

2101 Analysis 3: Complex Analysis Notes

Based on the 2011 autumn lectures by Prof A
Sobolev

The Author has made every effort to copy down all the content on the board during lectures. The Author accepts no responsibility what so ever for mistakes on the notes or changes to the syllabus for the current year. The Author highly recommends that reader attends all lectures, making his/her own notes and to use this document as a reference only.

A. SOBOLEV, room 710 math's dept
 office hour: monday 1pm

Plan

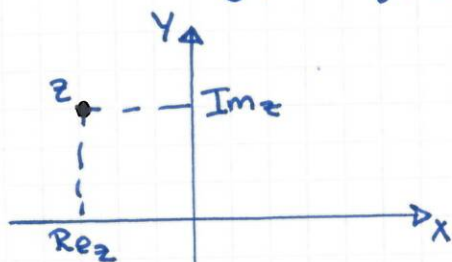
Book: Priestley

- I [① COMPLEX NUMBERS
- ② SETS OF COMPLEX PLANE
- ③ CONTINUITY
- II [④ Differentiability
- ⑤ Integration

1 COMPLEX NUMBERS

let $z \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be a point in the plane.
 Then $z = (x, y)$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

notation: $x = \text{Real part of } z, \text{Re } z$
 $y = \text{imaginary part of } z, \text{Im } z$



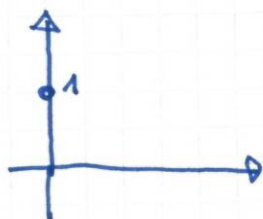
Def 1.1 Define multiplication: let $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$
 If $z_1 = (x_1, y_1)$, $z_2 = (x_2, y_2)$, then $z_1 z_2 = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2, x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1)$
 With this multiplication \mathbb{R}^2 becomes complex plane.
 notation: \mathbb{C}

Observe: $z_1 z_2 = z_2 z_1$

GOOD DEFINITION.
 Look at $z = (0, 1)$

$z_1 (z_2 + z_3) = z_1 z_2 + z_1 z_3$

Then $(0, 1)^2 = (-1, 0)$



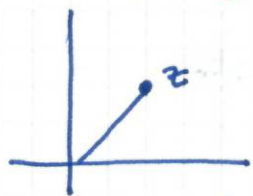
notation: $i = (0, 1)$. Then $z = (x, y)$
 $= x(1, 0) + y(0, 1)$
 $= x + iy$

standard form of complex numbers.

Complex plane \mathbb{C} = Argand plane

Def 1.2 The modulus (or the absolute value) of $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is

$$|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{(\operatorname{Re} z)^2 + (\operatorname{Im} z)^2}$$



$|z|$ is the distance from z to the origin

$$|z_1 - z_2| = \dots$$

Define $S = \{z : |z| = 1\}$ - circle of radius 1

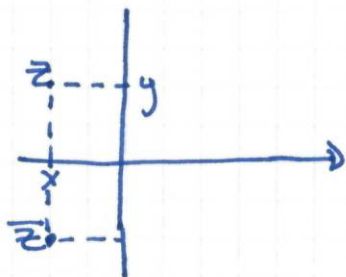
$S_a = \{z : |z - a| = 1\}$  circle of radius 1 with center at the point a

notation: $\gamma(a, r) = \{z : |z - a| = r\}$, $a \in \mathbb{C}$, $r > 0$

circle of rad r centered at a

Def 1.3 If $z = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$, then the conjugate of z is defined to be $\bar{z} = x - iy$

note $\overline{\bar{z}} = z$



Prop 1.4

① $\overline{z_1 + z_2} = \bar{z}_1 + \bar{z}_2$

② $\overline{z_1 z_2} = \bar{z}_1 \bar{z}_2$

③ $\bar{\bar{z}} = z$ and $z \bar{z} = |z|^2$

④ $|z_1 z_2| = |z_1| |z_2|$

⑤ $\frac{1}{z} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z \bar{z}} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2} = \frac{x - iy}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} - i \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}$

Prop 1.5

Let $z = x + iy$. Then $x = \operatorname{Re} z = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}$, $y = \operatorname{Im} z = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$

Inequalities

Lemma 1.6 Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$. Then

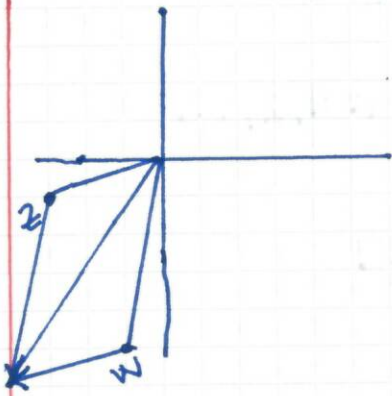
① $|\operatorname{Re} z| \leq |z|$, $|\operatorname{Im} z| \leq |z|$

② $|z + w| \leq |z| + |w|$, triangle inequality

③ $|z - w| \geq ||z| - |w||$

PROOF - ①, ③ exercise

②



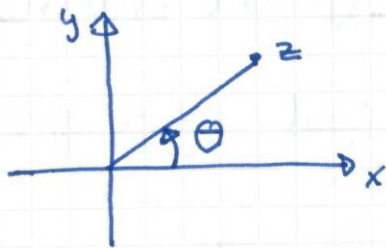
$$\begin{aligned}
 |z+w|^2 &= (\bar{z} + \bar{w})(z+w) \\
 &= \bar{z}z + \bar{w}z + \bar{z}w + \bar{w}w \\
 &= |z|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(\bar{w}z) + |w|^2 \\
 &\leq |z|^2 + 2|wz| + |w|^2 \\
 &= |z|^2 + 2|w||z| + |w|^2 \\
 &= (|z| + |w|)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow |z+w|^2 \leq (|z| + |w|)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow |z+w| \leq |z| + |w| \text{ as required} \quad \blacksquare$$

The polar form

Let $z = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$. Introduce polar coordinates:



$$\text{let } r = |z|$$

$$\text{Then } x = r \cos \theta$$

$$y = r \sin \theta$$

$$\text{Hence } z = r \cos \theta + i r \sin \theta = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

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

The angle θ is called the argument of z , notation: $\theta = \arg z$

Real: $e^{t+s} = e^t e^s, s, t \in \mathbb{R}$

Lemma 1.8 Let $z_1 = r_1 e^{i\theta_1}, z_2 = r_2 e^{i\theta_2}$. Then

$$z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$$

PROOF

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Write: } z_1 z_2 &= r_1 r_2 (\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1) (\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2) \\
 &= r_1 r_2 (\cos \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 - \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 + i (\cos \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 + \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2)) \\
 &= r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)) \\
 &= r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)} \quad \blacksquare
 \end{aligned}$$

examples $\arg i = \frac{\pi}{2}$ or $\frac{\pi}{2} + 2\pi$

$$\arg -i = \frac{3\pi}{2} \text{ or } -\frac{\pi}{2}$$

Def 1.7

The principal value of the argument is defined as the uniquely defined value of θ in the interval $(-\pi, \pi]$

Notation: $\operatorname{Arg} z$

$$\operatorname{Arg}(-i) = -\frac{\pi}{2}, \operatorname{Arg}(-1) = \pi$$

Observe: $e^{2\pi i} = 1, e^{2\pi n i} = 1, n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Prop 1.9 (De Moivre's formula)

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta, \quad n=1, 2, \dots$$

POWERS OF z

$$z^n = r^n e^{in\theta}, \quad n=1, 2, 3, \dots \text{ from lemma 1.9}$$

Definition: For any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

$$z^\alpha = r^\alpha e^{i\alpha\theta}$$

example: $z^{\frac{1}{2}} = |z|^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{i\frac{1}{2}\arg z}$

$$\sqrt{1} = \pm 1 \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{if } \arg 1 = 0, \text{ then } \sqrt{1} = 1 \\ \text{if } \arg 1 = 2\pi, \text{ then } \sqrt{1} = -1 \end{array}$$

$\sqrt{1} = 1$ and $\sqrt{1} = -1$ respect to two different branches of the square root

The value $\sqrt{1} = 1$ is called the principal value of $\sqrt{1}$.

$\sqrt{1} = -1$ is the other value of the root

In general, let $z = re^{i\theta} = re^{i\theta + 2\pi ni}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\text{Then } z^\alpha = r^\alpha e^{i\alpha\theta + i2\pi n\alpha}$$

Different values of n represent different branches of z^α . The principal value: $z^\alpha = |z|^\alpha e^{i\alpha \text{Arg } z}$

example $1^{1/3} = e^{i\frac{2\pi n}{3}}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{If } n=0 \quad 1^{1/3} = 1 \\ n=1 \quad 1^{1/3} = e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}} \\ n=2 \quad 1^{1/3} = e^{i\frac{4\pi}{3}} \end{array}$$

$$1^{1/3} = \begin{cases} 1, & n=0 \\ e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}}, & n=1 \\ e^{i\frac{4\pi}{3}}, & n=2 \end{cases}$$



$$z^\alpha = r^\alpha e^{i\alpha \arg z}$$

if $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}, z=1$, then

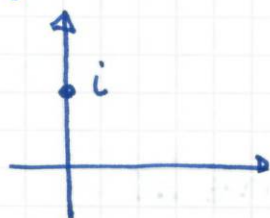
$$1^{\frac{1}{2}} = |1|^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{i\frac{1}{2}\arg 1}$$

\rightarrow
the arithmetic root of 1

05 October 2011

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

$$i: \quad i^2 = -1$$



$$\text{Arg } z \in (-\pi, \pi]$$

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$|e^{i\theta}| = 1$$

$$\gamma(a, r) = \{z : |z - a| = r\}, a \in \mathbb{C}, r > 0$$

$$\text{Diagram: } \begin{array}{c} \text{Circle with center } a \text{ and radius } r \\ \text{Equation: } \{z = a + re^{i\theta}, \theta \in [0, 2\pi)\} \end{array}$$

GEOMETRY AND TOPOLOGY OF COMPLEX PLANE

Sets of complex plane

Def 1.10 Let $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}, r > 0$. Then the set

$\gamma(z_0, r) = \{z : |z - z_0| = r\}$ is called circle of radius r centered at z_0 .

The set $D(z_0, r) = \{z : |z - z_0| < r\}$ is called open disk of radius r centered at z_0 .

The set $\bar{D}(z_0, r) = \{z : |z - z_0| \leq r\}$ is called closed disc of radius r centered at z_0 .

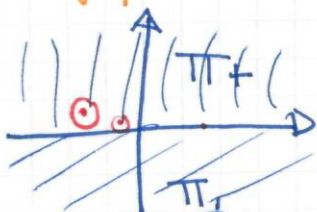
Sometimes we call $D(z_0, r)$ an neighbourhood of z_0 .

The set $D'(z_0, r) = \{z : 0 < |z - z_0| < r\}$ is called punctured r -neighbourhood of z_0 .

Half-planes

$$\mathbb{H}_+ = \{z : \text{Im } z > 0\} \text{ - upper half-plane}$$

$$\mathbb{H}_- = \{z : \text{Im } z < 0\} \text{ - lower half-plane}$$



let $S \subset \mathbb{C}$

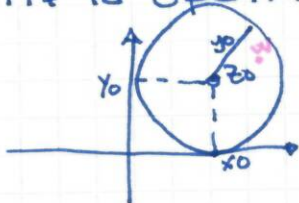
Def 1.11 Let $z \in S$. Then z is said to be an interior point of S if there is a number $r > 0$ s.t. $D(z, r) \subset S$

The set of all interior points of S is denoted $\text{int } S$.

We say that S is open if it consists of interior points only, i.e. $\text{int } S = S$ or for any $z \in S$ there is a number $r > 0$ s.t. $D(z, r) \subset S$

ex

\mathbb{H}_+ is open. let $z_0 \in \mathbb{H}_+$, i.e. $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ with $y_0 > 0$.



let $r = y_0$. Then take $w \in D(z_0, y_0)$.
Let's show that $\text{Im } w > 0$, i.e. $w \in \mathbb{H}_+$.


Write $w = z_0 + w - z_0$, so $\text{Im } w = \text{Im } z_0 + \text{Im}(w - z_0)$
 $= y_0 + \text{Im}(w - z_0)$
 $\geq y_0 - |\text{Im}(w - z_0)|$

Lemma 1.6

$\geq y_0 - |w - z_0| \geq y_0 - y_0 = 0$ and hence $\text{Im } w > 0$, as required. \square

example

Prove that $D(a, r), r > 0$, is open

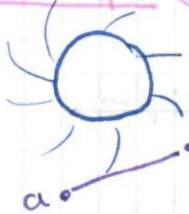
HW1  need to show that for any point $w \in D(a, r)$ there is a number $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. $D(w, \epsilon) \subset D(a, r)$.

Take $\epsilon = r - |a - w|$

Def 1.12 The set $S^c = \mathbb{C} \setminus S$ is the complement of S . We say that S is closed if complement is open.

EXAM: open and closed definition

example ① $\bar{D}(a, r)$ is closed.



② The interval (segment) $[a, b] = \{(1-t)a + tb, t \in [0, 1]\}$ is closed

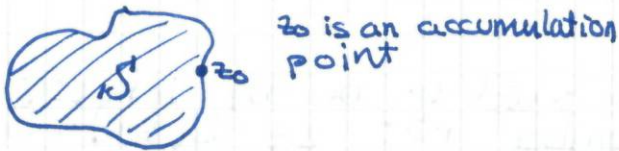
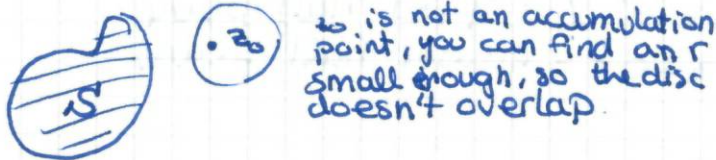
③ $D'(z_0, r)$ is open

④ $S = \{z : 2 \leq |z - 1| < 3\}$ is neither closed or open (2 is included, 3 is not)

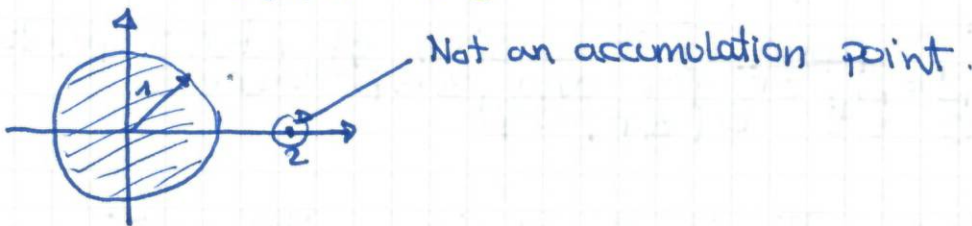


Def 1.13 (i) A point $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ is said to be an accumulation point of the set S if for all $r > 0$ we have

$D'(z_0, r) \cap S \neq \emptyset$



Let $T = D(0, 1) \cup \{2\}$



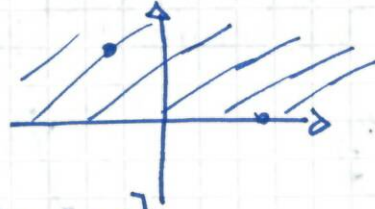
$D(z, r)$ open disk of radius $r > 0$ centered at z .

Def 1.13

Let S be a set on \mathbb{C} . Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$. We say that z is an accumulation point of the set S iff for all $r > 0$ we have $D(z, r) \cap S \neq \emptyset$.

The closure of the set S is the union of the set S and all its accumulation points.

Notation: \bar{S}



example

(1) $S = \Pi_+ = \{z : \text{Im } z > 0\}$

accumulation points of $S = \{z : \text{Im } z \geq 0\}$

$\bar{S} = \{z : \text{Im } z \geq 0\}$

(2) $S = D(0, 2)$

accumulation points of $S = \bar{D}(0, 2)$

$\bar{S} = \bar{D}(0, 2)$

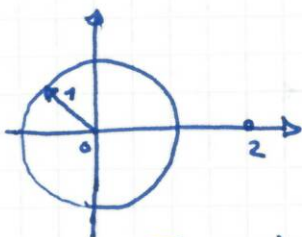


(3) $D(0, 1) \cup \{2\} = T$

accumulation points of $S = \bar{D}(0, 1)$

$D'(2, \frac{1}{2}) \cap T = \emptyset$ so 2 is not an accumulation point.

?



$\bar{T} = \bar{D}(0, 1) \cup \{2\}$

(4) $S = \bar{D}(0, 5)$, accumulation points = $\bar{D}(0, 5)$

$\bar{S} = \bar{D}(0, 5) = S$

THEOREM 1.14

The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. The set S is closed
- 2. \bar{S} contains all its accumulation points
- 3. $\bar{S} = S$

proposition 1.15 Let $S \subset \mathbb{C}$. Then

- ① \bar{S} is a closed set,
- ② \bar{S} is the smallest closed set containing S , i.e. for any closed set $\Omega \supset S$ we have $\bar{S} \subset \Omega$ (they can be equal, but not necessarily)



Def 1.16 The set $\partial S = \bar{S} \setminus \text{int } S$ is called the boundary of S .

Def 1.17 The set S is said to be bounded if there is a number $R > 0$ s.t. $S \subset D(0, R)$

① Π_+, Π_- are not bounded

② $D(10, 1)$ is bounded, as $D(10, 1) \subset D(0, 100)$

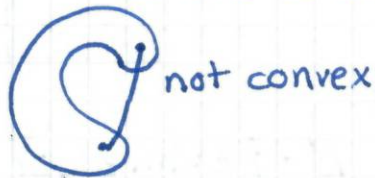
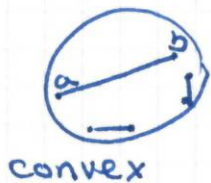
Def 1.17 cont

S is called compact if it is closed and bounded

$D(0, 2)$ is not compact since it is not closed.

convexity and connectedness

Def 1.18 The set S is said to be convex if for any two points $a, b \in S$ the segment $[a, b]$ is also in the set



examples

① $\Pi_- = \{z : \text{Im } z < 0\}$

let $a, b \in \Pi_-$, i.e. $\text{Im } a < 0, \text{Im } b < 0$

let $z = (1-t)a + tb, t \in [0, 1]$

Then

$$\text{Im } z = \underbrace{(1-t)}_{\geq 0} \underbrace{\text{Im } a}_{< 0} + t \underbrace{\text{Im } b}_{< 0} < 0$$

$\Rightarrow z \in \Pi_-$, i.e. $[a, b] \subset \Pi_-$, i.e. Π_- is convex.

② $S = D(a, r)$ - convex

let $z_1, z_2 \in S$, i.e. $|z_1 - a| < r, |z_2 - a| < r$

let $z = (1-t)z_1 + tz_2$, so need to show $t \in [0, 1]$, so need to show that $|z - a| < r$



write $z - a = (1-t)(z_1 - a) + t(z_2 - a)$, so

$$|z - a| = |(1-t)(z_1 - a) + t(z_2 - a)|$$

triangle

$$\leq |(1-t)(z_1 - a)| + |t(z_2 - a)|$$

$$= (1-t)|z_1 - a| + t|z_2 - a| < (1-t)r + tr = r$$

This is exactly what we want, $z \in D(a, r)$, i.e. $[z_1, z_2] \subset D(a, r)$ i.e. $D(a, r)$ is convex.

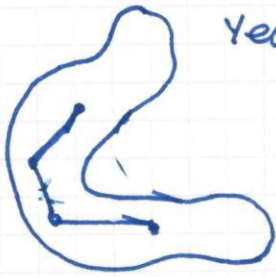
③ $\overline{D}(a, r)$ - convex PROVE IT!

Def 1.19 let $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ and let $a = z_0, z_1, \dots, z_n = b$. we call the set $[z_0, z_1] \cup [z_1, z_2] \cup \dots \cup [z_{n-1}, z_n]$



is called a polygonal path from a to b .

A set S is said to be polygonally connected if for any two points $a, b \in S$, there is a polygonal path joining a and b , which is inside S .



