## COMPLEX ANALYSIS

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These are solutions to some problems in Complex Analysis. These were in conjunction with the instructor notes.

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## 1. Lecture 1

1.1. Proof of Proposition 1.1. In this exercise, we will show that any open subset of $\mathbb{C}$ is connected if and only if it is path connected. So, let $A \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be any open subset, and first suppose that $A$ is path connected. We claim that $A$ is connected; for the sake of contradiction, suppose $A$ is not connected, that is $A=U \sqcup V$ where $U, V$ are non-empty disjoint open subsets of $A$. Let $x \in U$ and $y \in V$, and let $f:[0,1] \rightarrow A$ be a path in $A$ from $x$ to $y$. Consider the open subsets $f^{-1}(U)$ and $f^{-1}(V)$ of $[0,1]$. Clearly, these intervals are disjoint and their union is $[0,1]$. But, this contradicts the connectedness of $[0,1]$. So, it follows that $A$ is indeed connected (note that in any path-connected topological space is connected by the same argument).

Conversely, suppose $A$ is open and connected. Recall that in any connected space, the only sets which are both open and closed are $\phi$ and $A$. So, let $a \in A$ be any point. Let $A_{1}$ be the set of all points of $A$ which are connected via paths to $a$, and let $A_{1}^{\prime}$ be its complement in $A$. Clearly, $A_{1} \neq \phi$ (because $a \in A_{1}$ ). We will show that $A_{1}$ is both open and closed, and it will follow that $A_{1}=A$, which will show that $A$ is path-connected. It is easy to show that $A_{1}$ is open; take any point $x \in A_{1}$, i.e $a$ is connected to $x$ by a path. Since $A$ is open, there is a ball centered at $x$ which is
completely contained inside $A$. Clearly, any point $x^{\prime}$ in this ball can be connected to $a$ via a path, by concatenating the path from $a$ to $x$ and the linear path from $x$ to $x^{\prime}$. So, $A_{1}$ is an open set. To show that $A_{1}$ is closed, we can very similarly show that $A_{1}^{\prime}$ is open. This completes the proof.
1.2. Exercise (1). The proof of the fact that any connected open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is path-connected is given in section 1.1 above. We will show that the topologists sine curve, i.e the closure of

$$
\left\{\left.\left(x, \sin \frac{1}{x}\right) \right\rvert\, x \in(0,1)\right\}
$$

inside $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is connected but not path-connected. Observe that the above set is the image of $(0,1)$ under the continuous map

$$
x \mapsto\left(x, \sin \frac{1}{x}\right)
$$

and hence this set is connected. Because closures of connected sets are connected, it follows that the topologists sine curve is also connected. Now, we will show that this curve is not path-connected. Need to complete this!
1.3. Exercise (2). Let $n$ be any positive integer. We will show that $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is complete. To show this, use two facts.
(1) The norms $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{2}$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ are equivalent (or just use the more stronger fact that all norms in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ are equivalent).
(2) Now just use the fact that $\mathbb{R}$ is complete.
1.4. Exercise (3). This problem is trivial once we know the fact that the map $t \mapsto$ $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is bijective from $[0,2 \pi)$ onto the unit circle $S^{1}$.
1.5. Exercise (4). Consider the equation $z^{n}=\bar{z}^{n}$. If $z=r(\cos \theta+i \sin \theta)$, this equation in polar coordinates corresponds to

$$
r^{n}(\cos n \theta+\sin n \theta)=r^{n}(\cos n \theta-\sin n \theta)
$$

Solving this, we get

$$
2 i \sin n \theta=0
$$

and from here the values of $\theta$ can be computed.

## 2. Lecture 2

2.1. Simpler proof of Theorem 2.8. Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a domain, and let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a function. Let $c=a+b i \in U$, and write $f=u+i v$, where $u$ and $v$ are real functions on $U$. Then $f$ is differentiable at $c$ if and only if $u, v$ are differentiable at $(a, b)$ (as functions from $U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ) and their partial derivatives satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations

$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b)=\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(a, b) \text { and } \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(a, b)=-\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b)
$$

Further, when this happens, it is true that

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b)+i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b)=\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(a, b)-i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(a, b)
$$

Proof. First, suppose $f$ is (complex) differentiable at $c$. To show that $u, v$ are differentiable as functions from $U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, it is enough to show that $f$ is real differentiable as a function $U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$. First, let $h \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, we have the following chain of equations.

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(c) & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h+c)-f(c)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(h+c)+i v(h+c)-u(c)-i v(c)}{h}
\end{aligned}
$$

From here, separate the real and imaginary parts to get the following.

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(c) & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(h+c)-u(c)}{h}+i \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(h+c)-v(c)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(a+h, b)-u(a, b)}{h}+i \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(a+h, b)-v(a, b)}{h}
\end{aligned}
$$

and this implies that both $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$ exist at the point $(a, b)$, and we immediately see that

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b)+i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b)
$$

Next, we can replace $h$ by $i h$ in the above equations, and we will obtain that both $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ and $\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ exist at the point $(a, b)$, and that

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(a, b)-i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(a, b)
$$

From the last two equations, we obtain the Cauchy-Riemann equations. It remains to show that $f$ is real differentiable at $(a, b)$. But we have the derivative with us! It is simply

$$
f^{\prime}(a, b)=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b) & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(a, b) \\
\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b) & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(a, b)
\end{array}\right]=\lambda
$$

Checking this is a simple calculation. Suppose $h=\left(h_{1}, h_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$, or we can write $h=h_{1}+i h_{2} \in \mathbb{C}$. Then using the Cauchy-Riemann equations, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|f(c+h)-f(c)-\lambda(h)\|}{\|h\|}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}\left|\frac{f(c+h)-f(h)-\lambda(h)}{h}\right| \\
&=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}\left|\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)-\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b) h_{1}+\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(a, b) h_{2}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b) h_{1}+\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(a, b) h_{2}\right)}{h}\right| \\
& \quad=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}\left|\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)-\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b) h_{1}-\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b) h_{2}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b) h_{1}+\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b) h_{2}\right)}{h}\right| \\
& \quad=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}\left|\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)-\left(h_{1}+i h_{2}\right)\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b)+i \frac{\partial u}{\partial v}(a, b)\right)}{h}\right| \\
& \quad=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}\left|\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)-h f^{\prime}(c)}{h}\right| \\
& \quad=0
\end{aligned}
$$

and this shows that $f$ is real differentiable at $(a, b)$, and so are $u, v$.

