## Complex Analysis

Chapter VII. Compactness and Convergence in the Space of Analytic Functions
VII.4. The Riemann Mapping Theorem—Proofs of Theorems


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## Lemma VII.4.A

Lemma VII.4.A. If $G_{1}$ is simply connected and $G_{1}$ is conformally equivalent to $G_{2}$ then $G_{2}$ is simply connected.

Proof. Let $G_{1}$ be simply connected and let $G_{2}$ be conformally equivalent to $G_{2}$ under analytic function $f$. Let $\gamma_{2}$ be a closed rectifiable curve in $G_{2}$.

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Proof. Let $G_{1}$ be simply connected and let $G_{2}$ be conformally equivalent to $G_{2}$ under analytic function $f$. Let $\gamma_{2}$ be a closed rectifiable curve in $G_{2}$. Then $\gamma_{1}=f^{-1} \circ \gamma_{2}$ is a closed rectifiable curve in $G_{1}$ (since $\gamma_{2}:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is continuous and $f^{-1}$ is analytic, then $f^{-1} \circ \gamma_{2}:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is continuous; $\gamma_{2}(0)=\gamma_{2}(a)$ implies $\left.\left.\gamma_{1}(0)=f^{-1}\left(\gamma_{2}(0)\right)=f^{-1}\right) \gamma-1(1)\right)=\gamma_{2}(1)$; rectifiable follows from the fact that $f^{-1}$ is analytic and therefore Lipschitz).

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$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\Gamma(s, 0)=\gamma_{1}(s) \text { and } \Gamma(s, 1)=c \text { for } s \in[0,1] \\
\Gamma(0, t)=\Gamma(1, t) \text { for } t \in[0,1]
\end{array}\right.
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for some constant $c \in G_{1}$

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## Lemma VII.4.A (continued)

Lemma VII.4.A. If $G_{1}$ is simply connected and $G_{1}$ is conformally equivalent to $G_{2}$ then $G_{2}$ is simply connected.

Proof (continued). But then $f \circ \Gamma:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow G_{2}$ is continuous and $f \circ \Gamma(s, 0)=f \circ \gamma_{1}(s)=f \circ\left(f^{-1} \circ \gamma_{2}\right)(s)=\gamma(s)$ for $s \in[0,1]$, $f \circ \Gamma(s, 1)=f(c)$ for $s \in[0,1]$, and $f \circ \Gamma(0,1)=f \circ \Gamma(1, t)$ for $t \in[0,1]$. That is, $f \circ \Gamma$ is a path homotopy from $\gamma_{2}$ to constant $f(c)$ and so $\gamma_{2}$ is homotopic to zero. Since $\gamma_{2}$ is an arbitrary closed rectifiable curve in $G_{2}$, then $G_{2}$ is simply connected.

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Proof (continued). But then $f \circ \Gamma:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow G_{2}$ is continuous and $f \circ \Gamma(s, 0)=f \circ \gamma_{1}(s)=f \circ\left(f^{-1} \circ \gamma_{2}\right)(s)=\gamma(s)$ for $s \in[0,1]$, $f \circ \Gamma(s, 1)=f(c)$ for $s \in[0,1]$, and $f \circ \Gamma(0,1)=f \circ \Gamma(1, t)$ for $t \in[0,1]$. That is, $f \circ \Gamma$ is a path homotopy from $\gamma_{2}$ to constant $f(c)$ and so $\gamma_{2}$ is homotopic to zero. Since $\gamma_{2}$ is an arbitrary closed rectifiable curve in $G_{2}$, then $G_{2}$ is simply connected.

## Lemma VII.4.3

Lemma VII.4.3. Let $G$ be a region which is not the whole plane and such that every nonvanishing analytic function on $G$ has an analytic square root. If $a \in G$ then there is an analytic function $f$ on $G$ such that:
(a) $f(a)=0$ and $f^{\prime}(a)>0$;
(b) $f$ is one to one; and
(c) $f(G)=\{z| | z \mid<1\}$.

## Proof. Define $\mathcal{F}$ by letting

$$
\mathcal{F}=\left\{f \in H(G) \mid f \text { is one to one, } f(a)=0, f^{\prime}(a)>0, f(G) \subset D\right\} .
$$

For all $f \in \mathcal{F}$, since $f(G) \subset D$, then $\sup \{|f(z)| \mid z \in G\} \leq 1$. So $\mathcal{F}$ is locally bounded (by definition of "locally bounded") and so by Motel's theorem (Theorem VII.2.9) $\mathcal{F}$ is normal (if it is nonempty).

