

3.6. Analytic Functions

On the contents of the lecture. This lecture introduces the reader into the phantastically beautiful world of analytic functions. Integral Cauchy formula, Taylor series, Fundamental Theorem of Algebra. The reader will see all of these treasures in a single lecture.

THEOREM 3.6.1 (Integral Cauchy Formula). *If function f is complex differentiable in the domain D , then for any interior point $z \in D$ one has:*

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\partial D} \frac{f(\zeta) dz}{\zeta - z}$$

PROOF. The function $\frac{f(z)}{z-z_0}$ has its only singular point inside the circle. This is z_0 , which is a simple pole. The residue of $\frac{f(z)}{z-z_0}$ by Lemma 3.5.7 is equal to $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$. And by the formula (3.5.5) the integral is equal to $2\pi i f(z_0)$. \square

LEMMA 3.6.2. *Let $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k$ be a series of virtually monotone complex functions, which is termwise majorized by a convergent positive series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k$ on a monotone curve Γ (that is $|f_k(z)| \leq c_k$ for natural k and $z \in \Gamma$) and such that $F(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(z)$ is virtually monotone. Then*

$$(3.6.1) \quad \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_{\Gamma} f_k(z) dz = \int_{\Gamma} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(z) dz.$$

PROOF. By the Estimation Lemma 3.5.4 one has the following inequalities:

$$(3.6.2) \quad \left| \int_{\Gamma} f_k(z) dz \right| \leq 4c_k \text{diam } \Gamma, \quad \left| \int_{\Gamma} \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} f_k(z) dz \right| \leq 4 \text{diam } \Gamma \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} c_k.$$

Set $F_n(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f_k(z)$. By the left inequality of (3.6.2), the module of difference between $\int_{\Gamma} F_n(z) dz = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \int_{\Gamma} f_k(z) dz$ and the left-hand side of (3.6.1) does not exceed $4 \text{diam } \Gamma \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} c_k$. Hence this module is infinitesimally small as n tends to infinity. On the other hand, by the right inequality of (3.6.2) one gets $\left| \int_{\Gamma} F_n(z) dz - \int_{\Gamma} F(z) dz \right| \leq 4 \text{diam } \Gamma \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} c_k$. This implies that the difference between the left-hand and right-hand sides of (3.6.1) is infinitesimally small as n tends to infinity. But this difference does not depend on n . Hence it is zero. \square

LEMMA 3.6.3. *If a real function f defined over an interval $[a, b]$ is locally bounded, then it is bounded.*

PROOF. The proof is by contradiction. Suppose that f is unbounded. Divide the interval $[a, b]$ in half. Then the function has to be unbounded at least on one of the halves. Consider this half and divide it in half. Choose the half where the function is unbounded. So we construct a nested infinite sequence of intervals converging to a point, which coincides with the intersection of all the intervals. And f is obviously not locally bounded at this point. \square

COROLLARY 3.6.4. *A complex function $f(z)$ continuous on the boundary of a domain D is bounded on ∂D .*

PROOF. Consider a path $p: [a, b] \rightarrow \partial D$. Then $|f(p(t))|$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, hence it is locally bounded, hence it is bounded. Since ∂D can be covered by images of finitely many paths this implies boundedness of f over ∂D . \square

THEOREM 3.6.5. *If a function $f(z)$ is complex differentiable in the disk $|z - z_0| \leq R$, then for $|z - z_0| < R$*

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (z - z_0)^k \oint_{z_0}^R \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z_0)^{k+1}} d\zeta,$$

where the series on the right-hand side absolutely converges for $|z - z_0| < R$.

PROOF. Fix a point z such that $|z - z_0| < R$ and consider ζ as a variable. For $|\zeta - z_0| > |z - z_0|$ one has

$$(3.6.3) \quad \frac{1}{\zeta - z} = \frac{1}{(\zeta - z_0) - (z - z_0)} = \frac{1}{\zeta - z_0} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z - z_0}{\zeta - z_0}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(z - z_0)^k}{(\zeta - z_0)^{k+1}}.$$

On the circle $|\zeta - z_0| = R$ the series on the right-hand side is majorized by the convergent series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{|z - z_0|^k}{R^{k+1}}$ for $r > |z - z_0|$. The function $f(\zeta)$ is bounded on $|\zeta - z_0| = R$ by Corollary 3.6.4. Therefore after multiplication of (3.6.3) by $f(\zeta)$ all the conditions of Lemma 3.6.2 are satisfied. Termwise integration gives:

$$f(z) = \oint_{z_0}^R \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} d\zeta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (z - z_0)^k \oint_{z_0}^R \frac{f(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta - z_0)^{k+1}}.$$

