

# Complex Analysis Qualifying Exam Prep

Preston Tranbarger

Summer 2024

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# 1 Multivariable Calculus

## 1.1 Green's Theorem

**Theorem 1.1.1.** Let  $C$  be a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve in the plane and let  $D$  be the region bounded by  $C$ . Now if  $M$  and  $N$  are defined on an open region containing  $D$  then we have that

$$\oint_C M \, dx + N \, dy = \iint_D \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) \, dx \, dy.$$

**Remark.** Note that Green's theorem follows as a corollary to the generalized Stoke's theorem.

### (1) Example Problems: Green's Theorem

**Example 1.1.2** (Fall 2023, Problem 1). Use Green's theorem to evaluate the integral

$$\oint_C \sqrt{1 + e^{x^2}} \, dx + 4xy \, dy$$

where  $C$  is the boundary of the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ , and  $(1, 3)$  with the standard orientation.

**Solution.** Note that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(4xy) = 4y \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\sqrt{1 + e^{x^2}} = 0.$$

Thus by Green's theorem we have that

$$\oint_C \sqrt{1 + e^{x^2}} \, dx + 4xy \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^{3x} 4y \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \left( 2y^2 \Big|_{y=0}^{3x} \right) \, dx = \int_0^1 18x^2 \, dx = 6x^3 \Big|_{x=0}^1 = 6. \quad \square$$

## 1.2 Jacobian Matrix: Change of Variables

**Lemma 1.2.1.** *Let  $D$  be a region bounded by a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve in the plane. Let  $f$ ,  $g$ , and  $h$  be continuous functions, we have that*

$$\iint_D f(x, y) dx dy = \iint_D f(g(x', y'), h(x', y')) \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} \partial g / \partial x' & \partial g / \partial y' \\ \partial h / \partial x' & \partial h / \partial y' \end{pmatrix} dx' dy'.$$

This generalizes to higher dimensions in the natural way.

### (1) Example Problems: Jacobian Matrix

**Example 1.2.2** (Spring 2021, Problem 5). Let  $R$  be the parallelogram  $(0, 0), (1, 1), (3, 0)$ , and  $(2, -1)$ . Evaluate

$$\iint_R (x + 2y)^2 e^{x-y} dA.$$

**Solution.** We would like to apply the transformation

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or alternatively} \quad -\frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus we have

$$\iint_R (x + 2y)^2 e^{x-y} dA = -\frac{1}{3} \int_0^3 \int_0^3 (x')^2 e^{y'} \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} dx' dy' = \int_0^3 \int_0^3 (x')^2 e^{y'} dx' dy'.$$

This is now a very straight-forward integral to evaluate.

$$\int_0^3 \int_0^3 (x')^2 e^{y'} dx' dy' = \int_0^3 e^{y'} \left( \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_{x=0}^3 \right) dy' = 9 \int_0^3 e^{y'} dy' = 9 \left( e^{y'} \Big|_{y=0}^3 \right) = 9(e^3 - 1). \quad \square$$

## 2 Complex Analysis

### 2.1 Harmonic Functions

**Definition 2.1.1.** A function  $f$  is harmonic if it satisfies the following equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

**Lemma 2.1.2.** If a function  $u(x, y)$  is harmonic, then there exists a harmonic conjugate of  $u$  denoted  $v(x, y)$  such that  $f(z) = u(x, y) + i \cdot v(x, y)$  is holomorphic in  $z = x + i \cdot y$ .

**Corollary 2.1.3.** A function  $u$  is harmonic if and only if there exists a holomorphic function  $f$  such that  $u = \operatorname{Re}(f)$ .

#### (1) Example Problems: Harmonic Functions

**Example 2.1.4** (Fall 2022, Problem 1). Show that  $u(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2)$  is a harmonic function in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ . Find a conjugate harmonic function of  $u(x, y)$  in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{x : x \leq 0\}$ . Show that it does not have a conjugate harmonic function in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Solution.** Recall that a harmonic function  $f$  satisfies the equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

So, note that

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{2(x^2 + y^2) - 2x(2x)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = \frac{2(y^2 - x^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

And similarly,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{2y}{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = \frac{2(x^2 + y^2) - 2y(2y)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = \frac{2(x^2 - y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

So trivially we have that  $\partial^2 u / \partial x^2 + \partial^2 u / \partial y^2 = 0$  wherever this function is defined. Noting that  $u(z) = u(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2) = 2 \ln|z|$ , it is clear that this function is defined on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .

Since  $u$  is harmonic we know there exists a holomorphic function  $f$  such that  $u = \operatorname{Re}(f)$ . There is the obvious choice:

$$f(z) = 2 \operatorname{Log}(z) = 2 \ln|z| + 2i \operatorname{Arg}(z).$$

Indeed  $u = \operatorname{Re}(f)$ . Taking the imaginary part yields the harmonic conjugate

$$v(x, y) = 2 \operatorname{Arg}(x + iy) = 2 \arctan(y/x).$$

Note that this function is continuous on the right half plane but not  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ ; hence this harmonic conjugate is valid for the right half plane and not  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .

(Incomplete still)

## 2.2 Power Series

**Definition 2.2.1.** Given a power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  there exists a number  $0 \leq R \leq \infty$  such that for all  $|z| < R$  the series converges absolutely, and for all  $|z| > R$  the series diverges. This  $R$  is the radius of convergence of the power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ .

**Theorem 2.2.2.** We have that the radius of convergence satisfies

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

### (2) Example Problems: Power Series

**Example 2.2.3** (Spring 2024, Problem 2). Let

$$F(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{1-z^n}.$$

Find its power series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k z^k$  and find its radius of convergence.

**Solution.** Working over  $\mathbb{C}[[z]]$ , finding the power series becomes trivial.

$$F(z) = \sum_{1 \leq n} \frac{z^n}{1-z^n} = \sum_{1 \leq n} \sum_{1 \leq k} z^{kn} = \sum_{1 \leq n} \sum_{d|n} z^n = \sum_{1 \leq n} \sigma_0(n) z^n.$$

Now note that  $2 \leq \sigma_0(n) \leq n$  for all  $n > 1$  (trivially). Thus we have that

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{1/n} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{1/n}.$$

Note that

$$\left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{1/n} = 1 \right) \implies \left( \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{1/n} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{1/n} = 1 \right).$$

Thus  $1/R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = 1$  and so  $R = 1$ .

**Example 2.2.4** (Stein-Shakarchi, Chapter 1 Problem 16abc). Find the radius of convergence for  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  when

- $a_n = \log^2 n$
- $a_n = n!$
- $a_n = n^2/(4^n + 3n)$

**Solution.**

- Starting with  $a_n = \log^2 n$ . Note that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\log^2 n)^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\log n)^{2/n} = \exp\left(2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log \log n}{n}\right) = \exp\left(2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}\right) = 1.$$

Thus,  $1/R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\log^2 n)^{1/n} = 1$  and so  $R = 1$ .

- Now working with  $a_n = n!$ , we note that by Sterling's approximation  $\log n! = n \log n - n + O(\log n)$ . So we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n!)^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \exp\left(\frac{\log n!}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \exp(\log n - 1) = \infty.$$

Thus  $1/R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n!)^{1/n} = \infty$  and so  $R = 0$ .

- Now working with  $a_n = n^2/(4^n + 3n)$ , note that for  $n \geq 0$  we have  $4^n \leq 4^n + 3n \leq 2 \cdot 4^n$ . Thus it follows,

$$\frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n/2)^{2/n} \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n^2}{4^n + 3n}\right)^{1/n} \leq \frac{1}{4} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{2/n} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Thus  $1/R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n^2/(4^n + 3n))^{1/n} = 1/4$  and so  $R = 4$ .

**Example 2.2.5** (Spring 2024, Problem 5). Let

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^8} z^{3^n}$$

which has convergence radius 1. (Thus  $f(z)$  is a well defined holomorphic function over the unit disk  $\Delta := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1\}$ .)

- Prove that  $f(z)$  does not admit a holomorphic extension to a neighborhood of 1 in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Namely, there do not exist a neighborhood  $U$  of 1 in the complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$  and a holomorphic function  $g$  over  $U$  such that  $f|_{U \cap \Delta} = g|_{U \cap \Delta}$ .
- Further show that the unit disk is the natural defining domain of  $f(z)$ . Namely, there do not exist a domain  $\Omega$  strictly larger than the unit disk and a holomorphic function  $F$  defined over  $\Omega$  such that the restriction of  $F$  to the unit disk is  $f(z)$ .

**Solution.** Suppose there exists a holomorphic extension of  $f$  to a neighborhood of 1. Then we know that  $f'$  is also holomorphic in a neighborhood of 1 as well. Note that

$$f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^8} z^{3^n-1}.$$

Now let  $z = re^{i\theta}$  where  $\theta = 2\pi k/3^N$  where  $0 \leq k < 3^N$ . Thus

$$f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^8} \left( r^{3^n-1} \exp(2\pi ik(3^n-1)/3^N) \right) = \exp(-2\pi ik/3^N) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^8} \left( r^{3^n-1} \exp(2\pi ik \cdot 3^{n-N}) \right).$$

But now we can rearrange as follows:

$$\exp(2\pi ik/3^N) f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{3^n}{n^8} \left( r^{3^n-1} \exp(2\pi ik \cdot 3^{n-N}) \right) + \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^8} r^{3^n-1}.$$

Now note that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 1^-} \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^8} r^{3^n-1} = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \left| \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{3^n}{n^8} \left( r^{3^n-1} \exp(2\pi ik \cdot 3^{n-N}) \right) \right| < \infty.$$

Thus by reverse triangle inequality, for  $r$  sufficiently large we have that

$$\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^8} r^{3^n-1} - \left| \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{3^n}{n^8} \left( r^{3^n-1} \exp(2\pi ik \cdot 3^{n-N}) \right) \right| \leq |f'(z)|.$$

But note that the LHS goes to infinity as  $r$  goes to 1. Thus  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 1^-} |f'(z)| = \infty$  as well.

