Uniqueness consequences of Cauchy's Integral Formula

- Boundary uniqueness. We stated this yesterday, but this is a good place to repeat it. If f, g are holomorphic on a neighborhood of a Jordan curve γ , and f(z) = g(z) for every $z \in \gamma$, then $f(z) \equiv g(z)$ for every point $z \in \text{inside}(\gamma)$ as well.
- Cauchy's Inequalities. Suppose that $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$ is analytic. If $B(a_0, R) \subset U$ and $|f(z)| \leq M_R$ on the circle $\gamma = \{|z z_0| = R\}$, then

$$\left| f^{(n)}(z_0) \right| \le \frac{n! M_R}{R^n}, \qquad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

- Application 1: Liouville's Theorem. A function is called *entire* if it is C-differentiable at every point in C. *Liouville's Theorem* states that a bounded, entire function is necessarily constant.
- Application 2: The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra. A nonconstant complex polynomial has a complex root. In fact, this can be refined to say that a nonconstant complex polynomial of degree *d* has exactly *d* complex roots, counting multiplicity.
- Holomorphic functions have complex values. Suppose that f(z) is holomorphic and either f(z) is always real or f(z) is always purely imaginary. Then f is a constant.

Root functions

- Root functions. The *n*-th root function $w = z^{1/n}$, where *n* is a positive integer, is defined as an inverse to the power function $z = w^n$.
- Multifunctions. Since z^n wraps the plane over itself n times, there are *exactly* n different ways to define a root which differ by a factor of $e^{2\pi i/n}$, which is precisely 1/n-th a full period. Thus, any root function takes the form

$$z^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{|z|} e^{i \arg(z)/n} \cdot (e^{2\pi i/n})^{k_z}, \qquad k_z \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

If we have a root function $z^{1/n}$ defined on an open set U, then it is called a *branch* of the *n*-th root if it is continuous on U. In fact, any branch of a root is holomorphic with derivative

$$\frac{d}{dz}\left\{z^{1/n}\right\} = \frac{1}{n}\frac{z^{1/n}}{z}$$

Observe that the domain U of a branch of a root cannot contain 0, since every neighborhood of 0 has multiple preimages; moreover, a maximal domain consists of a *branch* cut of points (starting at 0) in \mathbb{C} removed from the domain of definition.

• The principal branch of the root. If we restrict the argument to the principal argument, then we can define the *principal branch* of the *n*-th root by

$$z_p^{1/n} := \sqrt[n]{|z|} e^{i \arg_p(z)/n}, \qquad -\pi < \arg_p(z) < \pi.$$

Notice that $z_p^{1/n}$ is not continuous across its branch cut line $\{x \leq 0\}$. A consequence of this is that, in general,

$$(zw)^{1/n} \neq z^{1/n} w^{1/n}$$

Harmonic functions

• The main question. Let's consider the *Real Part Question:* when is a real-valued function $u(x, y) : U \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ the real part of a holomorphic function? Certainly u must be C^{∞} ; however, more can be said. It follows from the CR equations that if f = u + iv is holomorphic on U, then

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left\{ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left\{ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right\}$$
$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left\{ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left\{ -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right\} = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y \partial x} = 0,$$

and similarly for v.

• Harmonic functions. A real-valued function $u: U \subset \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{R}$ is called *harmonic* on U if it is of class C^2 and satisfies Laplace's equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}(z) + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}(z) \equiv 0 \qquad \forall z \in U.$$

The real and imaginary parts of any holomorphic function are themselves harmonic.

- Harmonic conjugates. Let u be a harmonic function on U. A harmonic conjugate to v is a harmonic function on U such that f := u + iv is holomorphic on U. Equivalently, v is a C^1 function on U that satisfies the CR equations with u. Note that our question becomes: when does a harmonic function have a harmonic conjugate?
- Uniqueness of harmonic conjugates. Harmonic conjugates are unique up to a real constant. That is, if $v_1, v_2 : U \to \mathbb{R}$ are two harmonic conjugates to u on U, then $v_2 = v_1 + K$ for some K.
- Existence of harmonic conjugates. If U is simply connected and $u : U \to \mathbb{R}$ is harmonic, then a harmonic conjugate v exists on U. Moreover, v can be found by integrating up the CR equations with u. (Specifically, v takes the form

$$v(z) = \int_{\gamma[z_0, z]} -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \, dx + \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \, dy + K,$$

where K is an arbitrary real constant and $\gamma[z_0, z]$ is any arc in U from an arbitrary fixed point z_0 to z, but I wouldn't recommend memorizing this.)

• Simply connected is important! The example $u(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + y^2)$ is an example of a harmonic function on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ which does *not* possess a harmonic conjugate.