Definition 1.20

The set S which is open and connected is called domain (or region)

polygonal connected = connected

examples

① $\bar{D}(1, 2)$ - not a domain
 connected
 bounded
 compact
 convex
 closed

② $T = D(0, 1) \cup \bar{D}(3, \frac{1}{2})$
 not a domain
 not connected
 not open
 not closed
 bounded, since $T \subset D(0, 100)$

SEQUENCES AND CONVERGENCE

A complex sequence $\{z_n\}, n=1, 2, \dots$ is a collection of complex numbers

Def 1.21 We say that the sequence z_n converges to a number $a \in \mathbb{C}$ if for any number $\epsilon > 0$ there is a natural number N s.t.

$$|z_n - a| < \epsilon \text{ for all } n > N. \quad N = N(\epsilon)$$



A sequence $\{w_k\}$ is said to be a subsequence of $\{z_n\}$ if there is a sequence of natural numbers n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k s.t. $n_k \rightarrow \infty, k \rightarrow \infty$ and $w_k = z_{n_k}$

Lemma 1.22

The sequence z_n converges to a as $n \rightarrow \infty$ iff $\text{Im } z_n$ converges to $\text{Im } a$, and $\text{Re } z_n$ converges to $\text{Re } a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Follows from: $|\text{Im } z_n - \text{Im } a| \leq |z_n - a| = \sqrt{|\text{Im } z_n - \text{Im } a|^2 + |\text{Re } z_n - \text{Re } a|^2}$

and $|\text{Re } z_n - \text{Re } a| \leq |z_n - a|$

Moreover, if z_n converges to a , then $|z_n|$ converges to $|a|$

\bar{z}_n converges to \bar{a}

Notation: z_n converges to a : $z_n \rightarrow a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

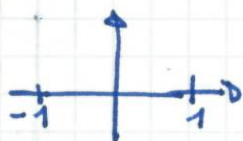
or $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = a$

examples

$$\textcircled{1} z_n = \frac{1}{n} + i \frac{n^2}{n^2+1}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = i$$

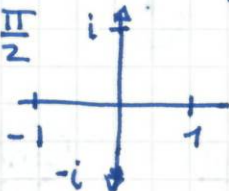
$$\textcircled{2} w_n = e^{in\pi}$$



doesn't converge

$$p_k = e^{ik\frac{\pi}{2}}$$

no limit



Prop 1.23 - not examined?

Let z_n be a convergent sequence. Then

- ① $\{z_n\}$ is bounded
- ② The limit is unique, i.e. if $z_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a$ and $z_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} b \Rightarrow a=b$
- ③ each subsequence of z_n has the same limit, i.e. a
- ④ $\{z_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence, i.e. $\forall \epsilon > 0$ there is a number $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $|z_n - z_m| < \epsilon$ for all $n > N, m > N$.

Conversely, any Cauchy sequence converges.

THEOREM 1.24 (Bolzano-Weierstraß theorem)

Any bounded sequence contains a convergent subsequence.

example

$$w_n = e^{in\pi}$$

$$p_k = w_{2k} = e^{i2k\pi} = 1$$

$$\text{or } s_k = w_{2k+1} = e^{i(2k+1)\pi} = e^{i\pi} = -1$$

Corollary 1.25

Any infinite compact set S has the limit point in S

- will not be in the exam

Problem class

Olya Chervova
 olya.c@math.ucl.ac.uk
 o.chervova@ucl.ac.uk

homework due before problem class on Wednesday

- $|z| \geq 0$
- you can NOT compare complex numbers

$$\cancel{z_1 < z_2}$$

$z = w$ or $z \neq w$

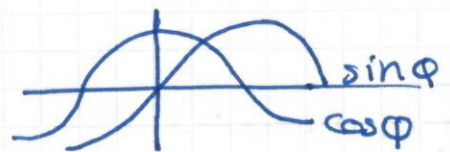
- it is obvious clear easy to see

> just one line proof, if longer don't write this

- write down explanations
- answer should be in form $a+ib$, simplify your answer

HW1 Qu 1

$z = 1 = 1 + i \cdot 0$ need to find φ st $1 = re^{i\varphi}$ $1 = e^0$
 $\cos \varphi = 1$
 $\sin \varphi = 0$



$$r = \sqrt{1^2 + 0^2} = 1$$

$$\varphi = 2\pi \quad 1 = e^{2\pi i}$$

$$z = -1 = e^{i\pi} \quad z = r(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi)$$

$$\cos \varphi = \cos(-\varphi) \quad \sin \varphi = -\sin(-\varphi)$$

$$r = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 0^2} = 1$$

$$\varphi: \quad \cos \varphi = -1 \quad \varphi = \pi$$

$$\sin \varphi = 0$$

$$z = -1 = e^{i\pi}$$

$$z = i = e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} \quad z = -i = e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}} \text{ or } e^{\frac{3\pi}{2}i}$$

$$z = 2$$

(c)(d) multiply by conjugate to get real
 $z \cdot \bar{z} = |z|^2$

(e) need to obtain all of the powers that are divisible by 3

$$\frac{1}{\alpha^2(\alpha-1)^2} \mid (\alpha-1)^2$$

Qu 2

$$||z| - |w|| \leq |z+w| \quad \text{true}$$

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

$$z = (z+w) - w \quad \text{use triangle inequality}$$

$$w = (z+w) - z \quad |a-b| \leq |a| + |b|$$

Qu 3

(a) line, mid-point of z_1 and z_2 , perpendicular to $z_1 z_2$ bisector

$$|z - z_1| = |z - z_2|$$

distance between z and z_1

distance between z and z_2

(b) $\frac{1}{z} = \bar{z}$ circle of radius 1, centre 0

$$1 = |z|^2$$

(c) $\operatorname{Re}(z) = 3$ vertical line

(d) $\operatorname{Re}(z)$ half-plane

(e) $\operatorname{Re}(az+b) > 0$ $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$

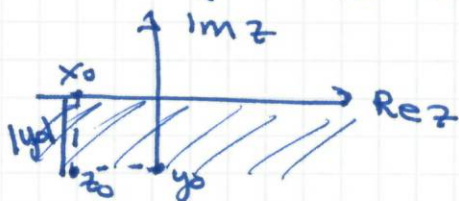
line, mention sign of a , what happens when $\operatorname{Re}(a) > 0$
 $\operatorname{Re}(a) < 0$

$$a = x_1 + iy_1 \quad b = x_2 + iy_2$$

Qu 4

$\{z: \operatorname{Im} z > 0\}$ proved

Prove $\{z: \operatorname{Im} z < 0\}$ is open



consider $z_0 \in \{z: \operatorname{Im} z < 0\}$

$$z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$$

$$y_0 < 0 \Rightarrow -y_0 > 0$$

need to show that I can find $r > 0$ s.t

$$D(z_0, r) \subset \{z: \operatorname{Im} z < 0\}$$

or

$$\exists r > 0 \text{ s.t } \forall z \in D(z_0, r) \quad z \in \{z: \operatorname{Im} z < 0\}$$

$$r = \frac{1}{2}|y_0| = -\frac{y_0}{2} > 0$$



fix a point $z \in D(z_0, r)$

$$|z_0 - z| = \epsilon > 0 \quad ; \quad \epsilon < r$$

Need to prove that $z \in \{z: \operatorname{Im} z < 0\}$ OR $\operatorname{Im} z < 0$

~~Choose $D(z, \delta)$ choose $\delta = r - \epsilon > 0$~~

~~fix $a \in D(z, \delta)$~~

consider ~~$|z_0 - z| = 2|(z_0 - a) + (a - z)| \leq 2|z_0 - a| + 2|a - z|$~~

$$|z_0 - z| < -\frac{y_0}{2}$$

$$z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$$

$$z = x + iy$$

$$\sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2} < -\frac{y_0}{2} \Rightarrow |y-y_0| < -\frac{y_0}{2}$$

$$\geq (y-y_0)^2 \quad y-y_0 < -\frac{y_0}{2}$$

$$y < \frac{y_0}{2} < 0$$

FUNCTIONS

12/10/2011

Maps defined on sets of complex plane \mathbb{C} with values in \mathbb{C} .

Need to know:

1. The set where f is defined called domain of f , $D(f)$
2. The mapping itself

examples

1. $f(z) = z^2$, $D(f) = \mathbb{C}$
 $f(x+iy) = (x+iy)^2 = x^2 - y^2 + 2ixy$

In general, for any function $g: D(g) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

We write:

$$g(z) = u(x,y) + i v(x,y), \text{ so } u = \text{Re } g, v = \text{Im } g$$

2. $h(z) = \frac{1}{z}$, $D(h) = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ or $D(h) = D(1/z)$

3. $w(z) = \sin x + i \cos y$, $z \in \mathbb{C}$

4. $P(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0$, where
 $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0$ are fixed complex numbers
 z is the variable.

If $a_n \neq 0$, then $P(z)$ is called Polynomial of degree n .

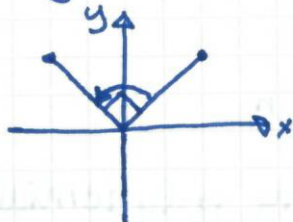
For any two polynomials P, Q the function $M(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ is called rational function.

Observe: $D(P) = \mathbb{C}$, $D(M) = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{\text{roots of } Q(z)\}$

Mapping properties

1. $f(z) = z - 1$, $D(f) = \mathbb{C}$
 \mathbb{C} is shifted by 1 to the left

2. $g(z) = iz$



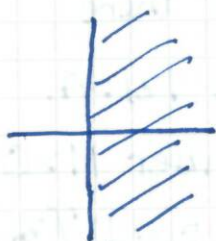
$$g(z) = |z| e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{i\theta} = |z| e^{i(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2})}$$

rotation by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ counterclockwise

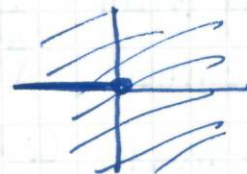
3. $g(z) = \frac{z}{|z|}$, $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$

What is the image of $g = \{\text{set of values}\}$?

4. Let $D(h) = \{z : \text{Re } z > 0\}$ and $h(z) = z^2 = |z|^2 e^{i2\theta}$, $\theta = \arg z$



What is the image of h ?
Image = \mathbb{C} with a cut along the negative real axis



More precisely, $\text{Image} = \{z \in \mathbb{C}\} \setminus \{w : \text{Re } w \leq 0, \text{Im } w = 0\}$

Limits of functions

Def 1.26

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a function and $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$. Then we say that f has a limit at z_0 , denoted

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

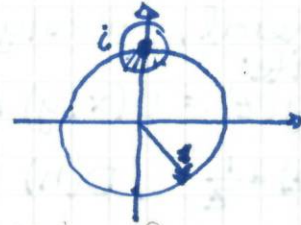
if for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $|f(z) - w_0| < \epsilon$ as soon as $z \in D'(z_0, \delta) \cap S$

examples

1. $S = D(0, 1)$, $z_0 = i$, $f(z) = z$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = z_0 = i$$

$\lim_{z \rightarrow 2} f(z) = ?$ doesn't make sense



z is too far away from the disc

2. $S = D(0, 1)$, $z_0 = 0$

$$h(z) = \begin{cases} 1, & z = 0 \\ z, & z \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} h(z) = 0$$

Properties

1. If $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f$ exists, it is unique

2. If $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f = w_0$, then $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \text{Re } f = \text{Re } w_0$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \text{Im } f = \text{Im } w_0, \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \bar{f} = \overline{w_0}, \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} |f| = |w_0|$$

3. Algebra of limits is applicable (AOL)

Observe: $z \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z = z_0. \quad \text{By AOL } \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} z^n = z_0^n$$

Thus, by AOL $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} P(z) = P(z_0)$ for any polynomial.

This means that P is continuous on \mathbb{C} .

Infinite limits and limits of infinity

Def 1.27

① We say that $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = w$, if for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is a number A s.t. $|f(z) - w| < \epsilon$ as soon as $|z| > A$.

② We say that $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = \infty$ if for any number $M > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $|f(z)| > M$ as soon as $z \in D'(z_0, \delta) \cap D$.

example

$$\textcircled{1} \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{z^2+2} = 0, \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{z^2}{z^2+2} = 1$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{1}{z-i} = \infty, \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{z-1} = \frac{1}{2-1}$$

Problem Class 2

problem
rest 4b

$D(z_0, r)$ is open $\forall z_0 \in \mathbb{C} \quad r > 0$
 $D(z_0, r) \quad |z - z_0| < r$



~~fix~~ fix $z \in D(z_0, r)$

$$a \quad |z - a| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow a \in D(z_0, r)$$

$$|z_0 - a| = |z_0 - z + z - a| \leq \underbrace{|z_0 - z|}_{< r} + \underbrace{|z - a|}_{< \varepsilon} < r + \varepsilon = r$$

$$\varepsilon < r - |z - z_0|$$

3e $\operatorname{Re}(az+b) > 0, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{C}$

$$a = a_1 + ia_2$$

$$b = b_1 + ib_2$$

$$z = x + iy$$

$$\begin{aligned} az+b &= (a_1 + ia_2)(x + iy) + (b_1 + ib_2) = \\ &= \underbrace{(a_1x - a_2y + b_1)}_{\operatorname{Re}} + i(\dots) \end{aligned}$$

$$\operatorname{Re}(az+b) = a_1x - a_2y + b_1 > 0$$

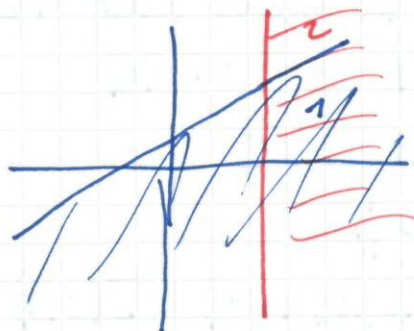
$$a_2y < a_1x + b_1$$

1 assume that $a_2 > 0$

$$y < \frac{a_1}{a_2}x + \frac{b_1}{a_2}$$

2 assume that $a_2 < 0$

$$y > \frac{a_1}{a_2}x + \frac{b_1}{a_2}$$



HW 2

① find $|z|$ and $\arg z \quad -\pi < \arg z < \pi$

$$z_1 = 3i$$

$$z_2 = 1+i$$

$$z_3 = -1-i$$

⋮

$$z_z = bi$$

$$z_y = a+ib \quad a, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\arg z = \arctan \frac{b}{a}$$

$$\textcircled{2} 1. |a+b|^2 + |a-b|^2 = 2(|a|^2 + |b|^2)$$

$$2. |1-ab|^2 - |a-b|^2 = (1+|ab|^2) - (|a|^2 + |b|^2)$$

$$\text{LHS} = (a+b)(\bar{a}+\bar{b}) + (a-b)(\bar{a}-\bar{b}) = \dots$$

$$\textcircled{3} \underbrace{z \in \mathbb{C}}_A \text{ limit point of } S \iff \underbrace{\exists \{z_n\} : z_n \in S, n \in \mathbb{N}}_B$$

1) $A \rightarrow B$
 $z \in \mathbb{C}$ - limit point of S
 - limit point of S

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \exists z_n \in S \quad |z - z_n| < \frac{1}{n} \quad z_n \neq z$$

$$\{z_n\}, z_n \neq z \quad z_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} z$$

2) $B \rightarrow A$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \exists \{z_n\}, z_n \in S, n \in \mathbb{N}, z \neq z_n, \quad \left(z_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} z \right) \\ \forall \delta > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq N \quad |z_n - z| < \delta \end{array} \right.$$

$\Rightarrow z$ - limit point

4. $D(z, r)$ - open, $\bar{D}(z, r)$ - closed disc

$$1) \underbrace{\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} D(0, 1 - \frac{1}{n})}_A = \underbrace{D(0, 1)}_B$$

$A \subset B$

$$\text{fix } z \in A \quad \exists N \forall n \geq N \quad z \in \bar{D}(0, 1 - \frac{1}{n})$$

$$|z - 0| \leq 1 - \frac{1}{n} < 1$$

$A \supset B$ fix $z \in B \quad |z| < 1$

need to show that $|z| \leq 1 - \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n > N, n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$|z| < 1 \quad \exists \varepsilon = 1 - |z|$$

$$|z| = 1 - \varepsilon$$

$$N: \varepsilon > \frac{1}{N}$$

$$2) \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} D(0, 1 + \frac{1}{n}) = \bar{D}(0, 1)$$

$$A \subset B \quad \begin{array}{l} |z| < 1 + \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \\ |z| \leq 1 \quad \text{- take limit} \end{array}$$

$$A \supset B \quad |z| \leq 1 < 1 + \frac{1}{n}$$

$\textcircled{6}$ A, B - closed $A \cup B, A \cap B$ - closed set

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A^c = \mathbb{C} \setminus A \\ B^c = \mathbb{C} \setminus B \end{array} \right\} \text{open} \quad \begin{array}{l} (A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c \\ (A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c \end{array}$$

$A \cup B$ - closed $\Leftrightarrow (A \cup B)^c$ is open

$(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$ fix $z \in A^c \cap B^c \Leftrightarrow z \in A^c \wedge z \in B^c$

A^c - open $\exists \delta_1 > 0 \ D(z, \delta_1) \subset A^c$

$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_{\text{need to}} \ A^c$ - open

find $\delta > 0$ s.t

B^c - open $\exists \delta_2 > 0 \ D(z, \delta_2) \subset B^c$

choose $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$

$A \cap B$

Let A_k - closed, $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Is it true

(a) $\bigcup_k A_k$ is closed - false, counter example from Qu 4

(b) $\bigcap_k A_k$ is closed

$(\bigcap_k A_k)^c = \bigcup_k A_k^c$

fix $z \in \bigcup_k A_k^c$ A_k - closed $\Rightarrow A_k^c$ - open

$\exists m \in \mathbb{N} \ z \in A_m^c \leftarrow$ open $\exists \delta > 0 \ D(z, \delta) \subset A_m^c \subset \bigcup_k A_k^c$

7. $S \subset \mathbb{C}$, $z \notin S$

distance between z & S : $d(z, S) = \inf_{w \in S} |z - w|$

$d(z, S) > 0$

S^c - open $z \in S^c \ D(z, r) \subset S^c$

17/10-2011

LIMITS

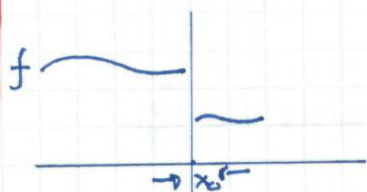
$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} P(z) = P(z_0), \ z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$

w_0
 \uparrow
 $f(z)$



same limit, no matter from where you approach z_0

real analysis

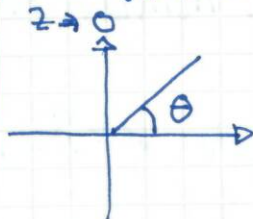


f has no limit at x_0

example

$f(z) = \frac{\text{Im } z}{z}, \ z \neq 0$

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



Let $z = re^{i\theta}, \ \theta \in [-\pi, \pi]$.

Then $f(z) = \frac{r \sin \theta}{r e^{i\theta}} = \frac{\sin \theta}{e^{i\theta}} \rightarrow \frac{\sin \theta}{e^{i\theta}}$ θ is fixed

$$\theta = 0 \Rightarrow \lim = 0$$

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} \Rightarrow \lim = -i$$

The limits are different for different values of θ
 $\Rightarrow f$ has no limit at $z_0 = 0$

CONTINUITY

Def 1.28 Function f is continuous at z_0 if

- ① $z_0 \in D(f)$,
- ② $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$

f is said to be continuous on the set S if f is continuous at every point of S .

Alternative Let $z_0 \in D(f)$. Assume that $D'(z_0, r) \cap D(f) \neq \emptyset$, for any $r > 0$. Then f is continuous at z_0 if $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta$ s.t. $|f(z) - f(z_0)| < \epsilon$ as soon as $|z - z_0| < \delta$, $z \in D(f)$.

Properties

- ① Polynomials are continuous on \mathbb{C} . Rational functions $\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ are continuous away from the roots of $Q(z)$
- ② By Algebra of Limits, if f & g are continuous at z_0 , then so are
 - 1) $f+g$
 - 2) fg
 - 3) $\frac{f}{g}$, away from the roots of g
- ③ If $f = u+iv$ is continuous, then so are u, v . And vice versa
- ④ If f, g are continuous, then $f(g(z))$ is also continuous.
Notation: $(f \circ g)(z) = f(g(z))$
- ⑤ If f is continuous, then $|f|$ is continuous
The converse (opposite) is not true.

example

$$g(z) = e^{\sqrt{1+x^2}} + i \sin(y^3 x)$$

Re g and Im g are continuous on \mathbb{R}^2 , and hence by ③ g is continuous.

For a real valued function $h(x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$: How to guarantee that h is bounded?

Answer: h is bounded if it is continuous on a closed interval $[a, b]$

Bounded continuous functions

We say that f is bounded on $D(f)$ if there is a number $M > 0$ s.t. $|f(z)| \leq M$ when $z \in D(f)$

Theorem 1.29

Suppose that f is continuous on the compact set S . Then

- 1) f is bounded on S
- 2) the function $|f|$ attains its max and min values on S

Chapter 2: Derivatives and analytic functions

Real analysis (remainder):

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

Def 2.1 Suppose that $D(z_0, r) \subset D(f)$ for some $r > 0$. Then we say that f is differentiable at z_0 if the limit



$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} \text{ exists.}$$

The limit is called the derivative of f at z_0 .

If $D(f)$ is a domain, then if f is differentiable at every $z \in D(f)$, then f is holomorphic on $D(f)$.

$H(\Omega)$ is the set of all holomorphic functions on a domain Ω (open, connected set)

If $S \subset \mathbb{C}$, then we say that f is holomorphic on S if $f \in H(\Omega)$ for some $\Omega \supset S$.



f is holomorphic at z_0 if it is holomorphic on $D(z_0, r)$ with some $r > 0$.



If f is analytic on \mathbb{C} we say that f is an entire function.