Now note that if we choose  $k = 0$  and  $N = 0$ , then  $z = r$ . So  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 1^-} |f'(z)| = \infty$  implies that  $f'$  can not be holomorphic in any neighborhood of 1, because  $f'$  is not holomorphic at 1. Contradiction, thus  $f$  can not be holomorphic in a neighborhood of 1.

Suppose there exists  $\Omega \supset \mathbb{D}$  such that there exists a holomorphic extension of  $f$  to  $\Omega$ . Then we know that  $f'$  is also holomorphic on  $\Omega$  as well. Because our choices of  $z$  are dense on  $\partial\mathbb{D}$ , if we choose any  $\Omega \supset \mathbb{D}$ , it must contain some  $z$  in our dense set. So  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 1^-} |f'(z)| = \infty$  implies that  $f'$  can not be holomorphic in any neighborhood of  $z$ , because  $f'$  is not holomorphic at  $z$ . Thus  $f'$  can not be holomorphic on  $\Omega$ . Contradiction, thus  $f$  can not be holomorphic on  $\Omega$ .

**Example 2.2.6** (Stein-Shakarchi, Chapter 1 Problem 19). Prove the following:

- The power series  $\sum nz^n$  does not converge at any point on the unit circle.
- The power series  $\sum z^n/n^2$  converges at every point on the unit circle.
- The power series  $\sum z^n/n$  converges at every point on the unit circle except for  $z = 1$ .

**Solution.**

- In the case of  $\sum nz^n$  note that when  $|z| = 1$  we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |nz^n| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n|z|^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n = \infty$ . So the sum can not converge.
- Now in the case of  $\sum z^n/n^2$  note that when  $|z| = 1$  we have

$$\sum |z^n/n^2| = \sum |z|^n/n^2 = \sum n^{-2} = \pi^2/6.$$

Since the sum converges absolutely, the original series must also converge.

- Note that for all  $z \neq 1$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  that

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^N z^n \right| = \left| \frac{1 - z^N}{1 - z} \right| \leq \frac{2}{|1 - z|}.$$

So it follows from summation by parts that

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{z^n}{n} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N z^n + \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \left( \frac{1}{k^2 + k} \right) \sum_{n=1}^k z^n.$$

Now note that

$$0 \leq \left| \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N z^n \right| \leq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \left| \sum_{n=1}^N z^n \right| \leq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{N |1 - z|} = 0 \quad \implies \quad \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N z^n = 0.$$

Thus we have that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{k^2 + k} \right) \sum_{n=1}^k z^n.$$

But note that testing absolute convergence of the right hand side we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left| \left( \frac{1}{k^2 + k} \right) \sum_{n=1}^k z^n \right| \leq \frac{2}{|1 - z|} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + k} \leq \frac{2}{|1 - z|} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{-2} = \frac{\pi^2}{3 |1 - z|}.$$

Since the series converges absolutely the original series converges for all  $z \neq 1$ .

### 2.3 Rouche's Theorem

**Theorem 2.3.1.** For any two holomorphic functions  $f$  and  $g$  on some region  $K$  with closed contour  $\partial K$ , it follows that if  $|g(z)| < |f(z)|$  on  $\partial K$  then  $f$  and  $f + g$  have the same number of zeros inside  $K$ .

#### (6) Example Problems: Rouche's Theorem

**Example 2.3.2** (Spring 2024, Problem 3). Find the number of roots of  $z^4 - 6z + 3 = 0$  such that  $1 < |z| < 2$ .

**Solution.** Note that when  $|z| = 2$  we have that

$$|-6z| = 6|z| = 12 < 13 = \left| |z|^4 - 3 \right| \leq |z^4 + 3|.$$

Thus by Rouche's theorem,  $z^4 + 3 = 0$  and  $z^4 - 6z + 3 = 0$  have the same number of roots with  $|z| < 2$ . Noting that

$$z^4 + 3 = (z^2 + i\sqrt{3})(z^2 - i\sqrt{3}) = (z - \sqrt[4]{3})(z + \sqrt[4]{3})(z - i\sqrt[4]{3})(z + i\sqrt[4]{3})$$

and that  $|\sqrt[4]{3}| < 2$  gives us that  $z^4 - 6z + 3$  has four roots such that  $|z| < 2$ .

Note that when  $|z| = 1$  we have that

$$|z^4| = |z|^4 = 1 < 3 = |6|z| - 3| \leq |-6z + 3|.$$

Thus by Rouche's theorem  $-6z + 3 = 0$  and  $z^4 - 6z + 3 = 0$  have the same number of roots with  $|z| < 1$ . Noting that

$$-6z + 3 = -6(z - 1/2)$$

and that  $|1/2| < 1$  gives us that  $z^4 - 6z + 3$  has one root such that  $|z| < 1$ .

Thus there are three roots of  $z^4 - 6z + 3 = 0$  such that  $1 < |z| < |2|$ .

**Example 2.3.3** (Fall 2021, Problem 1). Fix  $0 < R < \pi/2$ . Prove that for sufficiently large  $n$  the polynomial

$$P_n(z) = 1 + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} + \dots + \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 0$$

has no roots such that  $|z| < R$ .

**Solution.** Note that

$$\cos(iz) = 1 + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} + \dots = \frac{1}{2} (e^z + e^{-z}).$$

Now fix  $0 < R < \pi/2$  and let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be such that  $R + \varepsilon < \pi/2$  also. Since  $\cos(iz)$  has zeros at  $\pm\pi i/2, \pm 3\pi i/2, \dots$  there exists  $M$  such that  $0 < M < |\cos(iz)|$  for  $|z| < R + \varepsilon$ . Now note that

$$\begin{aligned} |P_n(z) - \cos(iz)| &= \left| -\frac{z^{2n+2}}{(2n+2)!} - \frac{z^{2n+4}}{(2n+4)!} - \frac{z^{2n+6}}{(2n+6)!} + \dots \right| \\ &\leq \frac{|z|^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left( \frac{|z|^2}{(2n+1)(2n+2)} + \frac{|z|^4}{(2n+1)\dots(2n+4)} + \frac{|z|^6}{(2n+1)\dots(2n+6)} + \dots \right) \\ &\leq \frac{|z|^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left( 1 + \frac{|z|^2}{2!} + \frac{|z|^4}{4!} + \frac{|z|^6}{6!} + \dots \right) = \frac{|z|^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left( \frac{\exp(|z|) + \exp(-|z|)}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Thus if  $|z| = R$  then we have

$$|P_n(z) - \cos(iz)| \leq \frac{R^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left( \frac{e^R + e^{-R}}{2} \right).$$

Noting that the right hand side of the above goes to 0 pointwise in terms of  $R$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , there exists some  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$  and  $|z| = R$  we have

$$|P_n(z) - \cos(iz)| \leq \frac{R^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left( \frac{e^R + e^{-R}}{2} \right) < M < |\cos(iz)|.$$

Now by Rouche's theorem we know that  $P_n(z) = 0$  and  $\cos(iz) = 0$  have the same number of roots such that  $|z| < R$ .

Thus there exists sufficiently large  $n$  such that  $P_n(z) = 0$  has no roots such that  $|z| < R$ .

**Example 2.3.4** (Spring 2021, Problem 1). Prove that all five roots of  $2z^5 + 8z - 1 = 0$  are such that  $|z| < 2$  but only one root is such that  $|z| < 1$ .

**Solution.** Note that when  $|z| = 2$  we have that

$$|8z| = 8|z| = 16 < 31 = |2|z|^5 - 1| \leq |2z^5 - 1|.$$

Thus by Rouche's theorem,  $2z^5 - 1 = 0$  and  $2z^5 + 8z - 1 = 0$  have the same number of roots with  $|z| < 2$ . Note that

$$2z^5 - 1 = (z - \sqrt[5]{1/2})(z - e^{2\pi i/5} \sqrt[5]{1/2})(z - e^{4\pi i/5} \sqrt[5]{1/2})(z - e^{6\pi i/5} \sqrt[5]{1/2})(z - e^{8\pi i/5} \sqrt[5]{1/2})$$

and that  $|\sqrt[5]{1/2}| < 2$  gives us that  $2z^5 + 8z - 1$  has five roots such that  $|z| < 2$ .

Note that when  $|z| = 1$  we have that

$$|2z^5| = 2|z|^5 = 2 < 7 = |8|z| - 1| \leq |8z - 1|.$$

Thus by Rouche's theorem,  $8z - 1 = 0$  and  $2z^5 + 8z - 1 = 0$  have the same number of roots with  $|z| < 1$ . Noting that

$$8z - 1 = 8(z - 1/8)$$

and that  $|1/8| < 1$  gives us that  $2z^5 + 8z - 1$  has one root such that  $|z| < 1$ .

**Example 2.3.5** (Spring 2023, Problem 2). Fix  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  such that it is purely imaginary. Prove that  $z = \lambda - e^{z^2}/3$  has exactly one solution in the strip  $\mathbb{S} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |\Re(z)| < 1\}$ .

**Solution.** Let  $x = \Re(z)$  and  $y = \Im(z)$  and note that for  $z \in \mathbb{S}$  we have that  $|x| \leq 1$ . We have that

$$|e^{z^2}/3| = e^{\Re(z^2)}/3 = e^{x^2-y^2}/3 = e^{x^2}e^{-y^2}/3 \leq e^{x^2}/3 \leq e/3 < 1.$$

Now let  $R_r$  be the open rectangle with opposite corners  $(-1, \lambda - r)$  and  $(1, \lambda + r)$ . Now note that for  $r \geq 1$  for any  $z \in \partial R_r$  we have that  $|z - \lambda| \geq 1$ . Thus for all  $r \geq 1$  and  $z \in \partial R_r$  we have

$$|e^{z^2}/3| < 1 \leq |z - \lambda|.$$

Thus by Rouche's theorem,  $z - \lambda = 0$  and  $z - \lambda + e^{z^2}/3 = 0$  have the same number of roots in  $R_r$ . Thus  $z - \lambda + e^{z^2}/3$  has one root in  $R_r$  for all  $r \geq 1$ . Noting that

$$R_1 \subset R_2 \subset R_3 \subset \dots \subset \mathbb{S} \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcup_{1 \leq r} R_r = \mathbb{S}$$

gives us that  $z - \lambda + e^{z^2}/3 = 0$  has one solution in  $\mathbb{S}$ .