Conversely, if $u, v$ are real differentiable at $(a, b)$, then so is $f$. In addition, suppose $u, v$ satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations. So, all that needs to be shown is that $f$ is complex differentiable at $c$. But this can easily be checked as above by putting

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(a, b)+i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(a, b)
$$

This completes the proof.
2.2. Exercise (1). (Very Boring) Here, we will prove the rules of differentiation for complex functions. So let $c \in \mathbb{C}$, and $f, g$ functions defined in a neighborhood of $c$ and differentiable at $c, h$ a function defined on a neighborhood of $f(c)$ and differentiable at $f(c)$, and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. Then we have the following.
(1) $(f+\alpha g)^{\prime}(c)=f^{\prime}(c)+\alpha g^{\prime}(c)$.

Proof. This is an easy computation. We have the following chain of equations.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f+\alpha g^{\prime}\right)(c) & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(f+\alpha g)(c+h)-(f+\alpha g)(c)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)+\alpha g(c+h)-\alpha g(c)}{h} \\
& =f^{\prime}(c)+\alpha g^{\prime}(c)
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) $(f g)^{\prime}(c)=f^{\prime}(c) g(c)+f(c) g^{\prime}(c)$.

Proof. This one has a neat trick. We do it as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f g)^{\prime}(c) & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(f g)(c+h)-(f g)(c)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) g(c+h)-f(c) g(c)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) g(c+h)+f(c) g(c+h)-f(c) g(c+h)-f(c) g(c)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[f(c+h)-f(c)] g(c+h)}{h}+\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[g(c+h)-g(c)] f(c)}{h} \\
& =f^{\prime}(c) g(c)+f(c) g^{\prime}(c)
\end{aligned}
$$

(3) $(h \circ f)^{\prime}(c)=h^{\prime}(f(c)) f^{\prime}(c)$. To be completed.
(4) $\left(\frac{1}{f}\right)^{\prime}(c)=-\frac{f(c)}{f(c)^{2}}$ if $f\left(c_{1}\right) \neq 0$ for every $c_{1}$ in a neighborhood of $c$. To be completed.
2.3. Exercise (2). Let

$$
f(z)= \begin{cases}z^{5}|z|^{-4}, & z \neq 0 \\ 0, & z=0\end{cases}
$$

We now determine $\mathfrak{R}(f)$ and $\mathfrak{I}(f)$ as functions of real variables $x$ and $y$, where $z=$ $x+i y$. The following computation is straightforward.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{z^{5}}{|z|^{4}} & =\frac{(x+i y)^{5}}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}} \\
& =x^{5}+\binom{5}{1} x^{4}(i y)+\binom{5}{2} x^{3}(i y)^{2}+\binom{5}{3} x^{2}(i y)^{3}+\binom{5}{4} x(i y)^{4}+\binom{5}{5}(i y)^{5} \\
& =\frac{x^{5}+5 x^{4}(i y)+10 x^{3}(i y)^{2}+10 x^{2}(i y)^{3}+5 x(i y)^{4}+(i y)^{5}}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}} \\
& =\frac{x^{5}-10 x^{3} y^{2}+5 x y^{4}}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}}+i \frac{\left(5 x^{4} y-10 x^{2} y^{3}+y^{5}\right)}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and hence we see that

$$
\mathfrak{R}(f)(x, y)=\frac{x^{5}-10 x^{3} y^{2}+5 x y^{4}}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}} \quad, \quad \Im(f)(x, y)=\frac{5 x^{4} y-10 x^{2} y^{3}+y^{5}}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}}
$$

Next, we show that $\mathfrak{R}(f)$ and $\mathfrak{I}(f)$ satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations at $z=0$. But this is clear by the following.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial \mathfrak{R}(f)(0,0)}{\partial x}=1 \\
& \frac{\partial \mathfrak{R}(f)(0,0)}{\partial y}=0 \\
& \frac{\partial \mathfrak{I}(f)(0,0)}{\partial x}=0 \\
& \frac{\partial \mathfrak{I}(f)(0,0)}{\partial y}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, we show that $f^{\prime}(0)$ does not exist. Let $r \in \mathbb{R}$, and first let $h=r$. Then, we see that

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h)}{h}=\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(r)}{r}=\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{r}{r}=1
$$

Next, put $h=(1+i) r$. So we have

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h)}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f((1+i) r)}{(1+i) r}=\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{-4 r^{5}-i 4 r^{5}}{4|r|^{4} r(1+i)}=\lim _{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{-r^{4}}{\left|r^{4}\right|}=-1
$$

and hence it follows that $f^{\prime}(0)$ does not exist.
2.4. Exercise (3). We define

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{z} & =\frac{1}{2}\left(f_{x}-i f_{y}\right) \\
f_{\bar{z}} & =\frac{1}{2}\left(f_{x}+i f_{y}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

(a) Let us treat $z$ and $\bar{z}$ as the independent coordinates. Then, our composite mapping is

$$
(z, \bar{z}) \mapsto\left(\frac{z+\bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z-\bar{z}}{2 i}\right) \mapsto f\left(\frac{z+\bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z-\bar{z}}{2 i}\right)
$$

So, using the chain rule of differentiation, we see that

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
f_{z} & f_{\bar{z}}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
f_{x} & f_{y}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2 i} & \frac{-1}{2 i}
\end{array}\right]
$$

and hence the above equation agrees with our definitions.
(b) If $f$ is differentiable at a point $c$, then we know from Theorem 2.8 that $f^{\prime}(c)=$ $u_{x}(c)+i v_{x}(c)$. Now, from the Cauchy-Riemann equations, we see that

$$
u_{x}(c)+i v_{x}(c)=\frac{1}{2}\left[u_{x}(c)+v_{y}(c)+i\left(v_{x}(c)-u_{y}(c)\right)\right]=\frac{1}{2}\left[f_{x}(c)-i f_{y}(c)\right]=f_{z}(c)
$$

and hence $f^{\prime}(c)=f_{z}(c)$. Similarly, the Cauchy Riemann equations will simplify to give $f_{\bar{z}}(c)=0$.
2.5. Exercise (4). Let $f=z^{m} \bar{z}^{n}$ with $m, n \geq 0$. We show that

$$
f_{z}=m z^{m-1} \bar{z}^{n} \quad, \quad f_{\bar{z}}=n z^{m} \bar{z}^{n-1}
$$

Complete this using polar coordinates
2.6. Exercise (5). Consider the function

$$
f(x+y i)= \begin{cases}\frac{x y^{2}(x+y i)}{x^{2}+y^{4}} & ,(x, y) \neq(0,0) \\ 0 & ,(x, y)=(0,0)\end{cases}
$$