Rewrite:
$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h}$$

example
let $g(z) = |z|^2 = x^2 + y^2$

let's try to find $g'(z_0)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g(z_0 + h) - g(z_0)}{h} &= \frac{|z_0 + h|^2 - |z_0|^2}{h} = \frac{(z_0 + h)(\overline{z_0 + h}) - |z_0|^2}{h} \\ &= \frac{z_0 \overline{z_0} + h \overline{z_0} + z_0 \overline{h} + h \overline{h} - |z_0|^2}{h} = \frac{z_0 \overline{h} + z_0 \overline{h} + h \overline{h}}{h} \end{aligned}$$

look at $z_0 \frac{\overline{h}}{h}$. If $z_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{|z_0|^2 - |z_0|^2}{h} = \overline{h} \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$

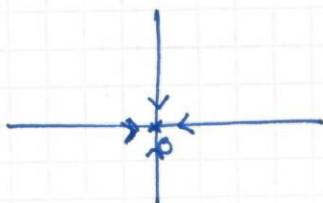
$$\Rightarrow g'(0) = 0$$

suppose $z_0 \neq 0$. Assume first that $h = t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{Then } z_0 \frac{\overline{h}}{h} = z_0 \frac{t}{t} = z_0$$

Assume that $h = iu, u \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$z_0 \frac{\overline{h}}{h} = z_0 \frac{-iu}{iu} = -z_0$$



Thus g is differentiable only at $z_0 = 0$ and $g'(0) = 0$.

Note: g is continuous on \mathbb{C}

2- $f(z) = z^2, z \in \mathbb{C}$

write:

$$\frac{(z+h)^2 - z^2}{h} = \frac{2zh + h^2}{h} = 2z + h \rightarrow 2z \text{ as } h \rightarrow 0$$

$\Rightarrow f$ is differentiable on \mathbb{C} , i.e. f is holomorphic on \mathbb{C} and $f'(z) = 2z$

Lemma 2.2 If f is differentiable at z_0 , f is continuous at z_0 .

PROOF: Want to show $f(z) \rightarrow f(z_0)$ as $z \rightarrow z_0$

Write $f(z) - f(z_0) = \underbrace{f(z) - f(z_0)}_{z - z_0} (z - z_0)$ by A.o.L $\xrightarrow{z \rightarrow z_0} f'(z_0) \cdot 0 = 0$

Thus $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$, as required \blacksquare

The Cauchy-Riemann equations

We are looking for a link between real and imaginary part of f , which guarantees differentiability.

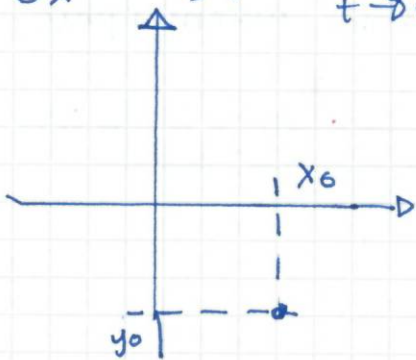
Partial derivatives (remainder):

look $g(x, y)$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x_0 + t, y_0) - g(x_0, y_0)}{t} \quad (\text{fix } y, \text{ move along } x\text{-axis})$$

$$= g_x(x_0, y_0)$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x_0, y_0 + t) - g(x_0, y_0)}{t} = g_y(x_0, y_0)$$



Theorem 2.3

Suppose that $f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$ is differentiable at $z_0 = x_0 + i y_0$. Then the partial derivatives u_x, v_x, u_y, v_y exist at (x_0, y_0) and $f'(z_0) = u_x + i v_x = v_y - i u_y$ and therefore

$$\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases} \quad \text{Cauchy-Riemann equations}$$

Proof Use $f'(z_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h}$

Let $h = t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $f'(z_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + t, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{t}$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{u(x_0 + t, y_0) - u(x_0, y_0)}{t} + i \frac{v(x_0 + t, y_0) - v(x_0, y_0)}{t} \right]$$

$$= u_x + i v_x$$

Thus limits of re and im parts exist as $t \rightarrow 0$ and hence u_x, v_x exist and $f'(z_0) = u_x(x_0, y_0) + i v_x(x_0, y_0)$

Now assume that $h = it, t \in \mathbb{R}$
Then

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0, y_0 + it) - f(x_0, y_0)}{it}$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{v(x_0, y_0 + it) - v(x_0, y_0)}{t} - i \frac{u(x_0, y_0 + it) - u(x_0, y_0)}{t} \right]$$

$$= v_y - i u_y \text{ as claimed } \square$$

example

$f = z^2, z \in \mathbb{C}$
Rewrite: $f(z) = \underbrace{x^2 - y^2}_u + i \underbrace{2xy}_v$ so

$$u_x = 2x \quad v_x = 2y$$

$$u_y = -2y \quad v_y = 2x$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases} \text{ Cauchy-Riemann equations } \checkmark$$

let $g(z) = |z|^2 = \underbrace{x^2 + y^2}_u + i \underbrace{0}_v$

$$u_x = 2x \quad v_x = 0$$

$$u_y = 2y \quad v_y = 0$$

$\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$ only at $z=0$

Remains: $f' \Rightarrow$ CRE

If CRE are not satisfied, then f is not differentiable.

$f = u + iv$ satisfies CRE

Q: $v + iu$
 $\begin{cases} v_x = u_y \\ v_y = -u_x \end{cases}$ NO! does not satisfy CRE

Properties of differentiable functions

- ① $\frac{d}{dz} c = 0, c = \text{constant}$
- ② $\frac{d}{dz} (cf) = c \frac{d}{dz} f, \frac{d}{dz} f = f'$
- ③ $\frac{d}{dz} z^n = n z^{n-1}, \text{ for any } n=1, 2, \dots$
- ④ $\frac{d}{dz} (f+g) = \frac{d}{dz} f + \frac{d}{dz} g$
- ⑤ $\frac{d}{dz} (fg) = f'g + fg'$

$$\textcircled{6} \left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}$$

$$\textcircled{7} \frac{d}{dz} (f \circ g)(z) = f'(g(z))g'(z)$$

Holomorphic functions are also called ^{19/10-2011} analytic. The function f is said to be entire if it is analytic in \mathbb{C} .

example $f(z) = z^2$

$f = u + iv$ f is diff. at z_0
 then $\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$ CRE

Theorem 2.5

Let f be holomorphic on a domain Ω

① Assume that $f'(z) = 0$ for all $z \in \Omega$. Then $f(z) = \text{const}$ for all $z \in \Omega$

② Suppose that $|f|$ is constant on Ω . Then f is constant on Ω .

PROOF EXAM

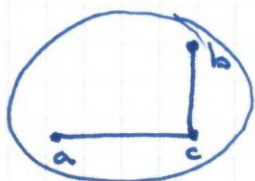
Write CRE for $f = u + iv$

At $\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$ From $f' = u_x + iv_x = 0$ we conclude: $u_x = v_x = 0$, and due to $(*)$, $u_y = v_y = 0$

suppose first that $\Omega = D(z_0, r)$, $r > 0$, $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$. Let $a, b \in D(z_0, r)$

Want $f(a) = f(b)$

Observe a & b can be joined by a polygonal path which consists of the segments, parallel to the coordinate axes

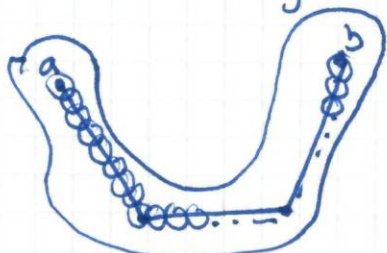


On $[a, c]$ we use $u_x = v_x = 0$, so u, v are constant $\Rightarrow f(a) = f(c)$

On $[c, b]$ we use $u_y = v_y = 0$, so u, v are constant $\Rightarrow f(c) = f(b)$

Thus $f(a) = f(b)$ as required.

Let R be an arbitrary domain, i.e. connected and open set. Thus we can join any $a, b \in \Omega$ with a polygonal path



cover the path with open disk of a suitable radius, $r > 0$.

In every disk f is constant. Due to the overlap, these constants are the same.

Therefore $f(a) = f(b)$, i.e. f is constant on Ω

② PROOF EXAM

Assume $|f| = c \geq 0$

If $c=0 \Rightarrow |f|^2 = u^2 + v^2 = 0$ and $u=v=0$.

Let $c > 0$ Then write

$$u^2 + v^2 = c^2$$

differentiate wrt x : $2u_x u + 2v_x v = 0$
// y : $2u_y u + 2v_y v = 0$

$$\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$$

By CRE:
$$\begin{cases} u_x u - u_y v = 0 \\ u_y u + u_x v = 0 \end{cases}$$

Multiply line 1 by u , line 2 by v
$$\begin{cases} u_x u^2 - u_y v u = 0 \\ u_y u v + u_x v^2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Add up: $u_x u^2 + u_x v^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow u_x (u^2 + v^2) = c^2 u_x = 0$

as $c \neq 0$, we have $u_x = 0$

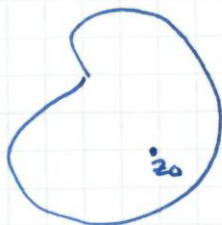
In the same way you will find $u_y = 0$, therefore by CRE $v_x = v_y = 0$

$\Rightarrow f'(z) = u_x + i v_x = 0 \Rightarrow f$ is constant by part ①

Real: f differentiable \Rightarrow CRE

Theorem 2.6

Let $f = u + i v$ be continuous on a domain Ω , and let u_x, v_x, u_y, v_y be continuous on Ω . If u, v satisfy CRE at some point $z_0 \in \Omega$, then f is differentiable at z_0 .



example 2.7

Let $f(z) = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y)$, $z = x + i y$.
The real part $u(x, y) = e^x \cos y$ and imaginary part $v(x, y) = e^x \sin y$, are continuous on \mathbb{C} , and u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y exist and are continuous on \mathbb{C} :

$$\begin{aligned} u_x &= e^x \cos y & v_x &= e^x \sin y \\ u_y &= -e^x \sin y & v_y &= e^x \cos y \end{aligned}$$

CRE hold for all x, y : $u_x = v_y$, $u_y = -v_x$.
By theorem 2.6 f is analytic on \mathbb{C} , i.e. entire.

Moreover $f' = u_x + i v_x = u + i v = f$, i.e. $f' = f$

This is why we denote $f(z) = \exp(z) = e^z$

Remark

Define $f_z = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{z} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$

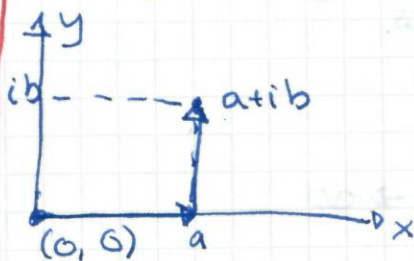
$$f_{\bar{z}} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{z} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$$

Assume that f is analytic, i.e. $u_x = v_y$, $u_y = -v_x$.

Find $f_{\bar{z}}$ in terms of u, v :

$$f_{\bar{z}} = \frac{1}{z} [u_x + i v_x + i(u_y + i v_y)] = \frac{1}{z} [u_x - v_y + i(u_y + v_x)] = 0$$

$$u_x = u_y = v_x = v_y = 0$$



$$0 \rightarrow a$$

$$a \rightarrow a+ib$$

$$u_x = u_y = 0$$

$$u(x,y) = u(0,y) \quad \forall x \in (0,a)$$

$$v(x,y) = v(0,y) \quad v(a,b)$$

$D(0,R)$

Think about definition of derivative

Qu 3

a) Verify $\operatorname{Im} z$ & \bar{z} do not satisfy CRE at any point

$$f(z) = \operatorname{Im} z = y \quad z = x+iy$$

$$g(z) = \bar{z} = x-iy$$

write partial derivatives ~~etc~~

b) $f(z) = |z| = \sqrt{x^2+y^2}$

$z_0 = 0$; at z_0 CRE hold

$f(z)$ is not holomorphic at 0

- use def, consider $\frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h}$

Qu 4

$f \in H(D(0,R))$ $R > 0$ $g(z) = f(\bar{z})$ is holomorphic at 0

$z \in D(0,R)$, $\bar{z} \in D(0,R)$

f is holomorphic at \bar{z}

$\exists f'(\bar{z})$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(z+h) - g(z)}{h} = \frac{f(\overline{z+h}) - f(\bar{z})}{h} = \overline{\left(\frac{f(\bar{z}+h) - f(\bar{z})}{h} \right)} = \overline{f'(\bar{z})}$$

from P81 $D(0,R)$ - open

$\forall z \in D(0,R)$ we can find h s.t $z+h \in D(0,R)$

Qu 5

Prove $\frac{d}{dz} z^n = n z^{n-1}$ use induction

$$\frac{d}{dz} (z+h)^n - z^n = \frac{\text{Binomial}}{h} = \frac{(z+h-z) \left((z+h)^{n-1} z^0 + \dots + (z+h) z^{n-1} \right)}{h}$$

$$= (z+h)^{n-1} \cdot z^0 + (z+h)^{n-2} \cdot h$$

24/10-2011

3 COMPLEX SERIES

let $a_k, k=0,1,\dots$ be a complex sequence. Then the formal sum $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$ is called a complex series

Define $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$ for finite n , "Partial sums"

If S_n converges as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we say that the series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$ converges. So, by definition

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n a_k, \text{ if the limit exists.}$$

Properties

① If the series converges then $a_k \rightarrow 0, k \rightarrow \infty$

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k$ - doesn't converge, $a_k \not\rightarrow 0, k \rightarrow \infty$

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{ik\theta}, \theta \in (-\pi, \pi]$ doesn't converge

As a consequence $\{a_k\}$ is a bounded sequence

② If $\sum a_k$ & $\sum b_k$ are convergent, then

$\sum (a_k + Ab_k)$ converges as well for any complex A .

③ We say that $\sum a_k$ converges absolutely, if $\sum |a_k|$ converges. If the series converges absolutely, it is convergent.

example

$\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ converges, but $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ diverges!

Proposition 3.1 (comparison test)

Let $\sum a_k$ be a complex series, and let $\sum b_k$ be a series of non-negative numbers b_k . Assume that for some number $M > 0$ we have $|a_k| \leq Mb_k$ for all k . Then if $\sum b_k$ converges, then $\sum a_k$ converges absolutely.

Write $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots$

If one deletes finitely many terms, this doesn't affect convergence.

Proposition 3.2 (Ratio test)

Let $\sum a_k$ be a series. Suppose that

$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_{k+1}|}{|a_k|} = l$ exists with some $l \geq 0$. Then if $l < 1$

then the series converges absolutely. If $l > 1$ it diverges. If $l = 1$ we don't know

example

$\sum \frac{1}{n^2} \Rightarrow l = 1$ but it converges.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \alpha > 1 - \text{convergence} \\ \alpha \leq 1 - \text{divergence} \end{cases}$

Proposition 3.3 (Root test)

Let $\sum a_k$ be a series. Assume that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_k|^{1/k} = r$ exists, $r \geq 0$. If $r < 1$, then the series converges absolutely, and if $r > 1$, then it diverges.

$r = 1$ doesn't know

example

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k$ geometrical series. Here $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

For what values of z does it converge?

Recall: $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k = \frac{1}{1-z}$, $|z| < 1$

Ratio test:

$$\frac{|z^{k+1}|}{|z^k|} = |z| \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} |z| \begin{cases} < 1 \text{ converges} \\ > 1 \text{ diverges} \end{cases}$$

POWER SERIES

Power series is this:

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k$, where $a_k, k=0,1,\dots$, are fixed complex numbers and $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ is also fixed.

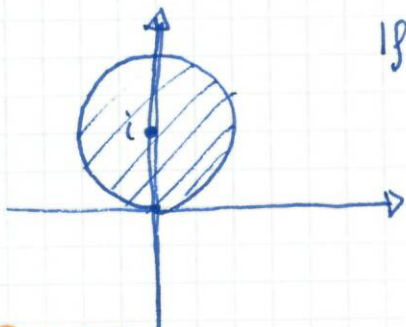
The function f depends on the variable $z \in \mathbb{C}$

example

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (z-i)^k$ For which values of z does this series converge?

Answer: $|z-i| < 1$, i.e. $z \in D(i,1)$

If $|z-i| > 1$, then it diverges



Def 3.4

The radius of convergence of (*) is defined to be

$$R = \sup \left\{ |z| : \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k z^k| \text{ converges} \right\}$$

(Note that R can be infinite, then the series converges for all values of z)



Lemma 3.5

Let R be the radius of convergence of (*)

Then

① If $|z-z_0| < R$, then the series converges absolutely

② If $R < \infty$ and $|z-z_0| > R$, then the series diverges.

(*)
all def'n and
theorems given
in Real Analysis
are applicable

Proof Assume $z_0 = 0$. Suppose that $|z| < R$. Pick a number w :



Pick a number w : $|z| < |w| < R$, the series (*) at w , converges absolutely, i.e. $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k| |w|^k$ converges. This is possible

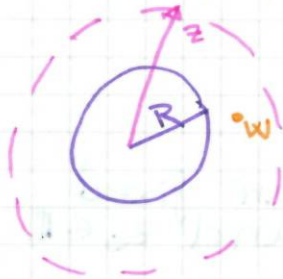
due to definition 3.4.

Since $|z| < |w|$, we have $|a_k| |z|^k < |a_k| |w|^k$.

By comparison test, $\sum |a_k| |z|^k$ converges, as required.

second part

Suppose that $\sum a_k z^k$ converges and $|z| > R$. Pick a w : $R < |w| < |z|$. Want to show:



$\sum |a_k w^k|$ converges. Indeed, $a_k z^k$ is a bounded sequence by prop 1, so $|a_k z^k| \leq M$, with some $M > 0$.

geometrical series

Thus $|a_k w^k| = |a_k| |z^k| / |z|^k \leq M |w/z|^k$

The series $|w/z|^k$ converges if $|w| < |z|$

\Rightarrow by comparison principle (this series)

$\sum |a_k w^k|$ converges. This contradicts def 3.4

\Rightarrow Part 2 is proved. \square

example

① $\sum z^k, R=1$



$\sum (z-i)^k, R=1$



② $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^{10} (3z)^k$

Ratio test:

$$\frac{(k+1)^{10} |3z|^{k+1}}{k^{10} |3z|^k} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)^{10} |3z| \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} |3z|$$

By Ratio Test, if $|3z| < 1 \Rightarrow$ convergence

$|3z| > 1 \Rightarrow$ divergence

or $|z| \begin{cases} < 1/3 \Rightarrow \text{conv} \\ > 1/3 \Rightarrow \text{div} \end{cases}$

\Rightarrow Radius of convergence = $\frac{1}{3}$

③ $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^{150}}{n!} z^n$

Ratio test

$$\frac{(n+1)^{150} |z|^{n+1}}{(n+1)! n^{150} |z|^n} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{150} \frac{1}{n+1} |z| \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

Since $0 < 1$, the series converges for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, i.e. $R = \infty$

Remark

$\sum \frac{z^k}{k!}$ is defined for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. It is called the exponential function.

Notation: $\exp(z)$

DIFFERENTIABILITY OF POWER SERIES

Again: $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$ (*) R_1

Compare f with $y(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k (z - z_0)^{k-1}$ (***) R_2

Lemma 3.6

The series (*) & (***) have the same radius of convergence.

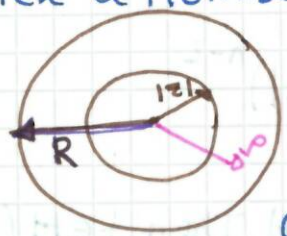
Proof Let R_1, R_2 be the radii of convergence for (*) & (***)

Let's prove that $R_1 \leq R_2$, i.e. assuming that

$\sum a_k (z - z_0)^k$ converges absolutely, we'll show that

$\sum k |a_k| |z - z_0|^{k-1}$ converges as well. Assume $z_0 = 0$.

Pick a number $\rho > 0$ s.t. $|z| < \rho < R$



Write:

$$k |a_k| |z|^{k-1} = \underbrace{\frac{k}{|z|}}_{> 0} \underbrace{\left| \frac{z}{\rho} \right|^k}_{< 1} \underbrace{|a_k| \rho^k}_{< C}$$

Observe the series

$$\sum k \left| \frac{z}{\rho} \right|^k \text{ converges since } |z| < \rho$$

The series $\sum |a_k| \rho^k$ converges since $\rho < R$ $\Rightarrow \exists C$ for some constant $C > 0$ s.t. $|a_k| \rho^k \leq C$ so $|a_k| \rho^k$ is a bounded sequence, and hence $k |a_k| \rho^k \leq C \frac{k}{|z|} \left| \frac{z}{\rho} \right|^k$, and therefore

by comparison test, $\sum k |a_k| |z|^{k-1}$ converges.

Thus $R_1 \leq R_2$

Part 2 Let's show that $R_2 \leq R_1$, i.e. if $\sum k |a_k| |z|^{k-1}$ converges, then $\sum |a_k| |z|^k$ converges too.

