# **Complex Analysis Problem Set 3**

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# 1 Problems From Tie

# 1.1 1

Prove that if f has two Laurent series expansions,

$$f(z) = \sum c_n(z-a)^n$$
 and  $f(z) = \sum c'_n(z-a)^n$ 

then  $c_n = c'_n$ .

# 1.1.1 Solution

By taking the difference of two such expansions, it suffices to show that if f is identically zero and  $f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n(z-a)^n$  about some point a, then  $c_n = 0$  for all n.

Under this assumption, let  $D_{\varepsilon}(a)$  be a disc about a and  $\gamma$  be any contoured contained in its interior. Then for each n, we can apply the formula

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - a)^{n+1}} d\xi$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{0}{(\xi - a)^{n+1}} d\xi \quad \text{by assumption}$$
$$= 0.$$

which shows that  $c_n = 0$  for all n.

1 PROBLEMS FROM TIE

1.2 2

# 1.2 2

Find Laurent series expansions of

$$\frac{1}{1 - z^2} + \frac{1}{3 - z}$$

How many such expansions are there? In what domains are each valid?

# 1.2.1 Solution

Note that f has poles at z = -1, 1, 3, all with multiplicity 1, and so there are 3 regions to consider:

- 1. |z| < 1
- 2. 1 < |z| < 3
- 3. 3 < |z|.



**Region 1:** Take the following expansion:

$$\begin{split} f(z) &= \frac{1}{1 - z^2} + \frac{1}{3 - z} \\ &= \sum_{n \ge 0} z^{2n} + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{3}{z}} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n \ge 0} z^{2n} + \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n \ge 0} \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^n z^n \\ &= \sum_{n \ge 0} z^{2n} + \sum_{n \ge 0} \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^{n+1} z^n \end{split}$$

Noting  $\left|z^2\right| < 1$  implies then |z| < 1, and that the first term converges for  $\left|z^2\right| < 1$  and the second for  $\left|\frac{z}{3}\right| < 1 \iff |z| < 3$ , this expansion converges to f on the region |z| < 1.

**Region 2:** Take the following expansion:

$$\begin{split} f(z) &= \frac{1}{1 - z^2} + \frac{1}{3 - z} \\ &= -\frac{1}{z^2} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{z^2}} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z}{3}} \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{z^2} \sum_{n \ge 0} z^{-2n} + \sum_{n \ge 0} \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^{n+1} z^n \\ &= -\sum_{n \ge 2} \frac{1}{z^{2n}} + \sum_{n \ge 0} \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^{n+1} z^n \end{split}$$

By construction, the first term converges for  $\left|\frac{1}{z^2}\right| < 1 \iff |z| > 1$  and the second for |z| < 3.

**Region 3:** Take the following expansion:

$$\begin{split} f(z) &= \frac{1}{1 - z^2} + \frac{1}{3 - z} \\ &= -\frac{1}{z^2} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{z^2}} \right) - \frac{1}{z} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{3}{z}} \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{z^2} \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{1}{z^{2n}} - \frac{1}{z} \sum_{n \ge 0} 3^n \frac{1}{z^n} \\ &= -\sum_{n \ge 2} \frac{1}{z^{2n}} - \sum_{n \ge 1} \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{z^n}. \end{split}$$

Note: in principle, terms could be collected here.

By construction, this converges on  $\{|z|^2 > 1\} \bigcap \{|z| > 3\} = \{|z| > 3\}.$ 

1.3 3

Let P, Q be polynomials with no common zeros. Assume a is a root of Q. Find the principal part of P/Q at z=a in terms of P and Q if a is (1) a simple root, and (2) a double root.

#### 1.3.1 Solution

We'll use the following definition: if  $f: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$  is analytic with Laurent expansion  $f(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k (z-a)^k$  at the point  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ , then the **principal part** of f at a is given by

$$\sum_{k=-1}^{-\infty} c_k (z-a)^k = c_{-1}(z-a)^{-1} + c_{-2}(z-a)^{-2} + \cdots$$

Without loss of generality (by performing polynomial long division if necessary), assume that deg  $P < \deg Q$ . By the method used in the theorem that proves meromorphic functions are rational, if we let  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  be the finitely many zeros of Q(z), these are the finitely many poles of P(z)/Q(z), and we can write

$$\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} := f(z) = P_{\infty}(z) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} P_{a_i}(z)$$

where  $P_w(z)$  denotes the principal part of f at the point w.