**Example 2.3.6** (Spring 2022, Problem 2). Show that  $2 + z^2 - e^{iz} = 0$  has exactly one solution in the upper-half plane.

**Solution.** Let  $x = \Re(z)$  and  $y = \Im(z)$  and note that for  $z \in \mathcal{H}$  we have that  $y > 0$ . Note that

$$|-e^{iz}| = e^{-y} < 1.$$

Now let  $R_r$  be the open rectangle with opposite corners  $(-r, 0)$  and  $(r, r)$ . Now for any  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  note that

$$|2 + x^2 - y^2| \leq \sqrt{(2 + x^2 - y^2)^2 + (2xy)^2} = |2 + z^2| \quad \text{and that} \quad |2 - |z|^2| \leq |2 + z^2|.$$

Now let  $r \geq 2$ . Then for any point  $z \in \partial R_r$  on the bottom edge we have  $-r \leq x \leq r$  and  $y = 0$ ; so

$$2 \leq 2 + x^2 = |2 + x^2 - 0^2| \leq |2 + z^2|.$$

Now for any point  $z \in \partial R_r$  on any other edge we have  $|z| \geq r$ ; so

$$2 \leq r^2 - 2 \leq |z|^2 - 2 = |2 - |z|^2| \leq |2 + z^2|.$$

Thus when  $r \geq 2$  for every  $z \in R_r$  we have that  $2 \leq |2 + z^2|$  and by extension  $|-e^{iz}| < 1 < 2 \leq |2 + z^2|$ . So by Rouche's theorem we have that  $2 + z^2 = 0$  and  $2 + z^2 - e^{iz} = 0$  have the same number of roots in  $R_r$ . Noting that  $2 + z^2 = (z - i\sqrt{2})(z + i\sqrt{2})$ , we have that  $2 + z^2 - e^{iz}$  has one root in  $R_r$  for all  $r \geq 2$ . Noting that

$$R_2 \subset R_3 \subset R_4 \subset \dots \subset \mathcal{H} \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcup_{2 \leq r} R_r = \mathcal{H}$$

gives us that  $2 + z^2 - e^{iz} = 0$  has one solution in  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Example 2.3.7** (Fall 2020, Problem 2). Prove that if  $1 < a < \infty$  is a real number, then  $f_a(z) = z + a - e^z$  has only one zero in the left-half plane and that the zero is real.

**Solution.** Now let  $x = \Re(z)$  and  $y = \Re(z)$  and note that for  $z \in i\mathcal{H}$  we have that  $x < 0$ . Note that

$$|-e^z| = -e^x < 1.$$

Now let  $R_r$  be the open rectangle with opposite corners  $(-r, -r)$  and  $(0, r)$ . Now note that by simple geometric reasoning for any  $r \geq 2a$  and  $z \in R_r$  we have that  $|z + a| \geq a > 1$ . Thus for all  $r \geq 2a$  and  $z \in R_r$  we have that

$$|-e^z| < 1 < a \leq |z + a|.$$

Thus by Rouche's theorem,  $z + a = 0$  and  $z + a - e^z = 0$  have the same number of roots in  $R_r$ . Thus  $z + a - e^z$  has one root in  $R_r$  for all  $r \geq 2a$ . Noting that

$$R_{\lceil 2a \rceil} \subset R_{\lceil 2a \rceil + 1} \subset R_{\lceil 2a \rceil + 2} \subset \dots \subset i\mathcal{H} \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcup_{\lceil 2a \rceil \leq r} R_r = i\mathcal{H}$$

gives us that  $z + a - e^z = 0$  has one solution in  $i\mathcal{H}$ . Note that

$$f_a(0) = 0 + a - e^0 = a - 1 > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f_a(-a) = -a + a - e^{-a} = -e^{-a} < 0.$$

Thus by the intermediate value theorem there exists at least one real zero of  $f_a$  on the interval  $(-a, 0)$ .

Since there exists one solution to  $z + a - e^z = 0$  in  $i\mathcal{H} \supset (-a, 0)$  and there exists at least one solution to  $z + a - e^z = 0$  on the interval  $(-a, 0)$ , it follows that there exists one solution to  $z + a - e^z = 0$  in  $i\mathcal{H}$  and it is real.

## 2.4 Residue Theorem

**Definition 2.4.1.** We define the residue of  $f$  as follows. Given a function  $f$  holomorphic in a neighborhood of a point  $z_0$ , we can write the Laurent expansion

$$f(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n (z - z_0)^n \quad \text{and then} \quad \text{Res}(f, z_0) = a_{-1}.$$

**Lemma 2.4.2.** If  $f$  has an order  $n$  pole at  $z_0$  then

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} (z - z_0)^n f(z).$$

**Theorem 2.4.3.** Let  $f$  be holomorphic on an open set containing a closed contour  $C$  and let  $P$  be the set points inside  $C$  which are poles of  $f$ . Then we have that

$$\oint_C f dz = 2\pi i \sum_{z_0 \in P} \text{Res}(f, z_0)$$

### (8) Example Problems: Residue Theorem

**Example 2.4.4** (Spring 2024, Problem 1). For  $a \neq 0$  evaluate

$$\int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt.$$

**Solution.** Note that

$$\int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt = \int_0^\pi \frac{\sin(t + ai)}{\cos(t + ai)} dt.$$

Recall the Weierstrass factorization of  $\cos z$

$$\cos z = \prod_{k \neq 0} \left( 1 - \frac{2z}{\pi(2k-1)} \right).$$

From this it follows that the poles of  $\tan(t + ai)$  are of order 1 and are located at  $\pm k\pi - ai$  where  $k$  is odd. Now for  $a > 0$  we define the contour  $C$  as the counterclockwise orientation of boundary of the rectangle with opposite vertices  $(0, 0)$  and  $(\pi, -R)$  where  $0 < a < R$ . Now we evaluate using the residue theorem

$$\oint_C \tan(z + ai) dz = 2\pi i \text{Res}(f, \pi/2 - ai) = 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow (\pi/2 - ai)} (z - \pi/2 + ai) \tan(z + ai).$$

Note that this is an indeterminate form as

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow (\pi/2 - ai)} (z - \pi/2 + ai) \tan(z + ai) = \lim_{z \rightarrow (\pi/2 - ai)} \frac{(z - \pi/2 + ai) \sin(z + ai)}{\cos(z + ai)}$$

with the denominator and numerator both going to 0. We apply L'Hopital's rule to remedy this

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow (\pi/2 - ai)} \frac{(z - \pi/2 + ai) \cos(z + ai) + \sin(z + ai)}{-\sin(z + ai)} = \frac{0 \cdot 0 + 1}{-1} = -1.$$

Thus

$$\oint_C \tan(z + ai) dz = -2\pi i.$$

Now note that  $\tan(z) = \tan(\pi + z)$ . So, when  $0 < a < R$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} -2\pi i &= \oint_C \tan(z + ai) dz = \int_0^{-R} \tan(ti + ai) dt + \int_0^\pi \tan(t - Ri + ai) dt - \int_0^{-R} \tan(\pi + ti + ai) dt - \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt \\ &= \int_0^\pi \tan(t - Ri + ai) dt - \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt. \end{aligned}$$

Thus when  $a > 0$  and  $R = 2a$  we have by algebraic manipulation

$$\begin{aligned}
-2\pi i &= \int_0^\pi \tan(t - ai) dt - \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt \\
&= - \int_0^{-\pi} \tan(-u - ai) du - \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt \\
&= \int_0^{-\pi} \tan(u + ai) du - \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt \\
&= - \int_{-\pi}^0 \tan(u + ai) du - \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt = - \int_0^\pi \tan(t - \pi + ai) dt - \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt.
\end{aligned}$$

Now note that  $\tan(z) = \tan(\pi + z)$ . So

$$-2\pi i = -2 \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dz \implies \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt = \pi i.$$

Now for  $b < 0$  and  $a = -b$  we have that

$$\int_0^\pi \tan(t - bi) dt = \int_0^\pi \tan(t + ai) dt = \pi i.$$

But we have that

$$\pi i = \int_0^\pi \tan(t - bi) dt = - \int_0^{-\pi} \tan(-u - bi) du = - \int_{-\pi}^0 \tan(u + bi) du = - \int_0^\pi \tan(t - \pi + bi) dt.$$

Now note that  $\tan(z) = \tan(\pi + z)$ . So

$$\int_0^\pi \tan(t + bi) = -\pi i.$$

**Example 2.4.5** (Fall 2023, Problem 2). Assume  $\xi > 0$  and compute

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos(2\pi x \xi)}{x^2 + 1} dx.$$

**Solution.** Trivially the poles of

$$\frac{e^{2\pi iz\xi}}{z^2 + 1}$$

are located at  $\pm i$  and are each of order 1. Let  $C$  be the counterclockwise orientation of the radius  $R$  upper-half semicircle centered at 0. Now for  $R > 1$  we have by the residue theorem that

$$\oint_C \frac{e^{2\pi iz\xi}}{z^2 + 1} dz = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f, i) = 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{e^{2\pi iz\xi}}{x + i} = \pi e^{-2\pi\xi}.$$

Now let  $\gamma_1$  be the segment of  $C$  along the real axis and let  $\gamma_2$  be the semicircular part, preserving the orientation of both contours from  $C$ . Now note that because  $\sin$  is odd we have

$$\int_{\gamma_1} \frac{e^{2\pi iz\xi}}{z^2 + 1} dz = \int_{-R}^R \frac{\cos(2\pi z\xi) + i \sin(2\pi z\xi)}{z^2 + 1} dz = \int_{-R}^R \frac{\cos(2\pi z\xi)}{z^2 + 1} dz.$$