\square

Analytic functions. A function $f(z)$ of complex variable is called an *analytic function* in a point z_0 if there is a positive ε such that $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$ for all z from a disk $|z - z_0| \leq \varepsilon$ and the series absolutely converges. Since one can differentiate power series termwise (Theorem 3.3.9), any function which is analytic at z is also complex differentiable at z . Theorem 3.6.5 gives a converse. Thus, we get the following:

COROLLARY 3.6.6. *A function $f(z)$ is analytic at z if and only if it is complex differentiable in some neighborhood of z .*

THEOREM 3.6.7. *If f is analytic at z then f' is analytic at z . If f and g are analytic at z then $f + g$, $f - g$, fg are analytic at z . If f is analytic at z and g is analytic at $f(z)$ then $g(f(z))$ is analytic at z .*

PROOF. Termwise differentiation of the power series representing f in a neighborhood of z gives the power series for its derivative. Hence f' is analytic. The differentiability of $f \pm g$, fg and $g(f(z))$ follow from corresponding differentiation rules. \square

LEMMA 3.6.8 (Isolated Zeroes). *If $f(z)$ is analytic and is not identically equal to 0 in some neighborhood of z_0 , then $f(z) \neq 0$ for all $z \neq z_0$ sufficiently close to z_0 .*

PROOF. Let $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (z - z_0)^k$ in a neighborhood U of z_0 . Let c_m be the first nonzero coefficient. Then $\sum_{k=m}^{\infty} c_k (z - z_0)^{k-m}$ converges in U to a differentiable function $g(z)$ by Theorem 3.3.9. Since $g(z_0) = c_m \neq 0$ and $g(z)$ is

continuous at z_0 , the inequality $g(z) \neq 0$ holds for all z sufficiently close to z_0 . As $f(z) = g(z)(z - z_0)^m$, the same is true for $f(z)$. \square

THEOREM 3.6.9 (Uniqueness Theorem). *If two power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(z - z_0)^k$ and $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k(z - z_0)^k$ converge in a neighborhood of z_0 and their sums coincide for some infinite sequence $\{z_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ such that $z_k \neq z_0$ for all k and $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} z_k = z_0$, then $a_k = b_k$ for all k .*

PROOF. Set $c_k = a_k - b_k$. Then $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(z - z_0)^k$ has a non-isolated zero at z_0 . Hence $f(z) = 0$ in a neighborhood of z_0 . We get a contradiction by considering the function $g(z) = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} c_k(z - z_0)^{k-m}$, which is nonzero for all z sufficiently close to z_0 (cf. the proof of the Isolated Zeroes Lemma 3.6.8), and satisfies the equation $f(z) = g(z)(z - z_0)^m$. \square

Taylor series. Set $f^{(0)} = f$ and by induction define the $(k + 1)$ -th derivative $f^{(k+1)}$ of f as the derivative of its k -th derivative $f^{(k)}$. For the first and the second derivatives one prefers the notation f' and f'' . For example, the k -th derivative of z^n is $n^{\underline{k}} z^{n-k}$. (Recall that $n^{\underline{k}} = n(n-1) \dots (n-k+1)$.)

The following series is called the *Taylor series* of a function f at point z_0 :

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!} (z - z_0)^k.$$

The Taylor series is defined for any analytic function, because an analytic function has derivative of any order due to Theorem 3.6.7.

THEOREM 3.6.10. *If a function f is analytic in the disk $|z - z_0| < r$ then $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!} (z - z_0)^k$ for any z from the disk.*

PROOF. By Theorem 3.6.5, $f(z)$ is presented in the disk by a convergent power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(z - z_0)^k$. To prove our theorem we prove that

$$(3.6.4) \quad a_k = \oint_{z_0}^R \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z_0)^{k+1}} d\zeta = \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!}.$$

Indeed, $a_0 = f(z_0)$ and termwise differentiation of $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(z - z_0)^k$ applied n times gives $f^{(n)}(z) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} k^{\underline{n}} a_k(z - z_0)^{k-n}$. Putting $z = z_0$, one gets $f^{(n)}(z_0) = n^{\underline{n}} a_n = a_n n!$. \square

THEOREM 3.6.11 (Liouville). *If a function f is analytic and bounded on the whole complex plane, then f is constant.*

PROOF. If f is analytic on the whole plane then $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$, where a_k is defined by (3.6.4). If $|f(z)| \leq B$ by the Estimation Lemma 3.5.4 one gets

$$(3.6.5) \quad |a_k| = \left| \oint_0^R \frac{f(\zeta)}{z^{k+1}} d\zeta \right| \leq 4 \cdot 4 \frac{B}{R^{k+1}} \frac{R}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{C}{R^k}.$$