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(I) First, we show that $\mathcal{F} \neq \varnothing$. Since $G \neq \mathbb{C}$, there is $b \in \mathbb{C} \backslash G$. Consider the nonvanishing analytic function $z-b$.

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& \text { (a) } f(a)=0 \text { and } f^{\prime}(a)>0 ; \\
& \text { (b) } f \text { is one to one; and } \\
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\end{aligned}
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Proof. Define $\mathcal{F}$ by letting

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## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 1)

Proof (continued). By hypothesis (since $z-b \neq 0$ on $G), z-b$ has an analytic square root on $G$, say $(g(z))^{2}=z-b$. If $z_{1}, z_{2} \in G$ an $\mathrm{d} g\left(z_{1}\right)= \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)$ then $\left(g\left(z_{1}\right)\right)^{2}-z_{1}-b=z_{2}-b=\left( \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$ and so $z_{1}=z_{2}$. In particular, $g$ is one to one. Since $g$ is an analytic one to one function on $G$, by the Open Mapping Theorem (Theorem IV.7.5), $g(G)$ is open and so there if $r>0$ such that $B(g(a) ; r) \subset g(G)$.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 1)

Proof (continued). By hypothesis (since $z-b \neq 0$ on $G), z-b$ has an analytic square root on $G$, say $(g(z))^{2}=z-b$. If $z_{1}, z_{2} \in G$ an $\mathrm{d} g\left(z_{1}\right)= \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)$ then $\left(g\left(z_{1}\right)\right)^{2}-z_{1}-b=z_{2}-b=\left( \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$ and so $z_{1}=z_{2}$. In particular, $g$ is one to one. Since $g$ is an analytic one to one function on $G$, by the Open Mapping Theorem (Theorem IV.7.5), $g(G)$ is open and so there if $r>0$ such that $B(g(a) ; r) \subset g(G)$.

ASSUME there is $z \in G$ such that $g(z) \in B(-g(a) ; r)$. Then $r>|g(z)-(-g(a))|=|g(z)+g(a)|=|-g(z)-g(a)|$. So $-g(z) \in B(g(a) ; r)$ and for some $w \in G$ we have $g(w)=-g(z)$. So, as discussed above, $w=z$.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 1)

Proof (continued). By hypothesis (since $z-b \neq 0$ on $G), z-b$ has an analytic square root on $G$, say $(g(z))^{2}=z-b$. If $z_{1}, z_{2} \in G$ an $\mathrm{d} g\left(z_{1}\right)= \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)$ then $\left(g\left(z_{1}\right)\right)^{2}-z_{1}-b=z_{2}-b=\left( \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$ and so $z_{1}=z_{2}$. In particular, $g$ is one to one. Since $g$ is an analytic one to one function on $G$, by the Open Mapping Theorem (Theorem IV.7.5), $g(G)$ is open and so there if $r>0$ such that $B(g(a) ; r) \subset g(G)$.

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## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 1)

Proof (continued). By hypothesis (since $z-b \neq 0$ on $G$ ), $z-b$ has an analytic square root on $G$, say $(g(z))^{2}=z-b$. If $z_{1}, z_{2} \in G$ an $\mathrm{d} g\left(z_{1}\right)= \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)$ then $\left(g\left(z_{1}\right)\right)^{2}-z_{1}-b=z_{2}-b=\left( \pm g\left(z_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$ and so $z_{1}=z_{2}$. In particular, $g$ is one to one. Since $g$ is an analytic one to one function on $G$, by the Open Mapping Theorem (Theorem IV.7.5), $g(G)$ is open and so there if $r>0$ such that $B(g(a) ; r) \subset g(G)$.

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## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 2)

Proof (continued). Let $g_{1}=T \circ g$. Then $g_{1}$ is analytic and $g_{1}(G) \subset D$. If $\alpha=g_{1}(a)$ let $\varphi_{\alpha}-e^{i \theta_{0}}(z-\alpha)(\bar{\alpha} z-1)$. Notice

$$
\varphi_{\alpha}^{\prime}(z)-e^{i \theta_{0}} \frac{(\bar{\alpha} z-1)-(z-\alpha) \bar{\alpha}}{(\bar{\alpha} z-1)^{2}}=e^{i \theta_{0}} \frac{|\alpha|^{2}-1}{(\bar{\alpha} z-1)^{2}} .
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Then $\varphi_{\alpha}$ is a Möbius transformation from $D$ onto $D$ such that $\varphi_{\alpha}(\alpha)=0$ (this is shown in Exercise III.3.10). Define $g_{2}(z)=\varphi_{\alpha} \circ g_{1}(z)$. Then we still have $g_{2}(G) \subset D$ and $g_{2}$ is analytic on $G$, but we also have that $g_{2}(a)=0$.