We show that $f$ is not differentiable at the origin. Writing $f=u+v i$, we see that

$$
u(x, y)= \begin{cases}\frac{x^{2} y^{2}}{x^{2}+y^{4}} & ,(x, y) \neq(0,0) \\ 0 & ,(x, y)=(0,0)\end{cases}
$$

and that

$$
v(x, y)= \begin{cases}\frac{x y^{3}}{x^{2}+y^{4}} & ,(x, y) \neq(0,0) \\ 0 & ,(x, y)=(0,0)\end{cases}
$$

For $f$ to be differentiable at 0 , both $u, v$ must be differentiable at $(0,0)$ and they must satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations. Observe that

$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(0,0)=\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(0,0)=\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(0,0)=\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(0,0)=0
$$

and so if $u, v$ are differentiable at 0 , their derivatives must be 0 . This implies that

$$
\lim _{(x, y) \rightarrow(0,0)} \frac{|v(x, y)|}{\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}}=0
$$

Now, consider the curve $x=y^{2}$. Taking the above limit over this curve, we see that

$$
\lim _{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left|y^{5}\right|}{2 y^{4} \sqrt{y^{4}+y^{2}}}=\lim _{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left|y^{5}\right|}{2\left|y^{5}\right| \sqrt{y^{2}+1}} \neq 0
$$

and this is a contradiction. So, it follows that $v$ is not differentiable, i.e $f$ is not complex differentiable at 0 .
2.7. Exercise (6). Let $f(z)$ be a function defined in a neighborhood of $c \in \mathbb{C}$. We show that $f(z)$ is differentiable at $c$ if and only if $\overline{f(\bar{z})}$ is differentiable at $\bar{c}$.

First, suppose $f(z)$ is differentiable at the point $c$. Clearly, we see that $\overline{f(\bar{z})}$ is defined in a neighborhood of $\bar{c}$. Put $g(z)=\overline{f(\bar{z})}$. This is to say that $g(z)$ is defined in a neighborhood of $\bar{c}$. We claim that

$$
g^{\prime}(\bar{c})=\overline{f^{\prime}(c)}
$$

This is just a straightforward computation. We have the following.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(\bar{c}+h)-g(\bar{c})}{h} & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{f(\overline{\bar{c}+h})}-\overline{f(c)}}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{f(c+\bar{h})}-\overline{f(c)}}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{f(c+\bar{h})-f(c)}}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \overline{\left(\frac{f(c+\bar{h})-f(c)}{\bar{h}}\right)} \\
& =\overline{f^{\prime}(c)}
\end{aligned}
$$

and in the last step above, we have interchanged the conjugation operator with the limit, because conjugation is continuous. The converse is similarly proven.
2.8. Exercise (7). Here we will find the Cauchy-Riemann equations in polar coordinates. If $f$ is some complex function, we write

$$
f=u+i v
$$

We define a map $g$ by $g=f \circ \gamma$, where $\gamma: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is the map

$$
\gamma(r, \theta)=(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)
$$

By the chain rule, we see that

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} \\
\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\
\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\
\sin \theta & r \cos \theta
\end{array}\right]
$$

So, this corresponds to the four equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} & =\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cos \theta+\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \sin \theta \\
\frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} & =-\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} r \sin \theta+\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} r \cos \theta \\
\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} & =\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \cos \theta+\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \sin \theta \\
\frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} & =-\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} r \sin \theta+\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} r \cos \theta
\end{aligned}
$$

and so the Cauchy-Riemann equations in polar coordinates are

$$
r \frac{\partial u}{\partial r}=\frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} \quad, \quad r \frac{\partial v}{\partial r}=-\frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta}
$$

## 3. Lecture 3

3.1. Exercise (6). Here we will look at two important limits.
(1) The first limit is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}}=1$. For many amazing proofs, check out this link.
(2) The second limit is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\binom{n}{k}^{\frac{1}{n}}=1$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Observe that

$$
\binom{n}{k}^{\frac{1}{n}}=\frac{n^{\frac{1}{n}}(n-1)^{\frac{1}{n}} \ldots(n-(k-1))^{\frac{1}{n}}}{(k!)^{\frac{1}{n}}}
$$

Using the limit in (1), and the fact that $\sqrt[n]{k!} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the claim follows.
3.2. Exercise (8). It is clear that $\mathbb{C}\{z\}$ is a subring of $\mathbb{C}[[z]]$, because sums and products of convergent power series are themselves convergent power series. We will now show that if $a_{0} \neq 0$, then the inverse of $\sum a_{n} z^{n}$ in $\mathbb{C}[[z]]$ belongs to $\mathbb{C}\{z\}$. To be completed.

## 4. Lecture 4

4.1. Fact used in Proposition 4.4. In the proof of Proposition 4.4 of the notes, the following fact has been used: if

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{i j}
$$

is an absolutely convergent double series of complex numbers, then

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{i j}=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_{j i}
$$

4.2. Exercise (1). Let $U$ be a domain, $c_{0} \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\tau: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the map $c \mapsto c+c_{0}$. Clearly, $\tau$ is a continuous map, begin a translation. It also has a two sided inverse, namely the map $\tau^{-1}$ given by $c \mapsto c-c_{0}$, and being a translation $\tau^{-1}$ is also a continuous map. Clearly, $\tau$ is a homeomorphism; hence, $\operatorname{Im}(\tau)$ is an open connected set, i.e $\operatorname{Im}(\tau)$ is a domain in $\mathbb{C}$.

