

### Solutions for Problem Set #4

due October 10, 2003

Dustin Cartwright

(B&N 4.3) Evaluate  $\int_C f$  where  $f(z) = 1/z$  as in Example 2, and  $C$  is given by  $z(t) = \sin t + i \cos t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Why is the result different from that of Example 2? (not graded)

We can substitute the path given:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C f dz &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{z} \frac{dz}{dt} dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sin t + i \cos t} (\cos t - i \sin t) dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(\cos t - i \sin t)(\sin t - i \cos t)}{(\sin t + i \cos t)(\sin t - i \cos t)} dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\cos t \sin t - i \sin^2 t - i \cos^2 t - \sin t \cos t}{\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t} dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} -i dt \\ &= -2\pi i\end{aligned}$$

This is different because the path makes the circle in the opposite direction, so it has the opposite sign.

(B&N 4.8) Show that  $\int_C z^k dz = 0$  for any integer  $k \neq -1$  and  $C : z = Re^{i\theta}, i \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ .

- a. by showing that  $z^k$  is the derivative of a function analytic throughout  $C$ . (10 points)

Define  $F(z) = z^{k+1}/(k+1)$  which is defined an analytic for  $\mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ . The derivative is  $z^k$ , which is equal to  $f$ . Therefore a integral of  $f$  is defined by the difference between the values of  $F$  at the endpoints. Since the endpoints are the same, the difference, and thus the integral are 0.

- b. directly, using the parametrization of  $C$ . (10 points)

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_C z^k dz &= \int_0^{2\pi} (Re^{i\theta})^k i Re^{i\theta} d\theta \\
&= R^{k+1} i \int_0^{2\pi} e^{(k+1)i\theta} d\theta \\
&= R^{k+1} i \left[ \frac{1}{(k+1)i} e^{(k+1)i\theta} \right]_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \\
&= 0
\end{aligned}$$

because  $k + 1$  is a non-zero integer, so  $e^{(k+1)i2\pi} = 1 = e^0$ .

(B&N 5.3)  $f$  is called an odd function if  $f(z) = -f(-z)$  for all  $z$ ;  $f$  is called even if  $f(z) = f(-z)$ .

a. Show that an odd entire function has only odd terms in its power series about  $z = 0$ . (not graded)

Since  $f$  is odd,

$$f(z) = \frac{f(z) + f(z)}{2} = \frac{f(z) - f(-z)}{2}$$

If we suppose  $f$  has the power series expansion  $\sum a_n z^n$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}
f(z) &= \frac{\sum a_n z^n - \sum a_n (-1)^n z^n}{2} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} 2a_n z^n \\
&= \sum_{n \text{ odd}} a_n z^n
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, since power series are unique,  $f$ 's power series has only odd coefficients.

b. Prove an analogous result for even functions. (not graded)

Since  $f$  is even,

$$f(z) = \frac{f(z) + f(z)}{2} = \frac{f(z) + f(-z)}{2}$$

If we suppose  $f$  has the power series expansion  $\sum a_n z^n$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{\sum a_n z^n + \sum a_n (-1)^n z^n}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \text{ even}} 2a_n z^n \\ &= \sum_{n \text{ even}} a_n z^n \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, since power series are unique,  $f$ 's power series has only even coefficients.

An alternative way to prove these two statements at once is to use induction. First note that if  $f$  is odd,  $f(0) = f(-0) = -f(0)$ , so  $f(0)$  must equal 0. Now, if  $f$  is odd, then by the chain rule,

$$f'(z) = \frac{df(z)}{dz} = \frac{d(-f(-z))}{dz} = -f'(-z)(-1) = f'(-z)$$

Therefore  $f'$  is an even function. Furthermore, if  $g$  is even, then

$$g'(z) = \frac{dg(z)}{dz} = \frac{dg(-z)}{dz} = g'(-z)(-1) = -g'(-z)$$

so  $g'$  is odd. Therefore, by induction,  $f^{(2k)}(0) = 0$ , and  $g^{(2k+1)}(0) = 0$ , so the corresponding power series coefficients are zero. Thus,  $f$  has only odd terms, and  $g$  has only even terms.

(B&N 5.6a.) *Suppose an entire function  $f$  is bounded by  $M$  along  $|z| = R$ . Show that the coefficients  $C_k$  in its power series expansion about 0 satisfy*

$$|C_k| \leq \frac{M}{R^k}$$

(10 points)

By the proof of the existence of a Taylor Series, the  $k$ th coefficient is:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z^{k+1}} dz$$

Now we apply the ML-inequality. The absolute value of the inside of the integral is

$$\frac{|f(z)|}{R^{k+1}}$$

because  $|z| = R$  by hypothesis. So, the maximum value of this is  $MR^{-(k+1)}$ . Since the length of the path is  $2\pi R$ , the absolute value of the  $k$ th coefficient is

$$\leq \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \right| 2\pi R \frac{M}{R^{k+1}} = \frac{M}{R^k}$$

b. *Suppose a polynomial is bounded by 1 in the unit disc. Show that all its coefficients are bounded by 1. (5 points)*

Apply the result from part a, with  $R = 1$ ,  $M = 1$ .

(B&N 5.7) *An alternate proof of Liouville's Theorem. Suppose that  $|f(z)| \leq A + B|z|^k$  and that  $f$  is entire. Show then that all the coefficients  $C_j, j > k$ , in its power series expansion are 0. (10 points)*

Apply the result from problem 5.6a, to find a bound on  $C_j$ . With an arbitrary value of  $R$ , we can take  $M = A + BR^k$ , so that:

$$C_j \leq \frac{A + BR^k}{R^j} = \frac{A}{R^j} + \frac{B}{R^{j-k}}$$

Since  $j > k \geq 0$ , the right side gets arbitrarily close to 0 as  $R$  gets large. Therefore,  $C_j$  must be 0.