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$$
\begin{gathered}
\left.g_{2}^{\prime}(z)\right|_{z=a}=\left.\left[\varphi_{\alpha}\left(g_{1}(z)\right)\right]^{\prime}\right|_{z=a}=\varphi_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(g_{1}(a)\right) g_{1}^{\prime}(a) \\
\quad=\varphi_{\alpha}^{\prime}(\alpha) g_{1}^{\prime}(a)=e^{i \theta_{0}} \frac{1}{|\alpha|^{2}-1} g_{1}^{\prime}(a) .
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## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 3)

Proof (continued). Next, $g_{1}=T \circ g$ where $T(z)=\frac{a z+b}{c z+d}$, with $a d-b c \neq 0$, is some Möbius transformation. Now

$$
T^{\prime}(z)=\frac{1(c z+d)-(z a+b) z}{(c z+d)^{2}}=\frac{a d-b c}{(c z+d)^{2}} \neq 0 \text { for } z \neq \infty
$$

So $g_{1}^{\prime}(a)=\left.T^{\prime}(g(z)) g^{\prime}(z)\right|_{z=a}=T^{\prime}(g(a)) g^{\prime}(a)$ where $T^{\prime}(g(a)) \neq 0$. Next, $(g(z))^{2}=z-b$ and $2 g(z) g^{\prime}(z)=1$, so $2 g(z) g^{\prime}(a)=1$ and neither $g(a)$ nor $g^{\prime}(a)$ equal 0 . Hence $g_{1}(a)=T^{\prime}(g(a)) g^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$ and $g_{2}^{\prime}(a)=e^{i \theta_{0}} \frac{1}{|\alpha|^{2}-1} g-1^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$. So by the proper choice of $\theta_{0}$ (namely, $\left.-\arg \left(g_{1}^{\prime}(a) /\left(|\alpha|^{2}-1\right)\right)\right)$ we have $g_{2}^{\prime}(a)>0$. So $g_{2} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{F}$ is nonempty.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 3)

Proof (continued). Next, $g_{1}=T \circ g$ where $T(z)=\frac{a z+b}{c z+d}$, with $a d-b c \neq 0$, is some Möbius transformation. Now

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(II) We now show that $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ in $H(G)$. Suppose $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is a sequence in $\mathcal{F}$ and $f_{n} \rightarrow f$ in $H(G)$. Since $f_{n}(a)=0$ for all $f_{n} \in \mathcal{F}$ then $f(a)=0$. Also $f_{n}^{\prime}(z) \rightarrow f^{\prime}(a)$ so $f^{\prime}(a) \geq 0$.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 3)

Proof (continued). Next, $g_{1}=T \circ g$ where $T(z)=\frac{a z+b}{c z+d}$, with $a d-b c \neq 0$, is some Möbius transformation. Now

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T^{\prime}(z)=\frac{1(c z+d)-(z a+b) z}{(c z+d)^{2}}=\frac{a d-b c}{(c z+d)^{2}} \neq 0 \text { for } z \neq \infty .
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So $g_{1}^{\prime}(a)=\left.T^{\prime}(g(z)) g^{\prime}(z)\right|_{z=a}=T^{\prime}(g(a)) g^{\prime}(a)$ where $T^{\prime}(g(a)) \neq 0$. Next, $(g(z))^{2}=z-b$ and $2 g(z) g^{\prime}(z)=1$, so $2 g(z) g^{\prime}(a)=1$ and neither $g(a)$ nor $g^{\prime}(a)$ equal 0 . Hence $g_{1}(a)=T^{\prime}(g(a)) g^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$ and $g_{2}^{\prime}(a)=e^{i \theta_{0}} \frac{1}{|a|{ }^{2}-1} g-1^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$. So by the proper choice of $\theta_{0}$ (namely, $\left.-\arg \left(g_{1}^{\prime}(a) /\left(|\alpha|^{2}-1\right)\right)\right)$ we have $g_{2}^{\prime}(a)>0$. So $g_{2} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{F}$ is nonempty.
(II) We now show that $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ in $H(G)$. Suppose $\left\{f_{n}\right\}$ is a sequence in $\mathcal{F}$ and $f_{n} \rightarrow f$ in $H(G)$. Since $f_{n}(a)=0$ for all $f_{n} \in \mathcal{F}$ then $f(a)=0$. Also $f_{n}^{\prime}(z) \rightarrow f^{\prime}(a)$ so $f^{\prime}(a) \geq 0$.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 4)

