Math 4991, Lecture on March 30, 2020

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In the lectures on March 30, April 3 and April 6, we will discuss the topic "Elliptic Functions and Theta Functions."

- (1). Review of Complex Analysis.
- (2). Elliptic Functions.
- (3). Theta Functions.

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Let *D* be a **connected** open set in \mathbb{C} , a continuous complex valued f(z) defined on *D* is called an **analytic function** if f'(z) exists everywhere in *D*.

Recall f'(z) is the complex derivative defined by

$$\lim_{\delta\to 0}\frac{f(z+\delta)-f(z)}{\delta},$$

where δ goes to 0 at all the directions in \mathbb{C} .

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Analytic functions have good properties that general smooth functions don't have.

Theorem 1.1. Let f(z) be an analytic function on D, C be a simple counter-clockwise closed contour in D, if the domain enclosed by C is in D, then

$$\int_C f(z)dz = 0.$$

For C as above, a in in the domain enclosed by C, then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i}\int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a}dz=f(a).$$

Theorem 1.1 imply the the Theorems 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.5 below.

Theorem 1.2. If f(z) is an analytic function on D, if |f(z)| has a local maximal at some point in D, then f(z) is a constant function.

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Theorem 1.3. The derivative $f^{(n)}(z)$ of arbitrary order *n* exists, and

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i}\int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}}dz = \frac{1}{n!}f^{(n)}(a).$$

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In real variable functions, the similar result fail to hold.

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(2\pi nx)}{n^3}$$

has continuous first order derivative, but $f^{(3)}(x)$ doesn't exist.

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Theorem 1.4. If f(z) is an analytic function on D, for every $a \in D$, the Taylor expansion at a

$$f(a) + f'(a)(z-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(z-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(z-a)^n + \dots$$

converges absolutely to f(z) uniformly on any closed disc $|z - a| \le r$ inside D.

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Let f(x) be the real variable function defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} & \text{if } x > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

Then $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists for all x, and $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$. The Taylor series at 0 is 0, so it doesn't converge to f(x) for x > 0.

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Theorem 1.5. If the zero points $\{a \mid f(a) = 0\}$ has a limit point in *D*, then f(z) = 0.

The similar result does not hold for real variable functions.

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A meromorphic function on D is a map $f: D \to \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ such that (1). If $f^{-1}(\infty)$ is discrete subset in D (this means, if $a \in f^{-1}(\infty)$, there is an open neighborhood U of a such that $U \cap f^{-1}(\infty) = \{a\}$). For each $a \in f^{-1}(\infty)$, there exists a positive integer n, such that $\lim_{z\to a} (z-a)^n f(z)$ exists and is non-zero. (Such a is called the pole of f(z), n is called the order of the pole). (2). By (1), $D - f^{-1}(\infty)$ is an open set, f(z) is analytic on $D - f^{-1}(\infty)$.

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For a meromporphic function f(z) on D, if $a \in D$ is a pole of order $n \ge 1$, f(z) has a Laurent power series expansion at a

$$c_{-n}(z-a)^{-n}+\cdots+c_{-1}(z-a)^{-1}+\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}c_k(z-a)^k$$

where $c_{-n} \neq 0$. The coefficient c_{-1} is called the **residue of** f **at** a and is denoted by

$$\operatorname{res}_a f = c_{-1}.$$

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Theorem 1.6. Let f(z) be a meromorhic function on a simply connected domain D, C be a simple counter-clockwise closed contour in D that doesn't contains any poles of f, then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C} f(z) dz = \sum_{a: \text{poles of f} in \text{ the region enclosed by } C} \operatorname{res}_{a} f$$

Example. Let *C* be the unit circle oriented counter-clock wisely,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i}\int_C \frac{1}{\sin z}dz = 1.$$

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Almost all the high school functions are analytic functions on certain domain in $\mathbb{C}.$

Polynomial functions $a_n z^n + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0$ are analytic functions on \mathbb{C} .

The exponential functions e^z defined by, for z = x + iy,

$$e^z = e^x(\cos y + i \sim y)$$

is an analytic function on \mathbb{Z} .

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Trigonometry functions and exponential functions are unified in complex analysis

$$\sin z = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{iz} - e^{-iz})$$

$$\sin z = \frac{1}{2}(e^{iz} + e^{-iz})$$

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If f(z), g(z) are analytic functions on D, and $g(z) \neq 0$, then $\frac{f(z)}{g(z)}$ is a meromorphic function on D.

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Conversely every meromorphic function h(z) on D is locally a quotient of analytic functions.

That is, for every $a \in D$, there is an open neighborhood U of a such that

$$h(z)=\frac{f(z)}{g(z)}$$

for some analytic functions f, g on $U, g \neq 0$.

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Example 1. A rational function is a meromorphic function on \mathbb{C} of the form

$$f(z)=\frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$$

where p(z) and q(z) are polynomials, we may assume p(z) and q(z) have no common zeros. *a* is pole of f(z) iff q(a) = 0, its order is the multiplicity of *a* as a zero of q(z).

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Example 2. $f(z) = \frac{1}{e^z - 1}$ is a meromorphic function on \mathbb{C} , whose poles are $2\pi i\mathbb{Z}$.

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Example 3. log *z*, as a real function, is defined on the half real line z > 0. It can be extended to an analytic function on

$$D = \mathbb{C} - \mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}$$

by

$$\log z = \log |z| + i \arg z$$

where $\arg z$ is the angle from the real axis to the ray from the origin to z, and we require

 $-\pi < \arg z < \pi$.

Example 4. Let s be a complex number, z^s is an analytic function on

$$D = \mathbb{C} - \mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}$$

by

$$z^s = e^{s \log z}$$

where $\log z$ is defined in Example 3 above.



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Example 5. If f(z) is an analytic function on D and g(w) is an analytic function on D'. Suppose $g(D') \subset D$, then the composition $(f \circ g)(w) = f(g(w))$ is an analytic function on D' and we have the chain rule:

$$\frac{d}{dw}f(g(w))=f'(g(w))g'(w).$$

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The space of analytic functions on D, $\mathcal{O}(D)$, is a commutative algebra over \mathbb{C} , as a ring, it is an integral domain.

Proposition 1.7. The space of all analytic functions on D is an integral domain. The space of all meromorphic functions on D is a field.

Definition. Let ω_1 and ω_2 be complex numbers that are linearly independent over \mathbb{R} . An **elliptic function** with periods ω_1 and ω_2 is a meromorphic function f(z) on \mathbb{C} such that

$$f(z) = f(z + \omega_1), \quad f(z) = f(z + \omega_2)$$

for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

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Denoting the "lattice of periods" by

$$\Lambda = \{m\omega_1 + n\omega_2 \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

It is clear that the condition

$$f(z) = f(z + \omega_1), \quad f(z) = f(z + \omega_2)$$

is equivalent to

$$f(z)=f(z+\omega)$$

for all $\omega \in \Lambda$.

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