Note that if w is a pole of order  $\ell$ , we can explicitly write

$$P_w(z) = \frac{\alpha_1}{z - w} + \frac{\alpha_2}{(z - w)^2} + \dots + \frac{\alpha_\ell}{(z - w)^\ell}$$

for some constants  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{C}$ , and thus the first equation expresses f in terms of its partial fraction decomposition.

Thus if a is a simple root of Q(z), it is a simple pole of f, and thus we have  $P_a(z) = \frac{\alpha_1}{z-a}$ . Since we can write  $f(z) = P_{\infty}(z) + P_a(z) + \cdots$  where none of the remaining terms involve a, it follows by definition that  $\alpha_1 = \text{Res}(f, a)$  and so

$$P_a(z) = \frac{\operatorname{Res}(f(z), a)}{z - a},$$

where we can note that here  $\operatorname{Res}(f(z), a) = \frac{P(a)}{Q'(a)}$ .

Similarly, if now a is a root of multiplicity 2 of Q(z), a is a pole of order 2 of f and  $P_a(z) = \frac{\alpha_1}{z-a} + \frac{\alpha_2}{(z-a)^2}$ . Thus as before,  $\alpha_1 = \text{Res}(f(z), a)$ , and now  $\alpha_2 = \text{Res}((z-a)f(z), a)$ , and we have

$$P_a(z) = \frac{\text{Res}(f(z), a)}{z - a} + \frac{\text{Res}((z - a)f(z), a)}{(z - a)^2}.$$

# 1.4 4

Let f be non-constant, analytic in |z| > 0, where  $f(z_n) = 0$  for infinitely many points  $z_n$  with  $\lim_{n \to \infty} z_n = 0$ .

Show that z = 0 is an essential singularity for f.

Example:  $f(z) = \sin(1/z)$ .

#### 1.4.1 Solution

We first note that z = 0 is in fact a singularity of f, since the zeros of analytic functions are isolated. Noting that since analytic functions are continuous, we have

$$0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(z_n) = f(\lim_{n \to \infty} z_n) = f(0),$$

and so z=0 can not be a pole because (by definition) this would force  $\lim_{z \to 0} |f(z)| = \infty$ .

Similarly, z=0 can not be removable, since the function

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & z = 0\\ f(z) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

defines an analytic continuation of f, which in particular would be an analytic function with non-isolated zeros, again a contradiction.

# 1.5 5

Show that if f is entire and  $\lim_{z \to \infty} f(z) = \infty$ , then f is a polynomial.

#### 1.5.1 Solution

Since f is entire, it is analytic on  $\mathbb{C}$ , so there is an expansion  $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k z^k$  that converges to f everywhere. Let F(z) = f(1/z); then  $\lim_{z \to 0} F(z) = \infty$  by assumption. This also implies that since  $z = \infty$  is a pole of f, z = 0 is a pole of F, say of order N.

However, we can expand  $F(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k \frac{1}{z^k}$ . Since this is a Laurent expansion for F about z = 0,

which is a pole of order N, we must in fact have  $F(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k \frac{1}{z_k}$ .

This implies that  $f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k z^k$ , making f a polynomial.

#### 1.6 6

a. Show that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \log \left| 1 - e^{i\theta} \right| \, d\theta = 0$$

b. Show that this identity is equivalent to SS 3.8.9:

$$\int_0^1 \log(\sin(\pi x)) \ dx = -\log 2.$$

# 1.6.1 Solution Part (a)

Let I be the integral in question, then substituting  $z = e^{i\theta}$  and  $\frac{dz}{iz} = d\theta$  yields

$$I = \int_{S^1} \frac{\log|1-z|}{iz} \ dz := \Re\left(\int_{S^1} f(z) \ dz\right),$$

where  $f(z) = \log(1-z)/iz$ ,  $S^1$  is the unit circle in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and since by definition

$$\log_{\mathbb{C}}(z) = \log_{\mathbb{R}}(|z|) + i\arg(z)$$

where the subscripts denote the complex and real logarithms respectively, we have

$$\log |1 - z| = \Re(\log_{\mathbb{C}} (1 - z)).$$

So it suffices to show that  $\int_{S^1} f(z) dz = 0$ .

