

Taylor's Theorem. Let f be analytic in a domain D & $a \in D$. Then, $f(z)$ can be expressed as the Taylor series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n, \text{ where } b_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}. \quad (1)$$

The representation (1) is unique and is valid in the largest open disk with centre a , contained in D .

Proof.

Let $0 < r < R$ and $C_r = a + re^{it}$. By Cauchy Integral Formula for a disk in Example 3,

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} dw, \quad |z-a| < r. \quad (1)$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{w-z} &= \frac{1}{w-a} \left[1 - \frac{z-a}{w-a} \right]^{-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{w-a} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z-a}{w-a} \right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(z-a)^n}{(w-a)^{n+1}} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\left| \frac{f(w)(z-a)^n}{(w-a)^{n+1}} \right| \leq \frac{M}{r} \left(\frac{|z-a|}{r} \right)^n, \text{ where } M = \sup_{w \in C_r} |f(w)|.$$

Since $\frac{|z-a|}{r} < 1$, by Weierstrass M-test, the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f(w)(z-a)^n}{(w-a)^{n+1}}$ converges uniformly on C_r , by (1),

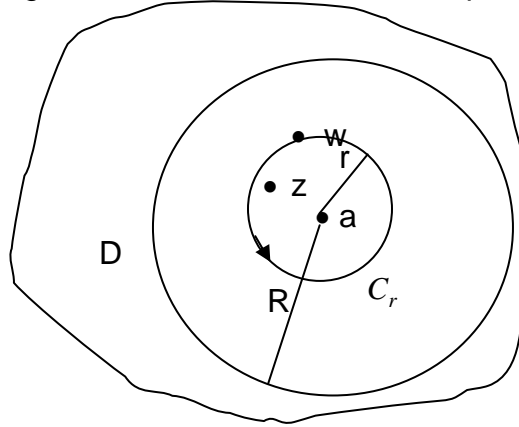
$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} dw = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)^{n+1}} dw \right) (z-a)^n \text{ (by above proposition)} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n, \text{ for } |z-a| < r. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Since $r < R$ is arbitrary, (2) continues to hold in $|z-a| < R$.

Corollary 1 (Determining global behaviour of an analytic function from its local behaviour).

If f is analytic in $|z-a| < r_1$ and its Taylor expansion in this disk is $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n$, then the same Taylor expansion for f continues to hold in $|z-a| < r_2$, if f is analytic in $|z-a| < r_2$.

Proof. Follows from the proof of the Taylor's Theorem



Corollary 2 (Every analytic function is infinitely many times differentiable) If f is analytic in a domain D , then f is infinitely many times differentiable in D .

Proof. By Taylor's Theorem every analytic function can be represented by a power series and by Theorem 2(b) on p. 37 the function defined by a power series is infinitely many times differentiable. Hence the result.

Corollary 3 (Cauchy Formula for n^{th} derivative for a disk, without Cauchy Theorem). If f is analytic in a domain D and $\overline{B(z_0, r)} \subseteq G$, then

$$f^{(n)}(a) = \frac{n!}{2\pi} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(w)}{(w-a)^{n+1}} dw$$

Proof. Use the definition of b_n and $b_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$, in the proof of Taylor's Theorem.

Corollary 4 (Cauchy's Estimate). Let f be analytic in $B(a, R)$ and $|f(z)| \leq M(R)$, $\forall z$ in $B(a, R)$.

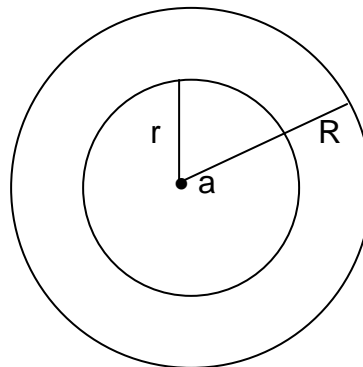
Then,

$$|f^{(n)}(a)| \leq \frac{n! M(R)}{R^n}.$$

Proof. By Corollary 3,

$$|f^{(n)}(a)| \leq \frac{n! M(R)}{2\pi r^{n+1}} \cdot 2\pi r = \frac{n! M(R)}{r^n}.$$

Since $r < R$ is arbitrary, the result follows on letting $r \rightarrow R$.



Corollary 5 (Liouville's Theorem). An entire bounded function is constant.

Proof. Since f is entire and bounded, $|f(z)| \leq M$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Now expand $f(z)$ in to Taylor series as $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ for z in $|z| < R_0$. The same expansion is valid for $|z| < R$ for all $R > R_0$.

$$\Rightarrow |a_n| \leq \frac{M}{R^n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty, \text{ for all } n = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) \equiv a_0 = \text{constant}, \text{ for } |z| < R$$

Consequently $f(z)$ is constant in C , since R is arbitrary.

An alternative proof of Liouville Theorem.

