

Lecture 28: The Picard Theorems

I. The monodromy theorem

A function element is a pair (f, U) , U a region in \mathbb{P}^1 and $f \in \text{Hol}(U)$. Two elements (f, U) & (g, V) are said to be direct analytic continuations of each other if $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$ and $f|_{U \cap V} \equiv g|_{U \cap V}$. This generates an equivalence relation,

$(f, U) \equiv (g, V) \iff$ they are connected by a chain of direct analytic continuations.
def.

An equivalence class of function elements is called a global analytic function. Very roughly speaking, the point of view taken on Riemann surfaces in Chapter 8 of Ahlfors is that they are the "graphs" of these global analytic functions (obviously multivalued), "completed at branch points". Theorem 4 of this chapter gives a 1-to-1 identification between algebraic curves

$$\{(w, z) \mid P(w, z) = 0\} \subset \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \quad (P \text{ polynomial})$$

and global analytic functions with finitely many sheets/branches and algebraic singularities.

Still produces a continuation, and it's clear that it is the restriction of the other two. (Crucial here is that the D_i 's are, while not disks, connected.) If we add some $c \in (a_k, a_{k+1})$ to Π , then we may choose (f_k, D_k) for both subintervals $[a_k, c]$ and $[c, a_{k+1}]$. Done. \square

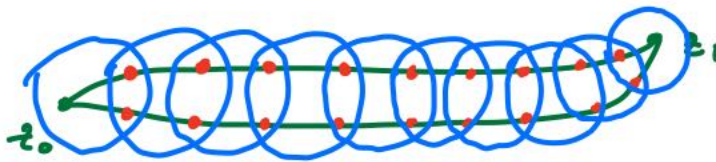
Theorem 1 ("The monodromy theorem") Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{P}^1$ be a connected open set; and take f to be an analytic germ at $z_0 \in \Omega$, admitting analytic continuation along any path in Ω . Then given any two paths $\gamma, \eta \subset \Omega$ from z_0 to $z_1 \in \Omega$, homotopic in Ω , the terminal germs f_γ and f_η are equal.

Proof: Let $\Psi: [a, b] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$ be a homotopy (with $\Psi(a, s) = z_0$, $\Psi(b, s) = z_1$ ($\forall s$), and $\Psi(t, 0) = \gamma$, $\Psi(t, 1) = \eta$). Using the uniform continuity of Ψ (and the finite distance from image(Ψ) to $\partial\Omega$), there exists a partition

$$0 = s_0 < s_1 < \dots < s_m = 1$$

such that successive $\Psi(t, s_j)$ are "close together": that is, there exists a choice of the a_i and $D_i \subset \Omega$ such that $\Psi([a_i, a_{i+1}], s_j)$ and $\Psi([a_i, a_{i+1}], s_{j+1})$ are contained

in D_i .



The Theorem follows (using the Proposition, of course). □

Example // The dilogarithm

$$\text{Li}_2(z) := \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{z^k}{k^2}$$

exhibits interesting "monodromy" (= continuation properties, often around a "singular point" through which continuation is impossible). Continued once around $z=1$, it becomes

$$\text{Li}_2(z) + 2\pi i \cdot \log(z),$$

which is no longer analytic at 0 !! If γ denotes the commutator $\gamma_1^{-1} \gamma_0^{-1} \gamma_1 \gamma_0$



then the continuation along γ gives

$$\text{Li}_2(z) \xrightarrow{\gamma_0} \text{Li}_2(z) \xrightarrow{\gamma_1} \text{Li}_2(z) - 2\pi i \log(z)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\gamma_0^{-1}} \text{Li}_2(z) - 2\pi i (\log(z) - 2\pi i)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\gamma_1^{-1}} \text{Li}_2(z) + 2\pi i \log(z) - 2\pi i (\log(z) - 2\pi i) = \text{Li}_2(z) - 4\pi^2.$$

This path is homologous but not homotopic to zero in

$\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, 1\} = \Omega$, which emphasizes the importance of

"homotopic" in the Theorem. //

II. Little Picard

We now use the monodromy theorem and one product of our discussion of modular forms (the λ function) to prove the following major result.

