$  and this series has radius of convergence  $\geq R$ .

*Proof.* Let  $z \in B(a, R)$ . Choose  $|z-a| < r < R$  and define  $\gamma$  to be the circle  $\partial B(a, r)$ . Then, using Proposition 2.24,

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

Now, note that

$$\frac{1}{w-z} = \frac{1}{w-a} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z-a}{w-a}} = \frac{1}{w-a} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{z-a}{w-a} \right)^k$$

Since  $w \in \{\gamma\}$ , there must exist  $M > 0$  such that  $|f(w)| < M$  for all  $w \in \{\gamma\}$  and thus

$$\frac{|f(w)||z-a|^n}{|w-a|^{n+1}} \leq \frac{M}{r} \left( \frac{|z-a|}{r} \right)^n$$

Due to the Weierstrass  $M$ -test, the power series converges uniformly for  $w \in \{\gamma\}$ . And due to the Weierstrass  $M$ -test, the power series converges uniformly for  $w \in \{\gamma\}$ . Therefore, we may write

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{w-a} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{z-a}{w-a} \right)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)^{k+1}} dw \right] (z-a)^k \end{aligned}$$

Define

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

Then, the power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$  converges to  $f(z)$  on  $B(a, r)$ . Consequently,  $f$  is infinitely differentiable at  $z$  and thus,

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(a)$$

Now, the characterization of  $a_n$  is independent of  $\gamma$  and therefore  $r$ . Consequently, this power series converges to  $f(z)$  whenever  $|z-a| < R$ . Therefore, the radius of convergence must be at least  $R$ . ■

**Corollary 2.27.** If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic and  $a \in G$ . Then  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$  for  $|z-a| < R$  where  $R = d(a, \partial G)$ .

**Corollary 2.28.** If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic, then it is infinitely differentiable.

**Corollary 2.29.** If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic and  $\bar{B}(a, r) \subseteq G$ , then

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

where  $\gamma(t) = a + re^{it}$  for  $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ .

**Proposition 2.30 (Cauchy's Estimate).** Let  $f$  be analytic in  $B(a, R)$  and suppose  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all  $z \in B(a, R)$ . Then

$$|f^{(n)}(a)| \leq \frac{n!M}{R^n}$$

*Proof.* Let  $r < R$  and  $\gamma(t) = a + re^{it}$  for  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .

$$|f^{(n)}(a)| \leq \frac{n!}{2\pi} \left| \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)^{n+1}} ds \right| \leq \int_{\gamma} \left| \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)^{n+1}} \right| |dw| \leq \frac{n!M}{r^n}$$

The result follows by letting  $r \rightarrow R^-$ . ■

**Proposition 2.31.** Let  $f$  be analytic in the disk  $B(a, R)$  and suppose that  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in  $B(a, R)$ . Then

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

*Proof.* It suffices to show that  $f$  has a primitive on  $B(a, R)$  whence, we would be done by Theorem 2.19. Due to Theorem 2.26, there is a power series representation for  $f$ ,

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

for  $z \in B(a, R)$ .

Define the function

$$F(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n+1} (z - a)^{n+1}$$

Notice that the radius of convergence of  $F$  is equal to that of  $f$  and  $F' = f$ . As a result,  $F$  is a primitive for  $f$  on  $B(a, R)$ . ■

## 2.3 Zeros of Analytic Functions

**Definition 2.32 (Entire Function).** An *entire function* is a function which is defined and analytic in the whole complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$ .

We immediately obtain the following result:

**Proposition 2.33.** If  $f$  is an entire function, then  $f$  has a power series expansion with infinite radius of convergence.

**Lemma 2.34.** No non-constant polynomial is bounded. That is, if  $p(z) = z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in \mathbb{C}[z]$ . Then,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} p(z) = \infty$ .

*Proof.* Trivial. ■

**Theorem 2.35 (Liouville).** If  $f$  is a bounded entire function, then  $f$  is constant.

In the proof of Liouville's Theorem, we shall require the following lemma:

**Lemma 2.36.** If  $G$  is open and connected and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is differentiable with  $f'(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in G$ , then  $f$  is constant on  $G$ .

*Proof.* Choose any  $z_0 \in G$  and let  $\omega_0 = f(z_0)$ . Define  $A = f^{-1}(\{\omega_0\})$ . Obviously,  $A$  is closed in  $G$ . Choose  $a \in A$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B(a, \varepsilon) \subseteq G$ . Pick any  $z \in B(a, \varepsilon)$  with  $a \neq z$ . Define  $g(t) = f((1-t)a + tz)$ . Note that  $g'(s) = f'((1-t)a + tz)(z-a) = 0$ , consequently,  $g$  is constant and therefore,  $f(z) = g(1) = g(0) = \omega_0$ . Therefore,  $B(a, \varepsilon) \subseteq A$  and thus  $A$  is open. This shows that  $A$  must be equal to  $G$ , completing the proof. ■

*Proof of Theorem 2.35.* Let  $M > 0$  be such that  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ . Choose any  $a \in A$ . Then, for any  $R > 0$ , applying Proposition 2.30, we have

$$|f'(a)| \leq \frac{M}{R}$$

Letting  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , we have  $f'(a) = 0$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ . We are now done due to the preceding lemma. ■

We may now prove the fundamental theorem of algebra:

**Theorem 2.37 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).** *If  $p(z)$  is a non-constant polynomial then there is a complex number  $a$  with  $p(a) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose not. Then,  $f(z) = \frac{1}{p(z)}$  is entire. Since  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} p(z) = \infty$ ,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = 0$ . Therefore, there is  $\varepsilon$  such that whenever  $|z| > \varepsilon$ ,  $|f(z)| < 1$ . This immediately implies that  $f$  is bounded on  $\mathbb{C}$ , consequently is constant. A contradiction. ■

Let us look at another application of Liouville's Theorem.

**Example 2.38.** Let  $f$  be an entire function with  $\Re(f)$  bounded above. Then,  $f$  is constant.

*Proof.* Consider the entire function  $g(z) = \exp(f(z))$ . Since  $|g(z)| = |\exp(\Re(f(z)))|$ , it is bounded and therefore, constant. Hence,  $f(z)$  takes values in a discrete set and owing to it being a continuous map, it must be constant. ■

**Theorem 2.39.** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region, and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function. Then the following are equivalent

- (a)  $f \equiv 0$
- (b) there is a point  $a \in G$  such that  $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$  for each  $n \geq 0$
- (c) the set  $f^{-1}(\{0\})$  has a limit point in  $G$

*Proof.* It is clear that  $(a) \implies (b) \wedge (c)$ . We shall show that  $(c) \implies (b)$  and  $(b) \implies (a)$ .

- $(c) \implies (b)$  : Let  $a$  be a limit point of the set  $f^{-1}(\{0\})$ . We shall show that  $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Let  $n$  be the smallest integer  $\geq 1$  such that  $f^{(r)}(a) = 0$  for all  $r < n$ . Now, there is  $R > 0$  such that  $B(a, R) \subseteq G$ , and thus there is a power series expansion around  $a$  for all  $z \in B(a, R)$ , given by

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k(z-a)^k$$

Define the function

$$g(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{n+k}(z-a)^k$$

Then  $g(a) = a_n \neq 0$ . It is not hard to see that  $g(z)$  is analytic in  $B(a, R)$ , as a result, there is some  $0 < r < R$  such that  $g(z) \neq 0$  for each  $z \in B(a, r)$ . But since  $a$  is a limit point of the set  $f^{-1}(\{0\})$ , there is some  $b \neq a$  in  $f^{-1}(\{0\}) \cap B(a, r)$ , and we have  $0 = f(b) = (b-a)^n g(b)$ , a contradiction. This shows that no such  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  can exist.