Now note that

$$0 \leq \left| \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{e^{2\pi iz\xi}}{z^2 + 1} dz \right| = \left| iR \int_0^\pi \frac{\exp(2\pi i R e^{i\theta} \xi)}{R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1} e^{i\theta} d\theta \right| \leq R \int_0^\pi \left| \frac{\exp(2\pi i R e^{i\theta} \xi)}{R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1} \right| d\theta.$$

Now note that for  $R > 1$  and  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$  we have

$$|\exp(2\pi i R e^{i\theta} \xi)| = \exp(-2\pi \xi R \sin \theta) \leq 1 \quad \text{and that} \quad R^2 - 1 \leq |R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1|.$$

Thus we have that

$$0 \leq \left| \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{e^{2\pi iz\xi}}{z^2 + 1} dz \right| \leq R \int_0^\pi \left| \frac{\exp(2\pi i R e^{i\theta} \xi)}{R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1} \right| d\theta \leq R \int_0^\pi \frac{d\theta}{R^2 - 1} = \frac{\pi R}{R^2 - 1}.$$

Thus by the squeeze theorem, in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  we have that the integral over  $\gamma_2$  vanishes. So,

$$\pi e^{-2\pi i \xi} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \oint_C \frac{e^{2\pi i z \xi}}{z^2 + 1} dz = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R \frac{\cos(2\pi z \xi)}{z^2} dz + \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{e^{2\pi i z \xi}}{z^2 + 1} dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos(2\pi z \xi)}{z^2 + 1} dz.$$

**Example 2.4.6** (Spring 2023, Problem 1). Let  $a, b > 0$  such that  $a \neq b$ ; compute the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos x}{(x^2 + a^2)(x^2 + b^2)} dx.$$

**Solution.** Trivially the poles of

$$\frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)}$$

are located at  $\pm ia$  and  $\pm ib$  and they all have order 1. Let  $C$  be the counterclockwise orientation of the radius  $R$  upper-half semicircle centered at 0. Now for  $R > \max(a, b)$  we have by the residue theorem that

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz &= 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f, ia) + 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f, ib) \\ &= 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow ia} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z + ia)(z^2 + b^2)} + 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow ib} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z + ib)} \\ &= \frac{\pi e^{-a}}{a(b^2 - a^2)} + \frac{\pi e^{-b}}{b(a^2 - b^2)} = \frac{\pi}{a^2 - b^2} \left( \frac{e^{-b}}{b} - \frac{e^{-a}}{a} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Now let  $\gamma_1$  be the segment of  $C$  along the real axis and let  $\gamma_2$  be the semicircular part, preserving the orientation of both contours from  $C$ . Now note that because  $\sin$  is odd we have

$$\int_{\gamma_1} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz = \int_{-R}^R \frac{\cos z + i \sin z}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz = \int_{-R}^R \frac{\cos z}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz.$$

Now note that

$$0 \leq \left| \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz \right| = \left| iR \int_0^\pi \frac{\exp(iRe^{i\theta})}{(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + a^2)(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + b^2)} e^{i\theta} d\theta \right| \leq R \int_0^\pi \left| \frac{\exp(iRe^{i\theta})}{(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + a^2)(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + b^2)} \right| d\theta.$$

Now note that for  $R > \max(a, b)$  and  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$  we have

$$|\exp(iRe^{i\theta})| = \exp(-R \sin \theta) \leq 1 \quad \text{and that} \quad (R^2 - a^2)(R^2 - b^2) \leq |(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + a^2)(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + b^2)|.$$

Thus we have that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \left| \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz \right| &\leq R \int_0^\pi \left| \frac{\exp(iRe^{i\theta})}{(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + a^2)(R^2 e^{2i\theta} + b^2)} \right| d\theta \\ &\leq R \int_0^\pi \frac{d\theta}{(R^2 - a^2)(R^2 - b^2)} = \frac{\pi R}{(R^2 - a^2)(R^2 - b^2)}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus by the squeeze theorem, in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  we have that the integral over  $\gamma_2$  vanishes. So,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\pi}{a^2 - b^2} \left( \frac{e^{-b}}{b} - \frac{e^{-a}}{a} \right) &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \oint_C \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz + \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos z}{(z^2 + a^2)(z^2 + b^2)} dz. \end{aligned}$$

**Example 2.4.7** (Fall 2022, Problem 2). Evaluate the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x^2}{x^4 + 1} dx.$$

**Solution.** Note that

$$z^4 + 1 = (z - e^{\pi i/4})(z + e^{\pi i/4})(z - e^{3\pi i/4})(z + e^{3\pi i/4}).$$

Thus  $z^2/(z^4 + 1)$  has poles at  $e^{\pi i/4}$ ,  $e^{3\pi i/4}$ ,  $e^{5\pi i/4}$ , and  $e^{7\pi i/4}$  of order 1. Let  $C$  be the counterclockwise orientation of the radius  $R$  upper-half semicircle centered at 0. Now for  $R > 1$  we have by the residue theorem that

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz &= 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f, e^{\pi i/4}) + 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f, e^{3\pi i/4}) \\ &= 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow e^{\pi i/4}} \frac{z^2}{(z - e^{\pi i/4})(z - e^{3\pi i/4})(z + e^{3\pi i/4})} \\ &\quad + 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow e^{3\pi i/4}} \frac{z^2}{(z - e^{\pi i/4})(z + e^{\pi i/4})(z + e^{3\pi i/4})} \\ &= 2\pi i \cdot \frac{i}{(\sqrt{2})(2e^{\pi i/4})(i\sqrt{2})} + 2\pi i \cdot \frac{-i}{(-\sqrt{2})(i\sqrt{2})(2e^{3\pi i/4})} \\ &= \frac{\pi i}{2e^{\pi i/4}} + \frac{\pi i}{2e^{3\pi i/4}} = \frac{\pi i}{2} (e^{-\pi i/4} + e^{-3\pi i/4}) = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Now let  $\gamma_1$  be the segment of  $C$  along the real axis and let  $\gamma_2$  be the semicircular part, preserving the orientation of both contours from  $C$ . Now note that

$$\int_{\gamma_1} \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz = \int_{-R}^R \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz.$$

Additionally, note that

$$0 \leq \left| \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz \right| = \left| iR \int_0^\pi \frac{R^2 e^{2i\theta}}{R^4 e^{4i\theta} + 1} e^{i\theta} d\theta \right| \leq R \int_0^\pi \frac{R^2}{|R^4 e^{4i\theta} + 1|} d\theta.$$

Now note that for  $R > 1$  we have that

$$R^4 - 1 = |R^4 - 1| \leq |R^4 e^{4i\theta} + 1|.$$

Thus,

$$0 \leq \left| \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz \right| \leq R \int_0^\pi \frac{R^2}{|R^4 e^{4i\theta} + 1|} d\theta \leq R \int_0^\pi \frac{R^2}{R^4 - 1} d\theta = \frac{\pi R^3}{R^4 - 1}.$$

Thus by the squeeze theorem, in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  we have that the integral over  $\gamma_2$  vanishes. So,

$$\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \oint_C \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz + \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 1} dz.$$

**Example 2.4.8** (Spring 2022, Problem 1). Compute the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos^2(x)}{x^2 + 1} dx.$$

**Solution.** Firstly, recall the identity  $2\cos^2(z) = 1 + \cos(2z)$ . Thus

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos^2(x)}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos(2x)}{x^2 + 1} dx.$$

Using our solution to Example 2.4.5 we know that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos(2x)}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{\pi}{e^2} \implies \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos^2(x)}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx + \frac{\pi}{2e^2}.$$

Let  $\gamma$  be the counterclockwise oriented upper-half circle centered at 0 with radius  $R$ . Noting  $x^2 + 1 = (x - i)(x + i)$ , by the residue theorem we know that for  $R > 1$  we have

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f, i) = 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{1}{z + i} = \pi.$$

Now let  $\gamma'$  be the arc portion of  $\gamma$ . We parameterize this with  $z = Re^{i\theta}$  and  $dz = iRe^{i\theta} d\theta$  where  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ . Thus

$$\int_{\gamma'} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} = \int_0^\pi \frac{iRe^{i\theta}}{R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1} d\theta.$$

Now note that

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} \right| = \left| \int_0^\pi \frac{iRe^{i\theta}}{R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1} d\theta \right| \leq \int_0^\pi \left| \frac{iRe^{i\theta}}{R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1} \right| d\theta = R \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{|R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1|} d\theta.$$

But note that for  $R > 1$  we have  $R^2 - 1 = |R^2 - 1| = |R^2 e^{2i\theta}| - 1 \leq |R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1|$ . Thus

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} \right| \leq R \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{|R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1|} d\theta \leq R \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{R^2 - 1} d\theta = \frac{\pi R}{R^2 - 1}.$$

Note that in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , this integral vanishes. Thus because both of the following limits exist, we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} - \int_{\gamma'} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} \right) = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} - \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma'} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 1} = \pi - 0 = \pi.$$

So we have that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos^2(x)}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{dx}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{\pi}{2e^2} = \frac{\pi}{2} (1 + e^{-2}).$$

**Example 2.4.9** (Fall 2021, Problem 2). For  $n \geq 2$  explicitly compute

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x^n}{1 + x^{2n}} dx.$$

**Solution.** Note that

$$1 + x^{2n} = (x - e^{i\pi/(2n)})(x - e^{3i\pi/(2n)}) \dots (x - e^{(2n-1)i\pi/(2n)}).$$

Let  $\gamma$  be the counterclockwise oriented upper-half circle contour centered at 0 with radius  $R$ . Note that by the residue theorem, for  $R > 1$  we have

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{z^n}{1 + z^{2n}} dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^n \text{Res}(f, e^{(2k-1)i\pi/(2n)}).$$

Now note that if  $z_0 = e^{(2k-1)i\pi/(2n)}$  we have that  $z_0^{2n} = -1$ . Now we evaluate the residue in the general case.