Proof (continued). Let $z_{1} \in G, \zeta=f\left(z_{1}\right)$, and $\zeta_{n}=f_{n}\left(z_{1}\right)$. Let $z_{2} \in G$, $z_{2} \neq z_{1}$ and let $K \subset G$ be a closed disk centered at $z_{2}$ such that $z_{1} \notin K$. Since $f_{n}$ is one to one and $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n}=0$ at $z_{1}$ then $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n}$ does not vanish on $K$. But $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n} \rightarrow f(z)-\zeta$ uniformly on $K$ (since $K$ is compact), so by the corollary to Hurwitz's Theorem (Corollary VII.2.6) either $f(z)-\zeta$ never vanishes on $K$ on $f(z)=\zeta$ on $K$. If $f(z) \equiv \zeta$ on $K$ then $f$ is constant throughout $G$ (by Theorem IV.3.7) and since $f(a)=0$ then $f(z)=0$ on G.Otherwise $f(z)-\zeta$ never vanishes on $K$ so (since $\left.z_{2} \in K\right) f\left(z_{2}\right)-\zeta \neq 0$ or $f\left(z_{2}\right) \neq \zeta=f\left(z_{1}\right)$. Since $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are arbitrary distinct points in $G$, then $g$ is one to one on $G$. By Exercise IV.7.4, $f^{\prime}(z) \neq 0$ on $G$. We have above that $f^{\prime}(a) \geq 0$, so it must be that in fact $f^{\prime}(a)>0$. So $f \in \mathcal{F}$.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 4)

Proof (continued). Let $z_{1} \in G, \zeta=f\left(z_{1}\right)$, and $\zeta_{n}=f_{n}\left(z_{1}\right)$. Let $z_{2} \in G$, $z_{2} \neq z_{1}$ and let $K \subset G$ be a closed disk centered at $z_{2}$ such that $z_{1} \notin K$. Since $f_{n}$ is one to one and $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n}=0$ at $z_{1}$ then $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n}$ does not vanish on $K$. But $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n} \rightarrow f(z)-\zeta$ uniformly on $K$ (since $K$ is compact), so by the corollary to Hurwitz's Theorem (Corollary VII.2.6) either $f(z)-\zeta$ never vanishes on $K$ on $f(z)=\zeta$ on $K$. If $f(z) \equiv \zeta$ on $K$ then $f$ is constant throughout $G$ (by Theorem IV.3.7) and since $f(a)=0$ then $f(z)=0$ on $G$.Otherwise $f(z)-\zeta$ never vanishes on $K$ so (since $\left.z_{2} \in K\right) f\left(z_{2}\right)-\zeta \neq 0$ or $f\left(z_{2}\right) \neq \zeta=f\left(z_{1}\right)$. Since $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are arbitrary distinct points in $G$, then $g$ is one to one on $G$. By Exercise IV.7.4, $f^{\prime}(z) \neq 0$ on $G$. We have above that $f^{\prime}(a) \geq 0$, so it must be that in fact $f^{\prime}(a)>0$. So $f \in \mathcal{F}$. That is, the limit of any sequence in $\mathcal{F}$ is either an element of $\mathcal{F}$ or the function $f(z) \equiv 0$ on $G$. Hence, $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 4)

Proof (continued). Let $z_{1} \in G, \zeta=f\left(z_{1}\right)$, and $\zeta_{n}=f_{n}\left(z_{1}\right)$. Let $z_{2} \in G$, $z_{2} \neq z_{1}$ and let $K \subset G$ be a closed disk centered at $z_{2}$ such that $z_{1} \notin K$. Since $f_{n}$ is one to one and $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n}=0$ at $z_{1}$ then $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n}$ does not vanish on $K$. But $f_{n}(z)-\zeta_{n} \rightarrow f(z)-\zeta$ uniformly on $K$ (since $K$ is compact), so by the corollary to Hurwitz's Theorem (Corollary VII.2.6) either $f(z)-\zeta$ never vanishes on $K$ on $f(z)=\zeta$ on $K$. If $f(z) \equiv \zeta$ on $K$ then $f$ is constant throughout $G$ (by Theorem IV.3.7) and since $f(a)=0$ then $f(z)=0$ on $G$.Otherwise $f(z)-\zeta$ never vanishes on $K$ so (since $\left.z_{2} \in K\right) f\left(z_{2}\right)-\zeta \neq 0$ or $f\left(z_{2}\right) \neq \zeta=f\left(z_{1}\right)$. Since $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are arbitrary distinct points in $G$, then $g$ is one to one on $G$. By Exercise IV.7.4, $f^{\prime}(z) \neq 0$ on $G$. We have above that $f^{\prime}(a) \geq 0$, so it must be that in fact $f^{\prime}(a)>0$. So $f \in \mathcal{F}$. That is, the limit of any sequence in $\mathcal{F}$ is either an element of $\mathcal{F}$ or the function $f(z) \equiv 0$ on $G$. Hence, $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 5)