Let $a, b \in C$, $a \neq b$. Then, for $R > |a|, |b|$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{|z|=R} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)(z-b)} dz &= \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{|z|=R} \left(\frac{f(z)}{z-b} - \frac{f(z)}{z-a} \right) dz \\ &= \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} \quad (\text{by Cauchy Integral formula for disk}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} \right| \leq \frac{M}{(R-|a|)(R-|b|)} \cdot 2\pi R \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty, \text{ where } |f(z)| \leq M \quad \forall z \in C$$

$$\Rightarrow f(b) = f(a)$$

$\Rightarrow f \equiv \text{constant}$ since a & b are arbitrary.

Corollary 6 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). A polynomial of degree n has exactly n complex zeros (counted according to multiplicity).

Proof. Let $P_n(z)$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$. Let $P_n(z)$ have no zeros in C . Then the function $\varphi(z) = \frac{1}{P_n(z)}$ is entire and bounded in C . Therefore, by Liouville's Theorem, $\varphi(z)$ is constant. Consequently, $P_n(z)$ is also a constant function, a contradiction. Thus, $P_n(z)$ has at least one zero, say a_1 of multiplicity m_1 .

Now, the polynomial $\frac{P_n(z)}{(z-a_1)^{m_1}}$, is of degree $n - m_1$. The above arguments give that it has at least one zero, say a_2 of multiplicity m_2 . Repeating the arguments, it follows that $P_n(z)$ has $m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_k = n$ zeros at a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k .

Corollary 7. If f is an entire function and $|f(z)| \leq MR^{n_0}$ in $|z| < R$, then f is polynomial of degree atmost n_0 .

Proof. By Taylor's Theorem, expand $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ in $|z| < R_0$. The same expansion is valid for all $R > R_0$.

$$\therefore |a_n| \leq \frac{MR^{n_0}}{R^n} = MR^{n_0-n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \text{ if } n > n_0.$$

$\Rightarrow f$ is a polynomial of degree atmost n_0 .

Analytic Continuation. Let f_1 be analytic in a domain D_1 and f_2 be analytic in a domain D_2 , $D_1 \cap D_2 \neq \emptyset$. Then, (f_1, D_1) is called the analytic continuation of (f_2, D_2) and vice-versa. The analytic continuation of one analytic function by another analytic functions can be provided in one of the following ways:

(i) Let $f(z)$ be analytic in $|z - a| < R$ and

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z - a)^n \quad (1)$$

be the Taylor's expansion of $f(z)$ in $|z - a| < R$. The power series on RHS of (1) may have its radius of convergence R_1 strictly greater than R . In such a case the power series

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z - a)^n$ in (1) provides an analytic continuation of $f(z)$ outside $|z - a| < R$.

Example. The Taylor series of $\text{Log } z$, $-\pi < \text{Arg } z \leq \pi$, centred at $a = -1 + i$,

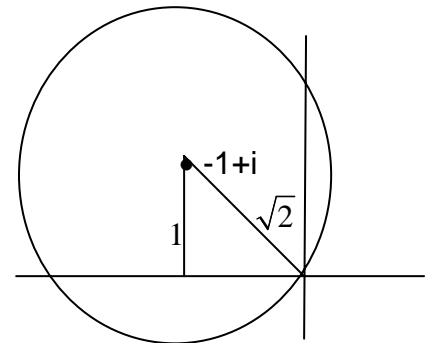
$$\text{Log } z = \text{Log}(-1+i) + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} (n-1)!}{n! (-1+i)^n} (z+1-i)^n \quad (*)$$

(since, with $f(z) = \text{Log } z$, $f^{(n)}(z) = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{(n-1)!}{z^n}$ and $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(-1+i)}{n!} (z+1-i)^n$)

The radius of convergence of the power series on RHS of (*) is

$$R = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1) |-1+i|^{n+1}}{n |-1+i|^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \sqrt{2} = \sqrt{2}$$

but $\text{Log } z$ is not analytic on the negative real axis, so it is analytic in the smaller disk $|z+1-i| < 1$. Therefore, the power series on RHS of (*) provides an analytic continuation of $\text{Log } z$.

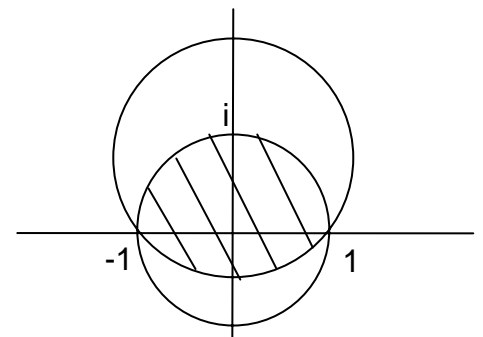


(ii) Let $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z - \alpha)^n$ have radius of convergence R_1 and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_n (z - \beta)^n$ have radius of convergence R_2 . Suppose, $\{|z - \alpha| < R_1\} \cap \{|z - \beta| < R_2\} \neq \emptyset$. Then the function represented by one power series provides an analytic continuation of the function represented by the other power series.