- $(c) \implies (b)$  : Let  $A = \{z \in G \mid f^{(n)}(z) = 0, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . We shall show that  $A$  is clopen in  $G$ . Indeed, let  $a \in A$ . Since  $G$  is open, there is  $R > 0$  such that  $B(a, R) \subseteq G$ . Let  $b \in B(a, R)$ . Note that  $f$  has a power series expansion around  $a$  that is valid for all  $z \in B(a, R)$ . Since  $a \in A$ , this power series expansion is identically zero, as a result,  $f(b) = 0$  and  $B(a, R) \subseteq A$  and  $A$  is open.

Next, let  $\{z_k\}$  be a sequence of points in  $A$  converging to  $a \in G$ . Then, using continuity of  $f^{(n)}$ , we conclude that  $f^{(n)}(a) = \lim f^{(n)}(z_k) = 0$  and  $A$  is closed. This completes the proof. ■

**Lemma 2.40.** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic such that  $f(G)$  is a subset of a circle. Then  $f$  is constant.

*Proof.* ■

**Theorem 2.41 (Maximum Modulus Theorem).** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function such that there is  $a \in G$  with  $|f(a)| \geq |f(z)|$  for all  $z \in G$ . Then  $f$  is constant on  $G$ .

*Proof.* Let  $r > 0$  be such that  $B(a, r) \subseteq G$  and let  $\gamma$  be the curve given by  $\gamma(t) = a + re^{it}$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{w-a} dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(a + re^{it}) dt \end{aligned}$$

and equivalently,

$$|f(a)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(a + re^{it})| dt \leq |f(a)|$$

As a result,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} |f(a)| - |f(a + re^{it})| dt = 0$$

since the integrand is a continuous nonnegative function of  $t$ , it must be identically zero. As a result,  $f$  maps the ball  $B(a, r)$  to the circle  $|z| = |f(a)|$ . Due to Lemma 2.40,  $f$  is constant on  $B(a, r)$ . Since  $B(a, r)$  has at least one limit point in  $G$  (say  $a$  for example), it must be constant on  $G$ . ■

## 2.4 Cauchy's Theorem

**Definition 2.42 (Homotopy for Closed Curves).** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  and  $\gamma_0, \gamma_1 : [0, 1] \rightarrow G$  be two closed rectifiable curves. Then  $\gamma_0$  is *homotopic* to  $\gamma_1$  in  $G$  if there is a continuous function  $\Gamma : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow G$  such that

$$\begin{cases} \Gamma(s, 0) = \gamma_0(s) \text{ and } \Gamma(s, 1) = \gamma_1(s) & 0 \leq s \leq 1 \\ \Gamma(0, t) = \Gamma(1, t) & 0 \leq t \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

We denote this by  $\gamma_0 \simeq \gamma_1 \pmod{G}$ .

**Lemma 2.43.** *The relation  $\simeq$  is an equivalence relation over the set of all closed curves in  $G$ .*

*Proof.* Standard proof from Algebraic Topology. ■

**Theorem 2.44 (Cauchy).** *Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be analytic. Let  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  be homotopic closed curves. Then*

$$\int_{\gamma_0} f = \int_{\gamma_1} f$$

*Proof.* Let  $\Gamma : I^2 \rightarrow G$  be the homotopy taking  $\gamma_0$  to  $\gamma_1$ . Since  $I^2$  is compact, so is  $\Gamma(I^2)$ . Consequently, due to the Lebesgue Number Lemma, there is  $r > 0$  such that for all  $a \in \Gamma(I^2)$ ,  $B(a, r) \subseteq G$ . Using the uniform continuity of  $\Gamma$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  such that whenever  $|(s', t') - (s, t)| < \delta$ ,  $|\Gamma(s', t') - \Gamma(s, t)| < r$ . Choose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sqrt{2}/n < \delta$ . Finally, let  $\gamma_t$  denote the curve  $\Gamma(s, t)$  where  $t$  is fixed and  $0 \leq s \leq 1$ .

Let  $Z_{i,j}$  denote the point  $\Gamma\left(\frac{i}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right)$  and  $Q_{i,j}$  denote the square  $\left(\frac{i}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right) \rightarrow \left(\frac{i+1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right) \rightarrow \left(\frac{i+1}{n}, \frac{j+1}{n}\right) \rightarrow \left(\frac{i}{n}, \frac{j+1}{n}\right) \rightarrow \left(\frac{i}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right)$ . We shall show that

$$\int_{\Gamma(Q_{i,j})} f = 0$$

which would imply the desired conclusion through a straightforward inductive process.

But since  $|z_1 - z_2| < \sqrt{2}/n < \delta$  for all  $z_1, z_2 \in Q_{i,j}$ , we can conclude that  $\Gamma(Q_{i,j}) \subseteq B(Z_{i,j}, r)$ , whence we are done due to Proposition 2.31. ■

**Corollary 2.45.** *Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $\gamma$  a closed rectifiable curve in  $G$  which is nulhomotopic. Then,*

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

for every analytic function  $f$  defined on  $G$ .

**Corollary 2.46.** *Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $\gamma_0, \gamma_1$  be path homotopic curves. Then,*

$$\int_{\gamma_0} f = \int_{\gamma_1} f$$

for every analytic function  $f$  defined on  $G$ .

**Corollary 2.47.** *If  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  is simply connected then  $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$  for every closed rectifiable curve  $\gamma \subseteq G$  and every analytic function  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .*

**Theorem 2.48.** *If  $G$  is simply connected and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic in  $G$ , then  $f$  has a primitive in  $G$ .*

*Proof.* Fix some basepoint  $a \in G$  and for each  $z \in G$ , define  $F : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as  $F(z) = \int_{\gamma} f$ . Due to the previous result, this function is well defined. We shall show that  $F$  is a primitive for  $f$  on  $G$ . Let  $z_0 \in G$ . Since  $G$  is

open, there is  $r > 0$  such that  $\overline{B}(z_0, r) \subseteq G$ . Note that this is a convex set centered at  $z_0$ , as a result, all line segments between two points are contained in it. Choose some  $z \in B(z_0, r)$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) &= \frac{1}{z - z_0} \int_{[z_0, z]} (f(w) - f(z_0)) dw \\ \Rightarrow \left| \frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) \right| &\leq \left| \frac{1}{z - z_0} \right| \int_{[z_0, z]} |f(w) - f(z_0)| |dw| \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Note that  $\overline{B}(z_0, r)$  is compact in  $G$  and thus,  $f$  is uniformly continuous. As a result, there is a small enough  $r > 0$  such that for all  $z \in B(z_0, r)$ ,  $|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon$ . And thus,

$$\left| \frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) \right| \leq \varepsilon$$

which implies the desired conclusion. ■

**Theorem 2.49 (Morera).** *Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be an open set and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a continuous function. If for every triangular path  $\Delta$  in  $G$ , the value of  $\int_{\Delta} f = 0$ , then  $f$  is analytic over  $G$ .*

*Proof.* Note that it suffices to show this in the case  $G = B(a, R)$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $R > 0$ , since for every  $a \in G$ , there is an open ball containing it and showing the analyticity of  $f$  every such ball would imply the analyticity of  $f$  on  $G$ .