Proof (continued). (III) Finally, we show there is $f \in \mathcal{F}$ with $f(D)=D$. Consider the mapping of function $f \in H(G)$ to $f^{\prime}(a) \in \mathbb{R}$. This is a continuous mapping by Theorem VII.2.1. Now since $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ maps $G$ to $D$ then $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is locally bounded. By Part II, $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is closed so, by Corollary VII.2.10, $\mathcal{F}^{-}$is compact. So by the Extreme Value Theorem (Corollary II.5.12) there is $f \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$with $f^{\prime}(a) \geq g^{\prime}(a)$ for all $g \in \mathcal{F}$. Since $\mathcal{F}$ is nonempty by Part I, this particular $f$ is in $\mathcal{F}$ (since $f \in \mathcal{F}$ implies $f(a)>0$ and so $0(a)=0$ does not give the maximum). We now show that for this $f \in \mathcal{F}$, we have $f(G)=D$ and this is the desired function.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 5)

Proof (continued). (III) Finally, we show there is $f \in \mathcal{F}$ with $f(D)=D$. Consider the mapping of function $f \in H(G)$ to $f^{\prime}(a) \in \mathbb{R}$. This is a continuous mapping by Theorem VII.2.1. Now since $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ maps $G$ to $D$ then $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is locally bounded. By Part II, $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is closed so, by Corollary VII.2.10, $\mathcal{F}^{-}$is compact. So by the Extreme Value Theorem (Corollary II.5.12) there is $f \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$with $f^{\prime}(a) \geq g^{\prime}(a)$ for all $g \in \mathcal{F}$. Since $\mathcal{F}$ is nonempty by Part I, this particular $f$ is in $\mathcal{F}$ (since $f \in \mathcal{F}$ implies $f(a)>0$ and so $0(a)=0$ does not give the maximum). We now show that for this $f \in \mathcal{F}$, we have $f(G)=D$ and this is the desired function.


## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 5)

Proof (continued). (III) Finally, we show there is $f \in \mathcal{F}$ with $f(D)=D$. Consider the mapping of function $f \in H(G)$ to $f^{\prime}(a) \in \mathbb{R}$. This is a continuous mapping by Theorem VII.2.1. Now since $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ maps $G$ to $D$ then $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is locally bounded. By Part II, $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is closed so, by Corollary VII.2.10, $\mathcal{F}^{-}$is compact. So by the Extreme Value Theorem (Corollary II.5.12) there is $f \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$with $f^{\prime}(a) \geq g^{\prime}(a)$ for all $g \in \mathcal{F}$. Since $\mathcal{F}$ is nonempty by Part I, this particular $f$ is in $\mathcal{F}$ (since $f \in \mathcal{F}$ implies $f(a)>0$ and so $0(a)=0$ does not give the maximum). We now show that for this $f \in \mathcal{F}$, we have $f(G)=D$ and this is the desired function.
(IV) ASSUME $\omega \in D$ and $\omega \notin f(G)$. Then the function $(f(z)-\omega) /(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))$ is analytic in $G($ notice $|1 / \bar{\omega}|>1$ so $f(z) \neq 1 / \bar{\omega}$ for $z \in G)$ and never vanishes in $G$. Therefore, by hypothesis, there is

transformation $T(\zeta)=(\zeta-\omega) /(1-\bar{\omega} \zeta)$ maps $D$ onto $D$ (since $\omega \in D$; see Exercise III.3.10)

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 5)