Suppose $x_{0} \in U$ is a point such that a map $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is differentiable at $x_{0}$. We show that $f \circ \tau^{-1}$ is differentiable at the point $\tau(x) \in \tau(U)$. But this is obvious by the chain rule, since $\tau^{-1}$ is differentiable at each point in $\tau(U)$.

Next, suppose $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is analytic on $U$. We show that $f \circ \tau^{-1}$ is analytic on $\operatorname{Im}(\tau)$. To show this, let $c \in \operatorname{Im}(\tau)$. Consider the point $\tau^{-1}(c)$. We know that there is some $\epsilon>0$ such that $B_{\tau^{-1}(c), \epsilon} \subseteq U$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(z)=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}\left(z-\tau^{-1}(c)\right)^{n} \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $z \in B_{\tau^{-1}(c), \epsilon}$. Observe that

$$
\tau\left(B_{\tau^{-1}(c), \epsilon}\right)=B(c, \epsilon) \subseteq \operatorname{Im}(\tau)
$$

So, if $z \in B(c, \epsilon)$, then $(*)$ implies that

$$
f \circ \tau^{-1}(z)=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}\left(\tau^{-1}(z)-\tau^{-1}(c)\right)^{n}=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}(z-c)^{n}
$$

and this proves that $f \circ \tau^{-1}$ is analytic on $\operatorname{Im}(\tau)$.
4.3. Exercise (2). We can also prove the same when $\tau$ is just a scaling map, i.e $\zeta \mapsto c_{0} \zeta$ for some $c_{0} \neq 0$. The proof is easy. The statement about $f \circ \tau$ being holomorphic is again follows by the chain rule. So, we will only prove the statement about analyticity.

So, suppose $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is analytic on $U$. Let $c \in \operatorname{Im}(\tau)$. Consider the point $\tau^{-1}(c) \in U$. We know that there is some $\epsilon>0$ such that $B_{\tau^{-1}(c), \epsilon} \subseteq U$ and that for any $z \in B_{\tau^{-1}(c), \epsilon}$

$$
f(z)=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}\left(z-\tau^{-1}(c)\right)^{n}
$$

Observe that

$$
\tau\left(B_{\tau^{-1}(c), \epsilon}\right)=B\left(c, c_{0} \epsilon\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Im}(\tau)
$$

So, if $z \in B\left(c, c_{0} \epsilon\right)$, then ( $\dagger$ ) implies that

$$
f \circ \tau^{-1}(z)=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}\left(\tau^{-1}(z)-\tau^{-1}(c)\right)^{n}=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{a_{n}}{c_{0}}(z-c)^{n}
$$

and hence it follows that $f \circ \tau^{-1}$ is analytic on $\operatorname{Im}(\tau)$.
4.4. Exercise (3). Let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be an analytic function on a domain $U$ such that $f^{(k)}(z)=0$ for every $z \in U$. Let $c \in U$ be any point. We know that locally around $c$, $f$ can be written as a power series, that is

$$
f(z)=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}(z-c)^{n}
$$

for all $z$ in a ball centered at $c$. Now, restrict $f$ to this ball. We know that $f$ is infinitely differentiable, and the coefficients $a_{k}$ are given by

$$
a_{m}=m!f^{(m)}(c)
$$

Since $f^{k}=0$, it follows that $f$ is a polynomial of degree atmost $k-1$ in this ball. Let this polynomial be $p$. So, we have shown that $f \equiv p$ on a non-empty open set contained in $U$. So, it follows that $f-p$ is identically zero on a non-empty open set contained in $U$. However, by Proposition 4.6 in the main notes, we know that the zeroes of $f-p$ in $U$ will be isolated if $f-p$ is not identically zero, since $f-p$ is analytic on $U$. So, it follows that $f-p$ is identically zero on $U$, i.e $f$ is a polynomial of degree atmost $k-1$. This completes our proof.
4.5. Exercise (4). This is an alternative proof of the fact that the zeroes of an analytic function that is not identically zero are isolated.
4.6. Exercise (5). To be completed.

## 5. Lecture 5

5.1. Exercise (1). Points number (1) and (2), i.e the power series expansions of sin and cos are clear by the power series expansion of $e^{z}$.

The formula $e^{i z}=\cos z+i \sin z$ is also clear from the definition of these functions.
The rest of the properties are also easy to see from the definitions.
5.2. Exercise (4). Here we expand $1 / z$ as a power series around $z=1$, and we compute its radius of convergence. So suppose

$$
\frac{1}{z}=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{n}(z-1)^{n}
$$

in some neighborhood of 1 . We see that

$$
a_{n}=\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)^{(n)}(1) \frac{1}{n!}=(-1)^{n}
$$

and hence we see that

$$
\frac{1}{z}=\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}}(-1)^{n}(z-1)^{n}
$$

Clearly, the radius of convergence of this series is 1 .
5.3. Exercise (6). Let $U$ be a domain not containing 0 and let $f, g$ be branches of the logarithm on $U$. Consider the function

$$
h(z):=\frac{f(z)-g(z)}{2 \pi i}
$$

on $U$. We have

$$
e^{2 \pi i h(z)}=e^{f(z)-g(z)}=1
$$

because $f, g$ are branches of the logarithm. This means that $h(z) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $z \in U$. Since $h$ is continuous, it follows that $h(z)=n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. This implies that

$$
f(z)-g(z)=2 n \pi i
$$

i.e any two branches of the logarithm differ by an interger multiple of $2 \pi i$. Conversely, if $f(z)-g(z)=2 \pi i$, it is clear that $f$ is a branch of a logarithm if and only if $g$ is.
5.4. Exercise (7). Let $U$ be a domain not containing 0 and let $f$ be a branch of the logarithm on $U$. We show that $f$ is holomorphic on $U$.

First, suppose $c \in U \backslash(-\infty, 0]$. Take a ball $B_{c, R}$ which does not intersect $(-\infty, 0]$; on this neighborhood, $f(z)$ differs from $\log (z)$ by a holomorphic function (in particular, any two branches of the logarithm differ by an integer multiple of $2 \pi i$ ), and hence $f(z)$ is also holomorphic at $c$. Moreover, it is clear that $f^{\prime}(z)=1 / z$ on $U \backslash(-\infty, 0]$.