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{(z - z_0) z^n}{1 + z^{2n}} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{z^{n+1} - z_0 z^n}{1 + z^{2n}} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{(n+1)z^n - nz_0 z^{n-1}}{2nz^{2n-1}} = \frac{z_0^{n+1}}{2nz_0^{2n}} = -\frac{z_0^{n+1}}{2n}.$$

Thus we have that

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{z^n}{1 + z^{2n}} dz = -\frac{\pi i}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \exp\left(\frac{(2k-1)(n+1)\pi i}{2n}\right) = -\frac{\pi}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \exp(\pi i k (1 + n^{-1})).$$

Now let  $\gamma'$  be the arc portion of the contour  $\gamma$ . Now we parameterize  $z = Re^{i\theta}$  and  $dz = iRe^{i\theta} d\theta$  and note

$$\int_{\gamma'} \frac{z^n}{1 + z^{2n}} dz = \int_0^\pi \frac{R^n e^{in\theta}}{1 + R^{2n} e^{2in\theta}} iRe^{i\theta} d\theta.$$

Now note that

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} \frac{z^n}{1 + z^{2n}} dz \right| = \left| \int_0^\pi \frac{R^n e^{in\theta}}{1 + R^{2n} e^{2in\theta}} iRe^{i\theta} d\theta \right| \leq R^{n+1} \int_0^\pi \frac{d\theta}{|1 + R^{2n} e^{2in\theta}|}.$$

But now note that for  $R > 1$  we have that

$$R^{2n} - 1 = |R^{2n} - 1| = ||R^{2n} e^{2in\theta}| - 1| \leq |1 + R^{2n} e^{2in\theta}|.$$

Thus

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} \frac{z^n}{1 + z^{2n}} dz \right| \leq R^{n+1} \int_0^\pi \frac{d\theta}{|1 + R^{2n} e^{2in\theta}|} \leq R^{n+1} \int_0^\pi \frac{d\theta}{R^{2n} - 1} = \frac{R^{n+1}}{R^{2n} - 1}.$$

Note that when  $n \geq 2$  the right hand side goes to 0 in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus because both limits exist, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{z^n}{1+z^{2n}} dz &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{\gamma} \frac{z^n}{1+z^{2n}} dz - \int_{\gamma'} \frac{z^n}{1+z^{2n}} dz \right) \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} \frac{z^n}{1+z^{2n}} dz - \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma'} \frac{z^n}{1+z^{2n}} dz = -\frac{\pi}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \exp(\pi i k(1+n^{-1})) - 0 = -\frac{\pi}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \exp(\pi i k(1+n^{-1})). \end{aligned}$$

(Unsure where to go from here)

**Example 2.4.10** (Spring 2021, Problem 3). Evaluate the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos x}{x^4 - (\pi/2)^4} dx.$$

**Solution.** Let  $\gamma$  be the semicircular contour centered at 0 with radius  $R > \pi/2$  with semicircular indents along the real axis centered at  $\pm\pi/2$  with radius  $1/R$ . Let  $\gamma^-$  be the semicircular indent centered at  $-\pi/2$  and let  $\gamma^+$  be the semicircular indent centered at  $\pi/2$ . Similarly, let  $\gamma'$  be the main semicircular arc. Now note that

$$\int_{\gamma} f = \int_{-\pi/2+1/R}^{\pi/2-1/R} f + \int_{\gamma^+} f + \int_{\pi/2+1/R}^R f + \int_{\gamma'} f + \int_{-R}^{-\pi/2-1/R} f + \int_{\gamma^-} f \quad \text{where} \quad f(z) = \frac{e^{iz}}{z^4 - (\pi/2)^4}.$$

Now by the residue theorem we have that

$$\int_{\gamma} f = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f, i\pi/2) = 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow i\pi/2} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z + i\pi/2)(z^2 - (\pi/2)^2)} = 4\pi i \left( \frac{\exp(-\pi/2)}{-i\pi^3} \right) = -\frac{4}{\pi^2} \exp(-\pi/2).$$

Now note that

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} f \right| = \left| \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\exp(iRe^{i\theta})}{R^4 e^{4i\theta} - (\pi/2)^4} iRe^{i\theta} d\theta \right| \leq R \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\exp(-R \sin \theta)}{R^4 - (\pi/2)^4} d\theta.$$

Since  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$  we have that  $\exp(-R \sin \theta) \leq 1$ . So,

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} f \right| \leq R \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\exp(-R \sin \theta)}{R^4 - (\pi/2)^4} d\theta \leq R \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{R^4 - (\pi/2)^4} = \frac{\pi R}{R^4 - (\pi/2)^4}.$$

So we have that  $\int_{\gamma'} f \rightarrow 0$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . Similarly we have that

$$\int_{\gamma^-} f = \int_{\pi}^0 \frac{\exp(-i\pi/2 + ie^{i\theta}/R)}{(-\pi/2 + e^{i\theta}/R)^4 - (\pi/2)^4} \cdot \frac{ie^{i\theta}}{R} d\theta = \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\exp(iu)}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} du.$$

But now note that

$$\int_{\gamma^-} f = \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\exp(iu)}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} du = \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\cos u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} + i \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\sin u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4}.$$

Similarly,

$$\int_{\gamma^+} f = \int_{\pi/2-1/R}^{\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\exp(iu)}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} du = \int_{\pi/2-1/R}^{\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\cos u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} + i \int_{\pi/2-1/R}^{\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\sin u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4}.$$

But note that

$$\int_{\pi/2-1/R}^{\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\sin u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} = - \int_{-\pi/2+1/R}^{-\pi/2-1/R} \frac{\sin(-u) du}{(-u)^4 - (\pi/2)^4} = - \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\sin u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4}.$$

Thus,

$$\int_{\gamma^-} f + \int_{\gamma^+} f = \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\cos u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} + \int_{\pi/2-1/R}^{\pi/2+1/R} \frac{\cos u du}{u^4 - (\pi/2)^4} = \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \Re f + \int_{\pi/2-1/R}^{\pi/2+1/R} \Re f.$$

Note that this is purely a real valued integral. Now taking the real part of our integral summation yields

$$-\frac{4}{\pi^2} \exp(-\pi/2) = \int_{\gamma} \Re f = \int_{\gamma'} \Re f + \Re \left( \int_{\gamma^-} f + \int_{\gamma^+} f \right) + \int_{-R}^{-\pi/2-1/R} \Re f + \int_{-\pi/2+1/R}^{\pi/2-1/R} \Re f + \int_{\pi/2+1/R}^R \Re f.$$

Thus, by substituting the previous expression and noting that it is purely real, we have

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{4}{\pi^2} \exp(-\pi/2) &= \int_{\gamma'} \Re f + \int_{-R}^{-\pi/2-1/R} \Re f + \int_{-\pi/2-1/R}^{-\pi/2+1/R} \Re f + \int_{-\pi/2+1/R}^{\pi/2-1/R} \Re f + \int_{\pi/2-1/R}^{\pi/2+1/R} \Re f + \int_{\pi/2+1/R}^R \Re f \\ &= \int_{\gamma'} \Re f + \int_{-R}^R \Re f. \end{aligned}$$

Note that in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  the term over  $\gamma'$  vanishes, thus

$$-\frac{4}{\pi} \exp(-\pi/2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \Re f = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos x \, dz}{x^4 - (\pi/2)^4}.$$

**Example 2.4.11** (Fall 2020, Problem 1). Evaluate the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos x}{1 + x + x^2} \, dx.$$

**Solution.** Note that

$$1 + x + x^2 = \left( x - (-1 + i\sqrt{3})/2 \right) \left( x - (-1 - i\sqrt{3})/2 \right).$$

Thus by taking  $\gamma$  as the semicircular contour centered at  $-1/2$  with radius  $R > \sqrt{3}/2$ , we have by residue theorem

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{iz}}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz = 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow (-1+i\sqrt{3})/2} \frac{e^{iz}}{(z - (-1 - i\sqrt{3})/2)} = \frac{2\pi \exp(-i/2) \exp(-\sqrt{3}/2)}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

Note that

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{\cos z}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz = \Re \left( \int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{iz}}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz \right) = \Re \left( \frac{2\pi \exp(-i/2) \exp(-\sqrt{3}/2)}{\sqrt{3}} \right) = \frac{2\pi \cos(1/2) \exp(-\sqrt{3}/2)}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

Now if we let  $z = Re^{i\theta}$  and  $dz = iRe^{i\theta}d\theta$  to parametrize the arc (which we denote  $\gamma'$ ), we have that

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} \frac{e^{iz}}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz \right| = \left| iR \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\exp(iRe^{i\theta})}{1 + Re^{i\theta} + R^2e^{2i\theta}} e^{i\theta} \, d\theta \right| \leq R \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\exp(-R \sin \theta)}{|1 + Re^{i\theta} + R^2e^{2i\theta}|} \, d\theta.$$

Now note that for sufficiently large  $R$  we have

$$R^2 - R - 1 = R^2 - (|Re^{i\theta}| + 1) \leq R^2 - |Re^{i\theta} + 1| = |R^2 - |Re^{i\theta} + 1|| = ||R^2e^{2i\theta}| - |Re^{i\theta} + 1|| \leq |1 + Re^{i\theta} + R^2e^{2i\theta}|.$$

Thus because  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$  we have that  $\exp(-R \sin \theta) \leq 1$  and thus

$$\left| \int_{\gamma'} \frac{e^{iz}}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz \right| \leq R \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\exp(-R \sin \theta)}{|1 + Re^{i\theta} + R^2e^{2i\theta}|} \, d\theta \leq R \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{R^2 - R - 1} = \frac{\pi R}{R^2 - R - 1}.$$

Now note that in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  we have that this upper bound vanishes. So by the squeeze theorem, we know that the integral over  $\gamma'$  necessarily vanishes also. Since the integral with  $\cos z$  over  $\gamma'$  is merely the real part of the above integral, we know this integral must also vanish. Thus because both limits exist and are finite, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\cos z}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{\gamma} \frac{\cos z}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz - \int_{\gamma'} \frac{\cos z}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz \right) \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} \frac{\cos z}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz - \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma'} \frac{\cos z}{1 + z + z^2} \, dz = \frac{2\pi \cos(1/2) \exp(-\sqrt{3}/2)}{\sqrt{3}}. \end{aligned}$$

## 2.5 Argument Principle

**Theorem 2.5.1.** *If  $f$  is a meromorphic function inside some closed contour  $C$ , and  $f$  has no zeros or poles on  $C$  itself, then we have*

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = Z - P$$

where  $Z$  and  $P$  are the number of zeros and poles respectively of  $f$  inside  $C$ .