Proof (continued). (III) Finally, we show there is $f \in \mathcal{F}$ with $f(D)=D$. Consider the mapping of function $f \in H(G)$ to $f^{\prime}(a) \in \mathbb{R}$. This is a continuous mapping by Theorem VII.2.1. Now since $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ maps $G$ to $D$ then $\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is locally bounded. By Part II, $\mathcal{F}^{-}=\mathcal{F} \cup\{0\}$ is closed so, by Corollary VII.2.10, $\mathcal{F}^{-}$is compact. So by the Extreme Value Theorem (Corollary II.5.12) there is $f \in \mathcal{F}^{-}$with $f^{\prime}(a) \geq g^{\prime}(a)$ for all $g \in \mathcal{F}$. Since $\mathcal{F}$ is nonempty by Part I, this particular $f$ is in $\mathcal{F}$ (since $f \in \mathcal{F}$ implies $f(a)>0$ and so $0(a)=0$ does not give the maximum). We now show that for this $f \in \mathcal{F}$, we have $f(G)=D$ and this is the desired function.
(IV) ASSUME $\omega \in D$ and $\omega \notin f(G)$. Then the function $(f(z)-\omega) /(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))$ is analytic in $G$ (notice $|1 / \bar{\omega}|>1$ so $f(z) \neq 1 / \bar{\omega}$ for $z \in G)$ and never vanishes in $G$. Therefore, by hypothesis, there is $h: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $(h(z))^{2}=(f(z)-\omega) /(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))$. The Möbius transformation $T(\zeta)=(\zeta-\omega) /(1-\bar{\omega} \zeta)$ maps $D$ onto $D$ (since $\omega \in D$; see Exercise III.3.10).

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 6)

Proof (continued). Define $g: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ as

$$
g(z)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h(z)-h(a)}{1-\overline{h(a)} h(z)}
$$

Notice that from the definition of $h$,

$$
2 h(z) h^{\prime}(z)=\frac{f^{\prime}(z)(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))-(f(z)-\omega)\left(-\bar{\omega} f^{\prime}(z)\right)}{(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))^{2}}=\frac{f^{\prime}(z)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)}{(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))^{2}}
$$

and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 h(a) h^{\prime}(a)=\frac{f^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)}{(1-\bar{\omega} f(a))^{2}}=f^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right) \neq 0 \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $\omega \in D$ and $f^{\prime}(a)>0$. Therefore $h^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$ (and so $\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right| / h^{\prime}(a)$ is a complex number of modulus 1). Since $h(G) \subset D$ then $h(a) \in D$ and so $g(G) \subset D$. Also $g(a)=0$ and $g$ is one to one since $h$ is (it is a branch of a square root and so is invertible, so $h$ is one to one) and the Möbius transformation $T$ such that $g(z)=T(h(z))$, is one to one.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 6)

Proof (continued). Define $g: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ as

$$
g(z)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h(z)-h(a)}{1-\overline{h(a)} h(z)}
$$

Notice that from the definition of $h$,

$$
2 h(z) h^{\prime}(z)=\frac{f^{\prime}(z)(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))-(f(z)-\omega)\left(-\bar{\omega} f^{\prime}(z)\right)}{(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))^{2}}=\frac{f^{\prime}(z)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)}{(1-\bar{\omega} f(z))^{2}}
$$

and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 h(a) h^{\prime}(a)=\frac{f^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)}{(1-\bar{\omega} f(a))^{2}}=f^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right) \neq 0 \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
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since $\omega \in D$ and $f^{\prime}(a)>0$. Therefore $h^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$ (and so $\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right| / h^{\prime}(a)$ is a complex number of modulus 1). Since $h(G) \subset D$ then $h(a) \in D$ and so $g(G) \subset D$. Also $g(a)=0$ and $g$ is one to one since $h$ is (it is a branch of a square root and so is invertible, so $h$ is one to one) and the Möbius transformation $T$ such that $g(z)=T(h(z))$, is one to one.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 7)

Proof (continued). Also,

$$
\begin{gathered}
g^{\prime}(z)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h^{\prime}(a)(1-\overline{h(a)} h(z))-(h(z)-h(a))\left(-\overline{h(a)} h^{\prime}(z)\right)}{(1-\overline{h(a)} h(z))^{2}} \\
=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h^{\prime}(z)\left(1-|h(a)|^{2}\right)}{(1-\overline{h(a)} h(z))^{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
g^{\prime}(a)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|h(a)|^{2}\right)}{\left(1-\left.h(a)\right|^{2}\right)^{2}}=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{1-|h(a)|^{2}}
$$

But $|h(a)|^{2}=\left|\frac{f(a)-\omega}{1-\bar{\omega} f(a)}\right|=|-\omega|=|\omega|$ and by $(*)$, $2 h^{\prime}(a) h(a)=f^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)$, so $\ldots$

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 7)