(B&N 5.12) *Show that every real polynomial is equal to a product of real linear and quadratic polynomials. (10 points)*

Let  $p$  be an arbitrary real polynomial. By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, we can write  $p(x) = k(x - \alpha_1) \dots (x - \alpha_n)$ , where the  $\{\alpha_i\}$  are the roots of  $p$ . By a previous homework problem, if  $\alpha_i$  is a root then  $\overline{\alpha_i}$  is also a root. There are two possibilities. If  $\alpha_i$  is real, then  $(x - \alpha_i)$  is a real polynomial factor. If not, then we can pair each non-real root with its conjugates to get factors of the form:

$$(x - \alpha_i)(x - \overline{\alpha_i}) = x^2 - 2\operatorname{Re}(\alpha_i)x + |\alpha_i|^2$$

which is a real quadratic factor. Thus,  $p$  can be written as the product of real linear and quadratic terms.

(B&N 4.6) *Show that if  $f$  is a continuous real-valued function and  $f \ll 1$ , then*

$$\int_{|z|=1} f(z) dz \ll 4$$

(5 points extra credit)

*Note:* For anyone else who was confused by the symbol  $\ll$ , my sources indicate that  $a \ll b$  means  $|a| \leq |b|$  (at least when Bak and Newman use it).

Write  $\int_{|z|=1} f(z) dz$  in polar form as  $Re^{i\phi}$ , with  $R, \phi$  real. If we parametrize the integral in the standard way,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{2\pi} f(e^{i\theta}) ie^{i\theta} d\theta &= Re^{i\phi} \\ i \int_0^{2\pi} f(e^{i\theta}) e^{i(\theta-\phi)} d\theta &= R \\ i \int_0^{2\pi} f(e^{i\theta}) \cos(\theta-\phi) d\theta - \int_0^{2\pi} f(e^{i\theta}) \sin(\theta-\phi) d\theta &= \end{aligned}$$

But, since  $R$  is real, the first term, which is purely imaginary, must be zero. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} |R| &\leq \int_0^{2\pi} |f(e^{i\theta})| |\sin(\theta-\phi)| d\theta \\ &\leq \int_0^{2\pi} |\sin(\theta-\phi)| d\theta \\ &= \int_{-\phi}^{2\pi-\phi} |\sin(\theta)| d\theta \\ &= \int_{-\phi}^0 |\sin(\theta)| d\theta + \int_0^{2\pi-\phi} |\sin(\theta)| d\theta \\ &= \int_{2\pi-\phi}^{2\pi} |\sin(\theta)| d\theta + \int_0^{2\pi-\phi} |\sin(\theta)| d\theta \end{aligned}$$

because  $\sin(\theta)$  is periodic. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^{2\pi} |\sin(\theta)| d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} \sin(\theta) d\theta + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} -\sin(\theta) d\theta \\ &= 2 + 2 = 4 \end{aligned}$$

(B&N 5.10) *Prove that a nonconstant entire function cannot satisfy the two equations:*

i.  $f(z + 1) = f(z)$

ii.  $f(z + i) = f(z)$

for all  $z$ . (5 points extra credit)

Consider the region  $D = \{a + bi \mid 0 \leq a \leq 1, 0 \leq b \leq 1\}$ . This is compact, so its image under  $f$  is compact, and thus bounded, by say  $M$ . For any other  $a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$ , we can write  $a + bi = (n + a') + (m + b')i$ , where  $n, m$  are integers, and  $a', b'$  are in  $D$ . By repeated application of the equations i, ii,  $f(a + bi) = f(a' + b'i) \leq M$ . In other words,  $f$  is bounded, and therefore constant.

(B&N 5.13) Suppose  $P$  is a polynomial such that  $P(z)$  is real if and only if  $z$  is real. Prove that  $P$  is linear. (10 points extra credit)

Write  $P(x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  as usual. We know that  $v(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $y = 0$ . By the intermediate value theorem, this means that on the upper half-plane, i.e. when  $y > 0$ ,  $v(x, y)$  must be entirely greater than zero, or entirely less than zero. Now consider the partial  $v_y(x, 0)$ . If it is negative for some  $x$ -value, then we can find a small positive  $y$  such that  $v(x, y)$  is negative. Therefore, if  $v(x, y)$  is positive in the upper half-plane, then  $v_y(x, 0)$  is non-negative, and by the same reasoning, if  $v(x, y)$  is negative in the upper half-plane, then  $v_y(x, 0)$  is non-positive.

But the Cauchy-Riemann tells us that  $u_x(x, 0) = v_y(x, 0)$ , so  $u(x, 0)$  must be either a decreasing or an increasing function of  $x$ . Thus the polynomial  $P$  has at most one root on the real axis. But since zero is a real number, all the zeros of  $P$  occur along the real line. Therefore, by the fundamental theorem of algebra,  $P(z) = c(z - \alpha)^n$  for some real numbers  $\alpha, c$ . But

$$P(\alpha + e^{\pi i/n}) = ce^{\pi i} = -c \in \mathbb{R}$$

and if  $n > 1$ ,  $\alpha + e^{\pi i/n}$  is not a real number, so this contradicts our hypothesis. Therefore,  $n = 1$ , and so  $P$  is a linear polynomial.