Let  $[x, y]$  denote the straight line segment that begins at  $x$  and ends at  $y$ . Define the function  $F : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by

$$F(z) = \int_{[a, z]} f$$

We shall show that  $F' = f$ , which would imply the analyticity of  $F$  and therefore that of  $f$ . Choose some  $z_0 \in G$ . For any  $z \in G$ , we have

$$F(z) - F(z_0) = \int_{[a, z]} f - \int_{[a, z_0]} f = \int_{[z_0, z]} f$$

Then,

$$\frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) = \frac{1}{z - z_0} \int_{[z_0, z]} (f - f(z_0))$$

Choose  $r > 0$  such that  $\overline{B}(z_0, r) \subseteq G$ . Since  $f$  is continuous on  $G$ , it is uniformly continuous on  $\overline{B}(z_0, r)$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. There is  $\delta > 0$  such that whenever  $|z - z_0| < \delta$ ,  $|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon$ . Consequently, for all such  $z$ , we have

$$\left| \frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) \right| \leq \frac{1}{|z - z_0|} \int_{[z_0, z]} |f(t) - f(z_0)| |dt| \leq \varepsilon$$

This completes the proof. ■

**Theorem 2.50 (Goursat).** *Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be an open set and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be differentiable. Then,  $f$  is analytic over  $G$ .*

*Proof.* Due to Morera's Theorem, it suffices to show that for every triangular path  $\Delta = [a, b, c, a] \subseteq G$ , the value  $\int_{\Delta} f = 0$ .

We shall define a sequence of closed triangular regions  $\Delta = \Delta^{(0)} \supseteq \Delta^{(1)} \supseteq \dots$ . Obviously, since each triangular region is closed and bounded, it must be compact.

Divide the triangle  $\Delta^{(i)}$  into four congruent triangles using the midpoint of each side. Let the smaller triangles be denoted by  $\Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_4$ . Define

$$j = \operatorname{argmax}_{j \in \{1, \dots, 4\}} \left| \int_{\Delta_j} f \right| \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta^{(i+1)} = \Delta_j$$

We have

$$\begin{cases} \left| \int_{\Delta^{(i)}} f \right| \leq 4 \left| \int_{\Delta^{(i+1)}} f \right| \\ 2 \operatorname{diam} \Delta^{(i+1)} = \operatorname{diam} \Delta^{(i)} \\ 2V(\Delta^{(i+1)}) = V(\Delta^{(i)}) \end{cases}$$

Then, using Lemma 2.8,  $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} \Delta^{(i)}$  is singleton, say  $\{z_0\}$ . Choose some  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\left| \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f'(z_0) \right| < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $|z - z_0| < \delta$ . Choose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\operatorname{diam} \Delta^{(n)} = \frac{1}{2^n} \operatorname{diam} \Delta < \delta$ . Therefore,  $\Delta^{(n)} \subseteq B(z_0, \delta)$ . Then, we have

$$\int_{\Delta^{(n)}} f = \int_{\Delta^{(n)}} f(z) - f(z_0) - (z - z_0)f'(z_0) dz$$

whence

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Delta^{(n)}} f \right| &= \left| \int_{\Delta^{(n)}} f(z) - f(z_0) - (z - z_0)f'(z_0) dz \right| \\ &\leq \int_{\Delta^{(n)}} |f(z) - f(z_0) - (z - z_0)f'(z_0)| |dz| \\ &\leq \int_{\Delta^{(n)}} \varepsilon |z - z_0| |dz| \\ &\leq \varepsilon \operatorname{diam} \Delta^{(n)} V(\Delta^{(n)}) \\ &= \varepsilon (\operatorname{diam} \Delta) V(\Delta) \frac{1}{4^n} \end{aligned}$$

from which it follows that

$$\left| \int_{\Delta} f \right| \leq 4^n \left| \int_{\Delta^{(n)}} f \right| \leq \varepsilon (\operatorname{diam} \Delta) V(\Delta)$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  was arbitrary, we have the desired conclusion. ■

Due to Theorem 2.50, we may redefine an analytic function in its more accepted definition.

**Definition 2.51 (Analytic).** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be open. Then  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is said to be analytic if it is differentiable over  $G$ .

## 2.5 Winding Numbers

**Proposition 2.52.** If  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a closed rectifiable curve and  $a \notin \{\gamma\}$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z - a}$$

is an integer.

*Proof.* The proof is divided into two parts. First, we prove the statement of the proposition for all piecewise smooth curves.

- Case I:  $\gamma$  is piecewise smooth
- Case II:  $\gamma$  is an arbitrary rectifiable curve

■

**Definition 2.53 (Winding Number).** If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in  $\mathbb{C}$  then for  $a \notin \{\gamma\}$ ,

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

is called the *winding number* of  $\gamma$  around  $a$ .

**Theorem 2.54 (Cauchy's Integral Formula).** Let  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be analytic and  $\gamma \subseteq G$  be a nulhomotopic rectifiable closed contour. Then, for  $a \notin \{\gamma\}$ ,

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

*Proof.* Note that the function  $f(z) - f(a)$  is analytic and has a zero at  $z = a$ , therefore, there is an analytic function  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) - f(a) = g(z)(z - a)$ . From here, we have that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} g(z) = 0$$

and therefore,

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

where the last equality follows from the definition of the winding number.

■

**Lemma 2.55.** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $\gamma \subseteq G$  be a closed rectifiable contour and  $\varphi : \{\gamma\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. For each positive integer  $m$ , let

$$F_m(z) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\varphi(w)}{(w - z)^m} dw$$

Then  $F_m$  is analytic on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{\gamma\}$ . Furthermore,  $F'_m(z) = mF_{m+1}(z)$ .

*Proof.* Fix some  $a \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{\gamma\}$ . Now, there is  $R > 0$  such that  $B(a, R) \subseteq \mathbb{C} \setminus \{\gamma\}$ . Consider some  $z \in B(a, R)$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} F_m(z) - F_m(a) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \varphi(w) \left[ \frac{1}{(w-z)^m} - \frac{1}{(w-a)^m} \right] dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \varphi(w) \left( \frac{1}{w-z} - \frac{1}{w-a} \right) \left( \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{(w-z)^k (w-a)^{m-k-1}} \right) dw \\ &= \frac{z-a}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \varphi(w) \left( \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{(w-z)^k (w-a)^{m+1-k}} \right) dw \end{aligned}$$

From here, it follows that

$$\frac{F_m(z) - F_m(a)}{z-a} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \varphi(w) \left( \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{(w-z)^k (w-a)^{m+1-k}} \right) dw$$

in the limit  $z \rightarrow a$ , we get

$$F'_m(z) = \frac{m}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{\varphi(w)}{(w-a)^m} dw = mF_{m+1}(z)$$

It is now easy to see that the function is analytic. ■

**Theorem 2.56 (Extended Cauchy's Integral Formula).** Let  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function and  $\gamma \subseteq G$  be a closed contour of bounded variation. Then, for every  $a \in G \setminus \{\gamma\}$ , and every nonnegative integer  $n$ ,

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

*Proof.* Follows from the above lemma. ■

## 2.6 The Open Mapping Theorem

**Theorem 2.57.** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be analytic having zeros  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  counting multiplicity in  $G$ . Then, for any closed curve  $\gamma \subseteq G$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^n n(\gamma; a_k)$$

*Proof.* Recall that if  $f$  has a zero at  $z = a$ , then there is an analytic function  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = (z-a)g(z)$ . Continuing this way, we have an analytic function  $h : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = \prod_{k=1}^n (z-a_k)h(z)$ . Then,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{z-a_k} + \frac{h'(z)}{h(z)}$$

Since the function  $h$  has no zeros in  $G$ , the function  $h'/h$  is analytic on  $G$  and therefore, the integral is 0. The conclusion now follows. ■

**Lemma 2.58.** Let  $f$  be analytic on  $B(a, R)$  for some  $R > 0$ . If  $f(z) - \alpha$  has a zero of order  $m$  at  $z = a$ , then there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$  such that for  $0 < |\zeta - \alpha| < \delta$ , the equation  $f(z) = \zeta$  has exactly  $m$  simple roots in  $B(a, \varepsilon)$ .