Proof (continued). Also,

$$
\begin{gathered}
g^{\prime}(z)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h^{\prime}(a)(1-\overline{h(a)} h(z))-(h(z)-h(a))\left(-\overline{h(a)} h^{\prime}(z)\right)}{(1-\overline{h(a)} h(z))^{2}} \\
=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h^{\prime}(z)\left(1-|h(a)|^{2}\right)}{(1-\overline{h(a)} h(z))^{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
g^{\prime}(a)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{h^{\prime}(a)} \frac{h^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|h(a)|^{2}\right)}{\left(1-\left.h(a)\right|^{2}\right)^{2}}=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{1-|h(a)|^{2}}
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But $|h(a)|^{2}=\left|\frac{f(a)-\omega}{1-\bar{\omega} f(a)}\right|=|-\omega|=|\omega|$ and by $(*)$, $2 h^{\prime}(a) h(a)=f^{\prime}(a)\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)$, so $\ldots$

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 8)

## Proof (continued).

$$
\begin{gathered}
g^{\prime}(a)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{1-|h(a)|^{2}}=\frac{1}{1-|\omega|} \frac{\left|f^{\prime}(a)\right|\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)}{2|h(a)|} \\
=\frac{f^{\prime}(a)(1+|\omega|) 2|h(a)|=\frac{f^{\prime}(a)(1+|\omega|)}{2 \sqrt{|\omega|}}=f^{\prime}(a) \frac{1+|\omega|}{\sqrt{\mid \omega}}+\sqrt{|\omega|}}{>} f^{\prime}(a)
\end{gathered}
$$

because $2 \sqrt{|\omega|}<1+|\omega|$ (since $\left.0<(1-|\omega|)^{2}=1-2|\omega|+|\omega|^{2}\right)$. So $g$ is one to one, $g(a)=0, g(G) \subset D$, and $g^{\prime}(a)>f^{\prime}(a)>0$. and $g^{\prime}(a)>f^{\prime}(a)$, a CONTRADICTION to the fact that $f^{\prime}(a) \geq g^{\prime}(a)$ for all $g \in \mathcal{F}$. So no such $\omega \in D$ with $\omega \notin f(G)$. That is, $f(G)=D$. Therefore, $f$ is the desired function.

## Lemma VII.4.3 (continued 8)

## Proof (continued).

$$
\begin{gather*}
g^{\prime}(a)=\frac{\left|h^{\prime}(a)\right|}{1-|h(a)|^{2}}=\frac{1}{1-|\omega|} \frac{\left|f^{\prime}(a)\right|\left(1-|\omega|^{2}\right)}{2|h(a)|} \\
f^{\prime}(a)(1+|\omega|) 2|h(a)|=\frac{f^{\prime}(a)(1+|\omega|)}{2 \sqrt{|\omega|}}=f^{\prime}(a) \frac{1+|\omega|}{\sqrt{\mid \omega}}+\sqrt{|\omega|} \tag{a}
\end{gather*}
$$

because $2 \sqrt{|\omega|}<1+|\omega|$ (since $\left.0<(1-|\omega|)^{2}=1-2|\omega|+|\omega|^{2}\right)$. So $g$ is one to one, $g(a)=0, g(G) \subset D$, and $g^{\prime}(a)>f^{\prime}(a)>0$. But the $g \in \mathcal{F}$ and $g^{\prime}(a)>f^{\prime}(a)$, a CONTRADICTION to the fact that $f^{\prime}(a) \geq g^{\prime}(a)$ for all $g \in \mathcal{F}$. So no such $\omega \in D$ with $\omega \notin f(G)$. That is, $f(G)=D$.
Therefore, $f$ is the desired function.

## Theorem VII.4.2. The Riemann Mapping Theorem

Theorem VII.4.2. The Riemann Mapping Theorem.
Let $G$ be a simply connected region which is not the whole plane $\mathbb{C}$ and let $a \in G$. Then there is a unique analytic function $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ having the properties:
(a) $f(a)=0$ and $f^{\prime}(a)>0$;
(b) $f$ is one to one; and
(c) $f(G)=\{z| | z \mid<1\}$.

Proof. Let $G$ be a simply connected region which is not the whole plane $\mathbb{C}$. Notice that every nonvanishing analytic function on a simply connected region has an analytic square root on the region.

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(a) $f(a)=0$ and $f^{\prime}(a)>0$;
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(c) $f(G)=\{z| | z \mid<1\}$.