**Remark.** For any contour  $\gamma$  and meromorphic function  $f$  with no zeros or poles on  $\gamma$ , we loosely have that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \frac{\Delta_{\gamma} \arg(f(z))}{2\pi}.$$

### (1) Example Problems: Argument Principle

**Example 2.5.2** (Fall 2022, Problem 4). Let  $D$  be a domain in  $\mathbb{C}$  and let  $f$  be a holomorphic function in  $D$ . Suppose that  $\operatorname{Re}(f) > 0$ . Prove that for any closed  $C^1$ -piecewise smooth curve  $C$ ,

$$\oint_C \frac{f'}{f} dz = 0$$

Additionally, use the argument principle to prove that for any  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $p(z) = z^4 + i\lambda z^3 + 1 = 0$  has exactly one solution in the first quadrant.

**Solution.** Suppose that there exists  $z \in \mathbb{D}$  such that  $f(z) = 0$ . Then  $\operatorname{Re}(f(z)) = 0$  as well which contradicts the fact that  $\operatorname{Re}(f) > 0$ . Thus  $f$  has no zeros on  $D$ . Additionally,  $f$  has no poles on  $D$ , as it is holomorphic. Thus by the argument principle we know that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{p'}{p} dz = Z - P = 0 - 0 = 0. \implies \oint_C \frac{p'}{p} dz = 0.$$

Noting that  $P(z)$  is holomorphic on the plane, we have by the argument principle that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{p'}{p} dz = Z - P = Z$$

for any closed contour  $C$ . Now let  $C$  be the clockwise oriented quarter circle of radius  $R$  in the first quadrant. Let  $\gamma_1$  be the path along the real axis between  $0 \rightarrow R$ , let  $\gamma_2$  be the path along the quarter circle of radius  $R$  centered at  $0$  between  $R \rightarrow iR$ , and let  $\gamma_3$  be the path along the imaginary axis between  $iR \rightarrow 0$ . Note

$$Z = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{p'}{p} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left( \int_{\gamma_1} \frac{p'}{p} dz + \int_{\gamma_2} \frac{p'}{p} dz + \int_{\gamma_3} \frac{p'}{p} dz \right) = \frac{\Delta_{\gamma_1} \arg(p(z)) + \Delta_{\gamma_2} \arg(p(z)) + \Delta_{\gamma_3} \arg(p(z))}{2\pi}$$

Now note that for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$p(ix) = (ix)^4 + i\lambda(ix)^3 + 1 = x^4 + \lambda x^3 + 1 \in \mathbb{R} \implies \Delta_{\gamma_3} \arg(p(z)) = 0.$$

It also follows from the above that

$$\Delta_{\gamma_1} \arg(p(z)) = \arg(p(R)) - \arg(p(0)) = \arg(p(R)) = \arg(R^4) + \arg(1 + i\lambda/R + 1/R^4) = \arg(1 + i\lambda/R + 1/R^4).$$

From this it is clear that in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  we have that  $\Delta_{\gamma_1} \arg(p(z)) = 0$ . Now for  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$  note that

$$\arg(p(Re^{i\theta})) = \arg(R^4 e^{4i\theta}) + \arg(1 + i\lambda/(Re^{i\theta}) + 1/(R^4 e^{4i\theta})) = 4\theta + \arg(1 + i\lambda/(Re^{i\theta}) + 1/(R^4 e^{4i\theta})).$$

From this it is clear that in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  we have that  $\arg(p(Re^{i\theta})) = 4\theta$ . Thus in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$  we have that  $\Delta_{\gamma_2} \arg(p(z)) = 2\pi$ . Thus we have

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} Z = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Delta_{\gamma_1} \arg(p(z)) + \Delta_{\gamma_2} \arg(p(z)) + \Delta_{\gamma_3} \arg(p(z))}{2\pi} = \frac{0 + 2\pi + 0}{2\pi} = 1.$$

## 2.6 Biholomorphic Mappings

**Lemma 2.6.1.** *The Cayley transform maps the upper-half plane to the unit disk.*

$$f : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \quad z \mapsto \frac{z-i}{z+i}$$

**Lemma 2.6.2.** *This Möbius transformation maps the disk to itself. For  $a \in \mathbb{D}$  and  $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$  we have*

$$f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \quad z \mapsto e^{i\theta} \left( \frac{z-a}{1-\bar{a}z} \right).$$

Note that  $f(a) = 0$ .

**Lemma 2.6.3.** *This transformation takes the strip  $\mathbb{S} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |\Im(z)| < 1\}$  to the right half plane  $-\mathbb{H}$ .*

$$f : \mathbb{S} \rightarrow -\mathbb{H} \quad z \mapsto \exp(\pi z/2).$$

**Lemma 2.6.4.** *Trigonometric functions can take the half-strip  $\mathbb{S}^+ = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |\Re(z)| < 1, \Im(z) > 0\}$  to  $\mathcal{H}$ :*

$$f : \mathbb{S}^+ \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \quad z \mapsto \sin(\pi z/2).$$

**Theorem 2.6.5** (Riemann Mapping). *If  $U$  is a non-empty, simply connected subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  that is not itself  $\mathbb{C}$ , then there exists a biholomorphic mapping  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ .*

**Theorem 2.6.6** (Caratheodory's Theorem). *If we have a conformal map  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow U$  where  $U$  is simply connected in  $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  and  $\partial U$  is a Jordan curve in  $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ , then there exists a continuous extension of  $f$  to  $g : \overline{\mathbb{D}} \rightarrow \overline{U}$  which is also one-to-one.*

### (3) Example Problems: Biholomorphic Mappings

**Example 2.6.7** (Spring 2023, Problem 3). Let  $\mathbb{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1\}$  and  $\mathbb{A} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : 0 < \arg z < 2\pi/5\}$ . Find an explicit biholomorphism  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}$ .

**Solution.** Note that we have the biholomorphism

$$f : \mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \quad z \mapsto z^{5/2} \quad \text{with inverse} \quad f^{-1} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{A} \quad z \mapsto z^{2/5}.$$

Likewise, recall the biholomorphism given by the Cayley transform

$$g : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \quad z \mapsto \frac{z-i}{z+i} \quad \text{with inverse} \quad g^{-1} : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \quad z \mapsto i \left( \frac{1+z}{1-z} \right).$$

Composing biholomorphisms we have

$$g \circ f : \mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \quad z \mapsto \frac{z^{5/2}-i}{z^{5/2}+i} \quad \text{with inverse} \quad f^{-1} \circ g^{-1} : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{A} \quad z \mapsto \left( i \left( \frac{1+z}{1-z} \right) \right)^{2/5}.$$

**Example 2.6.8** (Fall 2020, Problem 3). Construct a conformal map from  $\mathbb{S}^- := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \Re(z) < 0, 0 < \Im(z) < 1\}$  to the upper-half plane such that it has a continuous extension to the closure of  $\mathbb{S}^-$  considered as a map to the extended complex plane, and fixes 0. You may construct the map as a composition of elementary conformal maps.

**Solution.** Let  $\mathbb{S}^+ = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |\Re(z)| < 1, \Im(z) > 0\}$ , then we have the conformal map

$$f : \mathbb{S}^- \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^+ \quad z \mapsto -1 - 2zi.$$

We also have the elementary conformal map

$$g : \mathbb{S}^+ \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \quad z \mapsto \sin(\pi z/2).$$

We also have the extremely esoteric conformal map

$$h : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \quad z \mapsto z+1.$$

Note the composition

$$h \circ g \circ f : \mathbb{S}^- \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \quad z \mapsto 1 + \sin \left( -\frac{\pi(1+2zi)}{2} \right) \quad \text{with} \quad (h \circ g \circ f)(0) = 0.$$

Noting that both  $\mathbb{S}^-$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  are simply connected in  $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  and that  $\partial \mathbb{S}^-$  and  $\partial \mathcal{H}$  are Jordan curves in  $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  allows us to conclude via Caratheodory's theorem that  $h \circ g \circ f$  admits a continuous extension from  $\overline{\mathbb{S}^-}$  to  $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$ .

