

1. Using the binomial theorem, and the fact that the integral of  $z^n dz$  over the given contour is 0, if  $n \neq -1$ , and  $2\pi i$  if  $n = -1$ , we have:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=2} \left(z + \frac{1}{z}\right)^3 dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=2} \left(z^3 + 3z + \frac{3}{z} + \frac{1}{z^3}\right) dz = 3.$$

One way to do the second question is to note that if  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z-3}$ , then  $f$  is analytic on and in the contour, hence,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=2} \frac{dz}{z^2 - 3z} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=2} \frac{f(z)}{z-0} dz = f(0) = -\frac{1}{3}.$$

If you do it by partial fractions, you have  $\frac{1}{z^2-3z} = \frac{-1/3}{z} + \frac{1/3}{z-3}$ , and need to use the fact that 3 is outside the contour.

2. Lots of different acceptable answers.

3. Using Theorem 6.3, we know that the Taylor series for an analytic function can be differentiated term by term. Hence:

$$\frac{1}{1-z} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k \implies \frac{1}{(1-z)^2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k z^{k-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k z^{k-1} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (m+1) z^m.$$

Using example 6.5, that a Taylor series can be integrated term by term, with appropriate care given for the value of the constant. We are looking at a disk  $|z| \leq \rho < 1$ , so that  $1-z$  stays in the right half plane, and we can use the Principal Value of the logarithm without fear of touching the branch cut.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^z \frac{1}{1-\zeta} d\zeta &= -\text{Log}(1-\zeta) \Big|_{\zeta=0}^z = -\text{Log}(1-z) - \text{Log}(1) = -\text{Log}(1-z) = \\ &= \int_0^z \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \zeta^k d\zeta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_0^z \zeta^k d\zeta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\zeta^{k+1}}{k+1} \Big|_{\zeta=0}^z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{k+1}}{k+1}. \end{aligned}$$

4. Without much explanation needed (everything converges):

$$\frac{1+2z}{(1-z)^2} = \frac{3-2(1-z)}{(1-z)^2} = \frac{3}{(1-z)^2} - \frac{2}{1-z} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (3(k+1) - 2) z^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (3k+1) z^k.$$

5. Using the handout from class and the hint, and the fact that  $z^2 + 1 = (z+i)(z-i)$ , we have

$$\frac{P(z)}{(z+i)(z-i)(z-1)(z-2)} = \frac{P(-i)}{6-2i} \cdot \frac{1}{z+i} + \frac{P(i)}{6-2i} \cdot \frac{1}{z-i} + \frac{P(1)}{-2} \cdot \frac{1}{z-1} + \frac{P(2)}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{z-2}$$

(If  $f(z) = (z^2 + 1)(z-1)(z-2)$ , then  $f'(-i) = 6 - 2i$ ,  $f'(i) = 6 + 2i$ ,  $f'(1) = -2$ ,  $f'(2) = 5$ .) Using the formula  $(z+w)^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} -w^{-(k+1)} z^k$ , derived in Monday's handout, we have then

$$\frac{P(z)}{(z+i)(z-i)(z-1)(z-2)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n,$$

where (with my deepest and humblest apologies),

$$a_n = - \left( \frac{P(-i)}{6-2i} i^{-(n+1)} + \frac{P(i)}{6-2i} (-i)^{-(n+1)} + \frac{P(1)}{-2} + \frac{P(2)}{5} 2^{-(n+1)} \right).$$

6. Let's assume that  $f$  is continuous on  $C$  and define

$$F(z) = \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} dz$$

for any point  $z$  not on  $C$ . Suppose  $|h| < \delta$  implies that  $z+h$  is also not on  $z$ . Then by the sort of algebraic manipulations we've seen before, if  $|h| < \delta/2$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h} - \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)^2} dz = \\ & \frac{1}{h} \left( \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - (z+h)} dz - \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} dz \right) - \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)^2} dz \\ & = \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)(\zeta - (z+h))} dz - \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)^2} dz = h \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)^2(\zeta - (z+h))} dz. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $f$  is continuous on  $C$ , it is bounded by  $M$ , say, and the denominator is bounded below by  $\delta^2(\delta/2)$ . Thus, if the length of  $C$  is denoted by  $L$  as usual,

$$\left| \frac{F(z+h) - F(z)}{h} - \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)^2} dz \right| \leq h \frac{2LM}{\delta^3}.$$

As  $h$  goes to 0, this bound goes to zero, hence  $F$  is differentiable at  $z$  with the indicated derivative.