Next, suppose $c \in U \cap(-\infty, 0]$. The idea is to rotate the domain where $\log (z)$ is differentiable by an appropriate angle $\theta$. For any angle $\theta$, note that the function

$$
\log \left(e^{i \theta} z\right)-i \theta
$$

is holomorphic on $\mathbb{C} \backslash K$, where $K$ is the negative $x$-axis $(-\infty, 0]$ rotated counterclockwise by the angle $\theta$. So, let $\theta \neq 2 k \pi$ by any angle. Choose $B_{\epsilon, c}$ such that $B_{c, \epsilon} \subseteq U \backslash K$ (possible because $U$ is open). Then, again, $f(z)$ and $\log \left(e^{i \theta} z\right)-i \theta$ differ by a multiple of $2 \pi i$, and hence $f$ is differentiable at $c$. Again, we have

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\left(\log \left(e^{i \theta} z\right)-i \theta\right)_{z=c}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{z}
$$

and this proves the claim.

## 6. Lecture 6

6.1. Exercise (1). Here we show that $\int_{\gamma} f(z) d z$ is independent of the choice of the partition. But this is really easy, and I'll just give a proof sketch. Suppose

$$
P:=a=t_{0}<t_{1}<\ldots<t_{n}=b
$$

is a partition of $[a, b]$. Now let $P^{\prime}$ be any refinement of this partition. We show that the integral $\int_{\gamma} f(z) d z$ taken with respect to $P$ is equal to the one taken with respect to the refinement $P^{\prime}$. But this is trivial, by the additivity of integrals. Then, given two partitions $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ of $[a, b]$, the claim follows by taking their common refinement and using Lemma 6.4.
6.2. Exercise 3. Let $U$ be a domain. We will show that between any two points of $U$, there is a piecewise-linear path between them.

Let $a_{0} \in U$ be any point. We show that the set

$$
S:=\left\{a \in U \mid \text { There is a piecewise-linear path between } a \text { and } a_{0}\right\}
$$

Clearly, $S$ is non-empty, because $a_{0} \in S$. We show that $S$ is both open and closed in $U$, and this will show that $S=U$, which will complete our proof.

Suppose $a \in S$. Take a ball $B_{a, \epsilon}$ such that $B_{a, \epsilon} \subseteq U$ (possible because $U$ is open). Since $a \in S$, there is a piecewise-linear path from $a_{0}$ to $a$. If $\zeta \in B_{a, \epsilon}$, we can extend this piecewise-linear path to a path from $a_{0} \rightarrow \zeta$, by simply concatenating the line segment from $a$ to $\zeta$ to our path. This shows that $\zeta \in S$, i.e $S$ is open.

To show that $S$ is closed, let $p \in U$ be a limit point of $S$. Again, take a ball $B_{p, \epsilon}$ such that $B_{p, \epsilon} \subseteq U$. Now, $S \cap B_{p, \epsilon} \neq \phi$ since $p$ is a limit point of $S$. Again, by concatening a piecewise-linear path with a straight line, we otain that $p \in S$, showing that $S$ is closed in $U$. This completes our proof.

## 7. Lecture 7

7.1. Exercise (1). Here we show that $\gamma_{2}$ is not a reparametrization of $\gamma$, where $\gamma, \gamma_{2}$ are as in Example 7.2. As mentioned in the example, the intuitive idea is that $\gamma$ goes around the circle once, while $\gamma_{2}$ revolves around the circle twice. We use this idea to distinguish between the two maps.

For the sake of contradiction, suppose $\gamma_{2}$ is a reparametrisation of $\gamma$, i.e

$$
\gamma_{2}=\gamma \circ \tau
$$

where $\tau:[0,2] \rightarrow[0,1]$ is a non-decreasing piecewise differentiable surjective map. It is easy to see that $\gamma_{2}^{-1}(1,0)=\{0,1,2\}$. We will show that $(\gamma \circ \tau)^{-1}(1,0)$ cannot be this set, and that will be our contradiction. Note that

$$
(\gamma \circ \tau)^{-1}(1,0)=\tau^{-1}\left(\gamma^{-1}(1,0)\right)
$$

Now we know that $\gamma^{-1}(1,0)=\{0,1\}$. Because $\tau$ is a non-decreasing surjective map, it is clear that $\tau(0)=0$ and $\tau(2)=1$, i.e $\{0,2\} \subseteq \tau^{-1}(\{0,1\})$. Now, we also have that $\tau(1) \in\{0,1\}$. If $\tau(1)=0$, then it follows that $\tau[0,1]=0$, which contradicts the fact that $\tau^{-1}\{0,1\}=\{0,1,2\}$. Similarly, a contradiction is obtained if $\tau(1)=1$. This proves the claim.

## 8. Lecture 8

8.1. Exercise (1). Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a function. We show that

$$
\left|\int_{a}^{b} f \mathrm{~d} t\right| \leq \int_{a}^{b}|f| \mathrm{d} t
$$

To see this, let $\theta=\arg \int_{a}^{b} f \mathrm{~d} t$. Observe that

$$
e^{-i \theta} \int_{a}^{b} f \mathrm{~d} t=\int_{a}^{b} e^{-i \theta} f \mathrm{~d} t
$$

an this implies that

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left[e^{-i \theta} \int_{a}^{b} f \mathrm{~d} t\right]=\int_{a}^{b} \operatorname{Re}\left[e^{-i \theta} f\right] \mathrm{d} t \leq \int_{a}^{b}|f| \mathrm{d} t
$$

Also, the extreme left hand side in the above equation is just

$$
\operatorname{Re}\left[e^{-i \theta} \int_{a}^{b} f \mathrm{~d} t\right]=\left|\int_{a}^{b} f \mathrm{~d} t\right|
$$

and this completes the proof.
8.2. Exercise (2). Here we complete the assertion (2) $\Longleftrightarrow(3)$ of Proposition 8.4. Throughout this proof, $U$ is a domain and $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a continuous function.