*Proof.* ■

In particular, if  $m \geq 1$ , then for each  $\zeta \in B(\alpha, \delta)$ , there is a corresponding  $\xi \in B(a, \varepsilon)$  such that  $f(\xi) = \zeta$ . Therefore,  $B(\alpha, \delta) \subseteq f(B(a, \varepsilon))$ .

**Theorem 2.59 (Open Mapping Theorem).** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be analytic. Let  $U$  be open in  $G$ . Then  $f(U)$  is open in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

*Proof.* Choose some  $a \in U$ . Then, there is some  $R > 0$  such that  $B(a, R) \subseteq U$ . Due to Theorem 2.57 and the remark following it, there is  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B(f(a), \delta) \subseteq f(B(a, \varepsilon))$ . The conclusion is immediate now. ■

**Corollary 2.60.** Suppose  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is one-one, analytic and  $f(G) = \Omega$ . Then  $f^{-1} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic and  $(f^{-1})'(\omega) = f'(z)^{-1}$  where  $\omega = f(z)$ .

*Proof.* From Theorem 2.59, it is immediate that  $f$  is a homeomorphism. Let  $g = f^{-1}$ . We have  $g \circ f = \text{id}$ , from which the conclusion follows. ■

## 2.7 The Complex Logarithm

In this section, we shall construct the complex logarithm, which is an inverse function to the analytic function  $\exp : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . In particular, we shall prove a more general theorem, which would immediately imply the existence of the complex logarithm.

**Theorem 2.61.** Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a simply connected region and  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function which does not vanish on  $\Omega$ . Then, there is an analytic function  $g : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = e^{g(z)}$  for all  $z \in \Omega$ .

*Proof.* Fix a basepoint  $z_0 \in \Omega$  and define

$$g(z) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz + c_0$$

where  $\gamma$  is any path from  $z_0$  to  $z$  and  $c_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  is such that  $e^{c_0} = f(z_0)$ , which exists since  $f$  does not vanish on  $\Omega$ . Further, since  $f'/f$  is analytic on  $\Omega$ , the function  $g$  is analytic on  $\Omega$ .

Consider the analytic function  $h = fe^{-g}$  on  $\Omega$ . Differentiating this function, we have

$$h'(z) = f'(z)e^{-g(z)} - f(z)g'(z)e^{-g(z)} = 0$$

whence  $h$  is constant on  $\Omega$ . Since  $h(z_0) = 1$ , we are done. ■

Note that the domain being simply connected is essential lest there be an analytic function  $g : \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $e^{g(z)} = 1/z$ , which is a contradiction, since the integral of the former over the unit circle is zero while the integral of the latter is  $2\pi i$ .

With the above theorem in hand, we may define arbitrary powers of an analytic function on a simply connected region. Indeed, let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , then, we may define

$$z^\alpha = e^{\alpha \log z}$$

where  $\log$  is a branch of the logarithm in the aforementioned simply connected region.

## Chapter 3

# Singularities and Residue Calculus

### 3.1 Classification of Singularities

**Definition 3.1.** A function  $f$  has an *isolated singularity* at a point  $z = a$  if there is  $R > 0$  such that  $f$  is analytic on  $0 < |z - a| < R$ . The point  $a$  is called a *removable singularity* if there is an analytic function  $g : B(a, R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = g(z)$  for  $0 < |z - a| < R$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** If  $f$  has an isolated singularity at  $a$ , then the point  $z = a$  is a removable singularity if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a)f(z) = 0$$

*Proof.* The forward direction is obvious. We shall show the reverse direction, that is, suppose  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a)f(z) = 0$ . There is  $R > 0$  such that  $f$  is analytic in  $0 < |z - a| < R$ . Now, define the function  $g : B(a, R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $g(z) = (z - a)f(z)$ . It is obvious that  $g$  is continuous. It suffices to show that  $g$  is analytic, since then, there would exist an analytic function  $h$  such that  $g(z) = (z - a)h(z)$ , implying the desired conclusion.

To show that  $g$  is analytic, we shall use Morera's Theorem. Let  $T$  be a triangle in  $B(a, R)$ . Note that since this region is convex, it suffices to choose any three points  $a, b, c$  in the interior and they would form a valid triangle. Let  $\Delta$  denote the interior of  $T$ . If  $a \notin \Delta$ , then  $T$  is nulhomotopic and due to Theorem 2.44, the integral  $\int_T g$  must be zero.

Next, if  $a$  is a vertex of the triangle, say  $[a, b, c, a]$ , then for any points  $x$  and  $y$  on the line segments  $[a, b]$  and  $[a, c]$ ,

$$\int_{[a,b,c,a]} g = \int_{[a,x,y]} g + \int_{[x,b,c,y]} g = \int_{[a,x,y]} g$$

where the last equality follows from Theorem 2.44. Since  $g$  is continuous, there is  $r > 0$  such that for all  $t \in B(a, r)$ ,  $|g(t)| < \varepsilon$ . And thus,  $|\int_{[a,x,y]} g| < \varepsilon \ell$  where  $\ell$  is the perimeter of  $T$ . It is now obvious that the integral must be zero.

Finally, suppose  $a \in \Delta$  where  $T = [b, c, d, b]$ . The integral is now given by

$$\int_{[b,c,d,a]} g = \int_{[a,b,c,a]} g + \int_{[a,c,d,a]} g + \int_{[a,d,b,a]} g = 0$$

This completes the proof. ■

**Definition 3.3 (Pole, Essential Singularity).** If  $z = a$  is an isolated singularity of  $f$ , then  $a$  is a *pole* of  $f$  if  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} |f(z)| = \infty$ . If an isolated singularity is neither a pole nor a removable singularity, it is then



called an *essential singularity*.

**Theorem 3.4.** Let  $f : G \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be analytic with a pole at  $z = a$ . Then there is an analytic function  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and a positive integer  $m$  such that

$$f(z) = \frac{g(z)}{(z-a)^m} \quad \text{on } G \setminus \{a\}$$

and  $g(a) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* Consider the analytic function  $h : G \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  given by  $h = \frac{1}{f}$ . Then it is obvious that  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) = 0$ , as a result,  $f$  has a removable singularity at  $z = a$ , and thus, there is an analytic function  $\tilde{h} : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $h = \tilde{h}$  on  $G$ . Now, since  $\tilde{h}(a) = 0$ , there is a positive integer  $m$  and an analytic function  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $\tilde{h}(z) = (z-a)^m g(z)$ . As a result, we see that

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-a)^m} \frac{1}{g(z)}$$

and the conclusion follows. ■

**Definition 3.5.** If  $f$  has a pole at  $z = a$ , and  $m$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $f(z)(z-a)^m$  has a removable singularity at  $z = a$ , then  $f$  is said to have a *pole of order  $m$*  at  $z = a$ .