Write:

$$|a_k| |z|^k \leq k |z| |a_k| |z|^{k-1} \text{ For all } k \geq 1$$

By comparison test $\sum |a_k| |z|^k$ converges

$$\Rightarrow R_1 = R_2 \quad \blacksquare$$

Denote $R = R_1 = R_2$

By lemma 3.6 the series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k(k-1)(z-z_0)^{k-2}$ has the same radius of convergence.

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k, \quad (*)$$

$$R_1 = R_2 = R$$

26/10/2011

$$g(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k a_k (z-z_0)^{k-1}, \quad (**)$$

Remark $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} k(k-1)a_k (z-z_0)^{k-2}$ has the same radius of convergence as $(*)$ & $(**)$

To study $f'(z)$ we need to look at

$$\frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h} \text{ as } h \rightarrow 0$$

In other words, need to investigate

$$\frac{(z+h-z_0)^n - (z-z_0)^n}{h} \text{ as } h \rightarrow 0$$

Important

PS4 Lemma 3.7 let $z, h \in \mathbb{C}$ and $n \geq 2$. Then

$$\left| \frac{(z+h)^n - z^n}{h} - n z^{n-1} \right| \leq \frac{n(n-1)}{2} |h| (|z| + |h|)^{n-2}$$

Theorem 3.8

let $R > 0$ be the radius of convergence of $(*)$. Then $f \in H(D(z_0, R))$, the series $(**)$ converges within the same radius, and $f'(z) = g(z)$ for all $z \in D(z_0, R)$

PROOF

Need to show that

$$\frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h} - g(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } h \rightarrow 0$$

We'll show

$$\left| \frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h} - g(z) \right| \leq C|h|, \text{ with some constant } C \text{ independent of } h.$$

We'll show this: for any N

$$\left| \frac{1}{h} \sum_{k=0}^N [a_k (z+h)^k - a_k z^k] - \sum_{k=0}^N k a_k z^{k-1} \right| \leq C|h|$$

with constant $C > 0$ independent of N, h .

Rewrite:

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \left| \frac{(z+h)^k - z^k}{h} - k z^{k-1} \right| \leq \sum_{k=0}^N |a_k| \left| \frac{(z+h)^k - z^k}{h} - k z^{k-1} \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{|h|}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1) (|z| + |h|)^{k-2} |a_k|$$

by lemma 3.7

Due to the remark made earlier,

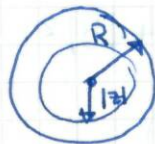
The series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1) |a_k| (|z| + |h|)^{k-2}$ converges and hence

the right-hand side is bounded by $C|h|$ with

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1) |a_k| (|z| + |h|)^{k-2},$$

where h_0 is s.t.

$$|h_0| = \frac{R - |z|}{2}$$



Thus $f'(z) = g(z)$ as required. \square

Note: in the proof we assumed without loss of generality that $z_0 = 0$ (WLOG)

Corollary 3.9

The power series (*) is differentiable any number of times in the disk $D(z_0, R)$. Moreover,

$$f'(z_0) = a_1, \quad f''(z_0) = 2a_2, \quad f'''(z_0) = 6a_3, \quad f^{(n)}(z_0) = n! a_n$$

$$f'(z) = a_1 + 2a_2(z - z_0) + 3a_3(z - z_0)^2 + \dots$$

$$f''(z) = 2a_2 + 6a_3(z - z_0) + \dots$$

Therefore $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!} (z - z_0)^k \rightarrow$ Taylor series!

Exponential & trigonometric functions

Define: $\exp(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!} (= e^z)$

The radius of convergence = $\infty \Rightarrow$ by theorem 3.8 $\exp(z)$ is an entire function.

Theorem 3.10 (Properties of e^z)

① $(e^z)' = e^z$

② $e^0 = 1$

③ $e^{z+w} = e^z \cdot e^w \quad \forall z, w \in \mathbb{C}$

④ $e^z \neq 0$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$

PROOF ① By theorem 3.8

$$(e^z)' = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \frac{z^{k-1}}{k!} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \frac{z^{k-1}}{k!} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!} = e^z$$

② $e^0 = 1$ (write out formula, easy)

Problem class 4

PS2 $z = a + ib$

$$\arctan \frac{b}{a}, a > 0$$

$$\pi - \arctan \left| \frac{b}{a} \right| \rightarrow a < 0, b > 0$$

$$\arctan \left| \frac{b}{a} \right| - \pi \rightarrow a < 0, b < 0$$

$$z = bi \text{ mod } = |b| \quad b > 0 \quad \arg z = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$b < 0 \quad \arg z = -\frac{\pi}{2}$$

~~$$|a+b|^2 = |a|^2 + 2|a||b| + |b|^2$$~~

$$|a+b|^2 = (a+b)(\bar{a} + \bar{b})$$

$$= |a|^2 + \underbrace{a\bar{b} + b\bar{a}}_{2\operatorname{Re}(a\bar{b})} + |b|^2$$

$$d(z, S) = \inf_{w \in S} |z - w|$$

3b $(0, y_0)$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

PS3

Qu 4 $f \in H(D(0, R)) \quad R > 0$

$$g(z) = \overline{f(\bar{z})} \in H(D(0, R))$$



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

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(\bar{z} + \bar{h}) - f(\bar{z})}{\bar{h}} \right) = \overline{f'(\bar{z})}$$

this exists since f is holomorphic

PS2

Qu 7

S -closed $\Rightarrow S^c$ -open

$z \notin S \Rightarrow z \in S^c$ contains all lim points

$$d(z, S) = \inf_{w \in S} |z - w| > 0$$

$d \geq 0$ always by def

show $d > 0$, exclude $d = 0$

(5)

$z \in S^c$ -open $\exists D(z, r) \subset S^c \quad r > 0$

$\forall w \in S \quad w \notin S^c \quad w \notin D(z, r) \quad |z - w| \geq r > 0$

Problem Sheet 4

Q2

$f = u + iv$ - analytic on D

u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y - continuous on D

Prove $g = \underbrace{(u-v)}_a + \underbrace{(u+v)}_b i$ - analytic on D

$$\begin{aligned} a_x &= b_y & a_x &= u_x - v_x & b_x &= u_x + v_x \\ a_y &= -b_x & a_y &= u_y - v_y = -v_x - u_x & b_y &= u_y + v_y = -v_x + u_x \end{aligned}$$

since f analytic on D

$$u_x = v_y$$

$$u_y = -v_x$$

Q3

$z, h \in \mathbb{C}, n \geq 2, n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\frac{d}{dz} (z+h)^n - z^n = h \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (z+h)^k z^{n-1-k} \quad (*)$$

$$\left| \frac{(z+h)^n - z^n}{h} - n z^{n-1} \right| \leq \frac{n(n-1)|h|}{2} (|z| + |h|)^{n-2}$$

$$\text{LHS} = \left| \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} [(z+h)^k z^{n-1-k}] - n z^{n-1}}_{z^{n-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} z^{n+k}} \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} [(z+h)^k z^{n-1-k} - z^{n-1}] \right| = \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} z^{n-1} [(z+h)^k - z^k] \right|$$

$$(*) = \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} z^{n-1-k} \cdot h \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \binom{k-1}{j} (z+h)^{j-1+k} z^k \right|$$

$$\leq |h| \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} |z|^{n-1-k}}_{(|z|+|h|)^{n-1-k}} \cdot \underbrace{\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (|z|+|h|)^{j-1+k}}_{\substack{\text{rewrite} \\ (|z|+|h|)^j}} \cdot \underbrace{|z|^k}_{(|z|+|h|)^{k-1}}$$

Exponential and trigonometric functions

31/10/2011

Def $e^z = \exp(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!}$, $R = \infty$
entire function

Theorem 3.10

- ① $(e^z)' = e^z$
- ② $e^0 = 1$
- ③ $e^z e^w = e^{z+w} \quad \forall z, w \in \mathbb{C}$
- ④ $e^z \neq 0, z \in \mathbb{C}$

Proof

① & ② are done
③ Define $f(z) = e^{p-z} e^z$, $p \in \mathbb{C}$

Differentiate $f'(z) = -e^{p-z} e^z + e^{p-z} e^z = 0$, so by theorem 2.5
 $f(z) = \text{const} \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$

take $f(z) = f(0) = e^p$, and hence $e^{p-z} e^z = e^p$

Now $p = w+z$, so $e^w e^z = e^{w+z}$

④ By part ③
 $e^z \cdot e^{-z} = 1$, and thus $e^z \neq 0 \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$

Corollary 3.11

Let f be entire, and let $f'(z) = f(z)$, and $f(0) = 1$. Then $f(z) = e^z$

Proof

Let $g(z) = e^{-z} f(z)$. Differentiate:

$$g'(z) = -e^{-z} f(z) + e^{-z} f'(z) = -e^{-z} f(z) + e^{-z} f(z) = 0, \text{ and hence by}$$

Thm. 2.5 $g(z) = \text{const}, z \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\text{Thus } g(z) = g(0) = f(0) = 1 \Rightarrow e^{-z} f(z) = 1 \Rightarrow f(z) = e^z \quad \blacksquare$$

Definition

$$e^z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} z^k$$

Recall example 2.7: $e^z = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y)$, $z = x + iy$

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

By ex. 2.7, $f'(z) = f(z)$, $f(0) = 1$, and therefore $f(z) = e^z$.
Thus these two definitions give the same exponential function.

Define trigonometric and hyperbolic functions:

$$\sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}, \quad \cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2},$$

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

Theorem 3.13

Prove !!

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \sinh z = \cosh z, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \cosh z = \sinh z$$

usual identities for trigonometric functions:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \sin z = \cos z, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \cos z = -\sin z$$

$$\cos(z+w) = \cos z \cdot \cos w - \sin z \sin w$$

$$\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z = 1$$

$$\sin(z+w) = \sin z \cos w + \cos z \sin w$$

NOTE:

$$-1 \leq \sin z \leq 1$$

$$\cosh^2 z - \sinh^2 z = 1$$

$$? \leq \sin z \leq ? \quad |\sin z| \leq 1? \quad \text{WRONG!!!}$$

Take $z = it, t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\sin(it) = \frac{e^{-t} - e^t}{2i} \quad t \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow e^t \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\sin(it) = i \sinh(t)$$

EXERCISE

Derive the formulae, might appear in exam.

SERIES EXPANSIONS:

$$\sinh z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$

$$\cosh z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2k}}{(2k)!}$$

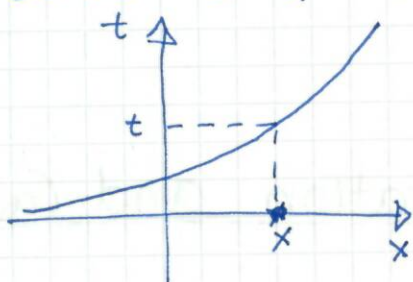
$$\sin z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{z^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$

$$\cos z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{z^{2k}}{(2k)!}$$

LOGARITHM

Remainder Real Analysis

For any $t > 0$ the number $x = \ln t$ is defined to be the unique number s.t. $e^x = t$.



$\ln t$ is the inverse of e^x .

COMPLEX ANALYSIS

Let us find $w \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $e^w = z$ for some $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

Then we'll define:

$$w = \log z$$

Represent $w = u + iv$, so

$$z = e^{u+iv} = e^u \cdot e^{iv} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{polar representation} \\ \text{of } z \end{array} \right.$$

Thus $|z| = e^u$, $v = \arg z$, and therefore $u = \ln |z|$.

is not uniquely defined!

$\arg z$ is not uniquely defined!

To fix, take $\text{Arg } z \in (-\pi, \pi]$ and define

the principal logarithm:

$$\log z = \ln |z| + i \operatorname{Arg} z$$

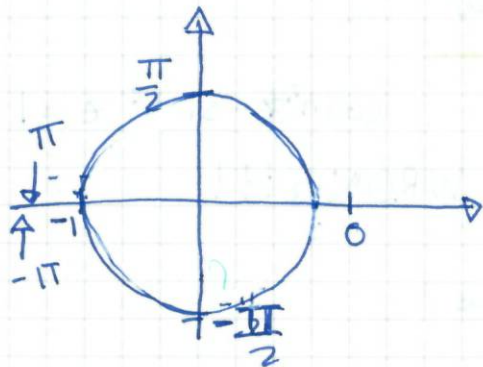
\ln - real analysis
 \log - complex analysis
 something new

For the other values of the argument, $\arg z$, define the following BRANCHES of \log :

$$\log_n z = \ln |z| + i (\operatorname{Arg} z + 2\pi n), \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$\ln |z|$ defined $\forall z \neq 0$

$\log z$ is well defined on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z: \operatorname{Im} z = 0, \operatorname{Re} z \leq 0\}$



Theorem 3.14

$\log z$ is analytic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z: \operatorname{Im} z = 0, \operatorname{Re} z \leq 0\}$ (Examinable)

Moreover, $\frac{d}{dz} \log z = \frac{1}{z}$

Powers Already know $z^n, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $z^\alpha, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
 Assume that $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$

Define: $z^\alpha = e^{\alpha \log z}$ ← have to say which branch of \log is used

Principal value: $z^\alpha = e^{\alpha \log z}$

example

$$i^i = e^{i \log i} = e^{i (\ln |i| + i \frac{\pi}{2} + 2\pi n i)} \\ n \in \mathbb{Z} = e^{-\frac{\pi}{2} - 2\pi n}$$

Chapter 4: Contour Integration and Cauchy Theorem

Curves, paths, contours

Def 4.1

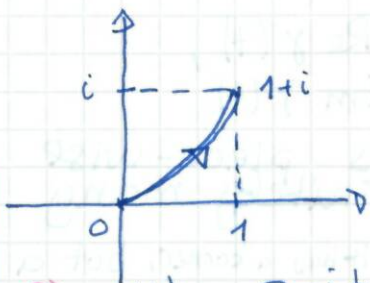
Let $[a, b]$ be an interval of \mathbb{R} . Then a continuous function $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is called a curve.

The image: $\gamma^\times = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z = \gamma(t) \text{ for some } t \in [a, b]\}$
 We say that γ parametrises a curve. a curve has a natural orientation.

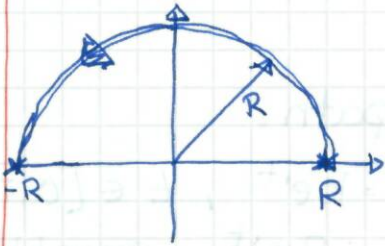
$\gamma(a)$ is the initial point, $\gamma(b)$ is the final point.

examples

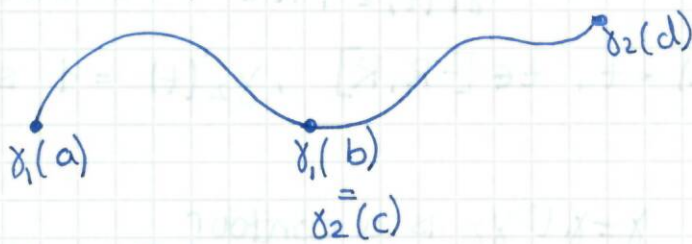
① $\gamma(t) = t + it^2, t \in [0, 1]$



② $\gamma(t) = Re^{it}$, $R > 0$, $t \in [0, \pi]$



A different parametrisation:
 $w(t) = Re^{it^2}$, $t \in [0, \sqrt{\pi}]$



let $\gamma_1: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
 $\gamma_2: [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
 and $\gamma_1(b) = \gamma_2(c)$

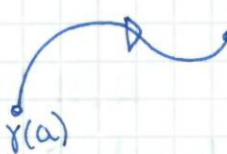
Join of two curves:

$\gamma: [a, b+d-c]$

$$\gamma(t) = \begin{cases} \gamma_1(t), & t \in [a, b] \\ \gamma_2(t+c-b), & t \in [b, b+d-c] \end{cases}$$

Notation: $\gamma_1 \cup \gamma_2$

Reverse curve

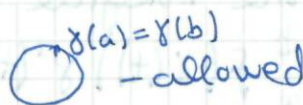
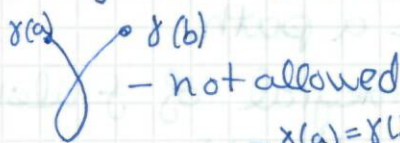


let $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Then the curve
 $\gamma_1(t) = \gamma(b+a-t)$, $t \in [a, b]$
 is called the reverse curve and
 $\gamma_2(a) = \gamma(b)$
 $\gamma_2(b) = \gamma(a)$

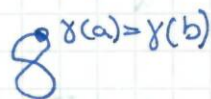
Definition 4.2

let $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a curve. Then

① γ is called simple if γ doesn't have self-intersections,
 i.e. $\gamma(t_1) = \gamma(t_2)$ if $t_1 \neq t_2$ and $|t_1 - t_2| < b - a$



② γ is closed if $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$

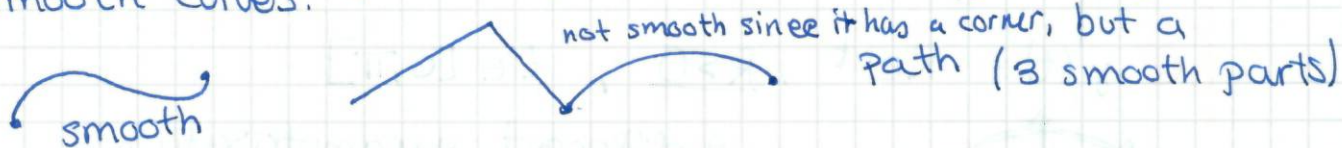


③ γ is closed and simple if it is closed & simple

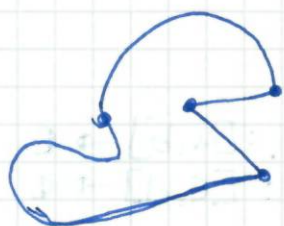
④ γ is smooth if $\gamma'(t)$ exists on (a, b) , here ~~exists~~.

$$\gamma'(t) = \gamma_1'(t) + i\gamma_2'(t), \text{ when } \begin{cases} \gamma_1(t) = \operatorname{Re} \gamma(t), \\ \gamma_2(t) = \operatorname{Im} \gamma(t) \end{cases}$$

⑤ We say that γ is a path if γ is a join of γ is piece-wise smooth, i.e. γ is a join of finitely many smooth curves.

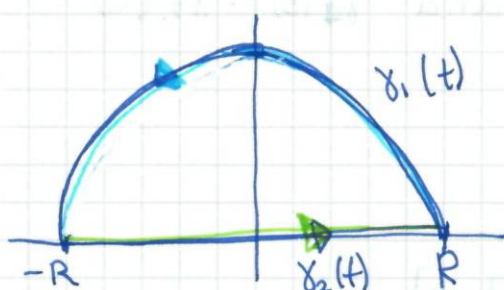


⑥ A contour is a closed simple path.



example 1) let $\gamma_1(t) = Re^{it}$, $t \in [0, \pi]$
 $\gamma_1'(t) = iRe^{it}$, smooth

$\gamma_2(t) = t$, $t \in [-R, R]$, $\gamma_2'(t) = 1$ smooth



$\gamma = \gamma_1 \cup \gamma_2$ is a contour
 γ_1, γ_2 are smooth curves

Theorem 4.3 (JORDAN CURVE THEOREM)

Let γ be a contour. The complement of γ^* is the union of two open sets, denoted $\operatorname{Int} \gamma$ and $\operatorname{Ext} \gamma$, where $\operatorname{Int} \gamma$ is bounded, and $\operatorname{Ext} \gamma$ is unbounded,

$$\text{so } \mathbb{C} = \gamma^* \cup \operatorname{Int} \gamma \cup \operatorname{Ext} \gamma$$

2/11/11

Integration

Let $F(t) = A(t) + iB(t)$ be a complex valued function, with real valued $A(t)$ & $B(t)$.

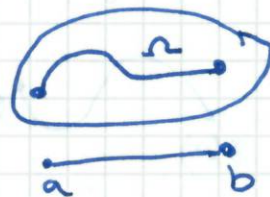
Then by definition:

$$\int_a^b F(t) dt = \int_a^b A(t) dt + i \int_a^b B(t) dt$$

Def 4.4 let f be defined on some domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$, and let $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \Omega$ be a path.