**Example 2.6.9** (Fall 2023, Problem 3). Does there exist a holomorphic surjection from  $\mathbb{D}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Solution.** Yes, consider the inverse cayley transform

$$f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \quad \text{such that} \quad z \mapsto i \left( \frac{1+z}{1-z} \right).$$

Now for  $\varepsilon > 0$  we have

$$g : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} - i\varepsilon \quad \text{such that} \quad z \mapsto z - i\varepsilon.$$

And finally, we square  $\mathbb{H} - i\varepsilon$  to map to the whole complex plane.

$$h : \mathcal{H} - i\varepsilon \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \quad \text{such that} \quad z \mapsto z^2.$$

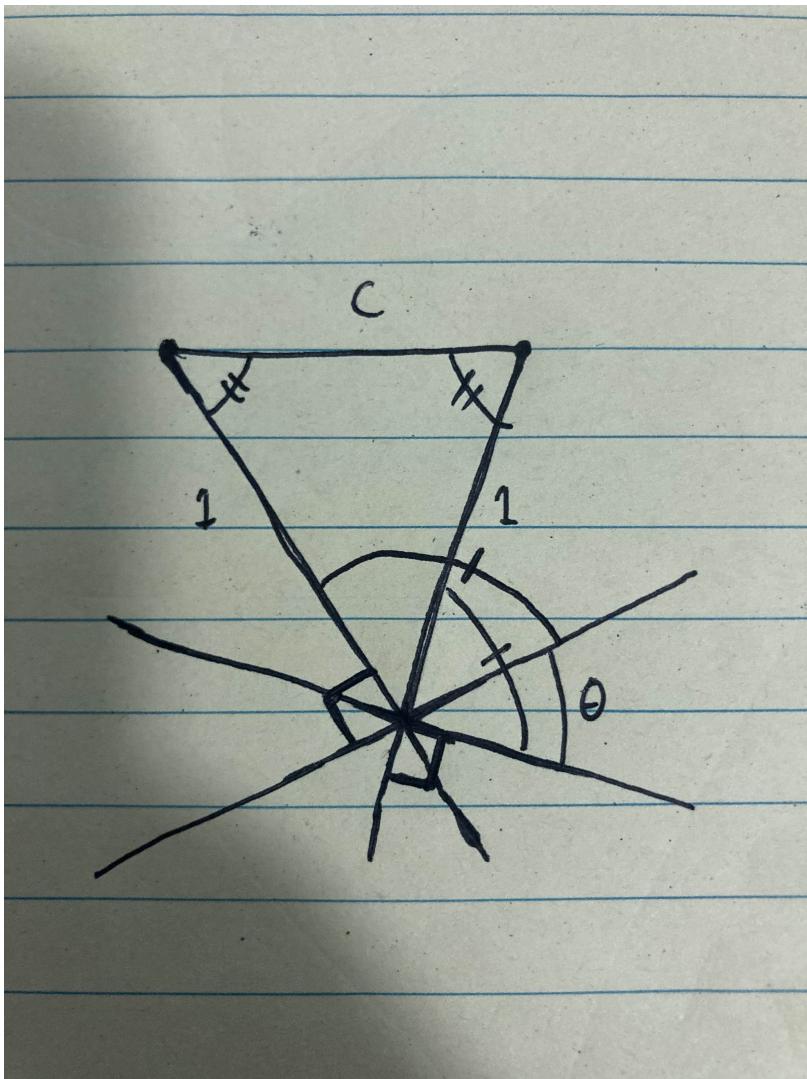
Our holomorphic surjection is simply the composition of these maps where  $\phi = h \circ g \circ f$ .

**Example 2.6.10** (Spring 2024, Problem 4). Let  $c > 0$  and

$$D = \{|z| > 1, |z - c| < 1\}, \quad F(z) = \frac{z - z_1}{z - z_2}$$

where  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$  are the intersection points of the circles  $|z| > 1$  and  $|z - c| = 1$ , with  $\operatorname{Im} z_1 < 0$  and  $\operatorname{Im} z_2 > 0$ . Find the value of  $c$  such that  $F(D)$  is bounded by two rays with angle equal to  $\pi/3$ . Then find  $F(D)$ .

**Solution.** Note that  $F(z_1) = 0$  and  $F(z_2) = \infty$ . Now note that  $F$  is a conformal map, and thus preserves angles (and similarly for  $F^{-1}$ ); so we have the geometry



By simply examining the diagram, we note that the bottom angle of the triangle is also  $\theta = \pi/3$ . Thus the double hatched angles are also  $\pi/3$ , and we have an equilateral triangle between the centers of the circles and  $z_1$ . Thus,  $c = 1$ . Therefore  $z_1 = (1 - i\sqrt{3})/2$  and  $z_2 = (1 + i\sqrt{3})/2$ . Now note that when  $z' = 1$  we have

$$F(z') = \frac{z' - z_1}{z' - z_2} = \frac{1 - (1 - i\sqrt{3})/2}{1 - (1 + i\sqrt{3})/2} = \frac{(1 + i\sqrt{3})/2}{(1 - \sqrt{3})/2} = \frac{e^{\pi i/3}}{e^{-\pi i/3}} = e^{2\pi i/3} \quad \text{and} \quad |z'| = 1.$$

Thus because  $F(z_1) = 0$ ,  $F(z') = e^{2\pi i/3}$ , and  $F(z_2) = \infty$ , this arc of the circle centered at 0 maps to the ray  $\arg z = 2\pi/3$ . Now note that when  $z'' = (3 + i\sqrt{3})/2$  we have

$$F(z'') = \frac{z'' - z_1}{z'' - z_2} = \frac{(3 + i\sqrt{3})/2 - (1 - i\sqrt{3})/2}{(3 + i\sqrt{3})/2 - (1 + i\sqrt{3})/2} = 1 + i\sqrt{3} = 2e^{\pi i/3} \quad \text{and} \quad |z'' - c| = 1.$$

Thus because  $F(z_1) = 0$ ,  $F(z'') = 2e^{\pi i/3}$ , and  $F(z_2) = \infty$ , this arc of the circle centered at  $c$  maps to the ray  $\arg z = \pi/3$ . Thus we have that

$$f(D) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \pi/3 < \arg z < 2\pi/3\}.$$

## 2.7 Schwarz Lemma

**Lemma 2.7.1.** Let  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  be a holomorphic map such that  $f(0) = 0$ . Then it follows that  $|f(z)| \leq |z|$  for  $z \in \mathbb{D}$  and  $|f'(0)| \leq 1$ .

**Corollary 2.7.2.** Furthermore, under the same conditions, if  $|f(z)| = |z|$  for some  $z \neq 0$  or if  $|f'(0)| = 1$ , then  $f(z) = az$  for some  $z \in \partial\mathbb{D}$ .

### (2) Example Problems: Schwarz Lemma

**Example 2.7.3** (Spring 2022, Problem 4). Let  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$  be a holomorphic function with two fixed points. Show that  $f$  is precisely the identity map.

**Solution.** For the sake of notation let  $f(a) = a$  and  $f(b) = b$  for some distinct  $a, b \in \mathbb{D}$ . Now we define the biholomorphic map

$$g : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \quad \text{such that} \quad z \mapsto \frac{z - a}{1 - \bar{a}z}.$$

Note that the inverse map is precisely

$$g^{-1} : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \quad \text{such that} \quad z \mapsto \frac{z + a}{1 + \bar{a}z}.$$

Now we define the holomorphic map  $h = g \circ f \circ g^{-1} : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ . Note  $h(0) = g(f(g^{-1}(0))) = g(f(a)) = g(a) = 0$  and

$$h\left(\frac{b - a}{1 - \bar{a}b}\right) = g\left(f\left(g^{-1}\left(\frac{b - a}{1 - \bar{a}b}\right)\right)\right) = g(f(b)) = g(b) = \frac{b - a}{1 - \bar{a}b}.$$

Thus by the corollary to Schwarz lemma, we know that  $h(z) = cz$  for some  $c \in \partial\mathbb{D}$ . But since

$$h\left(\frac{b - a}{1 - \bar{a}b}\right) = \frac{b - a}{1 - \bar{a}b} \quad \text{and} \quad a \neq b,$$

we also know that  $h(z) = z$ . Thus,

$$z = h(z) = g(f(g^{-1}(z))) \implies g(z) = g(f(g^{-1}(g(z)))) = g(f(z)) \implies z = g^{-1}(g(z)) = g^{-1}(g(f(z))) = f(z).$$

**Example 2.7.4** (Spring 2021, Problem 2). Let  $f : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a holomorphic function such that  $|f(z)| \leq 1$  and  $f(i) = 0$ . Prove that for  $z \in \mathcal{H}$  that

$$|f(z)| \leq \left| \frac{z - i}{z + i} \right|.$$

**Solution.** Let us define the Cayley transform

$$g : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{D} \quad \text{such that} \quad z \mapsto \frac{z - i}{z + i}.$$

Note that  $g(i) = 0$ , so  $g^{-1}(0) = i$ . Now let  $h = f \circ g^{-1} : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Note that as before  $|h(z)| \leq 1$  and also  $h(0) = 0$ . By Schwarz lemma we have that  $|h(z)| \leq |z|$  for  $z \in \mathbb{D}$ . By extension we have that for  $z \in \mathcal{H}$  it follows that

$$|f(z)| = |f(g^{-1}(g(z)))| = |h(g(z))| \leq |g(z)| = \left| \frac{z - i}{z + i} \right|.$$

## 2.8 Maximum Modulus Principle

**Theorem 2.8.1.** Suppose that  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  is a non-empty open connected subset and that  $f$  is a non-constant holomorphic function on  $\Omega$ . It then follows that  $f$  cannot attain a maximum in  $\Omega$ .

**Corollary 2.8.2.** Suppose that  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  is a non-empty open connected subset with compact closure  $\overline{\Omega}$ . If  $f$  is holomorphic on  $\Omega$  and continuous on  $\overline{\Omega}$ , then

$$\sup_{z \in \Omega} |f(z)| \leq \sup_{z \in \partial\Omega} |f(z)|.$$

### (4) Example Problems: Maximum Modulus Principle

**Example 2.8.3** (Spring 2023, Problem 4). Let  $\mathbb{S} := \{z = x + iy : -1 \leq x \leq 1\}$  and let  $f : \mathbb{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a bounded continuous function that is holomorphic on the interior of the strip  $\mathbb{S}$ . For  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$  let  $M(x) := \sup_{y \in \mathbb{R}} |f(x + iy)|$ .

- Suppose  $M(1), M(-1) \leq 1$ . Prove that  $|f(z)| \leq 1$  for any  $z \in \mathbb{S}$ .
- Suppose  $M(1), M(-1)$  are arbitrary. Prove that  $M(0)^2 \leq M(-1) \cdot M(1)$  by deducing it from part 1 of this problem.

