

# Lecture 4

§0. Recall that we proved Cauchy's theorem and principle of contour deformations.

$\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ , open, connected and simply-connected and  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$   $\mathbb{C}$ -differentiable implies  $\int_C f(z) dz = 0$  for any closed, piecewise  $C^1$  curve  $C \subset \Omega$ .

$\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  open, connected,  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$   $\mathbb{C}$ -differentiable, and  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2: [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$  contour s.t.  $\gamma_2$  lies in interior( $\gamma_1$ ) and  $(\cap \Omega)$  interior( $\gamma_1$ )  $\cap$  exterior( $\gamma_2$ )  $\subset \Omega$ . Then

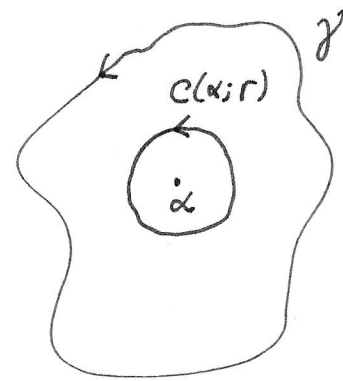
$$\int_{\gamma_1} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz$$

## §1. Cauchy's integral formula

Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be an open, connected set,  $\gamma: [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$  a contour in  $\Omega$  s.t. interior( $\gamma$ )  $\subset \Omega$ . Let  $\alpha \in$  interior( $\gamma$ ).

Then

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



Proof. - By principle of contour deformation

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-\alpha} dz = \int_{C(\alpha; r)} \frac{f(z)}{z-\alpha} dz$$

for any  $r > 0$  small enough so that

$\overline{D}(\alpha, r) = \{z : |z-\alpha| \leq r\}$  lies in  $(\Omega \cap \text{interior}(r))$ .

(2)

Claim:  $\int_{C(\alpha; r) \text{ (or } \gamma)} \frac{f(z) - f(\alpha)}{z - \alpha} dz = 0.$

Proof. As  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \alpha} \frac{f(z) - f(\alpha)}{z - \alpha} = f'(\alpha)$  exists, given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

we can find  $\delta > 0$  s.t.

$$0 < |z - \alpha| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(z) - f(\alpha) - (z - \alpha)f'(\alpha)| < \epsilon |z - \alpha|.$$

So, for every  $0 < r < \delta$ , we get

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} \left( \frac{f(z) - f(\alpha)}{z - \alpha} - f'(\alpha) \right) dz \right| = \left| \int_{C_{\alpha, r}} \left( \frac{f(z) - f(\alpha)}{z - \alpha} - f'(\alpha) \right) dz \right|$$

$< \epsilon \cdot 2\pi r$ . Letting  $r \rightarrow 0$ , we conclude

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z) - f(\alpha)}{z - \alpha} dz = \int_{\gamma} f'(\alpha) dz = 0. \text{ The claim follows. } \square$$

The claim implies 
$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-\alpha} dz = \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(\alpha)}{z-\alpha} dz$$

$$= \int_{C(a;r)} \frac{f(\alpha)}{z-\alpha} dz = f(\alpha) \int_{C(0;r)} \frac{dz}{z} = 2\pi i f(\alpha)$$

(principle of contour deformation) □

§2. Remarks. Cauchy's integral formula generalizes without any difficulty to

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

proving that  $\mathbb{C}$ -differentiable  $\Rightarrow$   $\mathbb{C}$ -differentiable to all orders.

Henceforth, we call  $\mathbb{C}$ -differentiable functions holomorphic.

After getting through the notion of uniform convergence, we will be able to prove

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z-\alpha)^n \left( \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(s)}{(s-\alpha)^{n+1}} ds \right)$$

Taylor series expansion near  $\alpha$

uniformly on compact subsets of  $D(\alpha; R) = \{z : |z-\alpha| < R\}$

where  $R =$  distance between  $\alpha$  and  $\partial\bar{\Omega}$ , the boundary of  $\bar{\Omega}$  (distance to the nearest singularity).

Hence, for  $\mathbb{C}$ -differentiability notion:

$$f'(\alpha) \text{ exists } \forall \alpha \in \Omega \Rightarrow f^{(n)}(\alpha) \text{ exists } \forall \alpha \in \Omega, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} \Rightarrow f \text{ has Taylor series expansion near } \alpha \forall \alpha \in \Omega$$

All these implications are false in the real case.

$$C^1(\mathbb{R}) \not\subseteq_+ C^0(\mathbb{R}) \text{ - by taking primitives - } C^{k+1}(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq_+ C^k(\mathbb{R})$$

e.g.  $f(x) = |x|$ .

$$C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \not\stackrel{=}{=} \text{An}(\mathbb{R}) \text{ (analytic functions)}$$

e.g.  $f(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$ ;  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0 \forall n \geq 0$ ;  $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$   
but  $f \not\equiv 0$  in a neighbourhood of 0.

§3. Liouville's theorem\* and the fundamental theorem of algebra.

Let  $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a bounded (i.e.,  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  s.t.  $|f(z)| < M, \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ ) holomorphic function. Then  $f$  is constant (i.e.  $f(z) = C, \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$ )

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\* Joseph Liouville (1809-1882). This theorem is actually due to Cauchy (1844). It was called Liouville's thm by Borchardt - who learnt it from Liouville in 1847.