Then we define the integral of f along γ :

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



example

Let $\gamma(t) = re^{it}$, $t \in [0, 2\pi]$. Let $f(z) = z^n$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Find $I_n = \int_{\gamma} z^n dz$. $I_n = \int_0^{2\pi} (re^{it})^n \cdot ire^{it} dt = ir^{n+1} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(n+1)t} dt$



case 1: suppose $n+1 \neq 0$. Then $I_n = ir^{n+1} \frac{e^{i(n+1)t}}{i(n+1)} \Big|_0^{2\pi} = 0$

case 2: let $n+1=0 \Rightarrow n=-1$.
Then $I_{-1} = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{z} dt = 2\pi i$

so $I_n = \begin{cases} 0, & n \neq -1 \\ 2\pi i, & n = -1 \end{cases}$

Take 2 cases as $\int_c^d e^{at} = \frac{e^{at}}{a} \Big|_c^d$
and we can't divide by 0

(Observe: so we can take r as big/small as we like, and I_n will still be the same)

Def 4.5 Let $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a path. Then the length of γ is defined to be

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

Example 4.6

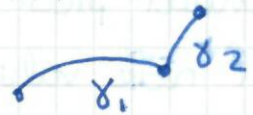
Let $\gamma = re^{it}$, $t \in [0, 2\pi]$. Then

$$L(\gamma) = \int_0^{2\pi} |ire^{it}| dt = r \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi r \text{ as expected.}$$

Theorem 4.7

Let $\gamma, \gamma_1, \gamma_2$ be paths. Then:

① $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = - \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$



② If $\gamma = \gamma_1 \cup \gamma_2$, then $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma_1} f(z) dz + \int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz$

(Helpful, as we can parametrise curves differently, to something suitable)

③ $\int_{\gamma} c f(z) dz = c \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$ for any constant $c \in \mathbb{C}$

④ $\int_{\gamma} (f_1(z) + f_2(z)) dz = \int_{\gamma} f_1(z) dz + \int_{\gamma} f_2(z) dz$

⑤ The integral doesn't depend on parametrisation
Suppose that γ^* is parametrised by two functions:

$$\gamma_1: [a_1, b_1] \rightarrow \gamma^* \text{ and } \gamma_2: [a_2, b_2] \rightarrow \gamma^*$$

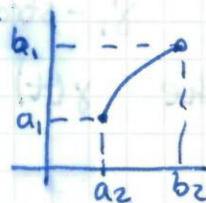
Suppose that there is a function

$$\psi: [a_2, b_2] \rightarrow [a_1, b_1] \text{ with a positive derivative}$$

$$\psi(t) \text{ such that } \gamma_2 = \gamma_1 \circ \psi$$

so we can get γ_2 from $[a_1, b_1] \xrightarrow{\psi} [a_2, b_2] \xrightarrow{\gamma_1} \gamma^*$

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



can't have this:
This is using $\psi(t)$ with positive derivative.

⑥ The length of the path doesn't depend on parametrization

⑦ Suppose $\sup_{z \in \gamma} |f(z)| \leq M$. Then,

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq M L(\gamma) \quad \text{very important} \quad \text{call this the "ML-result"}$$

PROOF

①, ②, ③, ④ are proved the same as real analysis

⑤ Write $\int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz = \int_{a_2}^{b_2} f(\gamma_2(t)) \gamma_2'(t) dt$

Recall: $\gamma_2(t) = \gamma_1(\psi(t))$ so $\gamma_2'(t) = \gamma_1'(\psi(t)) \psi'(t)$

so $\int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz = \int_{a_2}^{b_2} f(\gamma_2(t)) \gamma_2'(t) dt$

$$= \int_{a_2}^{b_2} f(\gamma_1(\psi(t))) \gamma_1'(\psi(t)) \psi'(t) dt = \int_{a_1}^{b_1} f(\gamma_1(s)) \gamma_1'(s) ds$$

using $s = \psi(t)$

$= \int_{\gamma_1} f(z) dz$ as claimed. QED

⑥ Similar proof

⑦ For real valued functions: $\left| \int_a^b F(t) dt \right| \leq \sup_{t \in [a,b]} |F(t)| (b-a)$ and we know

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

Let $I = \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t) dt$, write I in polar form i.e. $I = |I| e^{i\theta}$

Then $|I| = \int_a^b e^{-i\theta} f(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t) dt$

$$= \operatorname{Re} \int_a^b (f(\gamma(t)) e^{-i\theta}) \gamma'(t) dt = \int_a^b \operatorname{Re} \gamma'(t) dt \leq \int_a^b (|f(\gamma(t))| |\gamma'(t)|) dt$$

$$\leq \sup_{z \in \gamma} |f(z)| \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt \leq M L(\gamma) \quad \text{QED}$$

14 / 11 / 11

PATH INTEGRALS

Let $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a path. Let f be a function. Then

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

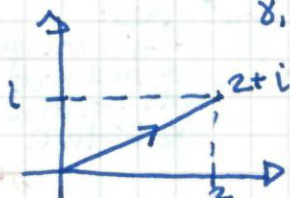
Theorem 4.7 (7)

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq \sup_{z \in \gamma} |f(z)| L(\gamma)$$

example

Find $I_1 = \int_{\gamma_1} z^2 dz$ γ_1 - straight path joining 0 and $2+i$

Take $\gamma(t) = t + \frac{1}{2}it = \frac{t}{2}(2+i) \quad t \in [0, 2]$

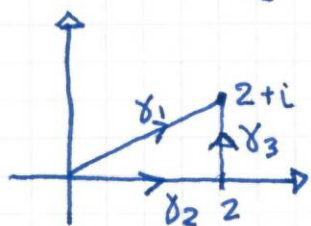


$$\text{Then } I_1 = \int_0^2 \left(\frac{t}{2} (2+i) \right)^2 \frac{2+i}{2} dt = \frac{(2+i)^3}{2^3} \int_0^2 t^2 dt$$

$$= \left(\frac{2+i}{2} \right)^3 \frac{2^3}{3} = \frac{(2+i)^3}{3}$$

$$I_1 = \frac{(2+i)^3}{3}$$

Find $I_2 = \int_{\gamma_2} z^2 dz$, where $\gamma_2(t) = 2t, t \in [0, 1]$



$$\text{Then } I_2 = \int_0^1 (2t)^2 2 dt = 8 \int_0^1 t^2 dt$$

$$= \frac{8}{3}$$

Find $I_3 = \int_{\gamma_3} z^2 dz$, where $\gamma_3(t) = 2+it, t \in [0, 1]$

$$\text{Then } I_3 = i \int_0^1 (2+it)^2 dt = i \int_0^1 (4+4it-t^2) dt$$

$$= 4i - 2 - \frac{i}{3} = -2 + \frac{11}{3}i$$

Compute $I_2 + I_3 = \frac{8}{3} - 2 + \frac{11}{3}i = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{11}{3}i$

On the other hand

$$I_1 = \frac{1}{3} (8 - i + 12i - 6) = \frac{1}{3} (2 + 11i) = I_2 + I_3$$

ANTIDERIVATIVES (or PRIMITIVES)

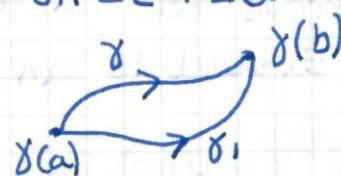
Def 4.8

Let f be continuous on a domain Ω , and let F be a function, analytic on Ω , s.t. $F'(z) = f$. Then F is called an antiderivative (or a primitive of f).

Theorem 4.9 ("Fundamental Theorem of Calculus")

Let f have an antiderivative F on Ω . Let $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \Omega$ be a path. Then

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



Observe:

if γ_1 is another path joining $\gamma(a)$ and $\gamma(b)$, then $\int_{\gamma_1} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$

PROOF

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

by chain Rule:

$$= \int_a^b \frac{d}{dt} F(\gamma(t)) dt = F(\gamma(b)) - F(\gamma(a)) \quad \square$$

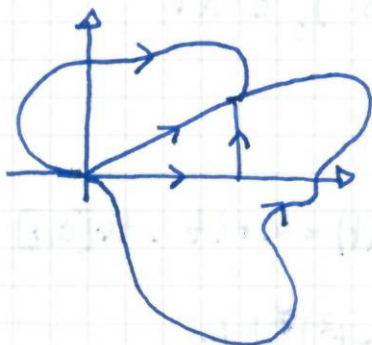
Back to example:

$$\int_{\gamma_1} z^2 dz$$

If $f(z) = z^2$, then $F(z) = \frac{z^3}{3}$ is a primitive

Therefore $I_1 = I_2 + I_3$

(all paths give the same value)



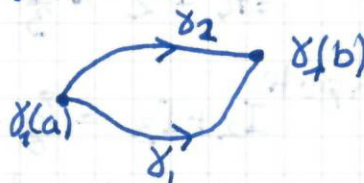
The Cauchy - Goursat Theorem

Reformulate: take two paths γ_1, γ_2 s.t.

$$\gamma_1(a) = \gamma_2(a), \quad \gamma_1(b) = \gamma_2(b)$$

Consider $\gamma_1 \cup (-\gamma_2) = \gamma$
This is a contour. Under what conditions on f

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



Theorem 4.10

Let $f \in H(\Omega)$ and let γ be a contour, s.t. $\text{int } \gamma \subset \Omega$.
Then



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

Plan:

- ① Prove for a triangular contour
- ② Extend to an arbitrary contour γ .



Theorem 4.11

Let $f \in H(\Omega)$ and let γ be a triangular contour s.t. $\text{int } \gamma \subset \Omega$. Then

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

Proof



Denote: $\Delta = \gamma \cup \text{int } \gamma$

Let $L(\gamma)$ be the length of the contour.

Split it in four smaller ~~and equal~~ triangles by joining the middle points of each side.

Let $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, \sigma_4$ be the resulting contours.
Thus

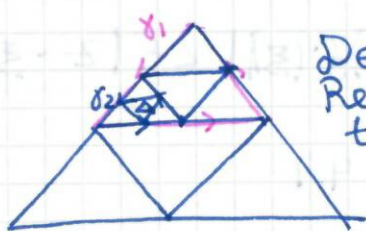
$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^4 \int_{\sigma_j} f(z) dz$$

Let $\left| \int_{\sigma_1} f(z) dz \right|$ be the largest. Denote

$$I_1 = \int_{\sigma_1} f(z) dz. \text{ Therefore } \left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4 |I_1|$$

Observe:

$$L(\sigma_1) = \frac{L(\gamma)}{2}$$



Denote $\gamma_1 = \sigma_1$.
Repeat the partition procedure with the triangle $\Delta_1 = \gamma_1 \cup \text{int } \gamma_1$.

Thus we can find a contour γ_2 s.t. $|I_1| \leq 4 |I_2|$, where

$$I_2 = \int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz,$$

$$\text{and } L(\gamma_2) = \frac{1}{2} L(\gamma_1) = \frac{1}{4} L(\gamma)$$

Note:

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4 |I_1| \leq \frac{16}{4^2} |I_2|$$

Keep repeating the same construction:
we get a sequence of contours γ_k and of triangles $\Delta_k = \gamma_k \cup \text{int } \gamma_k$ s.t.

① $\Delta_{k+1} \subset \Delta_k$,

② $L(\gamma_k) = 2^{-k} L(\gamma)$,

③ $\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4^k \left| \int_{\gamma_k} f(z) dz \right|$

Note: The set $\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \Delta_k$ is not empty.

Indeed, let $z_k \in \Delta_k$ be an arbitrary point. The sequence z_k is bounded, since $z_k \in \Delta_1$.

Thus, by Bolzano-Weierstraß there is a convergent subsequence, z_{k_j} .

$$\text{Let } \xi = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} z_{k_j}$$

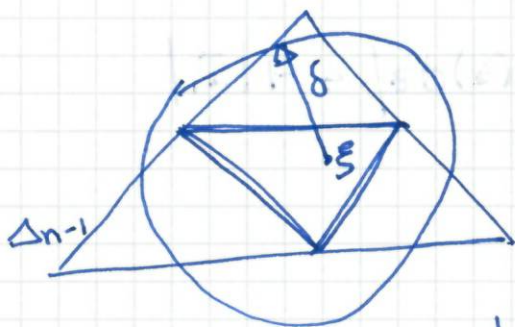
For any n one can find $\exists j$ s.t. $z_{k_j} \in \Delta_n \quad \forall j \geq j$

Since Δ_n is closed, and ξ is a accumulation point, we can claim that $\xi \in \Delta_n$

Thus $\xi \in \Delta_n$ for all n , and therefore $\xi \in \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \Delta_k$.

Recall that f is holomorphic on Ω , so

$$\forall \varepsilon \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \left| \frac{f(z) - f(\xi)}{z - \xi} - f'(\xi) \right| < \varepsilon \text{ if } |z - \xi| < \delta, \text{ i.e. } z \in D(\xi, \delta) \quad (*)$$



observe:

for any $z \in \gamma_n$

$$|z - \xi| \leq \frac{1}{2} L(\gamma_n) = 2^{-n-1} L(\gamma)$$

Thus one can find n s.t. $\Delta_n \subset D(\xi, \delta)$

Rewrite (*):

$$\left| f(z) - f(\xi) - (z - \xi)f'(\xi) \right| < \varepsilon |z - \xi|$$

for $z \in D(\xi, \delta)$

Note: $\int_{\gamma_n} f(\xi) dz = 0$ by Theorem 4.9

and $\int_{\gamma_n} (z - \xi) f'(\xi) dz = 0$ by Thm 4.9.

$$F'(z) = z \\ F(z) = \frac{z^2}{2}$$

Therefore $\int_{\gamma_n} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma_n} [f(z) - f(\xi) - (z - \xi)f'(\xi)] dz$

and hence

$$\left| \int_{\gamma_n} f(z) dz \right| \leq \varepsilon \frac{1}{2} L^2(\gamma_n) = \frac{\varepsilon}{2} L^2(\gamma_n)$$

by thm 4.7(z)

Therefore

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4^n \frac{\varepsilon}{2} L^2(\gamma_n) = 4^n \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \cdot 4^{-n} L^2(\gamma) = \frac{\varepsilon}{2} L^2(\gamma)$$

as ε is arbitrary, $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$ as claimed \square

Theorem 4.12 (Antiderivative theorem)

(No holes since it is convex)

Let Ω be a convex domain, and let f be continuous on Ω , and for any triangular contour γ inside Ω .

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

Then f has an antiderivative in Ω .
More precisely, for any point $a \in \Omega$ the function

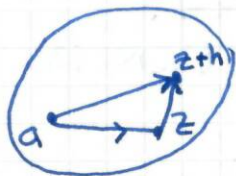


$F(z) = \int_{[a, z]} f(w) dw$ is an antiderivative of f
i.e. $F'(z) = f(z)$

Note by convexity, $[a, z] \subset \Omega$ for all $z \in \Omega$

Proof

Write
$$\frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \left[\int_{[a, z+h]} f(w) dw - \int_{[a, z]} f(w) dw \right]$$



16/11/2011

Proof continued

$$\frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \int_{[z, z+h]} f(w) dw$$

note: $f(z) = \frac{1}{h} \int_{[z, z+h]} f(w) dw$. Thus

$$\frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h} - f(z) = \frac{1}{h} \int_{[z, z+h]} [f(w) - f(z)] dw$$

Let's fix an $\epsilon > 0$. Then due to continuity of f , there is a $\delta > 0$ s.t.

$$|f(z) - f(w)| < \epsilon \quad \text{if} \quad |z - w| < \delta$$

Assume that $|h| < \delta$. Therefore

$$\left| \frac{1}{h} \int_{[z, z+h]} [f(w) - f(z)] dw \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{|h|} \cdot |h| = \epsilon$$

← length of the path

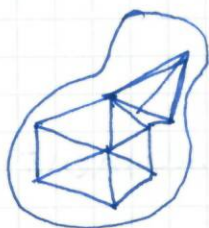
This means that for any $\epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$ s.t.

$$\left| \frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h} - f(z) \right| < \epsilon \quad \text{if} \quad |h| < \delta$$

By def. of limit, $F'(z) = f(z)$ as claimed. \blacksquare

Remark

Let $f \in H(\Omega)$ and let γ be a polygonal contour s.t. $\text{Int } \gamma \subset \Omega$



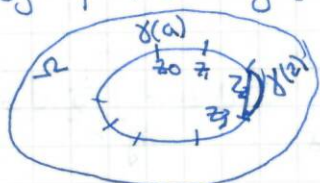
Then
$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$$



This follows from Theorem 4.11.

Proof of theorem 4.10

Let γ be a contour, s.t. $\text{Int } \gamma \subset \Omega$. Pick a sequence of points $\gamma(a) = z_0, z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n = z_0$

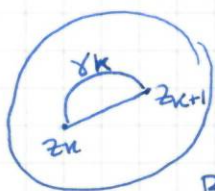


Let σ be the polygonal contour obtained by joining these points.

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

Let γ_k be the part of γ between z_k and z_{k+1} .

Assume that z_k and z_{k+1} are so close, that there is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $[z_k, z_{k+1}] \subset D(z_k, \delta)$



$\gamma_k \in D(z_k, \delta)$ and $D(z_k, \delta) \subset \Omega$

Then $f \in H(D(z_k, \delta))$

By Theorems 4.11 and 4.12 f has an antiderivative!

By Thm 4.9

$$\int_{\gamma_k} f(z) dz = \int_{[z_k, z_{k+1}]} f(z) dz$$

Add them up:

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\sigma} f(z) dz = 0 \text{ as required } \blacksquare$$

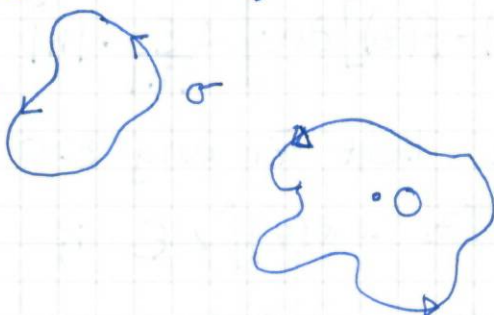
Examples

1. $\int_{\gamma} e^z dz = 0$ for any contour γ

2. $\int_{\sigma} \frac{1}{z} dz = 0$ for σ

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} dz =$$

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i$$



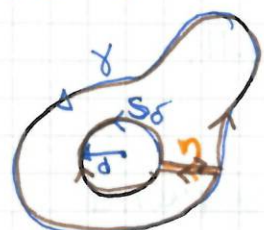
Example 4.14

Let γ be a contour s.t. $0 \in \text{Int } \gamma$

Then $\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i$

Proof

Let $\delta > 0$ be s.t. $D(0, \delta) \subset \text{Int } \gamma$



- Join γ and S_{δ} with a straight segment

Define the contour:

$$\tilde{\gamma} = \gamma \cup \eta \cup (-S_{\delta}) \cup (-\eta)$$

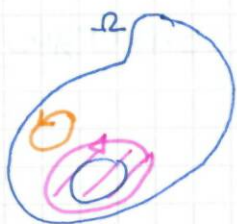
By Cauchy-Goursat (Thm 4.10)

$$\int_{\tilde{\gamma}} \frac{1}{z} dz = 0, \text{ i.e. } \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} dz + \int_{\eta} \frac{1}{z} dz - \int_{S_{\delta}} \frac{1}{z} dz - \int_{\eta} \frac{1}{z} dz = 0$$

Thus $\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} dz = \int_{\delta_{\epsilon}} \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i$ as claimed \square

Definition 4.13

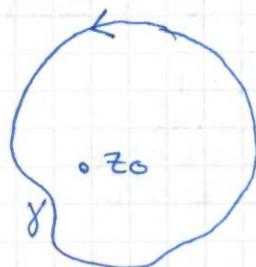
A domain Ω is said to be simply connected, if for any closed simple curve γ we have $\text{Int } \gamma \subset \Omega$



Lemma 4.15

Let γ be a contour s.t. $z_0 \in \text{Int } \gamma$

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-z_0} dz = 2\pi i$$

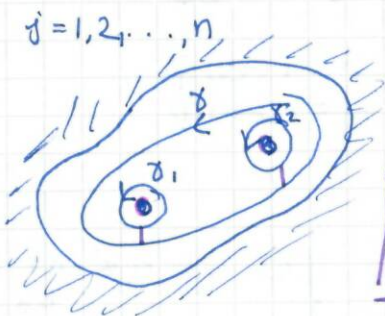


Proof Let $\tilde{\gamma} = \gamma - z_0$. Then

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-z_0} dz = \int_{\tilde{\gamma}} \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i \quad \square$$

Theorem 4.16 (Cauchy-Goursat for multiply connected domains)

Let Ω be a domain, $f \in H(\Omega)$. Let γ be a contour in Ω , and let $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \dots, \gamma_n$ in Ω be continuous s.t. $\text{Int } \gamma_j \cap \text{Int } \gamma_k = \emptyset$ for $j \neq k$, and $\text{Int } \gamma_j \subset \text{Int } \gamma$, $j=1, 2, \dots, n$



Suppose that

$$f \in H(\text{Int } \gamma \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^n \overline{\text{Int } \gamma_j})$$

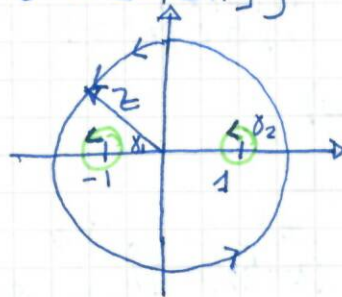
$$\text{Then } \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{\gamma_j} f(z) dz$$

Example

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\gamma = \{z: z = 2e^{it}, t \in [0, 2\pi]\}$$

$$= \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz + \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz$$