The claim is that z = 0 is a removable singularity and thus f is holomorphic in the unit disc. The singularity is removable because we have

$$\lim_{z \to 0} f(z) = \lim_{z \to 0} \frac{\log(1-z)}{iz}$$

$$= \lim_{z \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{1-z}}{i} \quad \text{by L'Hopital's}$$

$$= -i,$$

so the modified function F defined by F(0) = -i and F(z) = f(z) otherwise is holomorphic, making z = 0 removable.

Since f is also analytic, the Cauchy-Goursat theorem applies and  $\int_{S^1} f = 0$ .

#### 1.6.2 Solution Part (b)

Not sure, possibly just a computation?

# 1.7 7

Let 0 < a < 4 and evaluate

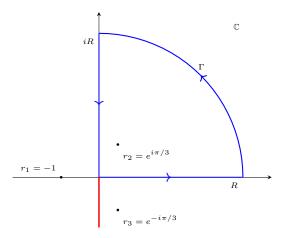
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{x^{\alpha - 1}}{1 + x^3} \ dx$$

# 1.7.1 Solution

Let I denote the integral in question. We will compute this using a closed contour and the residue theorem, so first note that

$$z^{3} + 1 = (z+1)(z-e^{i\pi 3})(z-e^{-i\pi 3}) := (z-r_{1})(z-r_{2})(z-r_{3}).$$

Defining  $z^{\alpha} = e^{\alpha \log z}$  for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , we'll take the following contour  $\Gamma$  shown in blue along with a branch cut for the logarithm function indicated in red:



Letting

$$f(z) \coloneqq \frac{z^{\alpha - 1}}{z^3 + 1} \coloneqq \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)},$$

we find that only  $z = r_2$  will contribute a term to  $\int_{\Gamma} f$ . Noting that each pole is simple of order 1, we have

$$\underset{z=r_{i}}{Res} = \frac{P(r_{i})}{Q'(r_{i})} = \frac{r_{i}^{\alpha-1}}{3r_{i}^{2}} = \frac{r_{i}^{\alpha-3}}{3}$$

We thus have

$$\begin{split} \underset{z=r_2}{\operatorname{Res}} f(z) &= \frac{1}{3} e^{\frac{i\pi(\alpha-3)}{3}} \\ \Longrightarrow \int_{\Gamma} f(z) \ dz &= \frac{2\pi i}{3} e^{\frac{i\pi(\alpha-3)}{3}}. \end{split}$$

We can now compute the contributions to the integral along the semicircular arc and the portion along the imaginary axis.

Along the arc, Jordan's lemma applies since  $\frac{1}{R^3+1} \stackrel{R \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ , and thus this contribution vanishes.

Along the imaginary axis, we can make the following change of variables:

$$\begin{split} \int_{R}^{0} f(iy) \ dy &= -\int_{0}^{R} \frac{(iy)^{\alpha - 1}}{(iy)^{3} + 1} \ dy \\ &= -\frac{1}{i} \int_{0}^{R} \frac{t^{\alpha - 1}}{t^{3} + 1} \ dt \quad t = iz, \ dt = i \ dz \\ &= iI, \end{split}$$

which is i times the original integral.

We thus have

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=r_2} f(z) = \int_{\Gamma} f = \int_{0}^{R} f + \int_{C_R} f + \int_{iR}^{0} f$$

$$\stackrel{R \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} I + 0 + iI = (1+i)I,$$

and so

$$I = \frac{Res_{z=r_2} f(z)}{1+i} = \frac{2\pi i}{3(1+i)} e^{\frac{i\pi(\alpha-3)}{3}}.$$

Note: this seems to be wrong, because plugging in a = 1, 2, 3 doesn't result in a real value.

# 1.8 8

Prove the fundamental theorem of Algebra using

- a. Rouche's Theorem.
- b. The maximum modulus principle.