**Definition 3.6.** Let  $\{z_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$  be a doubly infinite sequence of complex numbers. We say that  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} z_n$  is *absolutely convergent* if both  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_{-n}$  are absolutely convergent.

We denote the annular region  $R_1 < |z-a| < R_2$  by  $\text{ann}(a, R_1, R_2)$ .

**Theorem 3.7 (Laurent Series Development).** Let  $f$  be analytic on  $\text{ann}(a, R_1, R_2)$ . Then

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

where the convergence is absolute and uniform over  $\overline{\text{ann}}(a, r_1, r_2)$  for  $R_1 < r_1 < r_2 < R_2$ . Also the coefficients  $a_n$  are given by the formula

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

where  $\gamma$  is the circle  $|z-a| = r$  for all  $R_1 < r < R_2$ . Furthermore, this series is unique.

*Proof.* ■

## 3.2 Residues

**Definition 3.8.** Let  $f$  have an isolated singularity at  $z = a$  and let

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

be its Laurent expansion about  $z = a$ . Then the *residue* of  $f$  at  $z = a$  is defined as  $a_{-1}$ .

**Theorem 3.9 (Weak Residue Theorem).** Let  $f$  be analytic in the region  $G$  except for isolated **poles**  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in G$ . If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in  $G$  which does not pass through any of the points  $a_k$  and if  $\gamma$  is nullhomotopic in  $G$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f = \sum_{k=1}^n n(\gamma, a_k) \operatorname{Res}(f, a_k)$$

*Proof.* Let  $S_j$  denote the singular part of  $f$  at  $a_j$ . Then,  $g = f - \sum_{k=1}^n S_k$  has removable singularities at  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ . As a result,

$$0 = \int_{\gamma} g = \int_{\gamma} f - \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{\gamma} S_k$$

and the conclusion follows. ■

There is a stronger version of the above theorem wherein the word *poles* is replaced by *singularities*. We shall prove this later.

**Proposition 3.10.** Suppose  $f$  has a pole of order  $m$  at  $z = a$  and let  $g(z) = (z-a)^m f(z)$ . Then,

$$\operatorname{Res}(f, a) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} g^{(m-1)}(a)$$

*Proof.* Follows from the definition. ■

## Evaluating Integrals using the Residue Theorem

**Example 3.11.** Evaluate:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{1+x^4} dx$$

*Solution.* Define the contour

$$\gamma := [-R, R] \cup \underbrace{\{Re^{it} \mid t \in [0, \pi]\}}_{\Gamma} \quad R > 1$$

and the function  $f(z) = \frac{z^2}{1+z^4}$ , which has poles of order 1 at

$$\operatorname{cis}\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right), \operatorname{cis}\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right), \operatorname{cis}\left(\frac{5\pi}{4}\right), \operatorname{cis}\left(\frac{7\pi}{4}\right)$$

Within our contour, we have only  $a_1 = \operatorname{cis}\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)$  and  $a_2 = \operatorname{cis}\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right)$  and

$$\operatorname{Res}(f, a_1) = \lim_{z \rightarrow a_1} (z - a_1)f(z) = \frac{1}{4a_1} = \frac{1}{4} \operatorname{cis}\left(-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)$$

$$\operatorname{Res}(f, a_2) = \lim_{z \rightarrow a_2} (z - a_2)f(z) = \frac{1}{4a_2} = \frac{1}{4} \operatorname{cis}\left(-\frac{3\pi}{4}\right)$$

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \frac{\pi i}{2} \left( \operatorname{cis} \left( -\frac{\pi}{4} \right) + \operatorname{cis} \left( -\frac{3\pi}{4} \right) \right) = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Now,

$$0 \leq \int_{\Gamma} f \leq \int_{\Gamma} \frac{R^2}{|1+z^4|} |dz| \leq \int_{\Gamma} \frac{\pi R^3}{R^4-1}$$

And in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\int_{\Gamma} f = 0$ . The conclusion follows. ■

**Example 3.12.** Show that

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

for  $0 < a < 1$ .

*Proof.* Consider the function  $f(z) = \frac{e^{az}}{1+e^z}$ , which is analytic except for poles at  $(2k+1)\pi i$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Let  $\gamma$  denote the rectangular contour:

$$-R \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow R+2\pi i \longrightarrow -R+2\pi i \longrightarrow -R$$

We note that

$$n(\gamma, (2k+1)\pi i) = \begin{cases} 1 & k=0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Furthermore,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \pi i} (z - \pi i) \frac{e^{az}}{1+e^z} = -e^{a\pi i}$$

Therefore, we have, due to Theorem 3.9, that

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

It is not hard to argue that the integral on the segments  $R \rightarrow R+2\pi i$  and  $-R+2\pi i \rightarrow -R$  both tend to 0 as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus, in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\int_{-R}^R f + \int_{R+2\pi i}^{-R+2\pi i} f = -e^{a\pi i}$$

Further,

$$\int_{R+2\pi i}^{-R+2\pi i} f = e^{2a\pi i} \int_R^{-R} \frac{e^{ax}}{1+e^x} dx$$

Thus,

$$(1 - e^{2a\pi i}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = (-2\pi i) e^{a\pi i}$$

Thus,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \frac{2\pi i}{e^{a\pi i} - e^{-a\pi i}} = \frac{\pi}{\sin \pi a}$$

■

The next example has a rather unmotivated solution but we present it anyways since it is an important result to keep in mind.

**Example 3.13.** Let  $u \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ . Then, show that

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

*Proof.* Consider the meromorphic function

$$f(z) = \frac{\pi \cot \pi z}{(u+z)^2}$$

It has poles at  $k$  for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $-u$ . Let  $N$  be an integer such that  $N > |u|$  and let  $R = N + 1/2$ . This contour contains the following poles:

$$\{-u\} \cup \{k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid -N \leq k \leq N\}$$

The residue at  $z = k \in \mathbb{Z}$  is given by

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow k} (z - k) \frac{\pi \cot \pi z}{(u+z)^2} = \frac{\pi}{(u+k)^2}$$

On the other hand, the residue at  $z = -u$  is the coefficient  $a_{-1}$  in the Laurent expansion of  $f(z)$  around  $z = -u$ . Since  $u$  is not an integer,  $\pi \cot \pi z$  is analytic in a ball around  $u$ , and the required coefficient is given by  $f'(u) = -\frac{\pi^2}{\sin^2 \pi u}$ . Hence,

$$\sum_{n=-N}^N \frac{\pi}{(u+n)^2} = \int_{|z|=R} f(z) dz + \frac{\pi^2}{\sin^2 \pi u}$$

Therefore, it suffices to show that the integral on the circle is zero. **TODO: Add in later** ■

### 3.3 Argument Principle

**Definition 3.14 (Meromorphic).** A function which is analytic on a region except for poles is said to be *meromorphic* on that region.