First, suppose there is some function $F: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that for all piecewisedifferentiable paths $\gamma:[a, b] \rightarrow U$ it is true that

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

If $\gamma$ is a piecewise-differentiable closed path in $U$, the right hand side in the above equality becomes 0 , and we get that

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

which proves the forward direction.
Conversely, suppose for every piecewise-differentiable closed path $\gamma$ in $U$, it is true that

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

Fix a point $a_{0} \in U$. Now, for any point $a \in U$, we know that there is a piecewisedifferentiable path $\gamma_{a}$ in $U$ from $a_{0}$ to $a$. Define the map $F: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by

$$
F(a)=\int_{\gamma_{a}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z
$$

First, we need to show that $F$ is well-defined, i.e the choice of the path $\gamma_{a}$ does not matter. $\gamma_{a}$ and $\gamma_{a}^{\prime}$ are two piecewise-differentiable paths from $a_{0}$ to $a$. So, observe that the path $\gamma_{a}-\gamma_{a}^{\prime}$ is a path from $a_{0}$ to itself. By our hypothesis, we know that

$$
\int_{\gamma_{a}-\gamma_{a}^{\prime}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z=\int_{\gamma_{a}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z-\int_{\gamma_{a}^{\prime}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z=0
$$

and this implies that

$$
\int_{\gamma_{a}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z=\int_{\gamma_{a}^{\prime}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z
$$

and this proves the well-definedness of $F$. Next, we claim that if $\gamma:[a, b] \rightarrow U$ is any piecewise-differntiable path in $U$ then

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

To see this, let $\gamma_{a}$ and $\gamma_{b}$ be piecewise-differentiable paths in $U$ from $a_{0}$ to $\gamma(a)$ and $a_{0}$ to $\gamma(b)$ respectively. Then, observe that

$$
\gamma_{a}+\gamma-\gamma_{b}
$$

is a path from $a_{0}$ to $a_{0}$. So, we see that

$$
\int_{\gamma_{a}+\gamma-\gamma_{b}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z=\int_{\gamma_{a}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z+\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d} z-\int_{\gamma_{b}} f(z) \mathrm{d} z=0
$$

and this implies that

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

and this completes the proof.
8.3. Exercise (3). Let $r$ be a positive real number, and let $\gamma:[0,2 \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the path given by $t \mapsto r e^{i t}$. We show that

$$
\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} \mathrm{~d} z=2 \pi i
$$

But this is clear, because

$$
\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} \mathrm{~d} z=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{1}{r e^{i t}} i r e^{i t} d t=2 \pi i
$$

Now, let $\gamma$ be a piecewise-differentiable closed path that avoids some ray in $\mathbb{C}$ (by a ray we mean the set $\left\{r e^{i \alpha} \mid r \in \mathbb{R}, r \geq 0\right\}$ for some $\alpha$ ). Then

$$
\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z} \mathrm{~d} z=0
$$

This is because the function $1 / z$ has a primitive on $\mathbb{C}-\left\{r e^{i \alpha} \mid r \in \mathbb{R}, r \geq 0\right\}$ obtained by rotating the domain where $\log (z)$ is differentiable, just like we did in Exercise (7) of Lecture 5.

## 9. Lecture 10

9.1. Exercise (1). In this exercise, we show that it can be assumed that $U$ is centered at 0 , where $U$ is as in the statement of Theorem 10.1. So, let $c$ be the centre of $U$. Let $\tau: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the map $z \mapsto z-c$, and let $U_{1}=\operatorname{Im}(\tau)$. Then it is clear that $\tau$ is a homeomorphism between $U$ and $U_{1}$. Let $f_{1}=f \circ \tau^{-1}$ and let $\gamma_{1}=\tau \circ \gamma$. Then we will show that

$$
\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d} z=\int_{\gamma_{1}} f_{1}(z) \mathrm{d} z
$$

Suppose the path $\gamma$ is defined on the interval $[a, b]$. Let $a=t_{0}<t_{1}<\ldots<t_{k}=b$ be a good partition for $\gamma$. It is clear that this is a good partition for $\gamma_{1}$ as well, because
$\tau$ is a holomorphic function on $\mathbb{C}$, and hence we can use the chain rule. Now, observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\gamma_{1}} f_{1}(z) \mathrm{d} z & =\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \int_{t_{i}}^{t_{i+1}} f_{1}\left(\gamma_{1}(t)\right) \gamma_{1}^{\prime}(t) \mathrm{d} t \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \int_{t_{i}}^{t_{i+1}} f\left(\tau^{-1}\left(\gamma_{1}(t)\right)\right) \tau^{\prime}(\gamma(t)) \gamma^{\prime}(t) \mathrm{d} t \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \int_{t_{i}}^{t_{i+1}} f(\gamma(t)) \gamma^{\prime}(t) \mathrm{d} t \\
& =\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d} z
\end{aligned}
$$

and this completes the proof.
9.2. Exercise (3). Let $U$ be a domain containing $\overline{B_{0,1}}$ and let $\gamma:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the path given by $t \mapsto e^{2 \pi i t}$. In this exercise, we will compute

$$
\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-\frac{1}{2}} \mathrm{~d} z
$$

(a) Let $0<r \ll 1$ and $\sigma:\left[\underline{[0,1]} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\right.$ be the closed path $t \mapsto \frac{1}{2}+r e^{2 \pi i t}$. Since $r \ll 1$, we can assume that $B_{\frac{1}{2}, r} \subseteq \overline{B_{0,1}}$. Now, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\sigma} \frac{1}{z-\frac{1}{2}} \mathrm{~d} z & =\int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}+r e^{2 \pi i t}-\frac{1}{2}} \sigma^{\prime}(t) \mathrm{d} t \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{r e^{2 \pi i t}} 2 \pi i r e^{2 \pi i t} \mathrm{~d} t \\
& =2 \pi i
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) Let $0<\epsilon \ll 1$. Consider the following picture.


The path $\gamma$ is the circle in green; the path $\sigma$ is the smaller circle in blue; the points $p, q, a$ and $b$ are as marked in the figure. The path $\gamma_{1}$ is the path from $p$ to $q$ following the green circle counter clockwise. The path $\sigma_{1}$ is the path from $a$ to $b$ following the blue circle counter-clockwise. $\tau_{1}$ and $\tau_{2}$ are the paths from $a$ to $p$ and $b$ to $q$ respectively, which are both parallel to the real axis.

