

We showed a function f analytic in an open disk $D(a, R)$, $R > 0$, is the sum of a convergent power series

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

in the disk. Note it follows that the series has radius of convergence $\geq R$ and

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

In the course of the proof we showed the coefficients are given by

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

where $\gamma(t) = a + re^{it}$ for any r with $0 < r < R$. An immediate consequence is the Cauchy inequalities

$$|c_n| \leq \frac{M(r)}{r^n}, \quad 0 < r < R$$

where

$$M(r) = \max_{|z-a|=r} |f(z)|.$$

A consequence of the Cauchy inequalities is

Theorem 1 (Liouville) *If f is an entire function and there exist constants M , A , B and $q < 1$ such that f satisfies one of the following inequalities*

1. $|f(z)| \leq M$
2. $|f(z)| \leq A + B \log(1 + |z|)$
3. $|f(z)| \leq A + B |z|^q$

for each $z \in \mathbb{C}$, then f is constant.

The first two bounds are stronger than the last, so it suffices to show that the third inequality implies f is constant.

A similar argument shows

Theorem 2 *If f is an entire function and there exist constants A and m such that*

$$|f(z)| \leq A(1 + |z|)^m \log(2 + |z|)$$

for each $z \in \mathbb{C}$ then f is a polynomial of degree $\leq m$.

From Liouville's theorem we deduced the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra,

Theorem 3 (FTA) Any nonconstant polynomial has a root.

By invoking a bit of algebra we then showed that each polynomial factors into a product of a constant factor and factors of degree 1 (over \mathbb{C}).

We can also factor analytic functions to some extent by using the local power series representation. Thus we have

Theorem 4 Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{C} and let $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be analytic. If $a \in \Omega$ and we define

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(z)-f(a)}{z-a}, & z \neq a \\ f'(a), & z = a \end{cases}$$

then g is analytic in Ω .

In particular if a is a root of f we have

$$f(z) = (z - a)g(z).$$

At this point, in the case of a root, it is natural to wonder how often we can divide. Here again the local power series representation comes to the rescue by giving us:

Lemma 5 Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{C} and let f be a function analytic in Ω . If

$$A = \left\{ a \in \Omega \mid f^{(n)}(a) = 0 \text{ for } n \geq 0 \right\}$$

then A is a relatively closed and open subset of Ω .

If Ω is connected then $A = \emptyset$ or $A = \Omega$. In the second case f is identically 0. We thus have

Lemma 6 If Ω is a connected open set, f is a function analytic on Ω and f is not identically zero, then for each $z \in \Omega$ there exists an integer $n_z \geq 0$ such that

$$f^{(n_z)}(z) \neq 0.$$

The facts about the set A above and a continuity argument yields

Theorem 7 (Identity Theorem) Let Ω be a connected open set, let $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be analytic, and let $(z_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a sequence in Ω such that $f(z_n) = 0$ for $n \geq 1$. If $(z_n)_{n \geq 1}$ has an accumulation point in Ω then f is identically zero in Ω .

If we apply the last lemma above to $f(z) - f(a)$ and make use of the local power series representation we see easily

Theorem 8 Let Ω be a connected open set in \mathbb{C} and let f be a nonconstant analytic function in Ω . Then for each $a \in \Omega$ there exists a unique integer $m \geq 1$ and a unique function g analytic in Ω such that $f(z) - f(a) = (z - a)^m g(z)$ and $g(a) \neq 0$. Moreover $g(a) = \frac{f^{(m)}(a)}{m!}$.

Note it follows that the roots of f in Ω are isolated. This fact also follows more directly from the identity theorem above.

By finite induction we now obtain

Theorem 9 *Let Ω be a connected open set and let $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be analytic. Suppose f has only finitely many roots in Ω , say a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n . Then there exist unique positive integers m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n and a unique function g analytic in Ω such that $g(z) \neq 0$ for each $z \in \Omega$ and*

$$f(z) = (z - a_1)^{m_1} (z - a_2)^{m_2} \cdots (z - a_n)^{m_n} g(z)$$

for each $z \in \Omega$.

Note we call m_k the *multiplicity* of the root a_k .

Now let h be any function analytic in Ω and let f and g be as above. Then

$$h(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{m_k h(z)}{z - a_k} + h(z) \frac{g'(z)}{g(z)}$$

for $z \in \Omega$. Note that the last term is analytic in Ω since $g(z) \neq 0$ for each $z \in \Omega$.

Now suppose that γ is a closed contour in Ω and suppose that Ω is a rectangle or a disk. Then by the Cauchy theorem and the Cauchy Integral theorem we have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} h(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{k=1}^n m_k \nu(\gamma, a_k) h(a_k).$$

As a special case if γ is a circle (traversed once) surrounding the roots we have

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

that is, the integral gives us the power sums of the roots. (This fact is important in connection with the Weierstrass Preparation theorem (Vorbereitungssatz) - see the notes on my web page.)

As a special case $q = 0$ gives us the number of roots, counted according to multiplicity, "inside" the circle γ ,

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

As another special case consider when we have a circle surrounding a single root a of multiplicity 1. Then we have

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

Suppose instead of roots of $f(z)$ we look at roots $f^{-1}(w)$ of $f(z) - w$. Then we obtain (with some care)

$$f^{-1}(w) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{z f'(z)}{f(z) - w} dz.$$

Since we can differentiate under the integral sign this expression allows to conclude that f^{-1} is analytic when f is one-to-one.

A consequence Cauchy inequalities and the FTA is

Theorem 10 Let f be an entire function. Then f is a polynomial if and only if

$$\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} |f(z)|$$

exists. The limit is finite if and only if f is constant.

The Cauchy integral theorem instantly yields the Mean Value Theorem

Theorem 11 Let Ω be an open subset of \mathbb{C} , let $a \in \Omega$ and let $R = \text{dist}(a, \partial\Omega)$. If f is analytic in Ω and $0 < r < R$ then

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(a + re^{i\theta}) \, d\theta \\ f(a) &= \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{D(a,r)} f(x + iy) \, dx \, dy. \end{aligned}$$

An interesting consequence of the theorem above and the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality is,

Corollary 12 For each function f analytic in Ω and each compact subset K of Ω we have

$$\max_{z \in K} |f(z)| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi \text{dist}(K, \Omega)}} \|f\|_2.$$

Thus convergence of a sequence of analytic functions in $L^2(\Omega)$ implies uniform convergence on compact subsets of Ω . (This works for L^p -convergence as well.)

If f is analytic in $D(a, R)$ then

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

with normal convergence in $D(a, R)$. It follows

$$f(a + re^{i\theta}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n r^n e^{in\theta}$$

and the convergence is uniform in θ (and in r for $0 \leq r \leq r_0 < R$). Note this is really a Fourier series. By making use of the uniform convergence we obtain

Theorem 13 (Gutzmer) If f is analytic in $D(a, R)$ then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(a + re^{i\theta})|^2 \, d\theta = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |c_n|^2 r^{2n}$$

where the c_n are the coefficients in the power series expansion of f at a .

Note the Gutzmer equality immediately implies the Cauchy inequalities. Note also it is really a special case of the Parseval-Plancherel theorem for Fourier series.

Next week we will look at the maximum principle, open mapping principle and other properties of analytic functions. In particular we will obtain a very beautiful and simple proof of the maximum principle based on the Gutzmer equality.