**Theorem 3.15 (Argument Principle).** Let  $f$  be meromorphic in  $G$  with poles  $p_1, \dots, p_m$  and zeros  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  counted according to multiplicity. If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve which is nulhomotopic and not passing through any of the aforementioned points, then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{k=1}^n n(\gamma, z_k) - \sum_{k=1}^m n(\gamma, p_k)$$

*Proof.* It is not hard to argue that there is an analytic function  $g$  on  $G$  that does not vanish anywhere such that

$$\frac{f'}{f} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{z - z_k} - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{z - p_k} + \frac{g'}{g}$$

Note that  $g'/g$  is an analytic function and due to Cauchy's Theorem,

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{f'}{f} = \sum_{k=1}^n n(\gamma, z_k) - \sum_{k=1}^m n(\gamma, p_k)$$

This completes the proof. ■

**Corollary 3.16.** Let  $f$  be meromorphic in  $G$  with poles  $p_1, \dots, p_m$  and zeros  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  counted according to multiplicity. If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve which is nulhomotopic and not passing through any of the aforementioned points, then for an analytic function  $g$  on  $G$ ,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} g \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{k=1}^n g(z_k) n(\gamma, z_k) - \sum_{k=1}^m g(p_k) n(\gamma, p_k)$$

**Theorem 3.17 (Rouché).** Suppose  $f$  and  $g$  are meromorphic in the region  $G$  and  $\overline{B}(a, R) \subseteq G$ . If  $f$  and  $g$  have no zeros or poles on the circle  $\gamma := \{z : |z - a| = R\}$  and  $|f(z) - g(z)| < |g(z)|$  on  $\gamma$ , then

$$Z_f - P_f = Z_g - P_g$$

where  $Z_f, Z_g$  denote the zeros of  $f$  and  $g$  in  $B(a, R)$  and  $P_f, P_g$  denote the poles of  $f$  and  $g$  in  $B(a, R)$ .

*First Proof.* First, note that

$$\left| 1 - \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} \right| < 1$$

for all  $z \in \{\gamma\}$ . Since  $(f/g)(\{\gamma\}) \subseteq B(1, 1)$ , there is a neighborhood of  $\{\gamma\}$  that is mapped into  $B(1, 1)$ . As a result, on this neighborhood,  $\log(f/g)$ , the principal branch is a primitive for  $(f/g)'/(f/g)$ . As a result, we have

$$0 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{(f/g)'}{(f/g)} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \left( \frac{f'}{f} - \frac{g'}{g} \right)$$

The conclusion follows. ■

*Proof 2.* Define the function  $h_t(z) = tf(z) + (1-t)g(z)$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Then,  $h_0(z) = g(z)$  and  $h_1(z) = f(z)$ , further, note that on  $\gamma$ ,

$$|h_t(z)| = |g(z) + t(f(z) - g(z))| > 0.$$

Let

$$n_t = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{h'_t(z)}{h_t(z)} dz$$

Then,  $n_t$  is obviously an integer. We contend that the map  $t \mapsto n_t$  is continuous. Indeed,  $h'_t(z)/h_t(z)$  is a joint continuous function of  $t$  and  $z$  since both the numerator and denominator are continuous in  $t$  and  $z$ , and the denominator does not vanish on  $\gamma$  as we have argued above.

Now, since  $n_t$  only takes integral values, it must be a constant function of  $t$  and the conclusion follows. ■

We now give an alternate proof of the open mapping theorem using Theorem 3.17

Alternate proof of Theorem 2.59. ■

Add proof

### 3.4 Runge's Theorem

This section is taken from [Con78].

**Theorem 3.18.** *Let  $K \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be compact and  $E \subseteq \mathbb{C}_\infty \setminus K$  which meets every component of  $\mathbb{C}_\infty \setminus K$ . If  $f$  is analytic in an open set  $\Omega$  containing  $K$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then there is a rational function  $R(z)$  with poles only in  $E$  such that*

$$|f(z) - R(z)| < \varepsilon$$

*for all  $z \in K$ .*

We prove this result through a series of lemmas. The setup is as mentioned in the statement of Theorem 3.18 and shall not be repeated.

**Lemma 3.19.** *There are straight line segments  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n$  in  $\Omega \setminus K$  such that*

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_k} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} dw$$

*for all  $z \in K$ . The line segments form a finite number of closed polygons.*

# Chapter 4

## Conformal Maps

**Definition 4.1 (Conformal Map).** A *conformal map* is a bijective holomorphic function  $f : U \rightarrow V$  where  $U$  and  $V$  are open sets in  $\mathbb{C}$ . In this case,  $U$  and  $V$  are said to be conformally equivalent.

We have seen, as a corollary to Theorem 2.59, that a bijective holomorphic function has a holomorphic inverse. That is,  $f^{-1} : V \rightarrow U$  is also conformal.

**Example 4.2.** Define  $\mathbb{H}$  to be the upper half plane, that is, the set of complex numbers with positive imaginary part. We contend that  $\mathbb{H}$  is conformally equivalent to  $\mathbb{D}$ , the unit disk. Consider the map  $F : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$  given by

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

Indeed, for  $z = u + iv$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Im}(F(z)) &= \operatorname{Re} \left( \frac{1 - u - iv}{1 + u + iv} \right) \\ &= \frac{1 - u^2 - v^2}{(1 + u)^2 + v^2} > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Define the map  $G : \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  given by

$$G(z) = \frac{i - z}{i + z}$$

It is not hard to see that  $F \circ G = \operatorname{id}_{\mathbb{H}}$  and  $G \circ F = \operatorname{id}_{\mathbb{D}}$ . This completes the proof.

### 4.1 Schwarz Lemma and applications

**Lemma 4.3 (Schwarz).** Let  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  be holomorphic with  $f(0) = 0$ . Then,

- (a)  $|f(z)| \leq |z|$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ .
- (b) if for some  $z_0 \neq 0$  we have  $|f(z_0)| = |z_0|$ , then  $f$  is a rotation.
- (c)  $|f'(0)| \leq 1$  and if equality holds, then  $f$  is a rotation.

*Proof.* The function  $f(z)/z$  has a removable singularity at 0, and consequently is holomorphic on  $\mathbb{D}$ . Pick

some  $0 < r < 1$ . Then, for all  $|z| = r$ , we have

$$\left| \frac{f(z)}{z} \right| \leq \frac{1}{r}$$

Then, due to the maximum modulus principle,  $|f(z)/z| \leq 1/r$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{D}$  whence (a) follows.

As for (b), we would have  $|f(z_0)/z_0| = 1$  for some  $z_0 \in \mathbb{D} \setminus \{0\}$ , and due to the maximum modulus principle,  $f(z)/z$  must be constant, and the conclusion follows.

Finally, for (c), note that  $g(0) = f'(0)$ , consequently, if  $g(0) = 1$ , then due to the maximum modulus principle,  $g$  is constant, thereby completing the proof. ■

**Proposition 4.4.** *Let  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  be a holomorphic function. If  $f$  is non-constant, then it has at most one fixed point.*

*Proof.* ■

### 4.1.1 Automorphisms of $\mathbb{D}$ and $\mathbb{H}$

Throughout this section, an *automorphism* of a domain  $U$  refers to a conformal map  $f : U \rightarrow U$ .