Do as in ex 4.14 cut the holes out

Problem class PS4

① $\frac{df}{dx}$ $f = f(x, y)$ $(x, y) \Rightarrow (r, \theta)$ $f = f(r, \theta)$

$$\frac{df}{dr} = \frac{df}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dr} + \frac{df}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dr}$$

on bound there are points for which Σ converges and \exists points Σ diverges

$$\Sigma \frac{1}{n} - \text{diverges} \quad \Sigma \frac{(-1)^n}{n} - \text{converges}$$

~~$R = -1$
 $R = 1+i$
 $1 - \epsilon < |z| < 1 + \epsilon$
 $z \in \mathbb{C}$~~

Problem sheet 5

Q3

$$I_{m,n} = \iint_{|z| < 1} z^m \bar{z}^n dx dy \quad m, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$z = r e^{i\theta} \rightarrow \bar{z} = r e^{-i\theta}$

consider 2 cases: $m = n$ and $m \neq n, m > n$

$dx dy = r dr d\phi$

$$I_{m,n} = \begin{cases} m=n & \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r^{2m} r dr d\phi = 2\pi \int_0^1 r^{2m+1} dr = \frac{2\pi}{2m+2} = \frac{\pi}{m+1} \\ m>n & \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r^{m+n} e^{(m-n)i\phi} r dr d\phi = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{(m-n)i\phi} d\phi = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$|J| = \det J = \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} \end{pmatrix} = r \quad \begin{matrix} x = r \cos \phi \\ y = r \sin \phi \end{matrix}$$

Problem sheet 6

1. Find

$$h(z) = \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{dw}{w(w-z)}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(z_0,r)} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a \notin \text{int } S(z_0,r) \\ f(a) & \text{if } a \in \text{int } S(z_0,r) \end{cases}$$

by C-G thm
CIF

for 1) $|z| > 1$
2) $0 < |z| < 1$

$f(w)$

example

$$\int_{S(0,1)} \frac{z^2}{(z-\frac{1}{2})(z-\frac{3}{2})} dz$$

$$\text{CIF} = \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{\frac{z^2}{z-\frac{3}{2}}}{z-\frac{1}{2}} dz = 2\pi i f(a) = \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^2}{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{2}} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{-1} = -\frac{1}{4}$$

Consider

$$\int_{S(0,1)} \frac{z^2}{(z-\frac{1}{2})(z+\frac{1}{2})} dz = \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{z^2}{z-\frac{1}{2}} dz - \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{z^2}{z+\frac{1}{2}} dz = 2\pi i (f(a_1) - f(a_2)) = 0$$

apply partial fractions $\frac{1}{(z-\frac{1}{2})(z+\frac{1}{2})} = \frac{A}{z-\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{B}{z+\frac{1}{2}}$ $a_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ $a_2 = -\frac{1}{2}$

$$= \frac{z(A+B) + \frac{1}{2}(A \cdot B)}{(z-\frac{1}{2})(z+\frac{1}{2})}$$

$A = -B$
 $A + B = 2$
 $-A = B = -1$

$$\int_{S(0,1)} \frac{g(z)}{z-5} dz = 0 \quad g(z) \text{ is holomorphic inside } S(0,1)$$

by Cauchy-Goursat Thm

Back to zu 1

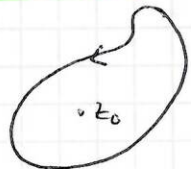
i) $f(w)$
 1) $|z| > 1$ $h(z) = \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{1 dw}{w(w-z)}$ is holomorphic at every point

you can write $w = w - 0$
 z is fixed
 use CIF

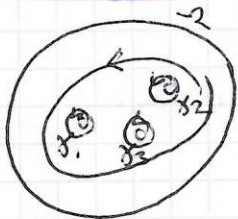
Qv 2
 Evaluate $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{e^z}{z^2+a^2} dz$ $a > 0$ - real number
 $\gamma: \bar{D}(0,a) \subset \text{Int } \gamma$

Lemma 4.15

$\gamma: \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-z_0} dz = 2\pi i$



Theorem 4.16



$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^N \int_{\gamma_j} f(z) dz$$



The Cauchy Integral Formula

Theorem 4.17

Assume that Ω is a simply connected domain, and let $f \in H(\Omega)$ let γ be a contour in Ω , s.t. $z_0 \in \text{Int } \gamma$

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

Or, $\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} dz = 2\pi i f(z_0)$

NB!!!

very important

EXAM Q2 Proof

Write

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

by lemma 4.15: $= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)-f(z_0)}{z-z_0} dz + f(z_0)$

It remains to show that

$$\int_{\gamma} g(z) dz = 0, \text{ with } g(z) = \frac{f(z)-f(z_0)}{z-z_0}$$

If g were analytic on Ω , this would be true due to Cauchy-Goursat

But g is not analytic on $\Omega \setminus \{z_0\}$



~~By the previous theorem~~

Let $\alpha > 0$ be a number s.t. $\gamma_{\alpha} = S(z_0, \alpha)$ is inside $\text{Int } \gamma$. By Theorem 4.16

$$\int_{\gamma} g(z) dz = \int_{\gamma_{\alpha}} g(z) dz$$

$$\int_{\gamma} g(z) dz = \int_{\gamma_{\alpha}} g(z) dz$$

Since f is diff on Ω , $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$ s.t.

$$|g(z) - f'(z_0)| < \epsilon \text{ if } |z - z_0| < \delta$$

Use this with $\epsilon = 1$.

$$(*) |g(z)| < 1 + |f'(z_0)|, |z - z_0| < \delta$$

Assume that $\alpha < \delta$, so (*) holds for $z \in \gamma_{\alpha}$

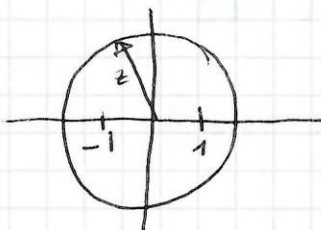
By theorem 4.7(7)

$$\left| \int_{\gamma_{\alpha}} g(z) dz \right| \leq \underbrace{(1 + |f'(z_0)|)}_{\text{does not depend on } \alpha} \cdot 2\pi\alpha$$

As $\alpha > 0$ is arbitrary, $\int_{\gamma} g(z) dz = \int_{\gamma_{\alpha}} g(z) dz = 0$ as required
Take α arbitrary small, then RHS $\rightarrow 0$

Examples

① $\int \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz$
 $S(0, 2)$



by thm 4.16

$$\int_{S(0,2)} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz = \int_{S(-1, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz + \int_{S(1, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz$$

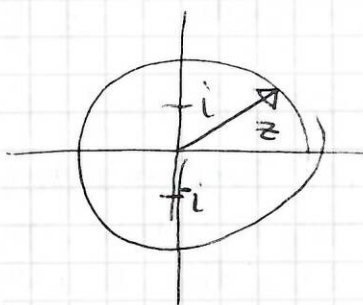
$$\int_{S(-1, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz = \int_{S(-1, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{1}{z-1} = f(z) dz = 2\pi i f(-1) = 2\pi i \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \underline{-\pi i}$$

In the same way,

$$\int_{S(1, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz = \int_{S(1, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{1}{z+1} = g(z) dz = 2\pi i g(1) = \underline{\pi i}$$

$$\text{Thus } \int_{S(0,2)} \frac{1}{z^2-1} dz = -\pi i + \pi i = \underline{0}$$

② $\int_{S(0,2)} \frac{\sin z}{z^2+1} dz$



By Thm 4.16,

$$I = \underbrace{\int_{S(i, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{\sin z}{z^2+1} dz}_{I_1} + \underbrace{\int_{S(-i, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{\sin z}{z^2+1} dz}_{I_2}$$

$$I_1 = \int_{S(i, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{\sin z}{z-i} dz = 2\pi i \frac{\sin i}{i+i} = \underline{\pi \sin i}$$

- related to hyperbolic sin, find it!

$$I_2 = \int_{S(-i, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{\sin z}{z-i} dz = 2\pi i \frac{\sin(-i)}{-i-i} = \underline{\pi \sin i}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } I = I_1 + I_2 = 2\pi \sin i$$

Alternative method: use partial fractions:

$$\frac{\sin z}{z^2+1} = \frac{\sin z}{2i(z-i)} - \frac{\sin z}{2i(z+i)}$$

you can apply CIF to this and get the same answer!

Applications

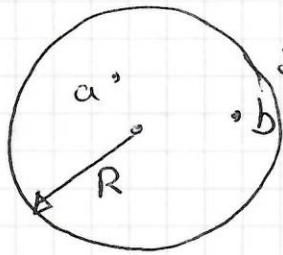
Theorem 4.18 (Liouville's Theorem)

Let f be an entire function, s.t. there exists a number $M > 0$: $|f(z)| \leq M \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$

Then $f(z) = \text{const} \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$

Proof

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$, and let's show that $f(a) = f(b)$.
 Let $R > 0$ be such that $|z-a| \geq \frac{R}{2}$ and $|z-b| \geq \frac{R}{2}$
 for all $z \in S(0, R)$



$S(0, R)$ By Cauchy Formula:

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) - f(b) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(0, R)} \left[\frac{f(z)}{z-a} - \frac{f(z)}{z-b} \right] dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(0, R)} f(z) \frac{a-b}{(z-a)(z-b)} dz \end{aligned}$$

By Thm 4.7(z),

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

- Take R arbitrary small so $\rightarrow 0$

As R is arbitrary, $f(a) - f(b) = 0$ as required

Theorem 4.19 (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Let p be a polynomial of degree n $p = p(z)$.
 Then it has exactly n roots in \mathbb{C} counting multiplicities.

Proof

We'll show that p has at least one root.
 Assume that p has no roots, therefore

$\frac{1}{p(z)}$ is entire. Write:

$$\begin{aligned} p(z) &= a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 \\ &= z^n (a_n + a_{n-1} z^{-1} + a_{n-2} z^{-2} + \dots + a_0 z^{-n}) \end{aligned}$$

$\rightarrow a_n$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$

$$\rightarrow |p(z)| \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } z \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\text{Thus } \frac{1}{|p(z)|} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } z \rightarrow \infty$$

In other words, $\exists R > 0$ s.t. $|\frac{1}{p(z)}| < 1$ if $|z| > R$

At the same time

$\frac{1}{p(z)}$ is continuous on $\bar{D}(0, R)$, so $\frac{1}{p(z)}$ is bounded on $\bar{D}(0, R)$, by theorem 1.29.

Thus $|\frac{1}{p(z)}| \leq M \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ with some $M > 0$. By

Liouville's theorem $\frac{1}{p(z)} = \text{const} \Rightarrow p(z) = \text{const}$.
 We have a contradiction \square

Cauchy Formula for the derivatives

Write:

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



Differentiate (formally)

$$f'(w) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f(z)}{(z-w)^2} dz$$

$$f''(w) = \frac{2}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f(z)}{(z-w)^3} dz$$

Theorem 4.20 (The Cauchy formula for higher derivatives)

Suppose Ω is simply connected, and $f \in H(\Omega)$.

Let γ be a contour in Ω , s.t. $\text{Int } \gamma \ni z_0$.

Then f is infinitely differentiable inside Ω and

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

example

$$I = \int_{S(0, \frac{1}{3})} \frac{\cos z}{z^2(z-1)} dz = ?$$

$$I = \int_{S(0, \frac{1}{3})} \frac{f(z)}{z^2} dz, \quad f(z) = \frac{\cos z}{z-1}$$

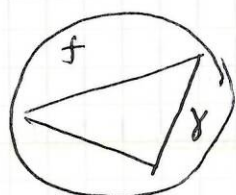
$S(0, \frac{1}{3})$ far away, so analytic.

By Thm 4.20,

$$I = 2\pi i f'(0). \quad \text{Here } f'(z) = -\frac{\sin z}{z-1} - \frac{\cos z}{(z-1)^2}$$

$$\text{so } f'(0) = -1 \Rightarrow I = -2\pi i$$

$$\int_{S(i, \frac{1}{2})} \frac{\cos z}{z^2(z-i)} dz = 0$$



$\int_{\gamma} f dz = 0 \Rightarrow f$ has an antiderivative
i.e. $\exists F : F' = f$.

Theorem 4.21 (Morera's Theorem)

Let f be continuous on Ω , and assume that

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0 \quad \text{for every contour } \gamma \subset \Omega.$$

Then $f \in H(\mathbb{R})$.

(Proof in online notes)
Might be examined

23/11/11

Chapter 5: Series expansions of holomorphic functions

Aim: to show that every analytic function can be expanded in a Taylor series

$$\text{i.e. } f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$$

Theorem 5.1

Suppose that $f \in H(D(z_0, R))$, with some $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}, R > 0$.
Then for every $z \in D(z_0, R)$ we have:

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!} (z - z_0)^k, \quad (*)$$

and the series converges absolutely

The series (*) is called the Taylor series of f about z_0 .

Comments and examples

Let R_0 be the radius of convergence of (*). Note: Theorem 5.1 doesn't say that $R = R_0$. It ~~does~~ say that $R \leq R_0$

example ①

e^z is entire, i.e. $R_0 = \infty$

e^z is analytic on $D(0, 1) \Rightarrow (*)$ holds

② $g(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 3}$. Find its series about $z_0 = 0$

Find R_0 . By Thm 5.1, we have

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

g is holomorphic on $D(0, \sqrt{3})$

Thus (*) holds for $R = \sqrt{3}$

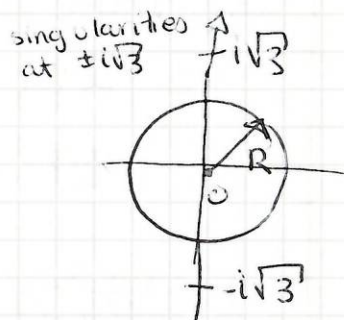
We know $R_0 \geq R = \sqrt{3}$

On the other hand, $R_0 \leq \sqrt{3}$, so $R_0 = \sqrt{3}$.

If $z_0 = 0$, the series is called Maclaurin series.

example

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



Question: find Taylor series for e^z at $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$

$$e^z = e^{z_0} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(z-z_0)^k}{k!}, \quad e^z = e^{z_0} e^{z-z_0}$$

Past exam question!!!

Exercise

Find Taylor series for $\sin z$ at z_0 .

Laurent Series

Let $g(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k = g_1(z) + g_2(z)$

with $g_1(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} a_k (z-z_0)^k, \quad g_2(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k$

g_2 : let R_2 be its radius of convergence

g_2 converges for $|z-z_0| < R_2$



g_1 : $g_1(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} a_k (z-z_0)^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{-k} (z-z_0)^{-k}$

rewrite: $w = (z-z_0)^{-1}$

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{-k} w^k \rightarrow$ converges within its radius of convergence, r_1 .

$$|w| < r_1 \Leftrightarrow |z-z_0|^{-1} < r_1 \Leftrightarrow |z-z_0| > \frac{1}{r_1} = R_1$$

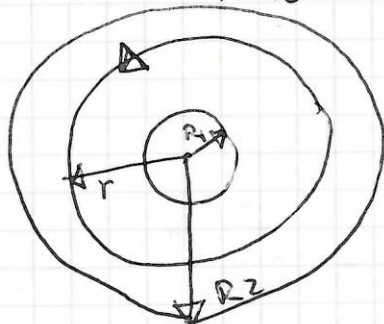
If $R_1 < R_2$, then g converges in the ring

$$D_{R_1, R_2} = \{z : R_1 < |z-z_0| < R_2\}$$

Theorem 5.2 (Laurent's Theorem)

Assume that $f \in H(D_{R_1, R_2}(z_0))$. Then for every $z \in D_{R_1, R_2}(z_0)$ we have

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k, \quad \text{with } a_k = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(z_0, r)} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^{k+1}} dw \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

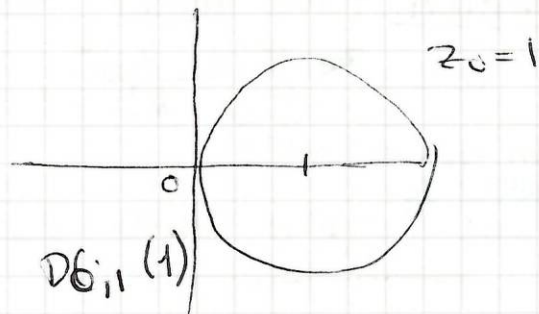
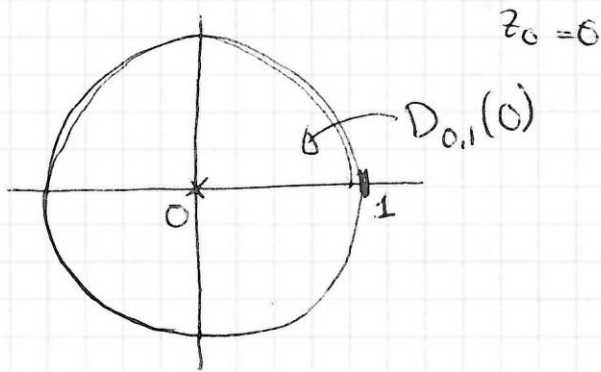


where $r \in (R_1, R_2)$. Moreover, the series converges absolutely.

Example

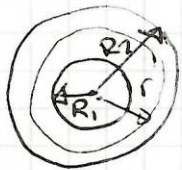
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-1)}$$

Find Laurent's expansion about $z_0=0$
(points where the function is not analytic)



$$g(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k \quad \leftarrow \text{Laurent expansion about } z_0$$

$$D_{R_1, R_2}(z_0) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : R_1 < |z-z_0| < R_2\}$$



Theorem 5.2

Suppose $f \in H(D_{R_1, R_2}(z_0))$. Then

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k,$$

for each $z \in D_{R_1, R_2}(z_0)$, where

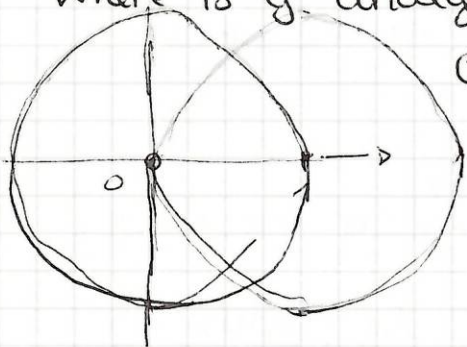
$$a_k = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(z_0, r)} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^{k+1}} \circlearrowleft w$$

arbitrary $r \in (R_1, R_2)$

example

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-1)}$$

Where is g analytic?



on $D_{0,1}(0), D_{0,1}(1)$

(we can center the disc at $1/2$ and make a circle with a big radius so that $z=0$ and $z=1$ are inside)

on $D_{1,\infty}(0), D_{1,\infty}(1)$

Rewrite: $g(z) = -\frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{z-1}$

let $0 < |z| < 1$

$-\frac{1}{z}$ is already good

$$\frac{1}{z-1} = \frac{-1}{1-z} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k \Rightarrow g(z) = -\frac{1}{z} - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k = -\sum_{k=-1}^{\infty} z^k$$

geometric series

let $|z| > 1$

write:

$$\frac{1}{z-1} = \frac{1}{z(1-\frac{1}{z})} = \frac{1}{z} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^k} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} z^k$$

$$\text{Thus } g(z) = -\frac{1}{z} + \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} z^k = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-2} z^k$$

Let $0 < |z-1| < 1$

$$\frac{1}{z-1} \text{ is good. Write } \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{1+(z-1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k (z-1)^k$$

$$\text{Thus } g(z) = -\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k (z-1)^k + \frac{1}{z-1} = \sum_{k=-1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} (z-1)^k$$

Proof of theorem 5.2



Pick a $z \in D_{R_1, R_2}(z_0)$

Looking at $f(z) = f(z+z_0)$, assume $z_0=0$

$\Rightarrow z \in D_{R_1, R_2}(0)$

Let r_1, r_2 be s.t. $0 < R_1 < r_1 < |z| < r_2 < R_2$

I will denote $\gamma_1 = S(0, r_1)$, $\gamma_2 = S(0, r_2)$

Connect γ_1 & γ_2 with a segment η

Define: $\gamma = \gamma_2 \cup (-\eta) \cup (-\gamma_1) \cup \eta$. Observe that $z \in \text{Int } \gamma$, $\text{Int } \gamma \subset D_{R_1, R_2}(0)$.

By Cauchy's Formula:

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(s)}{s-z} ds = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{f(s)}{s-z} ds - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{f(s)}{s-z} ds$$

note: if $s \in \gamma_2$, then $|s| > |z|$
if $s \in \gamma_1$, then $|s| < |z|$

look at $s \in \gamma_2$:

$$\frac{1}{s-z} = \frac{1}{s(1-\frac{z}{s})} = \frac{1}{s} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{s^k}$$

$$\text{look at } s \in \gamma_1: \frac{1}{z-z} = -\frac{1}{z(1-\frac{s}{z})} = -\frac{1}{z} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s^k}{z^k}$$

$$\text{Thus } f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_2} f(s) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{s^{k+1}} ds + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_1} f(s) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s^k}{z^{k+1}} ds$$

Exchange \int and \sum (not justified!)

