## Lecture 7

## Applications of Cauchy's Integral Formula

Last time we have proved that for a function $f(z)$ holomorphic in an open disk $D$, and a closed curve $\gamma \subset D$, for any $z \in D$ such that $n(\gamma, z)=1$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d \zeta \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For concreteness, we assume that $D=B_{R}\left(z_{0}\right)$ and $\gamma=\partial B_{R}\left(z_{0}\right)=\left\{\left|z-z_{0}\right|=r, r<R\right\}$ so that the above formula holds for any $z \in D_{r}\left(z_{0}\right)$, since in this case $n(\gamma, z)=1$.
Today we will use this Cauchy's formula to derive important consequences about the structure of holomorphic functions.

## Higher derivatives

Provided that we can recursively differentiate identity (1) under the integral sign we would find:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{(n)}(z)=\frac{n!}{2 \pi \boldsymbol{i}} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^{n+1}} d \zeta, \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Once we can justify differentiation under the integral sign, we will prove the following key theorem.
Theorem 1. If function $f(z)$ is holomorphic in an open region $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ then $f(z)$ has complex derivatives of all orders. Moreover for any $z \in U$ and $B_{r}\left(z_{0}\right)$ such that

$$
z \in B_{r}\left(z_{0}\right) \subset \overline{B_{r}\left(z_{0}\right)} \subset U
$$

we have

$$
f^{(n)}(z)=\frac{n!}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^{n+1}} d \zeta, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}
$$

where $\gamma=\left\{\left|z-z_{0}\right|=r\right\}$ is the boundary of $B_{r}\left(z_{0}\right)$.
Proof. For any point $z_{0} \in U$ there exists an open disk $D$ which contains $z_{0}$ and is contained in $U$ with its closure. Then we can apply (2) and arrive at the conclusion of the theorem.

The following lemma justifies differentiation under the integral sign.
Lemma 2. Suppose that $\varphi(\zeta)$ is continuous on the curve $\gamma$. Then the functions

$$
F_{n}(z):=\int_{\gamma} \frac{\varphi(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^{n}} d \zeta
$$

are holomorphic in each of the regions cut out by $\gamma$ and satisfy

$$
F_{n}^{\prime}(z)=n F_{n+1}^{\prime}(z)
$$

Proof. Fix $z \in \mathbb{C}-\gamma$ and take $r>0$ such that $B_{2 r}(z)$ does not intersect $\gamma$. Choose $z+h$ in $B_{r}(z)$ so that for any $\zeta$ on $\gamma$ we have

$$
\left|(\zeta-z)^{-1}\right|<r^{-1}, \quad\left|(\zeta-z-h)^{-1}\right|<r^{-1}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{1}{\zeta-z}-\frac{1}{\zeta-z-h}\right|=\left|\frac{h}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z-h)}\right|<|h| r^{-2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider expression

$$
F_{n}(z+h)-F_{n}(z)=\int_{\gamma}\left[\frac{1}{(\zeta-z-h)^{n}}-\frac{1}{(\zeta-z)^{n}}\right] \varphi(\zeta) d \zeta
$$

Using identity $A^{n}-B^{n}=(A-B)\left(A^{n-1}+A^{n-2} B+\cdots+A B^{n-2}+B^{n-1}\right)$ applied to $A=(\zeta-z-h)^{-1}$ and $B=(\zeta-z)^{-1}$, we can rewrite the expression in the brackets as

$$
G(\zeta-z, h):=\frac{h}{(\zeta-z-h)(\zeta-z)} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{(\zeta-z-h)^{n-k}(\zeta-z)^{k-1}}=h \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{(\zeta-z-h)^{n-k+1}(\zeta-z)^{k}}
$$

Inequality (3) implies that $(\zeta-z-h)^{-1} \rightarrow(\zeta-z)^{-1}$ as $h \rightarrow 0$ uniformly in $(\zeta-z)$. Therefore, given any $\epsilon>0$ we can choose $h$ small enough so that

$$
\left|\frac{1}{h} G(\zeta-z, h)-\frac{n}{(\zeta-z)^{n+1}}\right|<\epsilon
$$

everywhere on $\gamma$.
Hence

$$
\left|\frac{F_{n}(z+h)-F_{n}(z)}{h}-n \int_{\gamma} \frac{\varphi(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^{n+1}} d \zeta\right|=\left|\int_{\gamma}\left(\frac{1}{h} G(\zeta, z, h)-\frac{n}{(\zeta-z)^{n+1}}\right) \varphi(\zeta) d \zeta\right| \leqslant \epsilon \cdot \operatorname{Length}(\gamma) \cdot \max (|\varphi(\zeta)|)
$$

Letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ we conclude that $F_{n}^{\prime}(z)$ exists and equals

$$
F_{n}^{\prime}(z)=n \int_{\gamma} \frac{\varphi(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^{n+1}} d \zeta=n F_{n+1}(z)
$$

With the use of Theorem 1 we can prove the following characterization of holomorphic functions, which gives the converse of Cauchy's theorem.
Theorem 3 (Morera's theorem). If $f(z)$ is continuous in open $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ and satisfies

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

for any closed loop $\gamma \subset U$, then $f(z)$ is holomorphic.
Proof. By fundamental theorem of calculus, the assumption of the theorem implies that $f(z)$ has a primitive $F(z)$. Function $F(z)$ is holomorphic, therefore by Theorem 1 it has complex derivatives of all orders. In particular, $F^{\prime}(z)=f(z)$ also has a complex derivative.