#### Disk

First, we shall study the automorphisms of  $\mathbb{D}$ . Pick some  $\alpha \in \mathbb{D}$  and consider the map  $\psi_\alpha : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  given by

$$\psi_\alpha(z) = \frac{\alpha - z}{1 - \bar{\alpha}z}.$$

Notice that both maps  $z \mapsto \alpha - z$  and  $z \mapsto 1 - \bar{\alpha}z$  are holomorphic and since  $|\alpha| < 1$ , their quotient is also holomorphic on  $\mathbb{D}$ . Finally, for any  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_\alpha(z)|^2 &= \left| \frac{\alpha - z}{1 - \bar{\alpha}z} \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{\bar{\alpha}\alpha + \bar{z}z - \bar{\alpha}z - \bar{z}\alpha}{1 - \bar{\alpha}z - \bar{z}\alpha + \bar{\alpha}\alpha\bar{z}z} \\ &= 1 - \frac{(1 - \bar{\alpha}\alpha)(1 - \bar{z}z)}{1 - \bar{\alpha}z - \bar{z}\alpha + \bar{\alpha}\alpha\bar{z}z} < 1 \end{aligned}$$

whence  $\psi_\alpha$  is a biholomorphic map from  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{D}$ . These are called the “**Blaschke Factors**”. These are automorphisms of order two, that is,  $\psi_\alpha \circ \psi_\alpha = \text{id}_{\mathbb{D}}$ .

**Theorem 4.5.** *Let  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  be a holomorphic automorphism. Then there is  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{D}$  such that*

$$f(z) = e^{i\theta} \psi_\alpha(z)$$

*Proof.* Since  $f$  is bijective, there is a unique  $\alpha \in \mathbb{D}$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ . Define  $g = f \circ \psi_\alpha$ . Then  $g : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  is a biholomorphic map such that  $g(0) = 0$ . We shall show that  $g$  is a rotation. Let  $h : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  be the inverse of  $g$ , which is also biholomorphic. We have due to Lemma 4.3, that  $|g(z)| \leq |z|$  and  $|h(z)| \leq |z|$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ . Putting these two together, we have

$$|z| = |h \circ g(z)| \leq |g(z)| \leq |z| \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{D}$$

Thus,  $|g(z)| = |z|$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ , whence, due to Lemma 4.3,  $g$  is a rotation and the proof is complete. ■



### 4.1.2 Upper Half Plane

## 4.2 The Riemann Mapping Theorem

**Theorem 4.6 (Riemann).** Suppose  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  is open and simply connected. Given  $z_0 \in \Omega$ , there is a unique conformal map  $F : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  such that  $F(z_0) = 0$  and  $F'(z_0) > 0$ .

### 4.2.1 Montel's Theorem

**Definition 4.7.** Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be open. A family  $\mathcal{F}$  of holomorphic functions on  $G$  is said to be *normal* if every sequence in  $\mathcal{F}$  has a subsequence that converges uniformly on every compact subset of  $G$ .

The family  $\mathcal{F}$  is said to be *uniformly bounded on compact subsets of  $G$*  if for each compact set  $K \subseteq G$ , there is  $M > 0$  such that  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all  $z \in K$  and  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ .

The family  $\mathcal{F}$  is said to be *equicontinuous* on a compact set  $K \subseteq G$ , for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  such that whenever  $w, z \in K$  with  $|z - w| < \delta$ ,  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Note that there is a more general definition of equicontinuity, but in the case of a compact metric space, it is equivalent to the above.

**Theorem 4.8 (Montel).** Suppose  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq H(\mathbb{C})$  is a family of holomorphic functions on  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  that is uniformly bounded on compact subsets of  $G$ . Then,

- (a)  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous on every compact subset of  $G$
- (b)  $\mathcal{F}$  is a normal family

Note that (b) is a consequence of the Arzelà-Ascoli Theorem from topology, a proof of which can be found in [this](#) document.

**Definition 4.9.** A sequence  $\{K_\ell\}_{\ell=1}^\infty$  of compact subsets of  $G$  is said to be an *exhaustion* if

- (a)  $K_\ell$  is contained in the interior of  $K_{\ell+1}$  for all  $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$
- (b) Any compact set  $K \subseteq G$  is contained in  $K_\ell$  for some  $\ell$ . In particular,

$$G = \bigcup_{\ell=1}^{\infty} K_\ell$$

**Lemma 4.10.** Any open set  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  has an exhaustion.

*Proof.* ■

*Proof of Theorem 4.8.* (a) Let  $K \subseteq G$  be compact. Now, there is  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $z \in K$ ,  $B(z, \delta) \subseteq G$ . Let  $r = \delta/3$ . For  $a, b \in K$  with  $|a - b| < r$ , we have

$$f(a) - f(b) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z-a|=2r} f(z) \left( \frac{1}{z-a} - \frac{1}{z-b} \right) dz$$

Consequently, we have

$$|f(a) - f(b)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{|z-a|=2r} |f(z)| \frac{|a-b|}{|z-a||z-b|} |dz|$$

We now use the inequality  $|z - b| \geq r$  and  $|a - b| \leq r$ , which gives us

$$|f(a) - f(b)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot 4\pi r \cdot \frac{M|a - b|}{2r^2} = \frac{M|a - b|}{r}$$

Since this inequality holds for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , we have equicontinuity.

- (b) Let  $\{K_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  be an exhaustion of  $G$  and  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  a sequence of functions in  $\mathcal{F}$ . We now work inductively by repeatedly applying Arzelà's theorem.

First, there is a subsequence  $\{g_{n,1}\}_{n=1}^\infty$  of  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  that converges uniformly on  $K_1$ . From this subsequence, extract  $\{g_{n,2}\}_{n=1}^\infty$  that converges uniformly on  $K_2$  and continue in this fashion. It is not hard to show that  $\{g_{n,n}\}_{n=1}^\infty$  converges uniformly on every compact subset of  $G$ . This completes the proof. ■

**Proposition 4.11.** *Let  $G \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a region and  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  a sequence of holomorphic functions that converge uniformly on every compact subset of  $G$  to the function  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $f$  is holomorphic. Further, if each  $\{f_n\}$  is injective, then  $f$  is either injective or constant.*

*Proof.* The holomorphicity of  $f$  follows from Theorem 2.49. We shall show that  $f$  is injective. Suppose there are two distinct  $z_1, z_2 \in G$  such that  $f(z_1) = f(z_2)$ . Define the function  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by  $g(z) = f(z) - f(z_1)$ . Then, define the sequence of functions  $\{g_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  by  $g_n(z) = f_n(z) - f_n(z_1)$ . Obviously,  $g_n$  converges to  $g$  uniformly on every compact subset of  $G$ . If  $g$  is not identically zero, then there  $z_2$  is an isolated zero, due to the Identity Theorem. Therefore, we may choose a circle  $\gamma$  centered at  $z_2$  such that the only zero of  $g$  in the interior of  $\gamma$  is  $z_2$ .

Then, we have

$$1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\gamma \frac{g'(z)}{g(z)} dz$$

Since  $g$  does not vanish on  $\gamma$ , and  $g_n \rightarrow g$  uniformly on  $\gamma$ , we must have that  $1/g_n \rightarrow 1/g$  uniformly on  $\gamma$ . Further,  $g'_n \rightarrow g'$  uniformly on  $\gamma$ . Therefore,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\gamma \frac{g'_n(z)}{g(z)} dz \rightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\gamma \frac{g'(z)}{g(z)} dz$$

but this is absurd since every integral on the left is zero. This completes the proof. ■

## 4.2.2 Proof of the Riemann Mapping Theorem

**Step I.** We shall show that  $\Omega$  is conformally equivalent to an open subset of  $\mathbb{D}$ .

Since  $\Omega$  is a proper subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ , there is some  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \Omega$ . Define the holomorphic function  $f(z) = \log(z - \alpha)$ , which makes sense since  $z - \alpha$  never vanishes on  $\Omega$ .