# 1.8.1 Solution (Rouche)

We want to show that every  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$  has precisely n roots, and we'll use the follow formulation of Rouche's theorem:  $\setminus$ 

#### Theorem 1.1 (Rouche).

If f, g are holomorphic on  $D(z_0)$  with  $f, g \neq 0$  and |f - g| < |f| + |g| on  $\partial D(z_0)$ , then f and g has the same number of zeros within D.

We'll also use without proof the fact that the function  $h(z) = z^n$  has precisely n zeros (counted with multiplicity).

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Suppose  $f(z) = a_n z^n + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0$  where  $a_n \neq 0$  and define  $g(z) = a_n z^n$ . Noting that polynomials are entire, f, g are nonzero by assumption, and

$$|f - g| = |a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0|$$

$$= |a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0 + a_nz^n - a_nz^n|$$

$$\leq |a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0 + a_nz^n| + |a_nz^n| \quad \text{for } |z| > 1(?)$$

$$= |f| + |g|$$

the conditions of Rouche's theorem apply and f has precisely n roots.

# 1.8.2 Solution (Maximum Modulus Principle)

Toward a contradiction, suppose f is non-constant and has no zeros. Then g(z) := 1/f(z) is non-constant and holomorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Using the fact that  $\lim_{z \to \infty} f(z) = \infty$  for any polynomial f, pick r large enough such that

$$z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \overline{D_r}(0) \implies |f(z)| > |f(0)|$$

where  $D_r(0)$  is an open disc of radius r about z=0. Then |g(z)|<|g(0)| for every such z.

Noting that  $\overline{D_r}(0)$  is closed and bounded and thus compact by Heine-Borel, g attains a global maximum in the interior  $D_r^{\circ}$ . But by the maximum modulus principle, this forces g to be constant, and since  $g = \frac{1}{f}$ , it must also be true that f is constant.

# 1.9 9

Let f be analytic in a region D and  $\gamma$  a rectifiable curve in D with interior in D. Prove that if f(z) is real for all  $z \in \gamma$ , then f is constant.

#### 1.9.1 Solution

Since f is analytic in D (wlog assuming  $0 \in D$  by translation), take its series expansion  $f(z) = c_0 + c_1 z + \cdots$  for  $z \in D$ .

Without loss of generality, suppose that  $\gamma$  is not entirely contained in  $\mathbb{R}$ , so for  $z \in \gamma$  we can write z = x + iy where  $y \neq 0$ .

Then

$$f(z) = f(x+iy)$$

$$= c_0 + c_1(x+iy) + \cdots$$

$$= c_0 + c_1x + ic_1y + \cdots \qquad \subset \mathbb{R} \quad \text{by assumption,}$$

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and so we must have  $c_1y = 0 \implies c_1 = 0$ . The same argument applies to further terms in the expansion, so we in fact have  $c_i = 0$  for every  $i \ge 1$ .

But this says  $f(z) = c_0$  for an arbitrary z, i.e. f is constant.

1.10 10

For a > 0, evaluate

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{d\theta}{a + \sin^2 \theta}$$

We have

$$I := \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{1 + \sin^{2}(\theta)} d\theta$$

$$= \int_{\gamma_{1}} \frac{1}{a + \left(\frac{z - z^{-1}}{2i}\right)^{2}} \frac{-i dz}{z} \quad \text{where } \gamma_{1} \text{ is } \frac{1}{4} \text{ of the unit circle } S^{1}$$

$$= -i \int_{\gamma_{1}} \frac{1}{z} \left(\frac{1}{a + \left(-\frac{1}{4}\right)(z^{2} - 2 + z^{-2})}\right) dz$$

$$= 4i \int_{\gamma_{1}} \frac{1}{z} \left(\frac{1}{z^{2} - (2 + 4a) + z^{-2}}\right) dz$$

$$= 4i \int_{\gamma_{1}} \frac{z}{z^{4} - (2 + 4a)z^{2} + 1} dz$$

$$= i \oint_{S^{1}} \frac{z}{z^{4} - (2 + 4a)z^{2} + 1} dz$$

$$= \frac{i}{2} \oint_{2 \cdot S^{1}} \frac{1}{u^{2} - (2 + 4a)u + 1} du \quad \text{using } u = z^{2}, \frac{1}{2} du = z dz$$

$$:= \frac{i}{2} \oint_{2 \cdot S^{1}} \frac{1}{f_{a}(u)} du$$

$$= \frac{i}{2} \cdot 2\pi i \cdot \sum \operatorname{Res}_{u = r_{i}} \frac{1}{f_{a}(u)},$$

where  $2 \cdot S^1$  denotes the contour wrapping around the unit circle twice and  $r_i$  denote the poles contained in the region bounded by  $S^1$ . We can now compute the last integral by the residue theorem.