Let $\Gamma$ be the piecewise-differentiable closed path given by

$$
\Gamma=\gamma_{1}-\tau_{2}-\sigma_{1}+\tau_{1}
$$

We show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{z-\frac{1}{2}} \mathrm{~d} z=0 \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that $\Gamma \subseteq U \backslash\left\{\left.\frac{1}{2}+r \right\rvert\, r \in \mathbb{R}, r \geq 0\right\}$, and we know that there is a branch of the logarithm on an open subset of $\mathbb{C}$ minus a ray in $\mathbb{C}$, as in Exercise (7) of Lecture 5. So, it follows that the integrand in (9.1) has a primitive on $U \backslash\left\{\left.\frac{1}{2}+r \right\rvert\, r \in \mathbb{R}, r \geq 0\right\}$, and hence the given integral is zero.
(c) This part is really easy. Will complete it soon.
(d) This follows by taking limits as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ in equation (9.1).
(e) Note that there is nothing special about the point $\frac{1}{2}$ here; we can repeat the same exact argument for any other point in $B_{0,1}$ by taking a suitable disk around the point that is contained in $B_{0,1}$ and then define similar paths as above.

## 10. Lecture 13

10.1. Exercise (1). We have to show that $f(U) \cap(-\infty, 0]=\phi$. The function we have is $f: \mathbb{C}-\left\{\zeta^{\prime}\right\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ given by

$$
f(z)=\frac{z-\zeta}{z-\zeta^{\prime}}
$$

and $U$ is the complement of the line segment between $\zeta$ and $\zeta^{\prime}$. Geometrically, this is clear: either the imaginary part of $f(z)$ is non-zero, in which case there is nothing to prove. If the imaginary part of $f(z)$ is zero, then

$$
z-\zeta=r\left(z-\zeta^{\prime}\right)
$$

for some $r \in \mathbb{R}$. Thinking of this in vectors, the vectors $z-\zeta$ and $z-\zeta^{\prime}$ must have the same direction, because the point does not lie on the segment between $\zeta$ and $\zeta^{\prime}$.
10.2. Exercise (2). Let $\gamma:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a piecewise-differentiable closed path. We show that $n(\zeta, \gamma)=0$ for all $\zeta \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|\zeta| \gg 0$. First, we know that if $\zeta \in \mathbb{C} \backslash \operatorname{Im}(\gamma)$, then

$$
\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-\zeta} \mathrm{d} z=n(\zeta, \gamma) \cdot 2 \pi i
$$

Now, if $|\zeta| \gg 0$, then the quantity

$$
\frac{1}{z-\zeta}
$$

can be made arbitrarily small, where $z \in \operatorname{Im}(\gamma)$. This means that for $\zeta \gg 0$, we have

$$
\left|\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-\zeta} \mathrm{d} z\right|=|n(\zeta, \gamma)|<\epsilon
$$

where $\epsilon>0$ is any real number. Since $n(\zeta, \gamma)$ is an integer, this implies that

$$
n(\zeta, \gamma)=0
$$

for such $\zeta$. This completes the proof.

## 11. Lecture 14

11.1. Exercise (2). Let $U$ be a domain and let $\gamma$ be a piecewise-differentiable path in $U$. Let $f_{n}$ be a sequence of continuous functions on $U$ converging uniformly to $f$. The claim is that

$$
\lim _{n} \int_{\gamma} f_{n}(z) \mathrm{d} z=\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d} z
$$

This is a standard analysis statement about uniform convergence.

## 12. Leture 15

12.1. Exercise (1). Uniqueness of $\tilde{f}$ is trivial, because on $U^{\prime}, \tilde{f}$ restricts to $f$. From there, use the fact that $\tilde{f}$ is continuous.
12.2. Exercise (2). Here, we show that the $k^{\text {th }}$ order derivative of $(z-c)^{k} g(z)$ at $z=c$ is $k!g(c)$. By the general Leibniz formula, we have for any $k \geq 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[(z-c)^{k+1} g(z)\right]^{(k+1)}(c) } & =\sum_{i=0}^{k+1}\binom{k+1}{i}\left((z-c)^{k+1}\right)^{(k+1-i)}(c) g^{(i)}(c) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{k+1}\binom{k+1}{i} \frac{(k+1)!}{(i)!}(z-c)^{i}(c) g^{(i)}(c) \\
& =(k+1)!g(c)
\end{aligned}
$$

12.3. Exercise (3). Suppose $\zeta_{2} \in B_{c, R}$ is fixed. By definition,

$$
G\left(\zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}\right)=\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{\left(z-\zeta_{1}\right)\left(z-\zeta_{2}\right)} \mathrm{d} z
$$

where $\gamma$ is the path given by $\partial B_{c, R}$. Clearly, function $h: \operatorname{Im}(\gamma) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ given by

$$
h(z)=\frac{1}{\left(z-\zeta_{2}\right)}
$$

is continuous. Also, note that

$$
G\left(\zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}\right)=\int_{\gamma} \frac{h(z)}{\left(z-\zeta_{1}\right)} \mathrm{d} z
$$

Lemma 14.2 then implies that $G\left(\zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}\right)$ as a function of $\zeta_{1}$ is a holomorphic function.
12.4. Exercise (4). Let $f: U \backslash\{c\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a non-zero holomorphic function for which $c$ is a removable singularity, where $U$ is an open neighborhood of $c$. We know that $f$ can be extended to a holomorphic function $\tilde{f}$ on $U$. Now, $\tilde{f}$ being holomorphic on $U$ is also analytic. Since $\tilde{f}$ is non-zero (because $f$ is non-zero), not all $f^{(k)}(c)$ are zero for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. So, let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be the smallest integer such that $f^{(k)}(c) \neq 0$. By Theorem 15.3 applied to $n=k+1$, we see that

$$
f(z)=\frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!}(z-c)^{k}+(z-c)^{k+1} f_{k+1}(z)
$$

for $z \in U$, where $f_{k+1}$ is a holomorphic function on $U$. So,

$$
f(z)=(z-c)^{k}\left(\frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!}+(z-c) f_{k+1}(z)\right)
$$

and the parenthesis computed at $z=c$ is non-zero. This proves the claim.
12.5. Exercise (5). Let $U$ be a domain and let $f$ be a non-zero holomorphic function on $U$. Since $f$ is analytic on $U$, its zeroes are isolated. Let $C$ be a compact subset of $U$. We show that $f$ has only finitely many zeros in $C$. For the sake of contradiction, suppose $f$ has infinitely many zeroes in $C$. Let $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ be a sequence of zeroes in $C$. Then, this sequence has a convergent subsequence $\left\{a_{n_{k}}\right\}$ in $C$, and note that since $C$ is compact, the limit also belongs to $C$. But this contradicts the fact that the zeroes of $f$ are isolated.