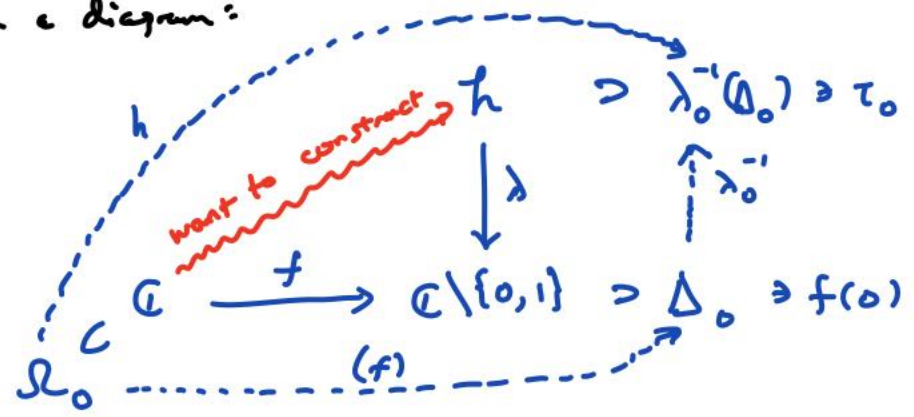
Theorem 2 $f \in \text{Hol}(\mathbb{C})$ with $f(\mathbb{C}) \subset \mathbb{C} \setminus \{a, b\}$ ^(distinct) is constant.

Proof: Replacing f by $\frac{f(z) - a}{b - a}$, it suffices to do the case $a = 1, b = 0$, so that $f(\mathbb{C}) \subset \mathbb{P}^1 \setminus \{0, 1, \infty\}$... which happens to be the range of the λ -function! There exists $\tau_0 \in \mathfrak{h}$ ^(say, in \mathfrak{F}_2) with $\lambda(\tau_0) = f(0)$; and since λ is 1-1 on \mathfrak{F}_2 , $\lambda'(\tau_0) \neq 0$. So there is a local inverse $\lambda_0^{-1}: \Delta_0 \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$, where $\Delta_0 \ni f(0)$ is a small disk. Take Ω_0 to be the component of $f^{-1}(\Delta_0)$ containing 0, and set

$$h := \lambda_0^{-1} \circ f : \Omega_0 \rightarrow \lambda_0^{-1}(\Delta_0) \subset \mathfrak{h}$$

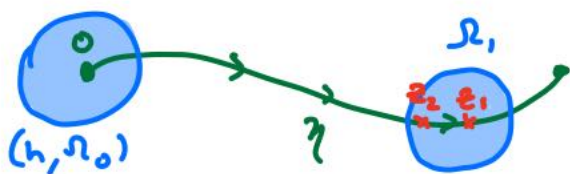
$0 \longmapsto \tau_0$

In a diagram:



We need something stronger than "h can be analytically continued along all paths in \mathbb{C} " — we want this AND that all analytic continuations remain with image in \mathfrak{h} .

Suppose otherwise: then there exists a path γ



where analytic continuation is not possible past z_1 , OR $\text{Im}(h)$ becomes non-positive there. Now, $\exists \tau_1 \in \mathfrak{h}$ s.t. $\lambda(\tau_1) = f(z_1)$, and repeating the above construction gives $\Delta_1, \lambda_1^{-1}, \Omega_1$, and $\tilde{h}_1 := \lambda_1^{-1} \circ f$ of $\Omega_1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$. Denoting the analytic continuation of h (to z_2) by h , we have (as z_2 "varies to the left of z_1 " in $\gamma \cap \Omega_1$)

$$\lambda(\tilde{h}_1(z_2)) = f(z_2) = \lambda(h(z_2)).$$

Hence, for some $\gamma \in \Gamma(\mathbb{C})$, we have in a neighborhood of z_2

$$h_1 := \gamma \circ \tilde{h}_1 = h.$$

(A priori, we could have a different γ for each z_2 , s.t. $\gamma(\tilde{h}_1(z_2)) = h(z_2)$; but \tilde{h}_1 and h vary continuously and γ cannot.) But then h_1 continues h past z_1 with $\text{Im}(h_1) > 0$, a contradiction.

Therefore h continues along every path in \mathbb{C} ,

with positive imaginary part. By the monodromy theorem and simple-connectedness of \mathbb{C} , it continues to an entire function

$$H: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}.$$

But then e^{iH} is bounded, hence (by Liouville) constant.

