

**ON THE THEORY OF COMPLEX FUNCTIONS**

by

**Dr. Emil Artin****Professor at Indiana University**

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The following pages are intended to exhibit some of the advantages obtained by a more extensive use of topological methods and notions in courses on complex variables. These methods simplify the proofs and are more flexible in their application.

We shall need as preparation the following simple properties of closed and open sets:

- 1) The complementary set  $\bar{D}$  of an open set  $D$  is closed.
- 2) A continuous image of a closed and bounded set is itself closed and bounded.
- 3) A function that is continuous on a closed and bounded set is uniformly continuous on that set.
- 4) By distance of two sets  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  we mean the greatest lower bound  $\rho$  of the distances between any point  $z_1$  of  $S_1$  and any point  $z_2$  of  $S_2$ . If  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are closed and one of them is bounded we can find a special pair of points  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  with precisely the distance  $\rho$ . It follows that if in addition the two sets are disjoint, we have  $\rho > 0$ .

The proofs are so well known that we omit them here.

By arc we mean a continuous image  $z(t)$  of the interval  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ . It is a closed and bounded set. We consider it as orientated by the orientation of the interval. Now let  $\zeta$  be a point not on the arc  $A$ . We first try to find a continuous

function  $\varphi(t)$  whose value is one of the possible values of the argument of  $z(t) - \zeta$ . Such a  $\varphi(t)$  is easily constructed if our arc is contained in a circle that does not contain  $\zeta$  because it is then possible to define the argument of  $z - \zeta$  as a continuous function of  $z$  in the whole circle. All we have to do, therefore, in the general case is to subdivide our arc into a finite number of parts of the previous kind. To do so, let  $\rho > 0$  be the distance of  $\zeta$  and  $A$ ; because of the uniform continuity of  $z(t)$  we can find a subdivision of  $A$  into a finite number of parts such that each part is contained in a circle of diameter  $\rho$ .

Let us assume our point  $\zeta$  is not fixed but moves on a closed set  $S$  whose distance from  $A$  is  $\rho > 0$ . Any subdivision of  $A$  with this  $\rho$  will then work for all the points  $\zeta$  at once.

The so-constructed  $\varphi(t)$  is uniquely determined but for a multiple of  $2\pi$ . This follows easily from the meaning of  $\varphi(t)$  and its continuity.

What we really want to construct is the uniquely determined value  $\varphi(1) - \varphi(0) = V(A, \zeta)$ . We call it the variation of argument of  $A$  with respect to  $\zeta$ . It is easy to show that it depends continuously on  $\zeta$  and that it satisfies the equation  $V(A, \zeta) = V(B, \zeta) + V(C, \zeta)$  if the arc  $A$  is subdivided into the two arcs  $B$  and  $C$ .

Returning to our closed set  $S$  and any subdivision of  $A$  into parts of diameter  $< \rho$ , let us connect each two consecutive endpoints of these parts by a straight line segment. We obtain thus an inscribed polygon  $A'$  that is also disjoint from  $S$ . Each of the line segments has the same variation of

argument with respect to any  $\zeta$  of  $S$  as the corresponding part of  $A$ . This proves  $V(A', \zeta) = V(A, \zeta)$  for all  $\zeta$  of  $S$ .

**THEOREM 1.** Let  $S$  be a closed set disjoint from the arc  $A$ . If  $A'$  is an inscribed polygon that belongs to a sufficiently fine subdivision of  $A$  then  $V(A', \zeta) = V(A, \zeta)$  for all  $\zeta$  of  $S$ .

It is convenient to use not only arcs but also chains of arcs as paths of integration. By a chain  $C$  we mean a formal sum  $\sum A_\nu$  of a finite number of arcs  $A_\nu$ , each arc being orientated. One and the same arc can enter in this sum repeatedly and with either of its orientations. If  $\zeta$  is not on  $C$  we generalize the variation of argument  $V(C, \zeta)$  to chains by the definition

$$V(C, \zeta) = \sum_{\nu} V(A_{\nu}, \zeta).$$

Obviously this definition is additive in  $C$ .