Next, suppose $c \in U$ is a zero of $f$. Again, since the zeroes of $f$ are isolated, there is an open ball around $c$ on which $f$ is non-zero. Since $f$ is analytic, it has a Taylor expansion about the point $c$. So, it follows that there is some $m>0$ such that $f^{(m)}(c) \neq 0$ (otherwise the Taylor expansion would imply that $f$ is zero on around the point). Choose the minimal such $m$. Then just like in the previous problem, we can write

$$
f(z)=(z-c)^{m} f_{1}(z)
$$

for some holomorphic function $f_{1}$ on $U$, such that $f_{1}(c) \neq 0$. This $m$ is called the order of the zero $c$.

## 13. Lecture 16

13.1. Exercise (1). Let $f(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{d} b_{i} X^{i} \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ with $b_{d}>0$. Then observe that

$$
\lim _{X \rightarrow \infty} f(X)=\infty
$$

which can be obtained by factoring out the $X^{d}$ term. This is what we wanted to show.
13.2. Exercise (2). Consider the line $x=1$ in the plane. Any $z \in \mathbb{C}$ on this line is of the form $z=1+i b$, where $b \in \mathbb{R}$. In that case, observe that

$$
\left|e^{z}\right|=\left|e^{1+i b}\right|=|e| \cdot\left|e^{i b}\right|=|e|
$$

and this is the required counter example for Lemma 16.4.

## 14. Lecture 17

14.1. Exercise (1). This is part (3) of Proposition 17.4, and it easily follows from part (1) of the same proposition.
14.2. Exercise (2). Here, we will give a proof of Proposition 17.5. Currently, there is an error in Proposition 17.5 as it stands. I think it should be given that $m \leq 0$. A counterexample is the function $f(z)=z$ with $c=0$. So, I will give a proof assuming $m \leq 0$.

It is clear that $(1) \Longleftrightarrow(2)$, because both conditions imply that $c$ is a removable singularity of $f$.

Now, let us show that $(2) \Longleftrightarrow(3)$. Consider the holomorphic extension $\tilde{f}$ of $f$. Clearly, $c$ is a zero of $\tilde{f}$, and hence has some order $m>0$. So we can write

$$
\tilde{f}(z)=(z-c)^{m} f_{1}(z)
$$

where $f_{1}$ is some holomorphic function on $U$ such that $f_{1}(c) \neq 0$. So, we see that $m-1 \geq 0$, and also

$$
\frac{\tilde{f}(z)}{(z-c)^{m-1}}=(z-c) f_{1}(z)
$$

which implies that

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow c}|z-c|^{1-m}|f(z)|=0
$$

Moreover, if $n=m+1$, then we see that

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow c}|z-c|^{-n}|f(z)|=\infty
$$

and this proves the forward direction. To show that $(3) \Longrightarrow(2)$, observe that if such an $m \leq 0$ exists, then

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow c} f(z)=0
$$

and this proves the equivalence.
Finally, let us show that $(2) \Longleftrightarrow(4)$. If (2) is true, then put $N$ to be the negative of the order of $c$ as a zero of the extension $\tilde{f}$. It is clear that $(4) \Longrightarrow(2)$. This completes the proof.
14.3. Exercise (3). Here, we will give a proof of Proposition 17.6.

The proof of this proposition is very similar to that of the proof given above of Proposition 17.5; just consider the function $1 / f$, and repeat the steps.
14.4. Exercise (4). Let $U$ be a domain, $c \in U$ and $f$ holomorphic on $U \backslash\{c\}$. Suppose $c$ is a pole of $f$. By Proposition 17.4 part (2), there is a positive integer $N$ and a neighborhood $V$ of $c$ in $U$ such that

$$
f(z)=\sum_{k=-N}^{\infty} a_{k}(z-c)^{k}
$$

on $V \backslash\{c\}$. Here $a_{-N} \neq 0$. Let $r>0$ such that $\overline{B_{c, r}} \subseteq V$. Let $\gamma:[0,1] \rightarrow V$ be the path $t \mapsto c+r e^{2 \pi i t}$. By Exercise 2 of Lecture 14, we have

$$
\int_{\gamma} f \mathrm{~d} z=\sum_{k=-N}^{\infty} \int_{\gamma} a_{k}(z-c)^{k} \mathrm{~d} z=\int_{\gamma} \frac{a_{-1}}{z-c} \mathrm{~d} z=a_{-1} 2 \pi i
$$

and note that all other integrals have vanished because all the other $(z-c)^{k} \mathrm{~S}$ have primitives on $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$. This completes the proof.

## 15. Lecture 20

15.1. Exercise (1). The Jacobian of the map $z \rightarrow \bar{z}$ is

$$
J=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Clearly, the above matrix is orthogonal with determinant -1 . To, it preserves angles but not orientation.

Exercise (3). Suppose $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is conformal, and let $p \in U$. We know that $f^{\prime}(p) \neq 0$. Now, recall that

$$
J f=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{-\partial v}{\partial x} \\
\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}
\end{array}\right]
$$

and hence we see that

$$
\operatorname{det}(J f)=\frac{\partial u^{2}}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial v^{2}}{\partial x}
$$

Since $f^{\prime}(p) \neq 0$, we see that $\operatorname{det}(J f)>0$. In particular, $J f$ is invertible. So, one can apply the inverse function theorem to $f$ at the point $p$. It follows that $f$ maps a neighborhood of $p$ homeomorphically onto its image.
15.2. Exercise (4). Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a domain, and let $f$ be an injective holomorphic function on $U$. We show that $f$ is conformal on $U$, and it is enough to show that $f^{\prime}(z) \neq 0$ for any $z \in U$. Consider reading this link for a proof.