Consequently a_k for $k > 0$ is infinitesimally small as R tends to infinity. But a_k does not depend on R , hence it is 0. Therefore $f(z) = a_0$. \square

THEOREM 3.6.12 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). *Any nonconstant polynomial $P(z)$ has a complex root.*

PROOF. If $P(z)$ has no roots the function $f(z) = \frac{1}{P(z)}$ is analytic on the whole plane. Since $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = 0$ the inequality $|f(z)| < 1$ holds for $|z| = R$ if R is sufficiently large. Therefore the estimation (3.6.5) for the k -th coefficient of f holds with $B = 1$ for sufficiently large R . Hence the same arguments as in proof of the Liouville Theorem 3.6.11 show that $f(z)$ is constant. This is a contradiction. \square

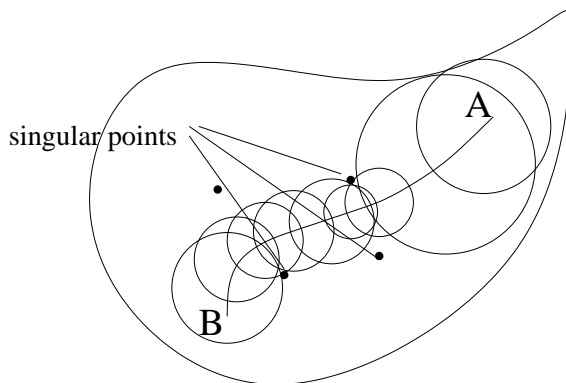


FIGURE 3.6.1. Analytic continuation

Analytic continuation.

LEMMA 3.6.13. *If an analytic function $f(z)$ has finitely many singular points in a domain D and a non isolated zero at a point $z_0 \in D$ then $f(z) = 0$ for all regular $z \in D$.*

PROOF. For any nonsingular point $z \in D$, we construct a sequence of sufficiently small disks $D_0, D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n$ without singular points with the following properties: 1) $z_0 \in D_0 \subset D$; 2) $z \in D_n$; 3) z_k , the center of D_k , belongs to D_{k-1} for all $k > 0$. Then by induction we prove that $f(D_k) = 0$. First step: if z_0 is a non-isolated zero of f , then the Taylor series of f vanishes at z_0 by the Uniqueness Theorem 3.6.9. But this series represents $f(z)$ on D_0 due to Theorem 3.6.10, since D_0 does not contain singular points. Hence, $f(D_0) = 0$. Suppose we have proved already that $f(D_k) = 0$. Then z_{k+1} is a non-isolated zero of f by the third property of the sequence $\{D_k\}_{k=0}^n$. Consequently, the same arguments as above for $k = 0$ prove that $f(D_{k+1}) = 0$. And finally we get $f(z) = 0$. \square

Consider any formula which you know from school about trigonometric functions. For example, $\tan(x + y) = \frac{\tan x + \tan y}{1 - \tan x \tan y}$. The above lemma implies that this formula remains true for complex x and y . Indeed, consider the function $T(x, y) = \tan(x + y) - \frac{\tan x + \tan y}{1 - \tan x \tan y}$. For a fixed x the function $T(x, y)$ is analytic and has finitely many singular points in any disk. This function has non-isolated zeroes in all real points, hence this function is zero in any disk intersecting the real line. This implies that $T(x, y)$ is zero for all y . The same arguments applied to $T(x, y)$ with fixed y and variable x prove that $T(x, y)$ is zero for all complex x, y .

The same arguments prove the following theorem.

THEOREM 3.6.14. *If some analytic relation between analytic functions holds on a curve Γ , it holds for any $z \in \mathbb{C}$, which can be connected with Γ by a paths avoiding singular points of the functions.*

LEMMA 3.6.15. $\sin t \geq \frac{2t}{\pi}$ for $t \in [0, \pi/2]$.

PROOF. Let $f(t) = \sin t - \frac{2t}{\pi}$. Then $f'(t) = \cos t - \frac{2}{\pi}$. Set $y = \arccos \frac{2}{\pi}$. Then $f'(t) \geq 0$ for $t \in [0, y]$. Therefore f is nondecreasing on $[0, y]$, and nonnegative, because $f(0) = 0$. On the interval $[y, \pi/2]$ the derivative of f is negative. Hence $f(t)$ is non-increasing and nonnegative, because its value on the end of the interval is 0. \square

LEMMA 3.6.16 (Jordan). *Let $f(z)$ be an analytic function in the upper half-plane such that $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = 0$. Denote by Γ_R the upper half of the circle $|z| = R$. Then for any natural m*

$$(3.6.6) \quad \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) \exp(miz) dz = 0.$$