Proof. - Let  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then, by Cauchy's integral formula (5)

$$f(z_0) - f(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C(0;R)} \left( \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} - \frac{f(z)}{z} \right) dz,$$

for every  $R > |z_0|$ . So,

$$|f(z_0) - f(0)| = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left| \int_{C(0;R)} \frac{z_0 f(z)}{z(z-z_0)} dz \right|$$

$$< \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{M \cdot |z_0|}{R(R-|z_0|)} \cdot 2\pi R \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty.$$

So,  $f(z_0) - f(0) = 0$  showing that  $f(z_0) = f(0) \forall z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ .  $\square$

Fundamental theorem of algebra. - Let  $p(z) \in \mathbb{C}[z]$  be a polynomial of degree  $n \geq 1$ . Then  $p(z) = 0$  has a solution in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Proof. - Assume the contrary. Write  $p(z) = z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ .  
then, by triangle inequality

$$|p(z)| \geq |z|^n - \left( \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} |z|^j |a_{n-j}| \right)$$
$$= |z|^n \left( 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{|a_{n-j}|}{|z|^{n-j}} \right)$$

For  $R \gg 0$  s.t.  $1 - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{|a_{n-j}|}{R^{n-j}} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ , we get

$$|p(z)| \geq \frac{R^N}{2}. \quad \text{Hence } \frac{1}{|p(z)|} \leq \frac{2}{R^N} \text{ for } |z| > R. \quad (6)$$

As  $\frac{1}{|p(z)|} : \overline{D}(0, R) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  is continuous, it takes a maximum value - so  $\frac{1}{p(z)} : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a bounded, holomorphic function, hence a constant, contradicting  $\deg(p(z)) \geq 1$ .  $\square$

Some Historical remarks. - (1) FTA (abbreviation for fundamental theorem of algebra) was conjectured by Albert Girard in 1629. Leibniz did not believe it as he failed to realize

$$\sqrt{i} \text{ exists in } \mathbb{C} \text{ and } \sqrt{i} = \frac{1 \pm i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

(2) The first, almost successful, attempt on FTA was made by d'Alembert in 1746. His argument used max.-modulus-principle - which follows from Cauchy's theorem. We will revisit it once we have proved Max/min modulus principles.

(3) In 1749, Euler gave a proof of FTA - expanded upon by Lagrange in 1772 - based on induction on  $n$  - where  $\deg(p(z)) = 2^n \cdot m$  ( $m$ : odd). The proof used the fact that

Splitting extensions exist - now a theorem due to Kronecker and Kummer, <sup>proved,</sup> in the later half of nineteenth century.

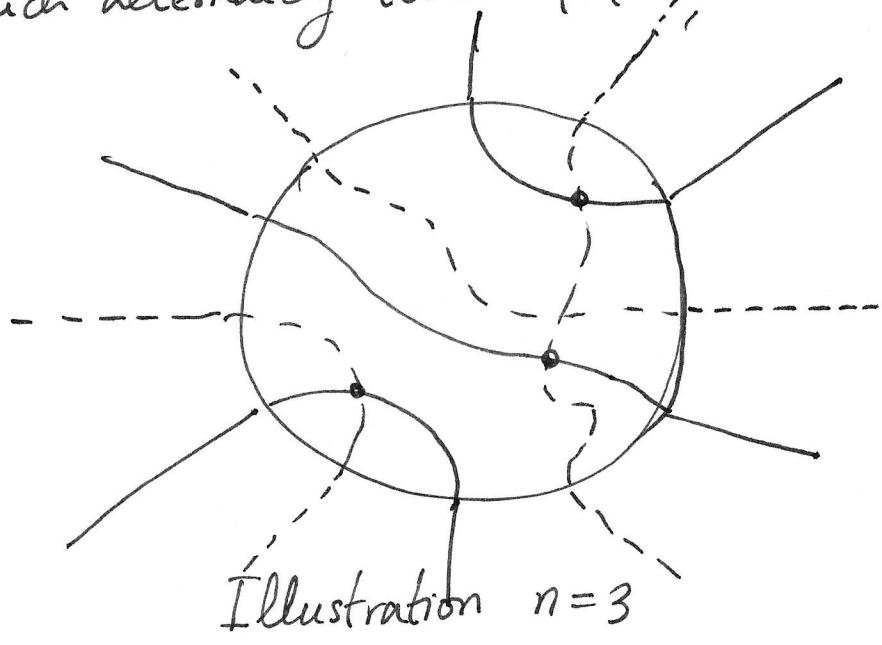
(4) In 1799, Gauss gave another proof of FTA - based on "intermediate value theorem" - proved much later by Bolzano - Weierstrass.

Gauss' argument - for some  $R \gg 0$ ,  $|p(z)| \sim |z^n|$  for  $|z| > R$ .

Solutions to  $z^n = 0$ , or  $\text{Re}(z^n) = 0$  solid lines  
 $\text{Im}(z^n) = 0$  dotted lines

have  $n$  components - which alternately touch  $|z| = R$  circle

Within  $D(0; R)$  the solid lines have to be joined to solid and dotted to dotted



Hence some solid line must meet a dotted line (Bolzano-Weierstrass)

- at that point  $p(z) = 0$ .