If we disregard multiples of  $2\pi$  then

$V(C, \zeta) \equiv \sum_{\nu} (\alpha_{\nu} - \beta_{\nu}) \pmod{2\pi}$  where  $\alpha_{\nu}$  and  $\beta_{\nu}$  are the arguments of the vectors from  $\zeta$  to the endpoint and to the beginning point of  $A_{\nu}$ . We remark, however, that it is just this neglected multiple of  $2\pi$  that we wanted to define by the previous discussion.

A chain  $C$  is called closed if each point is beginning point of just as many of the arcs  $A_{\nu}$  as it is endpoint.  $V(C, \zeta)$  is then a multiple of  $2\pi$ , therefore we frequently use the winding number  $W(C, \zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} V(C, \zeta)$  instead of  $V(C, \zeta)$ . Its value is an integer; being continuous in  $\zeta$  it is constant on any connected and open set  $D$  that is disjoint from the arcs of  $C$ .

If all the arcs  $A_\nu$  of a chain  $C = \sum A_\nu$  are rectifiable and if  $f(z)$  is integrable on each  $A_\nu$ , we may introduce the integral of  $f(z)$  on the chain  $C$  by the definition:

$$\int_C f(z)dz = \sum_\nu \int_{A_\nu} f(z)dz.$$

We are now in a position to state and to prove the most general form of the theorem of Cauchy:

**THEOREM 2.** Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in the open set  $D$ , and let  $C$  be a closed chain in  $D$  that satisfies the following condition:

The winding number  $W(C, \zeta) = 0$  for every  $\zeta$  of the complementary set  $\bar{D}$  of  $D$ .

Then

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

**Proof:** (A) Let  $C$  be a triangle.  $W(C, \zeta) = \pm 1$  if  $\zeta$  is in the interior of the triangle. Our assumption about  $C$  means, therefore, that the triangle  $C$  and its interior belong to  $D$ . The proof in this case is well known and need not be repeated since the reader can find it in most of the books on complex variables.

(B) Let  $C$  be a polygonal closed chain where each  $A_\nu$  is a segment of a straight line  $L_\nu$ . We assume that all the straight lines  $L_\nu$  have been drawn. Each of them decomposes the plane into two convex sets, namely, two halfplanes. The intersection of a finite number of convex sets is either empty or itself convex. It thus follows that our straight lines  $L_\nu$  decompose the plane into a finite number of convex sets each of them bounded by segments of the  $L_\nu$ . Each convex set is either bounded and therefore an ordinary convex polygon, or else

extends to infinity. In case it is bounded we select one of its vertices and draw all the diagonals from it. In this way we obtain a decomposition of the plane into triangles and into convex sets extending to infinity.

$W(C, \zeta)$  is constant in the interior of each of these parts of the plane. A point  $\zeta_0$  at the boundary of such a part either belongs to  $C$ , so that  $W(C, \zeta_0)$  is undefined, or else leads to a value of  $W(C, \zeta_0)$  equal to that in the interior because of the continuity of  $W(C, \zeta)$ .

Now let  $\zeta$  be very large. Then  $W(C, \zeta)$  is very small and consequently 0. This shows that  $W(C, \zeta) = 0$  in each part that extends to infinity.

Next consider a triangle  $\Delta$  with  $W(C, \zeta) \neq 0$  for the interior of  $\Delta$ . Since  $W(C, \zeta) = 0$  for all  $\zeta$  of  $\bar{D}$ , all the points of the interior of  $\Delta$  belong to  $D$ . Those on the boundary of  $\Delta$  also belong to  $D$  because they are either on  $C$  which is in  $D$ , or else again  $W(C, \zeta)$  is  $\neq 0$  for them. Thus, for such a triangle we get

$$\int_{\Delta} f(z) dz = 0.$$

Now let  $\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \dots, \Delta_n$  be all the triangles for which  $W(C, \zeta) = w_1 \neq 0$  if  $\zeta$  is in  $\Delta_1$  where  $W(C, \zeta) = 0$  if  $\zeta$  is in any other triangle. We assume  $\Delta_1$  orientated in such a way that  $W(\Delta_1, \zeta) = +1$  in the interior of  $\Delta_1$ . Consider the new chain:

$$C' = C - w_1 \Delta_1 - w_2 \Delta_2 \dots - w_n \Delta_n.$$

We contend:  $W(C', \zeta) = 0$  for any  $\zeta$  not on  $C'$ . Indeed,

a) If  $\zeta$  is on the boundary of one of the parts but not on  $C'$  we can shift it a little so that it falls in the interior of a part.