So H hence $f = \lambda \circ H$ is constant. □

III. Montel's normality criterion

This will be required for the proof of "big Picard".

Theorem 3 Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a connected open set,

$a \neq b \in \mathbb{C}$ distinct, $\mathcal{F}_i := \{f \in \text{Hol}(\Omega) \mid f(\Omega) \subset \mathbb{C} \setminus \{a, b\}\}$.

Then \mathcal{F}_i is a normal family "in the classical sense":

any sequence $\{f_n\} \subset \mathcal{F}_i$ has a subsequence which either converges normally or tends "to the constant ∞ " uniformly on compact subsets.

Remarks: (a) As above, we may assume $a=1, b=0$.

(b) We may assume $\Omega = D_i$. (Normality is a local property:

any Ω is covered with a countable collection of balls, and if any $\{f_n\} \subset \mathcal{F}_i$ has a subsequence converging on D_i normally in this sense, a subsubsequence converges normally on $D_1 \cup D_2$, etc., then the diagonal subsequence converges normally on all disks; and any compact K can be written as a union of finitely many compact $K_i \subset D_i$.)

(c) We may replace \mathcal{F}_i by $\mathcal{F}_1 := \{f \in \mathcal{F}_i \mid |f(0)| \leq 1\}$.

(Given $\{f_n\} \subset \mathcal{F}_i$, either a subsequence lies in \mathcal{F}_1 , or in $1/\sigma_{f_n}$. Suppose we are in the latter setting: i.e.

$1/f_{n_k} \in \mathcal{F}_1$, and we have proved the result for \mathcal{F}_1 .)

Since the f_{n_k} don't have 0 in their range, $1/f_{n_k}$ are holomorphic; and by Hurwitz, a subsequence of the f_{n_k} either go normally to 0, a nowhere-zero holomorphic function, or ∞ . Therefore the same applies to $1/f_{n_k}$.

(d) If \mathcal{M} is a set of functions, holomorphic on D , with range in \mathcal{H} , then \mathcal{M} is normal in the classical sense. This was a HW problem, but I give the proof anyway:

Given $\{g_n\} \subset \mathcal{M}$, $|e^{ig_n}| < 1 \Rightarrow e^{ig_n}$ holo. + uniformly bounded
 $\xrightarrow{\text{usual normal}} \exists$ normally convergent subsequence $\exp(ig_{n_k})$, with uniform limit 0 or e^{ig} (not $\neq 0$) by Hurwitz.
 (Here g exists b/c D is simply connected.) In the first case, $g_{n_k} \xrightarrow[\text{on compact}]{\text{unif.}} i\infty$; in the second, there are actually 2 possibilities. Let K be compact; then $e^{ig(K)} \subset$ compact annulus $\Rightarrow g(K)$ is contained in a compact rectangle in \mathcal{H} . One has from the uniform convergence $e^{ig_{n_k}|_K} \rightarrow e^{ig|_K}$ that $g_{n_k}|_K$ goes "uniformly to $g|_K \text{ mod } 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$ ". From this, either $g_{n_k}|_K$ has a subsequence $\xrightarrow{\text{unif.}} g|_K + m$ OR a subsequence with $\pm \operatorname{Re}(g_{n_k}) \xrightarrow{\text{unif.}} \infty$. \square

Proof of Theorem 3: So assume

$$\mathcal{H}_1 := \{f \in \mathcal{H}(D_1) \mid f(D_1) \subset \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, 1\}, |f(z)| \leq 1\}.$$

We need to produce a (classically) normally convergent subsequence of a given $\{f_n\} \subset \mathcal{F}_c$. Since $\{|f_n(0)|\} \subset \overline{D}_1$, $\exists \{f_{n_k}\}$ st. $f_{n_k}(0) \rightarrow \mu \in \overline{D}_1$.

CASE 1 ($\mu \neq 0, 1$) Fixing a branch of λ^{-1} in a neighborhood of μ , define $\hat{f}_{n_k} :=$ analytic continuation of $\lambda^{-1} \circ f_{n_k}$ (a priori defined in nbhd. of 0) as in $\mathcal{Q}II$. Since $\hat{f}_{n_k} : D_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{h}$, by Remark (d) $\exists \hat{f}_{n_k_j}$ converging normally to a (necessarily analytic, nonzero[†]) limit function g . A priori, $g(D_1) \subset \overline{\mathcal{h}}$; but since $g(0) = \lambda^{-1}(\mu) \in \mathcal{h}$ and D_1 is open, the open mapping thm. $\Rightarrow g(D_1) \subset \mathcal{h} \Rightarrow \lambda \circ g$ defined, and $f_{n_k_j} = \lambda \circ \hat{f}_{n_k_j} \xrightarrow{j \rightarrow \infty} \lambda \circ g$.