PROOF. Consider the parametrization $z(t) = R \cos t + Ri \sin t$, $t \in [0, \pi]$ of Γ_R . Then the integral (3.6.6) turns into

$$(3.6.7) \quad \int_0^\pi f(z) \exp(iRm \cos t - Rm \sin t) d(R \cos t + Ri \sin t) \\ = \int_0^\pi R f(z) \exp(iRm \cos t) \exp(-Rm \sin t) (-\sin t + i \cos t) dt.$$

If $|f(z)| \leq B$ on Γ_R , then $|f(z) \exp(iRm \cos t) (-\sin t + i \cos t)| \leq B$ on Γ_R . And the module of the integral (3.6.7) can be estimated from above by

$$BR \int_0^\pi \exp(-Rm \sin t) dt.$$

Since $\sin(\pi - t) = \sin t$, the latter integral is equal to $2BR \int_0^{\pi/2} \exp(-Rm \sin t) dt$. Since $\sin t \geq \frac{2t}{\pi}$, the latter integral does not exceed

$$2BR \int_0^{\pi/2} \exp(-2Rmt/\pi) dt = 2BR \frac{1 - \exp(-Rm)}{2Rm} \leq \frac{B}{m}.$$

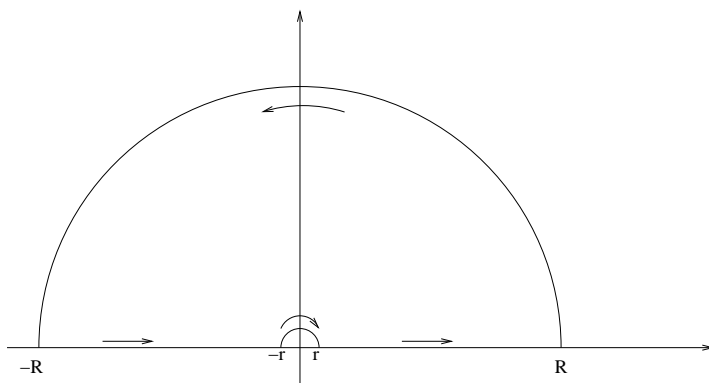
Since B can be chosen arbitrarily small for sufficiently large R , this proves the lemma. \square

Evaluation of $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-N}^N \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$. Since $\sin x = \operatorname{Im} e^{ix}$ our integral is equal to $\operatorname{Im} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz$. Set $\Gamma(r) = \{z \mid |z| = r, \operatorname{Im} z \geq 0\}$. This is a semicircle. Let us orient it counter-clockwise, so that its initial point is r .

Consider the domain $D(R)$ bounded by the semicircles $-\Gamma(r)$, $\Gamma(R)$ and the intervals $[-R, -r]$, $[r, R]$, where $r = \frac{1}{R}$ and $R > 1$. The function $\frac{e^{iz}}{z}$ has no singular points inside $D(R)$. Hence $\oint_{\partial D(R)} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = 0$. Hence for any R

$$(3.6.8) \quad \int_{-R}^{-r} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz + \int_r^R \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = \int_{\Gamma(r)} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz - \int_{\Gamma(R)} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz.$$

The second integral on the right-hand side tends to 0 as R tends to infinity due to Jordan's Lemma 3.6.16. The function $\frac{e^{iz}}{z}$ has a simple pole at 0, hence the first

FIGURE 3.6.2. The domain $D(R)$

integral on the right-hand side of (3.6.8) tends to $\pi i \operatorname{res} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} = \pi i$ due to Remark 3.5.8. As a result, the right-hand side of (3.6.8) tends to πi as R tends to infinity. Consequently the left-hand side of (3.6.8) also tends to πi as $R \rightarrow \infty$. The imaginary part of left-hand side of (3.6.8) is equal to $\int_{-R}^R \frac{\sin x}{x} dx - \int_{-r}^r \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$. The last integral tends to 0 as $r \rightarrow 0$, because $|\frac{\sin x}{x}| \leq 1$. Hence $\int_{-R}^R \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ tends to π as $R \rightarrow \infty$. Finally $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \pi$.

Problems.

1. Prove that an even analytic function f , i.e., a function such that $f(z) = f(-z)$, has a Taylor series at 0 consisting only of even powers.
2. Prove that analytic function which has a Taylor series only with even powers is an even function.
3. Prove: If an analytic function $f(z)$ takes real values on $[0, 1]$, then $f(x)$ is real for any real x .
4. Evaluate $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^4} dx$.
5. Evaluate $\int_{-\pi}^{+\pi} \frac{d\phi}{5+3 \cos \phi}$.
6. Evaluate $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{(x^2+a^2)^2} dx$ ($a > 0$).
7. Evaluate $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2+4x+20} dx$.
8. Evaluate $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos ax}{x^2+b^2} dx$ ($a, b > 0$).