b) If  $\zeta$  is in  $\Delta_1$  then  $W(C, \zeta) = w_1$ ,  $W(\Delta_1, \zeta) = 1$ ,  
 $W(\Delta_k, \zeta) = 0$  for  $k \neq 1$ . Hence,  $W(C', \zeta) = W(C, \zeta) - w_1 W(\Delta_1, \zeta) = 0$ .

c) If  $\zeta$  is in any other part then  $W(C, \zeta) = 0$ ,  
 $W(\Delta_j, \zeta) = 0$ , so  $W(C', \zeta) = 0$ .

Now  $\int_C f(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz - \sum_v w_v \int_{\Delta_v} f(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz$   
 since  $\int_{\Delta_v} f(z) dz = 0$ . This reduces the proof to the case of  
 the chain  $C'$ . We first break up each arc of  $C'$  into largest  
 line segments  $\Lambda$  such that the interior of each  $\Lambda$  does not  
 contain any vertex of  $C'$ . Assume now that  $C'$  contains  $\Lambda$   $r$   
 times in one and  $s$  times in opposite orientation so that we  
 have  $C' = r\Lambda - s\Lambda + E$  where  $E$  is a chain that does not contain  
 $\Lambda$  any more. Then  $0 = V(C', \zeta) = (r - s)V(\Lambda, \zeta) + V(E, \zeta)$  or  
 $V(E, \zeta) = (s - r)V(\Lambda, \zeta)$  for all  $\zeta$  not on  $C'$ .  $V(E, \zeta)$  is defined  
 and continuous even on  $\Lambda$  but  $V(\Lambda, \zeta)$  is close to  $\pi$  on one side  
 of  $\Lambda$  and close to  $-\pi$  on the other. Hence,  $r = s$ . Therefore,  
 $C'$  contains each line segment equally often in both orienta-  
 tions, a fact that makes  $\int_{C'} f(z) dz = 0$  obvious.

(c) In the general case we inscribe a sufficiently  
 fine polygon  $\Delta'_v$  in each arc  $\Delta_v$  and replace  $C = \sum \Delta_v$  by  
 $C' = \sum \Delta'_v$ . According to Theorem 1 we have  
 $W(C', \zeta) = W(C, \zeta) = 0$  for all  $\zeta$  of  $\bar{D}$  if only the subdivision of  
 each arc was fine enough. Then  $\int_{C'} f(z) dz = 0$ . If we could  
 only show that for all sufficiently fine  $C'$  we have:

$$\left| \int_C f(z) dz - \int_{C'} f(z) dz \right| \leq \epsilon$$

our theorem would be proved. It obviously suffices to show  
 the following lemma:

Let  $f(z)$  be continuous in the open set  $D$  containing an  
 arc  $A$ . If  $\epsilon > 0$  is given we shall have for all sufficiently

fine inscribed polygons  $A'$  the inequality:

$$\left| \int_A f(z) dz - \int_{A'} f(z) dz \right| \leq \epsilon.$$

Though the proof is well known, it may be inserted here for the convenience of the reader.

Let  $z_0, z_1, \dots, z_n$  be the vertices of the inscribed polygon  $A'$  and call  $g(z, A')$  the following discontinuous function on  $A'$ :  $g(z, A')$  has on the line segment from  $z_{v-1}$  to  $z_v$  (excluding  $z_{v-1}$ ) the constant value  $f(z_v)$ . Then

$$\int_{A'} g(z, A') dz = \sum_{v=1}^n \int_{z_{v-1}}^{z_v} f(z_v) dz = \sum_{v=1}^n (z_v - z_{v-1}) f(z_v)$$

is obviously a Riemann-sum for the integral  $\int_A f(z) dz$  and is therefore close to  $\int_A f(z) dz$  for all sufficiently fine polygons  $A'$ . If we prove on the other hand that  $\int_{A'} g(z, A') dz$  also comes close to  $\int_A f(z) dz$  we have all that is needed.

Since the length of  $A'$  is bounded by the length of  $A$ , it suffices to show:

$$\text{Max}_{z \text{ on } A'} |f(z) - g(z, A')| \leq \epsilon \text{ or } \text{Max}_{z \text{ on } v\text{-th segment}} |f(z) - f(z_v)| \leq \epsilon$$

provided  $A'$  is sufficiently fine.