**Solution.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and let

$$F_\varepsilon(z) = f(z) \cdot e^{\varepsilon z^2}.$$

Since  $f(z)$  is bounded there exists  $M$  such that  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{S}$ . Now note that

$$|F_\varepsilon(z)| = |f(z)| \cdot \exp(\Re(\varepsilon z^2)) = |f(z)| \cdot \exp(\varepsilon(x^2 - y^2)) \leq M \cdot \exp(\varepsilon(1 - y^2)).$$

Thus it follows that as  $|z| \rightarrow \infty$  we have that  $|F_\varepsilon(z)| \rightarrow 0$ . Let  $\mathbb{S}_y = \{z \in \mathbb{S} : |\Im(z)| \leq y\}$  and note that because of this limiting condition, it follows that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $y$  sufficiently large such that  $\sup_{z \in \partial\mathbb{S}_y} |F_\varepsilon(z)| \leq 1$  and  $|F_\varepsilon(z)| < 1$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{S} \setminus \mathbb{S}_y$ . Thus by the maximum modulus principle we have that

$$\sup_{z \in \mathbb{S}_y} |F_\varepsilon(z)| \leq \sup_{z \in \partial\mathbb{S}_y} |F_\varepsilon(z)| \leq 1.$$

Since  $|F_\varepsilon(z)| < 1$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{S} \setminus \mathbb{S}_y$  also, we have that  $\sup_{z \in \mathbb{S}} |F_\varepsilon(z)| \leq 1$ . Now when  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$  we have  $\sup_{z \in \mathbb{S}} |f(z)| \leq 1$ . Thus for all  $z \in \mathbb{S}$  we have that  $|f(z)| \leq 1$ .

SECOND PART???

**Example 2.8.4** (Fall 2023, Problem 4). Let  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n$  be points on the unit circle in the complex plane. Prove that there exists a point  $z$  on the unit circle such that

$$\prod_{k=1}^n |z - z_k| = 1.$$

**Solution.** Let us define the holomorphic function  $f(z) = \prod_{k=1}^n z - z_k$  on  $\mathbb{D}$  and note that it is continuous on  $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ . Note that  $f(0) = 1$ . So, by the maximum modulus principle, we have that

$$1 \leq \sup_{z \in \mathbb{D}} |f(z)| \leq \sup_{z \in \partial\mathbb{D}} |f(z)|.$$

So there exists  $z_0 \in \partial\mathbb{D}$  such that  $1 \leq |f(z_0)|$ . Now note that  $|f(z_1)| = 0$ . Since  $f$  is continuous when parametrized over the unit circle, by the IVT we have that there must exist a point  $z \in \partial\mathbb{D}$  such that  $|f(z)| = 1$  as desired.

**Example 2.8.5** (Fall 2021, Problem 3). Let  $D_0 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : 0 < |z| < 1\}$  and  $f : D_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic on  $D_0$  and satisfy  $|f(z)| \leq \log(1/|z|)$  for all  $z \in D_0$ . Prove that  $f \equiv 0$  on  $D$

**Solution.** Let  $g(z) = zf(z)$  and note that  $|g(z)| \leq |z| \log(1/|z|)$ . Note

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \log(1/x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log(1/x)}{1/x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-1/x}{-1/x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x = 0.$$

Thus we have that  $|g(z)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $|z| \rightarrow 0$ . Thus by the maximum modulus principle  $g(z)$  must attain its maximum on  $\partial D_0$ , but is necessarily 0 on  $\partial D_0$ . So we have that  $g(z) \equiv 0$  on  $D_0$  as thus  $f(z) \equiv 0$  on  $D_0$ .

**Example 2.8.6** (August 2020, Problem 5). Let  $f$  be holomorphic on a neighborhood of the closed unit disc centered at the origin. Assume that  $|f(z)| = 1$  if  $|z| = 1$ , and is not a constant on the disc. Prove that there exist a positive integer  $k$ , points  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  in the open unit disc, positive integers  $m_1, \dots, m_n$ , and a complex number  $\beta$  with  $|\beta| = 1$  such that

$$f(z) = \beta \prod_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{z - \alpha_k}{1 - \bar{\alpha}_k z} \right)^{m_k} \quad \text{for all } z \text{ in the unit disc.}$$

**Solution.** We know that  $f$  must have finitely many zeros on the disk by the identity theorem. So let  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  be the zeros of  $f$  with multiplicities  $m_1, \dots, m_n$ . First note that when  $|z| = 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} |B(z; a_k, m_k)|^2 &= B(z; a_k, m_k) \overline{B(z; a_k, m_k)} = \left( \frac{z - a_k}{1 - \bar{a}_k z} \right)^{m_k} \left( \frac{\bar{z} - \bar{a}_k}{1 - a_k \bar{z}} \right)^{m_k} = \left( \frac{|z|^2 - \bar{a}_k z - a_k \bar{z} + |a_k|^2}{1 - a_k \bar{z} - \bar{a}_k z + |a_k|^2 \cdot |z|^2} \right)^{m_k} \\ &= \left( \frac{1 - a_k \bar{z} - \bar{a}_k z + |a_k|^2}{1 - a_k \bar{z} - \bar{a}_k z + |a_k|^2} \right)^{m_k} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $|B(z; a_k, m_k)|^2 = 1$  and so  $|B(z; a_k, m_k)| = 1$  when  $|z| = 1$ . Now note that by extension

$$\left| \frac{f(z)}{\prod_{k=1}^n B(z; a_k, m_k)} \right| = 1 \quad \text{when} \quad |z| = 1.$$

Additionally, this function must never vanish on  $\mathbb{D}$  by construction. Thus by the minimum modulus principle, this function must be a constant of absolute value 1, denote this constant  $\beta$ . Thus

$$\frac{f(z)}{\prod_{k=1}^n B(z; a_k, m_k)} = \beta \implies f(z) = \beta \prod_{k=1}^n B(z; a_k, m_k) = \beta \prod_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{z - a_k}{1 - \bar{a}_k z} \right)^{m_k}.$$

## 2.9 Mean Value Theorem

**Theorem 2.9.1.** *If  $u$  is a harmonic function on  $U$  and  $B(a, r) \subset U$ , then we have that*

$$u(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} u(a + re^{i\theta}) d\theta.$$

### (1) Example Problems: Mean Value Theorem

**Example 2.9.2** (Spring 2022, Problem 3). Suppose  $f(z)$  is an entire function such that  $\iint_{\mathbb{C}} |f'(z)|^2 dx dy < \infty$ . Show that  $f$  is constant.

**Solution.** First we will show a corollary of the MVT:

$$u(a) = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{B(a,r)} u(x, y) dx dy.$$

Let  $a = x' + iy'$  and note using Jacobians we have

$$\frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{B(a,r)} u(x, y) dx dy = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \int_0^r \int_0^{2\pi} u(x' + r' \cos \theta, y' + r' \sin \theta) \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r' \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r' \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} d\theta dr'.$$

Simplifying and rearranging we have

$$\frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{B(a,r)} u(x, y) dx dy = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \int_0^r r' \int_0^{2\pi} u(x' + r' \cos \theta, y' + r' \sin \theta) d\theta dr'.$$

Applying the MVT this simplifies to

$$\frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{B(a,r)} u(x, y) dx dy = \frac{2u(a)}{r^2} \int_0^r r' dr' = u(a).$$

$|f'(z)|^2$  is a subharmonic function; thus, for all  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $r > 0$  we have

$$|f'(a)|^2 \leq \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{B(a,r)} |f'(z)|^2 dx dy.$$

Letting  $r \rightarrow \infty$  since the integral must be finite, we have that the  $r^{-2}$  term forces the inequality  $|f'(a)|^2 \leq 0$  which implies that  $f'(a) = 0$  everywhere. Thus the function is constant.

## (2) Other Problems

**Example 2.9.3** (Spring 2023, Problem 5). Suppose that  $f$  is an entire function satisfying the functional equation

$$f(f(z)) = c f(z) + z(1 - c)$$

for some fixed  $c \neq 1$ . Show that  $f(z)$  is linear, you may use Picard's theorem.

**Solution.** Note that by taking the derivative of both sides

$$f(f(z)) = c f(z) + z(1 - c) \implies f'(z) f'(f(z)) = c f'(z) + 1 - c.$$

If there exists  $z$  such that  $f'(z) = 0$ , then by the above we have that  $c = 1$  which immediately yields a contradiction. Thus  $f$  is non-constant. Thus by Picard's little theorem we know that  $f(\mathbb{C})$  is either  $\mathbb{C}$  or  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{a\}$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ . However, by the uniformization theorem, we know that there does not exist any conformal map  $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{a\}$ . Thus  $f(\mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}$ , and we know the automorphisms of  $\mathbb{C}$  are of the form  $az + b$ .

**Example 2.9.4** (Spring 2021, Problem 4). Let  $f : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic and suppose there is an open set  $U$  whose closure  $\overline{U} \subset \mathbb{D}$  is in the disk, such that  $f$  is injective on  $U$ . Must there exist an open set  $W$  with  $\overline{U} \subset W \subset \mathbb{D}$  such that  $f$  is injective on  $W$ ? If so, prove your answer, and if not, provide a counterexample. (Here  $\mathbb{D}$  is the unit disk,  $\mathbb{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1\}$ ).

**Solution.** This is false, consider the following counterexample. Let  $a \in \mathbb{D}$ , now let  $f(z) = (z - a)^2$  and choose the domain  $U = \{z \in \mathbb{D} : |z| < |a|\}$ . Now note that

$$0 = f'(z) = 2z - 2a \implies z = a.$$

Thus  $f$  is injective on  $U$  since  $a \notin U$ ; but,  $f$  is not injective on  $\overline{U}$  since  $a \in \overline{U}$ . So for  $\overline{U} \subset W \subset \mathbb{D}$ ,  $f$  cannot be injective on  $W$  because  $a \in W$ .