Proof. Let $G$ be a simply connected region which is not the whole plane $\mathbb{C}$. Notice that every nonvanishing analytic function on a simply connected region has an analytic square root on the region. This is because we can define a branch of the logarithm and compose it with such a function throughout the region; the branch cut must run from where the function is 0 to $\infty \in \mathbb{C}$; since the function can only be 0 outside of the simply connected region, then then a branch cut exists for the branch of the logarithm. The branch of the logarithm then allows us to define the square root (recall that a branch of the square root satisfies $z^{1 / 2}=e^{(1 / 2) \log z}$ )

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Proof. Let $G$ be a simply connected region which is not the whole plane $\mathbb{C}$. Notice that every nonvanishing analytic function on a simply connected region has an analytic square root on the region. This is because we can define a branch of the logarithm and compose it with such a function throughout the region; the branch cut must run from where the function is 0 to $\infty \in \mathbb{C}$; since the function can only be 0 outside of the simply connected region, then then a branch cut exists for the branch of the logarithm. The branch of the logarithm then allows us to define the square root (recall that a branch of the square root satisfies $z^{1 / 2}=e^{(1 / 2) \log z}$ ).

## Theorem VII.4.2. The Riemann Mapping Theorem (continued)

Proof. The existence of a function $f$ satisfying (a), (b), and (c) now follows from Lemma VII.4.3. We need only prove uniqueness. Suppose $g$ is another such function. Then $g^{-1}: D \rightarrow G$ is analytic by Corollary IV.7.6. Therefore $f \circ g^{-1}: D \rightarrow D$ is analytic, one to one, and onto. Also, $f \circ g^{-1}(0)=f\left(g^{-1}(0)=f(a)=0\right.$. So by Theorem VI.2.5, $f \circ g^{-1}(z)=c \varphi_{0}=c(z-0) /(1-\overline{0} z)=c z($ on $D)$ for some $|c|=1$. Replacing $z$ with $g(z)$ in $f\left(g^{-1}(z)\right)=c z($ since $g(G)=D)$ gives $f\left(g^{-1}(g(z))=c g(z)\right.$ or $f(z)=c g(z)$. Then $0<f^{\prime}(z)-c g^{\prime}(a)$; since $g^{\prime}(a)>0$ and $c g^{\prime}(a)>0$ then $c>0$ and so $c=1$.

## Theorem VII.4.2. The Riemann Mapping Theorem (continued)

Proof. The existence of a function $f$ satisfying (a), (b), and (c) now follows from Lemma VII.4.3. We need only prove uniqueness. Suppose $g$ is another such function. Then $g^{-1}: D \rightarrow G$ is analytic by Corollary IV.7.6. Therefore $f \circ g^{-1}: D \rightarrow D$ is analytic, one to one, and onto. Also, $f \circ g^{-1}(0)=f\left(g^{-1}(0)=f(a)=0\right.$. So by Theorem VI.2.5, $f \circ g^{-1}(z)=c \varphi_{0}=c(z-0) /(1-\overline{0} z)=c z($ on $D)$ for some $|c|=1$. Replacing $z$ with $g(z)$ in $f\left(g^{-1}(z)\right)=c z($ since $g(G)=D)$ gives $f\left(g^{-1}(g(z))=c g(z)\right.$ or $f(z)=c g(z)$. Then $0<f^{\prime}(z)-c g^{\prime}(a)$; since $g^{\prime}(a)>0$ and $c g^{\prime}(a)>0$ then $c>0$ and so $c=1$. Therefore, the function $f$ is unique.

## Theorem VII.4.2. The Riemann Mapping Theorem (continued)

Proof. The existence of a function $f$ satisfying (a), (b), and (c) now follows from Lemma VII.4.3. We need only prove uniqueness. Suppose $g$ is another such function. Then $g^{-1}: D \rightarrow G$ is analytic by Corollary IV.7.6. Therefore $f \circ g^{-1}: D \rightarrow D$ is analytic, one to one, and onto. Also, $f \circ g^{-1}(0)=f\left(g^{-1}(0)=f(a)=0\right.$. So by Theorem VI.2.5, $f \circ g^{-1}(z)=c \varphi_{0}=c(z-0) /(1-\overline{0} z)=c z($ on $D)$ for some $|c|=1$. Replacing $z$ with $g(z)$ in $f\left(g^{-1}(z)\right)=c z($ since $g(G)=D)$ gives $f\left(g^{-1}(g(z))=c g(z)\right.$ or $f(z)=c g(z)$. Then $0<f^{\prime}(z)-c g^{\prime}(a)$; since $g^{\prime}(a)>0$ and $c g^{\prime}(a)>0$ then $c>0$ and so $c=1$. That is, $f=g$. Therefore, the function $f$ is unique.