To prove this we merely have to imbed our arc  $A$  into a closed set  $B$  that is part of  $D$  and that on the other hand contains any sufficiently fine polygon  $A'$ . The function  $f(z)$  would indeed be uniformly continuous on  $B$  and the subdivision of  $A$  is found immediately.

Obviously, the set  $B$  of all points that have a distance  $\leq \frac{1}{2}\rho$  from  $A$  where  $\rho$  is the distance of  $A$  and  $\bar{D}$ , has all the required properties.

A chain  $C$  that satisfies the conditions of our theorem shall be called homologous 0 in the open set  $D$ . If  $D$  is part

of the open set  $D'$  and if  $C$  is homologous 0 in  $D'$  it need not be homologous 0 in  $D$ ; we would still have to investigate whether  $W(C, \zeta) = 0$  for all points of  $D'$  that are not in  $D$ . The following special case will prove important:

Assume that  $D$  can be obtained from  $D'$  by omitting the finite number of points  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n$  of  $D'$ . Assume that  $C$  is homologous 0 in  $D'$ . We have then to compute  $W(C, z_1) = w_1$ . Only if the  $w_1$  turn out to be 0 will  $C$  be homologous 0 in  $D$ . Now suppose that the  $w_1$  are not necessarily 0. We construct around each point  $z_1$  a circle  $C_1$  of so small a radius  $\rho$  that its interior with exception of  $z_1$  belongs to  $D$ . The new chain

$$C' = C - w_1 C_1 - w_2 C_2 - \dots - w_n C_n$$

is then homologous 0 in  $D$  and hence  $\int_{C'} f(z) dz = 0$  or

$$(1) \quad \int_C f(z) dz = \sum_{v=1}^n w_v \int_{C_v} f(z) dz.$$

As an example, put  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ .  $D'$  is then the whole plane and  $z_1 = 0$ .  $\rho$  may be taken as 1. We get from (1)

$$\int_C \frac{dz}{z} = W(C, 0) \cdot \int_{C_1} \frac{dz}{z}$$

where  $C_1$  is the unit circle. The integral on  $C_1$  may be computed by a Riemann-sum:  $\sum_{v=1}^n (z_v - z_{v-1}) \frac{1}{\xi_v}$ , using as intermediate point  $\xi_v$  the point on the unit circle halfway between  $z_{v-1}$  and  $z_v$ . The geometric significance of the points shows  $(z_v - z_{v-1}) \frac{1}{\xi_v} = i |z_v - z_{v-1}|$  so that our Riemann-sum is  $i \cdot 1$  where 1 is the length of the inscribed polygon. The integral on  $C_1$  is therefore  $2\pi i$  and we obtain:

$$\int_C \frac{dz}{z} = 2\pi i W(C, 0).$$

We now use the following definition:

**Definition.** If  $f(z)$  is analytic in a certain neighborhood of the point  $z_0$ , with possible exception of  $z_0$  itself, but if  $f(z)$  remains bounded in that neighborhood, we call  $z_0$  an R-point of  $f(z)$ .

Let us now assume that all the points  $z_\nu$  in (1) are R-points of  $f(z)$  and that  $M_1$  is the bound for  $f(z)$  in the neighborhood of  $z_1$ . For small values of  $\rho$  we obtain the estimate

$$(2) \quad \left| \int_{C_1} f(z) dz \right| \leq 2\pi\rho M_1$$

Now  $\rho$  can be taken as small as we like in (2). This shows that  $\int_C f(z) dz = 0$ , yielding the following generalization of Theorem 2.

**THEOREM 3.** Let  $D$  be an open set and assume  $f(z)$  analytic in  $D$  with exception of a finite number of R-points. Assume the closed chain  $C$  homologous 0 in  $D$ . Then  $\int_C f(z) dz = 0$ .