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{f(s)}{s^{k+1}} ds + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^{k+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_1} f(s) \cdot s^k ds$$

$$= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} z^k \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{f(s)}{s^{k+1}} ds + \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} z^k \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{f(s)}{s^{k+1}} ds$$

an @ave
the answer
in two
bits
in the
exam,
but you
get
extra
credit
for
one
just
element

$$z^{-(k+1)}, m = -(k+1)$$

By Cauchy Goursat for multiply connected domains,

$$\int_{\gamma_2} \frac{f(s)}{s^{k+1}} ds = \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{f(s)}{s^{k+1}} ds = \int_{S(\sigma, r)} \frac{f(s)}{s^{k+1}} ds$$

This gives the required formula for a_k \square

revise for test, after this point not necessary

Proof of Thm 5.1

Assume: $f \in D(z_0, R)$

Want: $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z-z_0)^n$

Use Thm 5.2. Obviously, $f \in H(D'(z_0, R))$ and $D'(z_0, R) = D_{0,R}(z_0)$. Thus $f(z)$ is represented by

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k$$

need to show $a_k = 0 \forall k \leq -1$
and $a_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!}$

Write: for $m \geq 1$

$$a_{-m} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(z_0, R)} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^{-(m+1)}} dw = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(z_0, R)} f(w) (w-z_0)^{m-1} dw$$

$= 0$
by Cauchy-Goursat

closed contour, the function is a product of two analytic functions so

Write $a_k = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(z_0, R)} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z)^{k+1}} dw \stackrel{\text{by Thm 4.20}}{=} \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!}$, as required \square

look at consequences

Theorem 5.3

Let f be entire, and assume $|f(z)| \leq C|z|^k$ for all $|z| \geq 1$ and some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

example

$$|z^3 + 1| \leq C|z|^3, |z| \geq 1 \text{ with some constant } C > 0$$

$|e^z| \leq C|z|^k$? No, by def e^z contains all powers of z

$\sin z$ is not bounded by $|z|^k$!

cont 5.3

Then $f(z)$ is a polynomial of degree at most k .

HW 7?
similar

Proof

For all z :

$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$, and the series converges absolutely, by Thm 5.1

Need to show that $a_n = 0$ for $n > k$
By Thm 5.1, 5.2

$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(0,r)} \frac{f(z)}{z^{n+1}} dz$ for any $r > 0$

Let $r > 1$. Then by theorem 4.7(z)

$|a_n| \leq \frac{C}{2\pi} \frac{r^k}{r^{n+1}} \cdot 2\pi r = C r^{k-n}$

note: $k-n < 0$ for $n > k$
as $r > 1$ is arbitrary, $a_n = 0, n > k$ as claimed

Zeros and singularities of analytic functions

Definition 5.4

Let $f \in H(\Omega)$. Then a point $a \in \Omega$ s.t. $f(a) = 0$ is called a zero of f .

We say that a zero a is isolated if there is a number $\delta > 0$ s.t. $f(z) \neq 0$, for all $z \in D'(a, \delta)$



An isolated zero is said to have order m if in the Taylor series, i.e. $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C_k (z-a)^k$ we have

$C_0 = C_1 = \dots = C_{m-1} = 0$ and $C_m \neq 0$.

example

$(z-1)^5$ - $a=1$ is a zero of order 5

In other words, $f(z) = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} C_k (z-a)^k$

$= (z-a)^m (C_m + C_{m+1}(z-a) + C_{m+2}(z-a)^2 + \dots)$

$= (z-a)^m g(z)$, where g is analytic at a and $g(a) \neq 0$

Notation: $Z(f)$ is the set of all zeros of f .

Theorem 5.5

Suppose that $f \in H(\Omega)$. Assume that $Z(f)$ has an accumulation point in Ω



Then $f(z) = 0, \forall z \in \Omega$

Proof

Assume that $f \neq 0$ on Ω . Let $a \in \Omega$ be an accumulation point of $Z(f)$. By continuity of f , a is also a zero.

Thus for some $r > 0$, the function f can be represented in $D(a, r)$ by the series

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (z-a)^k$$

Since $f \neq 0$, there is an m s.t. $c_0 = c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_{m-1} = 0$, and $c_m \neq 0$. Hence $f(z) = (z-a)^m g(z)$, where g is analytic on $D(a, r)$ and $g(a) \neq 0$.



By continuity of g , $g(z) \neq 0$ for all $z \in D(a, \delta)$ with some $\delta > 0$.

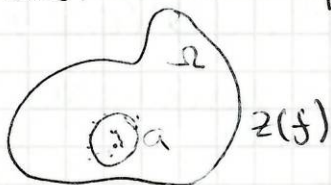
This means that a is an isolated zero of f in $D(a, \delta)$. Thus it can not be an accumulation point of $Z(f)$. We have a contradiction, which shows that $f(z) = 0$ on $D(a, \delta)$.

From last lecture:

05/12/2011

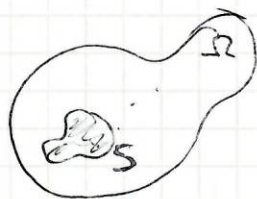
Theorem 5.5

Let $f \in H(\Omega)$. Assume that $Z(f)$ has an accumulation point in Ω . Then $f(z) = 0$ for all $z \in \Omega$.



Proof of second part in lecture notes!!!

Corollary 5.6 (The unique continuation theorem)
Assume that $f, g \in H(\Omega)$. Assume also that $f(z) = g(z)$ on a set $S \subset \Omega$ which has an accumulation point in Ω . Then $f(z) = g(z)$ for all $z \in \Omega$.

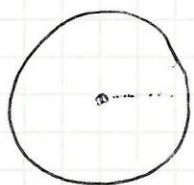


Proof

Let $h = f - g$. Use Thm 5.5 \square

example

$\Omega = D(0, 1)$. Is there a function $f \in H(\Omega)$ s.t. $f(\frac{1}{n}) = \frac{n}{n+1}$ for all $n = 1, 2, \dots$?



Let $g(z) = \frac{1}{1+z}$, so $g(\frac{1}{n}) = \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{n}{n+1}$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Note: $g \in H(\Omega)$. Clearly, $f(\frac{1}{n}) = g(\frac{1}{n})$. Since $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0 \in D(0, 1)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, by corollary 5.6 $f(z) = g(z) = \frac{1}{1+z}$.

Singularities

Def 5.7 We say that f has an isolated singularity at $a \in \mathbb{C}$ if f is holomorphic on $D'(a, r)$ with some $r > 0$.

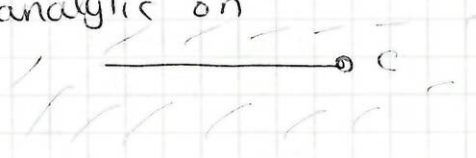
examples ① $\frac{1}{z}$ has an isolated singularity at $a = 0$

② $\frac{1}{z^2(z-1)}$ isolated singularities at $a_1=0$ and $a_2=1$.



③ $\text{Log } z$ $\log z$ is analytic on

\Rightarrow it does not have isolated singularities



Classification of singularities

As $f \in H(D'(a, r))$, by Laurent's Thm $f(z) = \underbrace{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} a_k(z-a)^k}_{\text{principal part of Laurent Expansion (PP)}} + \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(z-a)^k}_{\text{Regular part}}$

Three types of singularities

Type 1) A pole at a

If the PP of f contains finitely many terms, then we say that f has a pole at the point a . More precisely, if there is a number $M \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $a_k = 0$ for all $k < -M$, and $a_{-M} \neq 0$, then f is said to have a pole of order M at a .


This means:

$$\text{PP of } f = \sum_{k=-M}^{-1} a_k(z-a)^k = \frac{a_{-M}}{(z-a)^M} + \frac{a_{-M+1}}{(z-a)^{M-1}} + \dots$$

$$a_{-M} \neq 0$$

examples

① $\frac{1}{z}$ - pole of order 1 at $a=0$, or a simple pole

② $\frac{1}{z^2(z-1)}$ 

$$= \frac{g(z)}{z^2} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{- only contains} \\ \text{positive powers} \\ \text{of } z \end{array} = \frac{1}{z^2} (1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots) = \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z} + 1 + z + \dots$$

Pole of order 2, we could see that from the start

Pole of order 2 at $a=0$

a simple pole at $a=1$

③ $\frac{\sin z}{z^2}$ need to write the Laurent exp since the roots at 0 cancel out

$$\frac{\sin z}{z^2} = \frac{z - \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots}{z^2} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{z}}_{\text{PP}} - \frac{1}{6}z + \dots$$

a simple pole at $a=0$

④ Type ② Essential singularity at a

If there is no number $M \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $a_k = 0$ for $k < -M$, then f is said to have an essential singularity at a .

example

Have to write out the series

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

$\Rightarrow a=0$ is an essential singularity

Type ③

$$f(z) = z, f \in H(D'(0,1))$$

a removable singularity at a

if PP of $f=0$, then f is said to have a removable singularity at a . (In other words, if $a_k = 0, k \leq -1$). Then f becomes analytic at a if one defines $f(a) = a_0$

example

$\frac{\sin z}{z}$ = an isolated singularity at $a=0$

$$\frac{\sin z}{z} = \frac{z - \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots}{z} = \frac{1 - \frac{z^2}{6} + \dots}{a_0}$$

PP=0 \Rightarrow a removable singularity

To make it analytic at $a=0$ define $g(0) = 1$

Now, $\tilde{g}(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin z}{z}, & z \neq 0 \\ 1, & z = 0 \end{cases}$ is entire

Mixed examples

① $h(z) = \frac{1 - \cos z}{z^2} = \frac{1 - (1 - \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^4}{24} - \dots)}{z^2}$

$$= \frac{1 - 1 + \frac{z^2}{2} - \frac{z^4}{24} + \dots}{z^2} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{z^2}{24} + \dots \quad \underline{\text{removable!}}$$

$\frac{1 - \cos z}{z^3}$ - a simple pole at $a=0$

② $\frac{z-3}{(z-4)^3}$ - pole of order 3 at $a=4$ (no cancellation with the root of the numerator and denominator)

$$= \frac{z-4+1}{(z-4)^3} = \frac{1}{(z-4)^3} + \frac{1}{(z-4)^2}$$

Theorem 5.8

① The function $f \in H(D(a, R))$ has a zero of order m at a iff $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)^{-m} f(z) = B$ with some $B \neq 0$

② The function $g \in H(D'(a, R))$ has a pole of order m at a iff $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)^m f(z) = A$ with some

$$A \neq 0$$

Proof of ①

Suppose f has a zero of order m . Then by defn


$$f(z) = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} c_k (z-a)^k, \quad c_m \neq 0, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$= (z-a)^m g(z), \text{ where } g \in H(D'(a, R)) \text{ and } g(a) = c_m \neq 0$$

Therefore,

$$(z-a)^{-m} f(z) = g(z) \rightarrow g(a) = c_m \neq 0$$

Suppose the limit exists and $B \neq 0$. This means that

 $g(z) = (z-a)^{-m} f(z)$ is bounded on $D'(a, r)$ with some $r > 0$

compute $c_k, k=0, 1, 2, \dots$

want: $c_0 = c_1 = \dots = c_{m-1} = 0$ and $c_m \neq 0$

write:

$$c_k = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(a, \rho)} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{k+1}} dz \quad \text{want a contour inside}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(a, \rho)} \frac{g(z)}{(z-a)^{k-m+1}} dz$$

By theorem 4.7(z)

$$|c_k| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{C}{\rho^{k-m+1}} \cdot 2\pi\rho = C\rho^{m-k} \quad \rho \text{ is arbitrary}$$

$\rho \rightarrow 0, m > k$

As $\rho > 0$ is arbitrary, $c_k = 0$ for all $k=0, 1, \dots, m-1$

This means that

$$f(z) = c_m (z-a)^m + c_{m+1} (z-a)^{m+1} + \dots$$

and hence $\frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^m} \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow a} c_m = B$, as limit exists and not equal to zero

as required \square ①

example

$$f(z) = z^2 \frac{1}{(z-1)}$$

Note: $z^2 f(z) = \frac{1}{z-1} \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow 0} -1$

By Thm 5.8 (2), $a=0$ is a pole of order 2
 On the other hand,

$(z-1) f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow 1} 1 \Rightarrow$ by Thm 5.8 (2), $a=1$ is a simple pole

Corollary 5.9

The function $f \in H(D(a, R))$ has a zero of order m at a , iff $\frac{1}{f}$ has a pole of order m at a

$(z-a)^m$ - root (zero)

$(z-a)^{-m}$ -

07/12/2011

(Test: 4 questions) can use Cauchy residue formula and theory after Laurent expansion
 (Test + HW = 10%)

- ① poles
- ② essential singularities
- ③ removable singularities

Residues

Def 5.10 Assume that f has an isolated singularity at a , and let

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



be its Laurent's Expansion. Then the coefficient a_{-1} is called the residue of f at the point a .

Notation: $a_{-1} = \text{Res}(f, a)$

By Laurent's Theorem

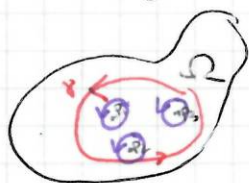
$a_{-1} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(a, r)} f(z) dz$



Theorem 5.11 (The Cauchy's residue theorem)

Assume that f is holomorphic on Ω except for finitely many isolated singularities. Let $\gamma \subset \Omega$ be a contour st Int γ contains singularities p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N

Then $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Res}(f, p_k)$



Proof By Cauchy-Goursat for multiply connected domain (Thm 4.16)

$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{k=1}^N \int_{S(p_k, r)} f(z) dz = \sum_{k=1}^N 2\pi i \text{Res}(f, p_k)$

- need only to look at one by one singularity

Rules for finding residues

Rule I Suppose that a is a simple pole, i.e.

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-1}}{z-a} + a_0 + a_1(z-a) + \dots \quad (\text{principal part})$$

multiply:

$$(z-a)f(z) = a_{-1} + a_0(z-a) + a_1(z-a)^2 + \dots$$

Thus

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

Rule II Suppose f has a pole of order m at a :

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-m}}{(z-a)^m} + \frac{a_{-m+1}}{(z-a)^{m-1}} + \dots + \frac{a_{-1}}{z-a} + a_0 + a_1(z-a) + \dots$$

multiply:

$$g(z) = (z-a)^m f(z) = a_{-m} + a_{-m+1}(z-a) + \dots + a_{-1}(z-a)^{m-1} + \dots$$

Thus

$$a_{-1} = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \left. \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} g(z) \right|_{z=a}$$

Rule III Expand f in its Laurent series and take a_{-1}

examples

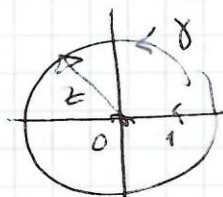
$$\textcircled{1} f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z^4} = \frac{z - \frac{z^3}{6} + \frac{z^5}{120} - \dots}{z^4} = \frac{1}{z^3} - \frac{1}{6z} + \frac{z}{120} - \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Res}(f, 0) = -\frac{1}{6}$$

$$\textcircled{2} f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2(z-1)}$$

$$\text{by rule I } \text{Res}(f, 1) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1)f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{z^2} = 1$$

$$\text{Res}(f, 0) \stackrel{\text{Rule II}}{=} \left. \frac{d}{dz} (z^2 f(z)) \right|_{z=0} = \left. \frac{d}{dz} \frac{1}{z-1} \right|_{z=0} = -\frac{1}{(z-1)^2} \Big|_{z=0} = -1$$



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

$$\textcircled{3} f(z) = z^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{z}\right) = z^2 \left(\frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{6z^3} + \frac{1}{120z^5} - \dots \right) = z - \frac{1}{6}z + \frac{1}{120}z^3 - \dots$$

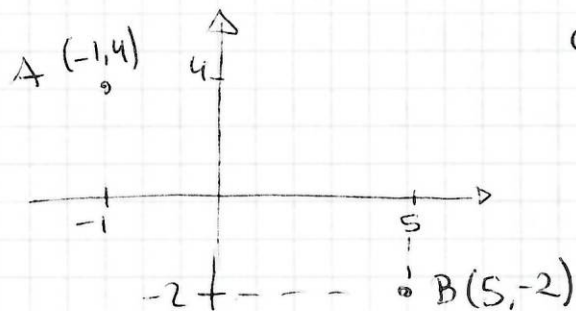
$$\text{Res}(f, 0) = -\frac{1}{6}$$

not your exam

Question what is $\text{Res}(f, a)$ if f has a removable singularity at a ?

Removable singularity \Leftrightarrow PP of $f = 0$. In particular $a = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Res}(f, a) = 0$

Problem class PS 7



cannot compare A & B

Q06

$$\frac{1}{z-b}$$

$$|z| < |b|$$

$$\left|\frac{z}{b}\right| < 1$$

$$\frac{1}{1 - \frac{z}{b}}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{b} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z}{b}} = \left(-\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{b}\right)^n\right) \frac{1}{b} = -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{b^{n+1}}$$

$$(ii) \frac{1}{z-b} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} b^{-k-1} z^k \quad |z| > |b|$$

$$(iii) \frac{1}{z-b} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} \underbrace{(b-a)^{-n-1}}_c \underbrace{(z-a)^n}_w$$

then (iii) is the same as part (ii)

$$|z-a| > |b-a|$$

$$|w| > |c|$$

Q04

$$\sin z = \sin(z_0 + (z - z_0))$$

$$\text{at } z_0 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n$$

$$= \sin z_0 \cdot \cos(z - z_0) + \sin(z - z_0) \cdot \cos z_0$$

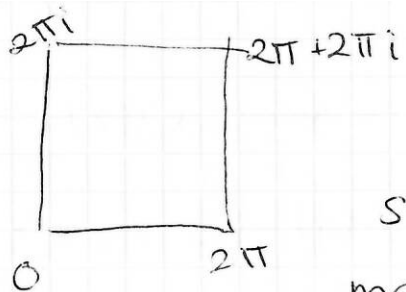
$$= \sin z_0 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (z - z_0)^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (z - z_0)^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \right) \cdot \cos z_0$$

Q02

$$f(z) = f(z + 2\pi) = f(z + 2\pi i) \quad f \text{-entire} = f \text{-holomorphic on } \mathbb{C}$$

Need to show $f = \text{const}$

Notice that $f(z)$ is 2π -periodical so, it's enough to consider it on S .



f -entire $\Rightarrow f$ -holomorphic on S

f -diff $\forall z \in S \Rightarrow f$ -cont on S

S -compact set $\Rightarrow f$ -bounded on S

$\rightarrow \max_{z \in S} |f(z)| \leq M, M > 0$

$|f(z)| \leq M$

remember modulus of you can't compare it

periodicity implies that $f(z)$ is bounded $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$

f -entire & bounded $\Rightarrow f = \text{const}$ (by Liouville's Thm)

Q08 $f \in M(D(a, R))$
 $R > 0$

$|f(z)| \leq \frac{M}{|z-a|^\alpha} = \frac{M}{r^\alpha}$ since boundary $0 \leq \alpha < 1, M > 0$

need to prove $a_{-n} = 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots, n, \dots\}$

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

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

consider $S(a, r)$

$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(a, r)} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz$
 $r < R$

$\Rightarrow |a_n| = \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(a, r)} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz \right| \leq$ ML result

$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{|z-a|=r} \left| \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} \right| |dz|$ on the $S(a, r)$
 $r = |z-a|$

$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \max_{|z-a|=r} |f(z)| \cdot r^{-n-1} \cdot 2\pi r$

$\int_{S(a, r)} |dz| = 2\pi r \leq r^{n-\alpha} \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow 0} 0$
we can make r sufficiently small

PS 8

Q02 $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{C}$ (1) $\sum |a_n|$ converges

(2) $\sum \frac{a_n}{k^n} = 0 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$

show $a_n = 0 \quad \forall n$

consider $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$ - analytic

Note that $f(\frac{1}{k}) = 0$

$z_k = \frac{1}{k}$ - set of zeros of $f(z)$
 $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$\{\frac{1}{k}\}$ - zeros of $f(z)$

$z(f) = \{\frac{1}{k}, k \in \mathbb{N}\}$

0 - accumulation point for $z(f)$

$f(z) = 0$ because of unique cont. thm
 \Leftrightarrow

$\forall n \ a_n = 0$

$f(\frac{1}{n}) = \begin{cases} 0, & n\text{-odd} \\ \frac{1}{n}, & n\text{-even} \end{cases}$

assume $f(z)$ exists

$z_0 = 0 \quad z(f) = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{2k}, \dots\}$

↳ accumulation point for $z(f)$

$\Rightarrow f(z) = 0$ by O.C.T.H.
contradiction

b) only positive answer is b TRUE

a) apply def of derivative lim doesn't exist, not holomorphic

204) f -entire $f(z) = f(\frac{1}{z}) \forall z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$
need $f(z) = \text{const}$

f -entire $\rightarrow f \in H(D(0,1))$

$\rightarrow f$ -continuous on $\bar{D}(0,1)$

$\rightarrow f$ -bounded on $\bar{D}(0,1)$

* $\exists M > 0$ st $\forall z \in D(0,1) \quad |f(z)| \leq M$

$\forall w \notin \bar{D}(0,1) \quad \exists z \in D(0,1)$ st $f(w) = f(z)$

(*) $|f(w)| \leq M \quad \forall w \notin \bar{D}(0,1)$ f -entire and bounded

\Rightarrow by L.Thm $f = \text{const}$

12/12/2011

Trigonometric integrals

looking at:

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) d\theta$$

example:

$$I = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{5-4\cos \theta} d\theta$$

Define: $z = e^{i\theta}$

$$dz = i e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$d\theta = iz d\theta \Rightarrow d\theta = \frac{dz}{iz}$$

Thus

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos\theta, \sin\theta) d\theta = \int_{S(0,1)} f\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(z + \frac{1}{z}\right), \frac{1}{2i}\left(z - \frac{1}{z}\right)\right) \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$\cos\theta = \frac{1}{2}\left(z + \frac{1}{z}\right)$$

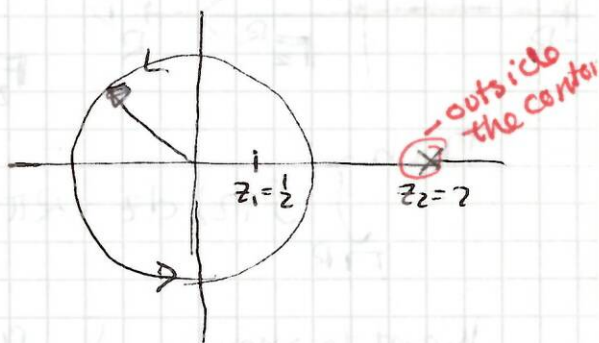
$$\sin\theta = \frac{1}{2i}\left(z - \frac{1}{z}\right)$$

example (cont.)

$$I = \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{1}{5 - 4\frac{1}{2}\left(z + \frac{1}{z}\right)} \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$= -i \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{1}{5z - 2z^2 - 2} dz = \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{i}{2z^2 - 5z + 2}$$

$$= \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{i}{(2z-1)(z-2)} dz$$



Two singularities: $z_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $z_2 = 2$

Therefore:

$$I = 2\pi i \left(\text{Res}\left(g, \frac{1}{2}\right) + \text{Res}(g, 2) \right)$$

$$g(z) = \frac{i}{(2z-1)(z-2)} \quad \left\{ \frac{1}{2}, 2 \right\} \text{ are simple poles}$$

simple pole \rightarrow $\text{Res}\left(g, \frac{1}{2}\right) \stackrel{\text{ruled}}{=} \lim_{z \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}} \left(z - \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{i}{(2z-1)(z-2)} =$

$$= \frac{i}{2} \lim_{z \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{z-2} = -\frac{i}{3}$$

$$\text{Res}(g, 2) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} (z-2) \frac{i}{(2z-1)(z-2)} = \frac{i}{3}$$

$$\text{Res}\left(g, \frac{1}{2}\right) + \text{Res}(g, 2) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{I}} \neq 0$$

something went wrong!