Corollary 4. If a sequence of holomorphic functions $f_{n}: U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ converge to a function $f$ uniformly on compact subsets $K \Subset U$, then the limiting function $f(z)$ is holomorphic.

Proof. Being holomorphic is a local property, so we can assume that $f_{n}$ converge to $f$ uniformly on a closed disk $\bar{D}$. Then for any loop $\gamma \subset D$ we have

$$
\int_{\gamma} f_{n}(z) d z \rightarrow \int_{\gamma} f(z) d z
$$

However, all the integrals in the sequence vanish since $f_{n}(z)$ are holomorphic. Therefore the limit integral is also zero. Since loop $\gamma \subset D$ is arbitrary, function $f(z)$ is holomoprhic in $D$ by Morera's theorem.

This corollary gives a powerful tool for constructing holomorphic functions. For example, it immediately implies that the series

$$
\zeta(s):=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{s}}
$$

provides a well defined holomorphic function in the region $\mathfrak{R z}(s)>1$.

## Removable singularities

Cauchy's integral formula could be used to extend the domain of a holomorphic function.
Theorem 5. Let $f(z)$ be holomorphic in $U-\{a\}$. Then $f(z)$ extends to a holomorphic function on the whole $U$ if an only if

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

Proof. Necessity of this assumption is clear, since $f(z)$ has to be continuous at $a$.
To prove sufficiency, let us enclose $a$ in a small circle $\gamma \subset U$. Then we still have Cauchy's integral formula

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

for any $z \neq a$. On the other hand, the right-hand side is an analytic function of $z$ which is well-defined everywhere in the interior of $\gamma$, including $z=a$. Consequently, if we define

$$
f(a):=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-a} d \zeta
$$

we will obtain a holomorphic function in the entire region $U$.
Example 6. If $f(z)$ is holomorphic in $U$ and $f\left(z_{0}\right)=0$, then $F(z)=\frac{f(z)}{z-z_{0}}$ extends to a holomorphic function in $U$ with $F\left(z_{0}\right)=\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} F(z)=f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)$.
The largest $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $f(z) /\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}$ extends to a holomorphic function at $z_{0}$ is called the order of a zero of $f(z)$ at $z=z_{0}$.
If a holomorphic function $f(z)$ has a zero of order $n$ at $z_{0}$, then we can factor $f(z)$ as $f(z)=\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n} g(z)$, where $g(z)$ is holomorphic and $g\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0$.

## Cauchy's estimates

An important consequence of Cauchy's formula for higher derivatives of a holomorphic functions is that we can effectively bound $f^{(n)}(z)$ in the interior of a disk $D$, knowing only a bound on $f(z)$ on the boundary $\partial D$.
Theorem 7. Let $\gamma=\partial B_{R}\left(z_{0}\right)$. Assume that $f(z)$ is holomorphic in a neighbourhood of $B_{R}\left(z_{0}\right)$, and that $|f(z)| \leqslant M$ on $\gamma$. Then

$$
\left|f^{(n)}\left(z_{0}\right)\right| \leqslant M n!R^{-n} .
$$

Proof. By Cauchy's formula, we have

$$
f^{(n)}\left(z_{0}\right)=\frac{n!}{2 \pi \boldsymbol{i}} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{n+1}} d \zeta
$$

Under assumptions of the theorem, we have: $|f(\zeta)| \leqslant M$ on $\gamma,\left|\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{n+1}\right|=R^{n+1}$, and Length $(\gamma)=2 \pi R$. Combining these inequalities we get the conclusion.

Remark 8. To squeeze the best estimate from the above theorem it is often important to choose $R$ wisely, so that $\left(\max _{\left|z-z_{0}\right|=R} f(z)\right) \cdot R^{-n}$ is as small as possible.

The following classical result is an easy consequence of Cauchy estimate for $n=1$.
Theorem 9 (Liouville's theorem). If function $f(z)$ is holomorphic and bounded in the entire $\mathbb{C}$, then $f(z)$ is a constant.

Proof. Assume that $|f(z)| \leqslant M$ for any $z \in \mathbb{C}$. By Cauchy's estimate for $n=1$ applied to a circle of radius $R$ centered at $z$, we have

$$
\left|f^{\prime}(z)\right| \leqslant M n!R^{-1}
$$

Since $z$ and $R$ are arbitrary, we have $f^{\prime}(z)=0$ everywhere in $\mathbb{C}$. Therefore $f(z)$ is a constant.
Liouille's theorem gives probably the shortest proof of the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra.

Theorem 10 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). Let $P(z)$ be a polynomial of degree $\operatorname{deg} P \geqslant 1$. Then $P(z)$ has a root in $\mathbb{C}$.

Proof. Assume on the contrary that $P(z)$ never vanish. Then $1 / P(z)$ is a holomorphic function in the entire $\mathbb{C}$. Moreover, since $P(z) \rightarrow \infty$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$, we have that $1 / P(z)$ must be bounded. By Liouville's theorem $1 / P(z)$ is a constant which contradicts the assumption $\operatorname{deg} P \geqslant 1$.