CASE 2 ($\mu = 1$) Let $h_k = \sqrt{f_{n_k}}$ be chosen so that $h_k(0) \rightarrow -1$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. (We can take $\sqrt{\cdot}$ b/c D_1 is simply connected, and f_{n_k} is nowhere 0.) Then h_k omits 0 & 1, $|h_k(0)| \leq 1$, $h_k(D_1) \subset \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, 1\}$. So we're back in Case 1. Squaring the normally convergent $h_{k_j} \Rightarrow f_{k_j}$ conv. normally.

† it can't be $\equiv 0$ or $\equiv \infty$ b/c $\mu \in \overline{D}_1^*$.

CASE 3 ($\mu = 0$) Let $\tilde{h}_k = 1 - f_{n_k}$; then in Case 2.

This completes the proof.



One can see this Montel theorem as an example of the heuristic (if in general false)

"Bloch principle" that properties which force entire functions to be constant also force families of functions to be normal.

IV. Big Picard

Theorem 4 Let $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a connected open set containing z_0 , and $f \in \text{Hol}(U \setminus \{z_0\})$ have an essential singularity at z_0 . Then f omits at most one value $a \in \mathbb{C}$.

Corollary In a neighborhood of an essential singularity, an analytic function takes every complex value, with possibly one exception, infinitely often.

Proof of Corollary (assuming Theorem): Take $z_1 \in U$ where $f(z_1) = b \neq a$. (This exists by the Theorem.) Then take a disk about z_0 excluding z_1 ; applying Theorem 4 again, $\exists z_2$ in that disk where $f(z_2) = b$; and so on. □

Note that the Corollary strengthens Casarati-Weierstrass, which merely asserts that the range of f was dense in \mathbb{C} . The Theorem also implies Little Picard, since in that result the case of an essential singularity

∞ is the only nontrivial one. (Otherwise we can use the fundamental theorem of algebra, since $f \in \text{Hol}(\mathbb{C})$ with a pole at ∞ is a polynomial.)

Proof of Theorem 4: wlog assume $U = D_1$, $z_0 = 0$, f omits $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$, & show 0 is a pole or removable singularity of f .

Suppose 0 is NOT a pole: i.e., $\exists M$ and $z_n \rightarrow 0$ s.t. $|f(z_n)| \leq M$ ($\forall n$). There exists a subsequence $f(z_{n_k}) \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} w \in \mathbb{C}$. We may assume $|z_{n_k}|$ strictly decreasing and that $|z_{n_k}| < \frac{1}{2}$ ($\forall k$).

Set $\lambda_k := 2z_{n_k}$, and consider the sequence of functions

$$f_k : D_1^* \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{a, b\}$$

defined by $f_k(z) := f(\lambda_k z)$. By Theorem 3, passing to a subsequence if necessary, f_k converges normally to a holomorphic function or to ∞ . In fact, it can't converge to ∞ , because $f_k(\frac{1}{2}) = f(z_{n_k}) \rightarrow w$.

Write F for the limit function.

Now put $K_k := \max_{|z| = \frac{1}{2}} |f_k(z)|$ ($= \max_{|z| = |z_{n_k}|} |f(z)|$).

Since $f_k \xrightarrow{\text{unif.}} F$ on the compact set $|z| = \frac{1}{2}$,

and $\max_{|z|=\frac{1}{2}} |f(z)| < \infty$, we get $K := \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} K_k < \infty$.

By the MHP, however, we have

$$\|f(z)\|_{\overline{A}(z_{n_k}, z_{n_{k+1}})} \leq \max\{K_{k-1}, K_k\} \leq K$$

\leftarrow annulus
 $|z_{n_k}| \leq |z| \leq |z_{n_{k+1}}|$

$$\Rightarrow \|f(z)\|_{\mathcal{D}_{2d}^*} \leq K$$

$\Rightarrow 0$ is a removable singularity,

done.