Now, pick some point  $w \in \Omega$ . We contend that  $f(w) + 2\pi i$  is contained in an open disk that is disjoint from  $f(\Omega)$ . For if not, then there is a sequence  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  of points in  $\Omega$  that converge to  $f(w) + 2\pi i$ . Since  $e^z$  is a continuous function, we see that  $z_n$  must converge to  $w$ , which would imply that  $f(z_n)$  converges to  $f(w)$ , a contradiction.

Now, consider the map  $F : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

$$F(z) = \frac{1}{f(z) - (f(w) + 2\pi i)}$$

First, for each  $z \in \Omega$ , since  $|f(z) - (f(w) + 2\pi i)|$  is bounded from below,  $|F(z)|$  is bounded. Further, since  $f$  is injective, so is  $F$ . By translation and scaling of  $F$ , since it is bounded, we may embed  $\Omega$  into  $\mathbb{D}$ .

**Step II.** In this step we shall construct our candidate for the required biholomorphic map.

Now, we may suppose without loss of generality that  $\Omega$  is a domain contained in  $\mathbb{D}$ . We shall now construct a conformal map from  $\Omega$  to  $\mathbb{D}$ . Define

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \mid f \text{ is holomorphic, injective and } f(0) = 0\}$$

Obviously,  $\mathcal{F}$  is nonempty, since it contains the identity map and by construction,  $\mathcal{F}$  is uniformly bounded. Due to Proposition 2.30, we see that  $|f'(0)|$  must also be bounded for every  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Let  $s = \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |f'(0)|$

**Step III.** We shall show that our chosen candidate  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  is in fact a biholomorphic map.

According to our construction,  $f$  is injective. It suffices to show that it is surjective. Suppose not and there is  $\alpha \in \mathbb{D}$  which is not in the image of  $f$ . Let  $\psi_\alpha$  be the Blaschke factor and consider the composition  $\psi_\alpha \circ f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ . This is a holomorphic injective function whose image does not contain the origin. Let  $U = (\psi_\alpha \circ f)(\Omega)$ . Since  $U$  is open, simply connected (owing to it being a biholomorphic image of  $\Omega$ ) and does not contain the origin, we may define a complex logarithm on  $U$ , whence by composing, we can define a holomorphic function  $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  given by

$$g(z) = e^{\frac{1}{2} \log z}$$

Now, consider the function

# Chapter 5

## Series and Product Developments

**Lemma 5.1.** Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be an open set and  $f_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a sequence of holomorphic functions converging uniformly on every compact subset of  $\Omega$  to a function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $f$  is holomorphic and the sequence  $\{f'_n\}$  converges uniformly on every compact subset of  $\Omega$  to  $f'$ .

### 5.1 Weierstrass' Theorem

**Theorem 5.2.** Let  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of holomorphic functions on an open set  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . If there is a sequence of positive constants  $\{c_n\}$  such that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n < \infty \quad \text{and} \quad |f_n(z) - 1| \leq c_n \quad \forall z \in \Omega$$

then

- (a) The product  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(z)$  converges uniformly in  $\Omega$  to a holomorphic function  $F : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .
- (b) If  $f_n(z)$  does not vanish for any  $n$ , then

$$\frac{F'(z)}{F(z)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f'_n(z)}{f_n(z)}$$

*Proof.* Define  $a_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  given by  $a_n(z) = f_n(z) - 1$ . First, by disregarding finitely many terms of the product, we may suppose without loss of generality that  $c_n < 1/2$ . For any  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$\prod_{n=1}^N (1 + a_n(z)) = \prod_{n=1}^N e^{\log(1+a_n(z))} = e^{\sum_{n=1}^N \log(1+a_n(z))}.$$

In the above manipulation, we take  $\log$  to be the principal branch of the logarithm which makes sense since for all  $z \in \Omega$ ,  $1 + a_n(z) \in B(1, 1/2) \subseteq \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid z < 0\}$ .

Now, it is not hard to see, using the power series expansion of the principal branch of  $\log$  that  $|\log(1 + z)| \leq 2|z|$  if  $|z| < 1/2$ , and thus  $|\log(1 + a_n(z))| \leq 2|a_n(z)| \leq 2c_n$  on  $\Omega$ . Let  $b_N(z) = \sum_{n=1}^N \log(1 + a_n(z))$ . Since  $|b_n(z)|$  is bounded on  $\Omega$  and converges uniformly to some analytic function  $b : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

The sequence  $e^{b_n}$  converges pointwise to  $e^b$  but since this is a uniformly bounded sequence, the convergence is uniform and  $e^b$  is analytic. This proves (a).

Define  $G_n(z) = \prod_{k=1}^n f_k(z)$ . Then, using the product rule,

$$\frac{G'_n(z)}{G_n(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{f'_k(z)}{f_k(z)}.$$

We have shown in part (a) that  $G_n$  converges uniformly to  $F$ . Let  $K \subseteq \Omega$  be a compact subset. Due to Lemma 5.1,  $G'_n$  converges uniformly to  $F'$  on  $K$ . Further, since  $1/G_n$  is uniformly bounded, above on  $K$ <sup>1</sup> and thus  $G'_n/G_n$  converges to  $F'/F$  uniformly on  $K$  which finishes the proof. ■

**Definition 5.3.** Define the entire maps  $E_n : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  for  $n \geq 0$  by

$$E_0(z) = 1 - z \quad E_n(z) = (1 - z) \exp \left( z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \cdots + \frac{z^n}{n} \right) \text{ for } n \geq 1$$

These are called the *elementary factors*.

**Theorem 5.4 (Weierstrass).** *Given any sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  of complex numbers with  $|a_n| \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , there exists an entire function  $f$  vanishing at exactly  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  and nowhere else. Any other such entire function is of the form  $f(z)e^{g(z)}$  where  $g$  is entire.*

**First, we prove the second part of the theorem.** Let  $f_1, f_2$  be two entire functions satisfying the statement of the theorem. Then,  $f_2/f_1$  has removable singularities at each  $a_n$  whence is entire. Using this entire function,

---

<sup>1</sup>This is because each  $f_n$  does not vanish on  $K$  and eventually,  $|f_n| < 1$  since the sum of  $c_n$ 's converges.

# TODO List

1. Complete proof of Riemann Mapping Theorem
2. Complete the write up of Runge's Theorem
3. After Runge's Theorem, Mittag-Leffler
4. Phragmén-Lindelöf Theorem
5. Weierstrass Product Theorem
6. Hadamard Product Theorem

# Bibliography

- [Ahl66] L. V. Ahlfors. *Complex Analysis*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 2 edition, 1966.
- [Con78] John B. Conway. *Functions of one complex variable*, volume 11 of *Graduate Texts in Mathematics*. Springer-Verlag, New York, second edition, 1978.
- [Rud53] Walter Rudin. *Principles of mathematical analysis*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York-Toronto-London, 1953.