Example 1. The power series in

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1-i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z-i}{1-i} \right)^n$$

has the radius of convergence $\sqrt{2}$ and the power



series $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$ has radius of convergence 1. Therefore the above Power series provide analytic continuation of each other, since in $D = \{|z-i| < \sqrt{2}\} \cap \{|z| < 1\} \neq \emptyset$ both the series represent the same function $\frac{1}{1-z}$.

(iii) A function may also provide an analytic continuation of a power series as in the following example.

Example. The function $(\frac{1}{1-z}, C - \{0\})$ is an analytic continuation of the power series

$$(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n, |z| < 1).$$

Zeros of Analytic Functions

The point a is called a zero of $f(z)$ if

$$f(a) = f'(a) = \dots = f^{(m-1)}(a) = 0 \text{ but } f^m(a) \neq 0.$$

If the function $f(z)$ has a zero of order m at the point a , then

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n = (z-a)^m g(z), \text{ where } g(z) = \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^{n-m}.$$

Since $g(a) = a_m = \frac{f^{(m)}(a)}{m!}$, it follows that $g(a) \neq 0$.

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra (Corollary 6, p. 52) gives that every polynomial P_n of degree n has exactly n complex zeros. It follows from this theorem that the equation $P_n(z) = a$, for every complex number a has exactly n complex roots. However, if f is a transcendental analytic function then the equation $f(z) = a$ may *not* have a root for some a , for example the equation $e^z = 0$ has no root.

The following theorem shows that, unless $f(z) \equiv 0$, the zeros of the analytic function f are isolated.

Theorem. TFAE for a function f analytic in a domain D :

(i) $f \equiv 0$

(ii) $\exists a \in D$ such that $f^{(n)}(a) = 0 \quad \forall n \geq 0$

(iii) The set $S = \{z \in D : f(z) = 0\}$ has a limit point in D .

Proof.

(i) \Rightarrow **(ii)** & **(iii)** is obvious.

(iii) \Rightarrow (ii). Let $a \in D$ be a limit point of S . Let $B(a, R) \subseteq D$. Then $f(a) = 0$, by continuity of f . Suppose (ii) doesn't hold. Then, $f'(a) = f''(a) = \dots = f^{(n-1)}(a) = 0$ but $f^{(n)}(a) \neq 0$ for some n .

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} b_k (z-a)^k, \quad \text{for } |z-a| < R, \quad a_n \neq 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = (z-a)^n g(z), \quad \text{where } g(z) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} b_k (z-a)^{k-n}$$

Now, $g(a) = a_n \neq 0$. So that continuity of $g(z)$ in $|z-a| < R$

$$\Rightarrow g(z) \neq 0 \text{ in } |z-a| < r_0 \text{ for some } r_0 < R. \quad (*)$$

However, $\exists b \in \{0 < |z-a| < r_0\}$ s.t. $f(b) \neq 0$ ($\because a$ is a limit point of S).

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow 0 &= (b-a)^n g(b) \\ \Rightarrow g(b) &= 0 \Rightarrow \# \text{ of } (*) . \end{aligned}$$

(ii) \Rightarrow (i). Let $A = \{z \in D : f^{(n)}(z) = 0 \quad \forall n \geq 0\}$

$$(ii) \Rightarrow A \neq \emptyset.$$

We show that A is both open and closed in D . This would imply that $A = D$, since D is connected and this would prove $f \equiv 0$, establishing (i).

A is open. Let $\zeta \in A$. Then, $\zeta \in D$ and $B(\zeta, R) \subset D$ for some R .

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z-\zeta)^n \text{ for all } z \text{ in } |z-\zeta| < R.$$

$$\Rightarrow b_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(\zeta)}{n!} = 0 \quad (\text{since } \zeta \in A)$$

$$\Rightarrow B(\zeta, R) \subseteq A$$

$$\Rightarrow A \text{ is open.}$$

A is closed. We show that \bar{A} (in D) = A .

Let $z_0 \in \bar{A}$ and $z_k \in A$ be s.t. $z_k \rightarrow z_0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Since $f^{(n)}$ are continuous,

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{(n)}(z_k) = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow z_0 \in A \Rightarrow \bar{A} \subseteq A \Rightarrow A = \bar{A}.$$

Corollary 1 (Isolated Zeros Theorem). The zeros of analytic functions are isolated unless the function is identically zero.

Proof. Follows in a straightforward manner from the above theorem.

Corollary 2. If f and g are analytic in a domain D and \exists a sequence $\{z_n\}$ with a limit point in D , such that $f(z_n) = g(z_n)$ for all n , then $f(z) \equiv g(z)$ in D .

Proof. Apply the above theorem for the function $\varphi(z) = f(z) - g(z)$.