Factor the denominator as

$$f_a(u) = u^2 - (2+4a)u + 1 = (u-r_1)(u-r_2),$$

where the  $r_i$  are given by  $(1+2a) \pm 4\sqrt{a^2+a}$  using the quadratic formula. We can then write a

partial fraction decomposition

$$\frac{1}{f_a(u)} := \frac{1}{u^2 - (2 + 4a)u + 1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(u - r_1)(u - r_2)}$$

$$= \frac{A}{u - r_1} + \frac{B}{u - r_2}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Res}_{u=r_1} 1/f(u)}{u - r_1} + \frac{\text{Res}_{u=r_2} 1/f(u)}{u - r_2}$$

$$= \frac{1/f'(r_1)}{u - r_1} + \frac{1/f'(r_2)}{u - r_2}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8\sqrt{a^2 + a}(u - r_1)} + \frac{1}{8\sqrt{a^2 + a}(u - r_2)}.$$

Since  $|r_2| = \left| (1+2a) + 4\sqrt{a^2 + a} \right| > 1$ , we find that the only relevant pole inside of  $S^1$  is  $r_1$ . Reading off the residue from the above decomposition, we thus have

$$I = \frac{i}{2} \cdot 2\pi i \cdot \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Res}_{u=r_i} \frac{1}{f_a(u)}$$
$$= -\pi \cdot \underset{u=r_1}{\operatorname{Res}} \frac{1}{f_a(u)}$$
$$= \frac{\pi}{8\sqrt{a^2 + a}}.$$

Note: I know I'm off by a constant here at least, since a=1 should reduce to  $\pi/2\sqrt{2}$ .

# 1.11 11

Find the number of roots of  $p(z) = 4z^4 - 6z + 3$  in |z| < 1 and 1 < |z| < 2 respectively.

For |z| < 1, take f(z) = -6z and  $g(z) = z^4 + 3$ , noting that f + g = p. Using the maximum modulus principal, we know that the max/mins of f, g occur on |z| = 1, on which we have

$$|g(z)| = 4 < 6 = |f(z)|,$$

so Rouche's theorem applies and both p and f have the same number of zeros. Since f clearly has one zero, p has one zero in this region.

Now consider |z| < 2 and set  $f(z) = z^4$  and g(z) = -6z + 3. By a similar argument, we have

$$|g(z)| = 15 < 16 = |f|$$

on |z| = 2, and thus f and p have the same number of zeros in this region. Since f has **four** zeros here, so does p.

Thus  $p \text{ has } 4 - 1 = 3 \text{ zeros on } 1 \le |z| \le 2.$ 

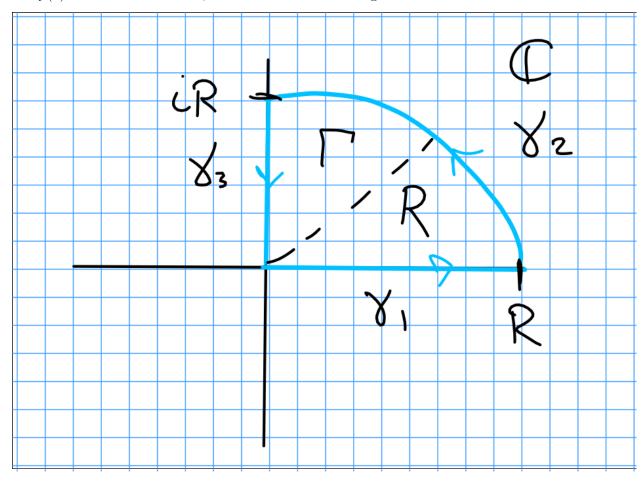
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# 1.12 12

Prove that  $z^4 + 2z^3 - 2z + 10$  has exactly one root in each open quadrant.