2 is outside the contour, so we shouldn't consider it !!

$$I = 2\pi i \left(-\frac{i}{3}\right) = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

$$I = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{(5-4\cos\theta)^2} d\theta$$

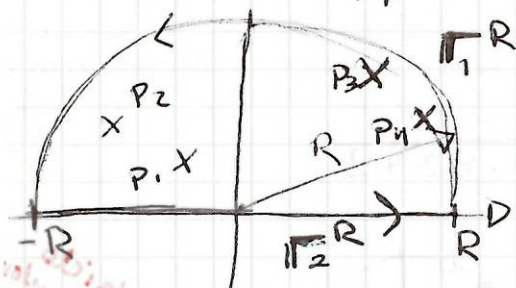
$$I = \int_{S(0,1)} \frac{i}{(z^2+1)^2(z-2)^2} dz \quad \text{poles of order 2} \quad \text{Do it!}$$

Improper real integrals

Integrals of the type

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) dt = I$$

Assume: f has finitely many isolated singularities in the upper half-plane P_1, P_2, \dots, P_N



$$\text{Represent: } I = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R f(t) dt$$

$$\Gamma_1^R = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Im } z \geq 0, |z| = R\}$$

$$\Gamma_2^R = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Im } z = 0, |z| \leq R\}$$

$$\Gamma^R = \Gamma_1^R \cup \Gamma_2^R$$

Then

$$\int_{\Gamma^R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Res}(f, P_k)$$

Want to show: $\int_{\Gamma_1^R} f(z) dz \rightarrow 0$ as $R \rightarrow \infty$, so

$$I = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Gamma^R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Res}(f, P_k)$$

Lemma 5.12 Suppose that f is continuous in the upper half-plane, and that $\max_{z \in \Gamma_1^R} |f(z)| \leq \frac{C}{R^\alpha}$, $\alpha > 1$

$$\max_{z \in \Gamma_1^R} |f(z)| \leq \frac{C}{R^\alpha}, \quad \alpha > 1$$

Then $\int_{\Gamma_1^R} f(z) dz \rightarrow 0$, $R \rightarrow \infty$

important that $\alpha > 1$!

Proof By theorem 4.7 (z)

$$\left| \int_{\Gamma_1^R} f(z) dz \right| \leq \frac{C}{R^\alpha} \pi R = C\pi R^{1-\alpha} \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$$

example

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^4+5x^2+4} dx \quad \text{define } f(z) = \frac{z^2}{z^4+5z^2+4}$$

$$= \frac{z^2}{(z^2+1)(z^2+4)} = \frac{z^2}{(z-i)(z+i)(z+2i)(z-2i)}$$

Two simple poles: $z_1 = i, z_2 = 2i$, $\text{Im } z_1 > 0$
 $\text{Im } z_2 > 0$
 (we only look at upper half-plane)

will appear in the exam

Suppose that f is continuous in $\mathbb{H}_+ \setminus D(0, R_0)$ with some $R_0 > 0$, and that
 $\max_{z \in \Gamma_R} |f(z)| \leq \frac{C}{R^\alpha}$; $R \geq 1, \alpha > 1$



Therefore, by Cauchy Residue Theorem

$$\int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i (\text{Res}(f, i) + \text{Res}(f, 2i))$$

By Rule 1, $\text{Res}(f, i) = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i)f(z) =$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{z^2}{(z+i)(z^2+4)} = \frac{-1}{2i \cdot 3} = \frac{i}{6}$$

$$\text{Res}(f, 2i) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2i} (z-2i)f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2i} \frac{z^2}{(z^2+1)(z+2i)}$$

$$= \frac{-4}{(-3)(4i)} = -\frac{i}{3}$$

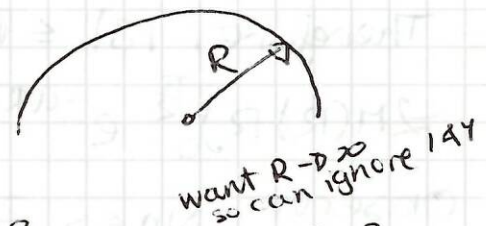
$$\text{Thus } \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \left(-\frac{i}{3} + \frac{i}{6} \right) = \frac{\pi}{3}$$

Estimate f on Γ_R :

$$\left| \frac{z^2}{(z^2+1)(z^2+4)} \right| = \frac{|z|^2}{|z^2+1||z^2+4|}$$

$$|z|=R \leq \frac{R^2}{(R^2-1)(R^2-4)} = \frac{R^2}{(R^2-1)(R^2-4)} \leq \frac{CR^2}{R^2 R^2}$$

$$= \frac{C}{R^2}, \text{ with some constant } C > 0$$



Now use Lemma 5.12 $\rightarrow \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$

Put everything together:

$$I = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i (\text{Res}(f, i) + \text{Res}(f, 2i)) = \frac{\pi}{3}$$

Need to write: "by Cauchy Residue Thorem"
 need to state lemma 5.12 and use it

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{(x^4 + 5x^2 + 4)^2} dx$$

same, but pole of order two, so need to find $\text{Res}(f,)$ in an other way (Rule 2)

$$\max_{z \in \Gamma_R} |f(z)| \leq \frac{C}{R^2}, \quad z > 1$$

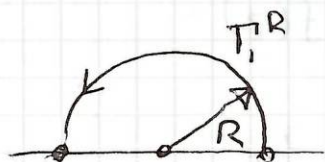
Integrals containing exponentials

$$J = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{iaz} f(z) dz$$

Lemma 5.13 (Jordan's lemma)

Suppose that f is continuous in $\mathbb{H}_+ \setminus D(0, R_0)$ with some $R_0 > 0$, and that

$$M(R) = \max_{z \in \Gamma_R} |f(z)| \rightarrow 0, \quad R \rightarrow \infty$$

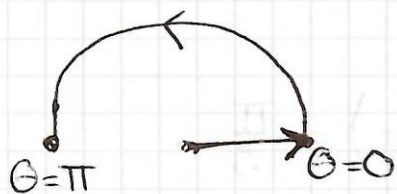


If $a > 0$, then

$$\int_{\Gamma_R^+} e^{iaz} f(z) dz \rightarrow 0, \quad R \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof

Let $z = Re^{i\theta}$, $\theta \in [0, \pi]$. Then

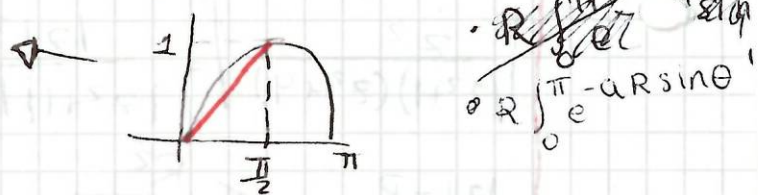


$$J = \int_0^\pi e^{i a R e^{i\theta}} f(R e^{i\theta}) i R e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$= i R \int_0^\pi e^{-a R \sin \theta} e^{i a R \cos \theta} f(R e^{i\theta}) e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

Therefore, $|J| \leq R \int_0^\pi e^{-a R \sin \theta} |f(R e^{i\theta})| d\theta \leq M(R) \int_0^\pi e^{-a R \sin \theta} d\theta$

$$\leq 2M(R) R \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{-a R \sin \theta} d\theta$$



Observe: $\sin \theta \geq \frac{2}{\pi} \theta$, so

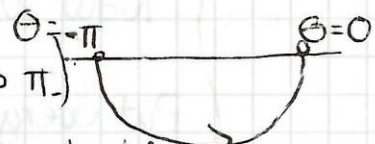
$$|J| \leq 2RM(R) \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{-a \frac{2}{\pi} R \theta} d\theta$$

$$\leq 2RM(R) \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{-\frac{2a}{\pi} R \theta} d\theta = \frac{2RM(R) \pi}{2aR} = \frac{\pi}{a} M(R) \rightarrow 0$$

as required \square

(if $a < 0$ we should change the path to π)

Remark If $a < 0$, then Lemma 5.13 still holds if one replaces Γ_R^+ by the path $\Gamma_R^- = \{z = Re^{i\theta}, \theta \in [\pi, 0]\}$



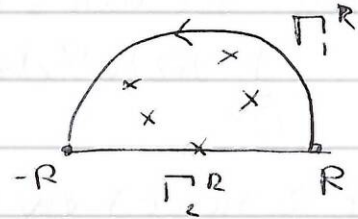
14/12/2011

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{iax} f(x) dx$$

$$\Gamma_1^R = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z = Re^{i\theta}, \theta \in [0, \pi]\}$$

Important:

$$\int_{\Gamma_1^R} f(z) dz \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$$



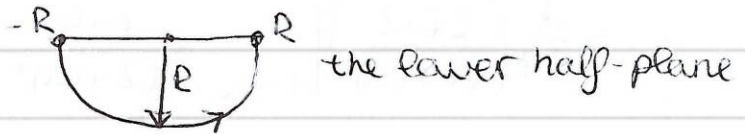
Lemma 5.13 (Jordan's lemma)

$$M(R) = \max_{z \in \Gamma_1^R} |f(z)| \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$$

If $a > 0$, then

$$\int_{\Gamma_1^R} e^{iaz} f(z) dz \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty$$

if $a < 0$, look at



example

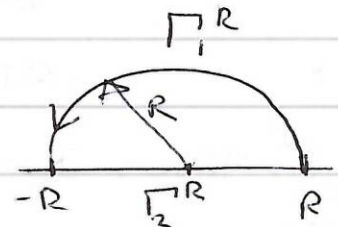
$$I_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{(x^2 + a^2)^2} dx, \quad I_2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x e^{ix}}{(x^2 + a^2)^2} dx, \quad a > 0$$

$$f(z) = \frac{z}{(z^2 + a^2)^2}. \quad \text{Then } I_2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{ix} dx$$

$$\text{and } I_1 = \text{Im } I_2$$

Rewrite:

$$I_2 = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Gamma_1^R} f(z) e^{iz} dz$$



Need to do: ① find singularities of f in the upper-half plane, and evaluate the residues.

② show that $\int_{\Gamma_1^R} f(z) e^{iz} dz \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$

Remember to check conditions

② $a > 0$, and $\max_{|z|=R} |f(z)| = \max_{|z|=R} \frac{|z|}{|z^2 + a^2|^2} < \frac{R}{(R^2 - a^2)^2}$

$\leq CR^{-3} \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$

By Jordan's lemma

$\int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) e^{iz} dz \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$

① Residues of f : two singular points: $+ia, -ia$ only $p=ia$ is in the upper half-plane. Write:

$f(z) = \frac{z}{(z+ia)^2(z-ia)z}$ $p=ia$ is a pole of order 2

Thus by Rule II:

$\text{Res}(f e^{iz}, p) = \frac{d}{dz} [(z-ia)^2 f(z) e^{iz}] \Big|_{z=ia}$

$= \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{z e^{iz}}{(z+ia)^2} \right) \Big|_{z=ia} = \frac{e^{iz}}{(z+ia)^2} - 2 \frac{z e^{iz}}{(z+ia)^3} + \frac{z e^{iz}}{(z+ia)^2} \Big|_{z=ia}$

$= -\frac{e^{-a}}{4a^2} + \frac{2ia e^{-a}}{8a^3} + \frac{a e^{-a}}{4a^2}$

$= \frac{e^{-a}}{4a^2} [-1 + 1 + a] = \frac{e^{-a}}{4a}$

Therefore

$I_2 = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R f(x) e^{ix} dx = 2\pi i \text{Res}(f e^{iz}, ia)$

$= 2\pi i \frac{e^{-a}}{4a} = \frac{\pi i e^{-a}}{2a}$

Also, $I_1 = \frac{\pi}{2a} e^{-a}$

The indentation trick

$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$

$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ - doesn't exist

Try: $I = \text{Im} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x} dx$? (non't work as $e^{ix} \rightarrow 1, x \rightarrow 0$)

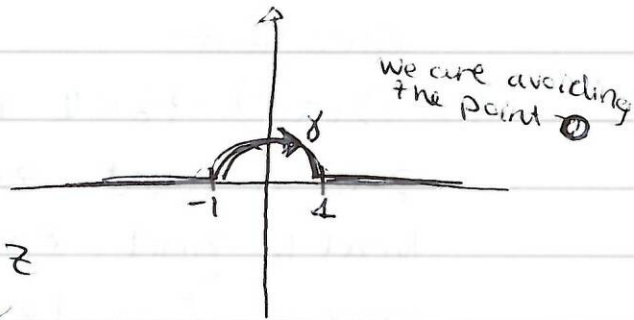
Need to use Cauchy integral formula for higher derivatives

Let $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z}$. Know: f is entire.

Therefore

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

$$= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz}_{I_1} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} dz}_{I_2}$$



$I_1 = ?$

Need to show:

$$\int_{\Gamma_R} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$$

$\alpha=1$ $f(z)$ decays

By Jordan's lemma, it is the case

$\frac{e^{iz}}{z}$ has no singularities inside the contour,
and hence $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Gamma_R} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = 0$

$$I_2 = \frac{1}{2i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} dz = ?$$

$\alpha=-1$, so use lower half-plane

By Jordan's lemma:

$$\int_{\tilde{\Gamma}_R} \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} dz \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$$

one singularity

$$\text{Res} \left(\frac{e^{-iz}}{z}, 0 \right) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} z \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} = 1$$

$$\text{Thus } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} dz = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\tilde{\Gamma}_R} \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} dz = 2\pi i$$

$$\text{Therefore } I_2 = \frac{1}{2i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} dz = -\frac{1}{2i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-iz}}{z} dz = -\frac{2\pi i}{2i} = -\pi$$

$I_1 = 0$

$$\text{Thus } I = I_1 - I_2 = \pi$$

Problem class

class test: $r > 0$

① $D(a, r) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z-a| < r\}$ - open set

pick a point $z \in D(a, r)$

Need to find $\epsilon > 0$ st $\forall w \in D(z, \epsilon) \rightarrow w \in D(a, r)$

choose $\epsilon = r - |z-a| > 0$

fix $w \in D(z, \epsilon)$ and consider

$$|w-a| = |w-z+z-a| \leq |w-z| + |z-a|$$

$$= \epsilon + |z-a| = r$$

2 points

(can also write $0 < \epsilon < (r - |z-a|) > 0$)

②

$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{z^{5n}}{e^{nn}}$ apply root test

remember modulus

$$\sqrt[n]{\left| \frac{z^{5n}}{e^{nn}} \right|} = |z| < 1 \quad \sqrt[n]{n} \rightarrow 1$$

converges

$R = 1$

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k! (z+1)^k$

Ratio test:

(Stirling's formula)

2 points

$$\frac{(k+1)! |z+1|^{k+1}}{k! |z+1|^k} = (k+1) |z+1| \rightarrow \infty$$

conv only at $z_0 = -1$ $R = 0$

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{2k} z^k$

root test

$= 1$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[k]{e^{2k} z^k} = |z| e \cdot \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[k]{e^2} = |z| e < 1$$

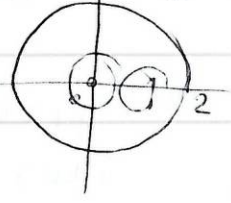
$R = \frac{1}{e}$

3 points

③ $\int_{s(0, 1/2)} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2(1-z)} dz$ two singular points $z_1 = 0$ $z_2 = 1$

$$= \int_{s(0, 1/10)} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2(1-z)} dz + \int_{s(1, 1/10)} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2(1-z)} dz$$

$$= - \int_{s(1, 1/10)} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2(z-1)} dz$$



$$\text{CIF: } \textcircled{1} \int \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2(z-1)} dz = -2\pi i e^i$$

② Cauchy's integral formula for higher derivatives

$$\int_{S(0, \frac{1}{10})} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2} dz$$

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

our case $n+1=2 \rightarrow n=1$

$$f'(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S(0, \frac{1}{10})} \frac{f(z)}{(z-0)^2} dz$$

$$\left(\frac{e^{iz}}{1-z} \right)' = \frac{ie^{iz}(1-z) + e^{iz}}{(1-z)^2}$$

$$\left(\frac{e^{iz}}{1-z} \right)' \Big|_{z=0} = \frac{i+1}{1} = i+1$$

$$\int_{S(0, \frac{1}{10})} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2} dz = 2\pi i (i+1)$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad g(z) = \frac{z}{(1+z)(1-z)} = \frac{z}{1-z^2}$$

3 points

$$\text{(a) } |z| < 1$$

$$|z|^2 < 1$$

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

$$\text{(b) } |z-1| > 2 \Rightarrow \frac{z}{|z-1|} < 1$$

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1-z} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1+z} =$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{z-1} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2+z-1} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{z-1} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{z-1} \frac{1}{\frac{z}{z-1} + 1}$$

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

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

Problem sheet 9

Qw 3

$$(a) f(z) = \frac{z^2 + z - 1}{z^2(z-1)}$$

singularities $z_1 = 0$ - pole of ord 2
 $z_2 = 1$ - simple pole

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = \begin{cases} A & A \neq \pm \infty \text{ - removable singularities} \\ \infty & \text{- pole} \\ \text{does not exist} & \text{- essential} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Res}(f(z), z_1) \stackrel{\text{Rule II}}{=} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_1} \frac{d}{dz} [(z-z_1)^2 f(z)]$$

$$\text{Res}(f(z), z_2) \stackrel{\text{Rule I}}{=} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_2} (z-z_2) f(z) =$$

$$\frac{1}{\sin z + \cos z} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \sin z + (\cos z) \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}{\cos(\frac{\pi}{4} - z)}$$

$\swarrow \quad \searrow$
 $\sin \frac{\pi}{4} \quad \cos \frac{\pi}{4}$

$\frac{1}{g(z)} \leftarrow$ roots of $\frac{1}{g(z)} \Leftrightarrow$ poles of $g(z)$

$$\cos(\frac{\pi}{4} - z) = 0 \quad -\frac{\pi}{4} + z_n = \frac{\pi}{2} + \pi n$$

$$z_n = \frac{3\pi}{4} + \pi n, n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ - simple poles}$$

$$\text{Res}(g(z), z_k) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_k} (z-z_k) f(z)$$