We next prove the integral formula of Cauchy:

**THEOREM 4.** Make the same assumptions about  $f(z)$ ,  $D$  and  $C$  as in the previous theorem. If  $z$  is a point not on  $C$ , where  $f(z)$  is analytic, then

$$2\pi i W(C, z) f(z) = \int_C \frac{f(t) dt}{t-z}.$$

For a fixed  $z$ , consider the following function of  $t$ :

$$g(t) = \frac{f(t) - f(z)}{t-z}.$$

$g(t)$  is analytic in  $D$  with exception of the R-points of  $f(t)$  which are also R-points of  $g(t)$ , and with exception of  $t = z$ . Since  $g(t)$  approaches the limit  $f'(z)$  as  $t$  approaches  $z$ , the function  $g(t)$  has  $z$  as an R-point.

This shows:

$$\int_C g(t) dt = 0 \text{ or } \int_C \frac{f(t)}{t-z} dt = \int \frac{f(z)}{t-z} dt = \int(z) \int \frac{dt}{t-z} = 2\pi i W(C, z) f(z)$$

The proof of the following lemma is well known:

Lemma. Let  $C$  be any closed or open chain and let  $\varphi(t)$  be a function defined and continuous on  $C$ . The function

$$F(z) = \int_C \frac{\varphi(t)}{(t-z)^n} dt$$

is then defined for all  $z$  not on  $C$  and has the derivative:

$$F'(z) = \int_C \frac{n\varphi(t)}{(t-z)^{n+1}} dt$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h} = \int_C \frac{n\varphi(t)}{(t-z)^{n+1}} dt \\ & = \int_C \frac{(t-z)^{n+1} - (t-z)(t-z-h)^n - nh(t-z-h)^n}{h \cdot (t-z-h)^n (t-z)^{n+1}} \varphi(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

If we expand the polynomial in the numerator and collect the terms free from  $h$  and those of the first power of  $h$ , we see that they cancel. Therefore, the numerator has the form  $h^2 \cdot P(t, z, h)$  where  $P$  is a polynomial in the three variables. Our integral is therefore:

$$h \int_C \frac{P(t, z, h)}{(t-z-h)^n (t-z)^{n+1}} dt.$$

There is now no difficulty in getting from it an estimate of the form  $|h| \cdot M$  where  $M$  is a certain bound. This proves the lemma.

Now suppose  $z_0$  to be an  $R$ -point of  $f(z)$  and take  $C$  as a small circle around  $z_0$ . We find then for all points in the interior of  $C$  and  $\neq z_0$ :

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

According to our lemma, the right side of this formula is a function that is analytic also for  $z = z_0$  so that we get:

THEOREM 5. If  $z_0$  is an R-point of  $f(z)$  we can complete the definition of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$  in such a fashion that the completed function is analytic at  $z_0$ . Or, an R-point is a removable singularity of  $f(z)$ .

This theorem makes superfluous the mentioning of R-points in the preceding theorems.

Another application of our lemma is the fact that an analytic function has an infinity of derivations, and also the generalized formulas of Cauchy:

$$2\pi i W(C, z) f^{(n)}(z) = n! \int_C \frac{f(t)}{(t-z)^{n+1}} dt.$$

We turn now to a discussion of the zeros of a function.

If  $f(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0$  and  $f(z_0) = 0$ , then  $z_0$  is called a zero of  $f(z)$ .

The quotient  $\varphi(z) = \frac{f(z)}{z-z_0} = \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z-z_0}$  is analytic in  $D$  except at  $z = z_0$ . Since  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \varphi(z) = f'(z_0)$  the point  $z_0$  is an R-point of  $\varphi(z)$ . This shows:

THEOREM 6. If  $z_0$  is a zero of  $f(z)$  we can find a function  $\varphi(z)$  analytic in  $D$  (especially at  $z_0$  itself) such that  $f(z) = (z - z_0)\varphi(z)$ . In other words,  $f(z)$  is "divisible" by  $z - z_0$ .

We must now decide whether an analytic function can be divisible by an arbitrarily high power of  $z - z_0$ , that is, if we can find for every  $n$  a function  $\varphi_n(z)$  analytic in  $D$  such that

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^n \varphi_n(z).$$

Such a point might be called a zero of infinite order.