#### **1.12.1 Solution**

Let  $f(z) = z^4 + 2z^3 - 2z + 10$ , and consider the following contour:



By the argument principle, we have

$$\Delta_{\Gamma} \arg f(z) = 2\pi (Z - P),$$

where Z is the number of zeros of f in the region  $\Omega$  enclosed by  $\Gamma$  and P is the number of poles in  $\Omega$ . Since polynomials are holomorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$ , by the argument principle it suffices to show that

- $\bullet$  f does not have any roots on the real or imaginary axes
- f does not vanish on  $\Gamma$ , and
- $\Delta_{\Gamma} \arg f(z) = 1$ , where  $\Delta_{\Gamma}$  denotes the total change in the argument of f over  $\Gamma$ .

It will follow by symmetry that f has exactly one root in each quadrant.

#### Claim 1.2.

- f has no roots on the coordinate axes.
- $\Delta_{\gamma_1} \arg f(z) = 0$
- $\Delta_{\gamma_2} \arg f(z) = 2\pi$
- $\Delta_{\gamma_3} \arg f(z) = 0$

Given the claim, we would have

$$\Delta_{\Gamma} \arg f(z) = 2\pi = 2\pi (Z - 0) \implies Z = 1,$$

which is what we wanted to show.

#### **Proof of Claim:**

 $\gamma_2$ : For  $R \gg 0$ , we have  $f(z) \sim z^4$ . Along  $\gamma_2$ , the argument of z ranges from 0 to  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , and thus the argument of  $z^4$  ranges from 0 to  $4 \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} = 2\pi$ .

 $\gamma_1$ : By cases, for  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

• If |z| > 1, then  $z^3 > z$  and so

$$f(z) = (z^{4} + 10) + (2z^{3} - 2z)$$

$$> (z^{4} + 10) + (2z - 2z)$$

$$= z^{4} + 10$$

$$> 0,$$

so f is strictly positive and does not change argument on  $(\pm 1, \pm \infty)$  or  $i \cdot (\pm 1, \pm \infty)$ .

• If  $|z| \le 1$ ,

$$\left| -z^4 - 2z^3 + 2z \right| \le |z|^4 + 2|z|^3 + 2|z|$$

$$\le 1 + 2 + 2$$

$$= 5$$

$$< 10$$

$$\implies f(z) = 10 - (-z^4 - 2z^3 + 2z) > 0,$$

so f is strictly positive and does not change argument  $(0, \pm 1)$  or  $i \cdot (0, \pm 1)$ .

# 1.13 13

Prove that for a > 0,  $z \tan z - a$  has only real roots.

#### 1.14 14

Let f be nonzero, analytic on a bounded region  $\Omega$  and continuous on its closure  $\overline{\Omega}$ . Show that if  $|f(z)| \equiv M$  is constant for  $z \in \partial \Omega$ , then  $f(z) \equiv M e^{i\theta}$  for some real constant  $\theta$ .

#### 1.14.1 **Solution**

By the maximum modulus principle applied to f in  $\overline{\Omega}$ , we know that  $\max |f| = M$ . Similarly, the maximum modulus principle applied to  $\frac{1}{f}$  in  $\overline{\Omega}^c$  since f is nonzero in  $\Omega$ , and we can conclude that  $\min |f| = M$  as well. Thus |f| = M is constant on  $\overline{\Omega}$ .

So consider the function g(z) = |f(z)|; from the above observation, we find that  $g(\overline{\Omega}) = \{M\}$ . Letting  $S_M$  be the circle of radius M, this implies that  $f(\Omega) \subseteq S_M$ . In particular,  $S_M \subset \mathbb{C}$  is a closed set.

However, by the open mapping theorem,  $f(\Omega) \subset \mathbb{C}$  must be an open set. A basis for the topology on  $\mathbb{C}$  is given by open discs, so in particular, the open sets of  $\mathbb{C}$  have real dimension either zero or two. Since  $S_M$  has real dimension 1,  $f(\Omega)$  must have dimension zero and is thus a collection of points. Since f is continuous, the image can only be one point, i.e.  $f(\Omega) = \{pt\} \in S_M$ . So f is constant.

# 2 Stein and Shakarchi

#### 2.1 S&S 3.8.1

Using Euler's formula

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

show that the complex zeros of  $\sin(\pi z)$  are exactly the integers, each of order one. Calculate the residue of  $\frac{1}{\sin(\pi z)}$  at  $z = n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

#### 2.2 S&S 3.8.2

Evaluate the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{dx}{1+x^4}$$

What are the poles of the integrand?

# 2.3 S&S 3.8.4

Show that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{\pi e^{-a}}{a} \quad a > 0$$

# 2.4 S&S 3.8.5

Show that for  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{e^{2\pi i x \xi}}{(1+x^2)^2} = \frac{\pi}{2} (1 + 2\pi |\xi|) e^{-2\pi |\xi|}$$

# 2.5 S&S 3.8.6

Show that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{dx}{(1+x^2)^{n+1}} = \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n-1)\pi}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n)}$$

# 2.6 S&S 3.8.7

Show that for a > 1,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{(a + \cos \theta)^2} = \frac{2\pi a}{(a^2 - 1)^{3/2}}$$

# 2.7 S&S 3.8.8

Show that if  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with a > |b| then

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a + b\cos\theta} = \frac{2\pi a}{\sqrt{a^2 - b^2}}$$

# 2.8 S&S 3.8.9

Show that

$$\int_0^1 \log(\sin \pi x) \ dx = -\log 2$$

# 2.9 S&S 3.8.10

Show that if a > 0

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\log x}{x^2 + a^2} \ dx = \frac{\pi \log a}{2a}$$

#### 2.10 S&S 3.8.14

Prove that if f is entire and injective, then f(z) = az + b with  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $a \neq 0$ . Hint: apply the Casorati-Weierstrass theorem to f(1/z).

# 2.11 S&S 3.8.15

Use the Cauchy inequalities or the maximum modulus principle to solve the following problems:

#### 2.11.1 a

If f is entire and for all R > 0, there are constants A, B > 0 such that  $\sup_{|z|=R} |f(z)| \le AR^k + B$ , then f is a polynomial of degree less than k.

#### 2.11.2 b

Show that if f is holomorphic on the unit disk, is bounded, and converges to zero uniformly in the sector  $\theta \le \arg z \le \phi$  as  $|z| \longrightarrow 1$ , then  $f \equiv 0$ .

#### 2.11.3 c

Let  $w_1, \dots, w_n$  be points on  $S^1 \subset \mathbb{C}$ . Show that there exists a point  $z \in S^1$  such that

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} |z - w_i| \ge 1.$$

Conclude that there exists a point  $w \in S^1$  such that

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} |w - w_i| = 1.$$

# 2.11.4 d

Show that if f is entire and  $\Re(f)$  is bounded, then f is constant.

# 2.12 S&S 3.8.17

Let f be non-constant, and holomorphic in an open set containing the open unit disc.

#### 2.12.1 a

Show that  $|z|=1 \implies |f(z)|=1$ , then the image of f contains the unit disc.

Hint: Show that  $f(z) = w_0$  has a root for every  $w_0 \in \mathbb{D}$ , for which it suffices to show that f(z) = 0 has a root, then use the maximum modulus principle.

# 2.12.2 b

Show that if  $|z| \ge 1 \implies |f(z)| = 1$  and there exists a point  $z_0 \in \mathbb{D}$  such that  $|f(z_0)| < 1$ , then the image of f contains the unit disc.

# 2.13 S&S 3.8.19

Prove the maximum modulus principle for harmonic functions; i.e.,

# 2.13.1 a

If u is a non-constant real-valued harmonic function on  $\Omega$ , then u can not attain its extrema on  $\Omega$ .

#### 2.13.2 b

Suppose  $\Omega$  has compact closure  $\overline{\Omega}$ , then if u is harmonic on  $\Omega$  and continuous on  $\overline{\Omega}$ , then

$$\sup_{z\in\Omega}|u(z)|\leq \sup_{z\in\overline{\Omega}-\Omega}|u(z)|$$

Hint: to prove (a), assume that u attains a local maximum at  $z_0$ , and let f be holomorphic near  $z_0$  with  $u = \Re(f)$ , then show that f is not open. Part (b) is a direct consequence.