In this case we draw a circle  $|z - z_0| \leq r$  that belongs completely to  $D$  and call its periphery  $C$ . Then

$\varphi_n(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{\varphi_n(t)}{t-z} dt$  for any point  $z$  in the interior of  $C$ . This leads to

$$f(z) = \frac{(z-z_0)^n}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(t)dt}{(t-z)(t-z_0)^n}$$

and to the estimate

$$|f(z)| \leq \left(\frac{|z-z_0|}{r}\right)^n \frac{Mr}{\delta} \quad \text{for } |z-z_0| < r$$

where  $M = \text{Max } |f(z)|$  on  $C$  and  $\delta = \text{distance of } z \text{ and } C$ . If we keep  $z$  fixed we get  $f(z) = 0$  for  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence  $f(z) = 0$  in any circle around  $z_0$  that belongs completely to  $D$  and obviously any  $z$  in such a circle is now also a zero of infinite order. Indeed if  $z_1$  is within this circle and if we define

$$\psi_n(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{in our circle} \\ \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_1)^n} & \text{outside} \end{cases}$$

then  $\psi_n(z)$  is analytic in  $D$  and  $f(z) = (z-z_1)^n \psi_n(z)$ . Call  $z_2$  any point in  $D$  that can be connected with  $z_0$  by an arc  $A$  in  $D$ . Let  $\rho$  be the distance of  $A$  and  $\bar{D}$  and subdivide  $A$  into arcs of diameter  $\leq \frac{\rho}{2}$ . Then any point on the first part is a zero of infinite order, therefore, any point on the second part, and so on. Consequently,  $f(z_2) = 0$ .

This is now the point where the usual restriction of analytic functions becomes understandable. We assume that  $D$  is not only an open set but is also connected. Then we find

**THEOREM 7.** The only analytic function with a zero of infinite order is the constant 0.

If we exclude this exceptional case of the constant 0 there will always be a maximal  $n$  such that  $f(z) = (z-z_0)^n \varphi_n(z)$  and  $\varphi_n(z)$  analytic at  $z_0$ . Then  $\varphi_n(z_0) \neq 0$  or else  $\varphi_n(z)$  in turn would be divisible by  $z-z_0$  and we could therefore

increase our  $n$ . Because of its continuity  $\varphi_n(z)$  is  $\neq 0$  not only at  $z_0$  but also in a certain neighborhood of it. Within this neighborhood  $f(z) = (z - z_0)^n \varphi_n(z)$  vanishes only at  $z_0$ . The point  $z_0$  is called a zero of order  $n$  and we have

**THEOREM 8.** Every zero of  $f(z)$  is isolated and of finite order unless  $f(z)$  is identically 0.

This is the well known theorem about the uniqueness of analytic continuation.

We derive finally the classification of isolated singularities by Riemann and Weierstrass.

$z_0$  is called an isolated singularity of  $f(z)$  if the function is analytic in a certain neighborhood of  $z_0$  with exception of  $z_0$  itself.

Now assume the existence of a complex number  $a$  and of a certain neighborhood of  $z_0$  such that  $f(z)$  does not come arbitrarily close to  $a$  in that neighborhood, in other words, that  $|f(z) - a| \geq \eta$  for a certain  $\eta > 0$ .

The function  $\varphi(z) = \frac{1}{f(z) - a}$  is then regular in this neighborhood except for  $z_0$  itself. Since  $|\varphi(z)| \leq \frac{1}{\eta}$  the point  $z_0$  is an R-point of  $\varphi(z)$ , and  $\varphi(z)$  may be considered analytic at  $z_0$ . Now:

$$f(z) = a + \frac{1}{\varphi(z)} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{f(z)} = \frac{\varphi(z)}{a\varphi(z) + 1} = \psi(z).$$

In case  $\varphi(z_0) \neq 0$  the first formula shows that  $f(z)$  can be defined at  $z_0$  in such a way that it is analytic there.

Should  $\varphi(z_0) = 0$ , then  $\psi(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0$  and  $\psi(z_0) = 0$ . Assume  $\psi(z) = (z - z_0)^n \chi(z)$  with  $\chi(z_0) \neq 0$  and we get:

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^{-n} \cdot \frac{1}{\chi(z)}$$

with an analytic  $\phi(z)$  and  $\phi(z_0) \neq 0$ . This is the case of a pole of order  $n$ .

Excluding the case of a regular  $f(z)$  and the case of a pole,  $z_0$  is an essential singularity.  $f(z)$  must then come arbitrarily close to any complex number  $a$  in any neighborhood of  $z_0$ .