7. I'll use L'Hopital's rule on all three, since each has the form  $\frac{0}{0}$ . A Taylor series approach is actually easier for the last one.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow \pi} \frac{\sin z}{\pi - z} &= \lim_{z \rightarrow \pi} \frac{\cos z}{-1} = -\cos \pi = 1; \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{e^{\pi z} + 1}{z^2 + 1} &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{\pi e^{\pi z}}{2z} = \frac{\pi(-1)}{2i} = \frac{\pi i}{2} \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 - \cos z)^2}{\sin z + \sinh z - 2z} &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \sin z (1 - \cos z)}{\cos z + \cosh z - 2} \left( = \frac{0}{0} \right) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \cos z + 2 \sin^2 z - 2 \cos^2 z}{-\sin z + \sinh z} \\ \left( = \frac{0}{0} \right) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2 \sin z + 4 \sin z \cos z}{-\cos z + \cosh z} \left( = \frac{0}{0} \right) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2 \cos z + 4 \cos^2 z - 4 \sin^2 z}{\sin z + \sinh z} = \frac{2}{0} = \infty. \end{aligned}$$

8. As corrected in class (no discussion of singularities at  $\infty$ .) For  $e^z$ , which is entire, there are no singularities.

For  $\frac{\cos z}{z}$ , which is the quotient of two entire functions, the only singularity is at  $z = 0$ , and since  $\cos 0 \neq 0$ , this is a pole of order 1.

For  $\frac{e^z - 1}{z(z-1)}$ , the only potential singularities are where the denominator vanishes, at  $z = 0, 1$ . The numerator has values 0,  $e - 1$  at these points respectively. By L'Hopital's rule, we see that  $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^z - 1}{z(z-1)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^z}{2z-1} = -1$  exists, so  $z = 0$  is a removable singularity and  $z = 1$  is a pole.

The function  $\frac{z^2-1}{z^2+1}$ , being a quotient of polynomials, has its only singularities where the denominator vanishes, and these are at  $z = \pm i$ . Since the numerator doesn't vanish there, these are poles of order 1.

Finally,  $\frac{z^5}{z^3+z} = \frac{z^4}{z^2+1}$  if  $z \neq 0$ . Thus it has poles of order 1 at  $\pm i$ , and a removable singularity at  $z = 0$ .

9. There's a little subtlety here. We proved the Schwarz lemma in class, but it doesn't quite apply, because we don't know that  $f$  is analytic to the boundary of the disk, although we do know that it's uniformly bounded. We *can* say that for every  $\rho < R$ ,  $f$  is analytic in  $|z| \leq \rho$  and is bounded by  $M$ . Thus, for every  $z$  with  $|z| \leq \rho$ , we have  $|f(z)| \leq \frac{M}{\rho}|z|$ . So now, suppose  $z$  is given with  $|z| < R$ , then for any  $\rho$  with  $|z| < \rho < R$ , we have  $|f(z)| \leq \frac{M}{\rho}|z|$ . If we now take the limit of this inequality as  $\rho \rightarrow R$ , we get the desired bound. (By the way, it is possible for a function to be analytic on  $|z| < R$  and be bounded on  $|z| = R$ , without being analytic on the circle itself. The simplest example is something like  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n^2+1}$ . We'll talk more about this later.)

10. So, suppose  $f = u + iv$  is analytic for  $|z| < R$  and  $f(0) = 0$  and suppose  $u < A$  and  $A > 0$ . Following the hint, let

$$g(z) = \frac{f(z)}{2A - f(z)} = \frac{u + iv}{(2A - u) + iv} \implies |g(z)|^2 = \frac{u^2 + v^2}{(2A - u)^2 + v^2}.$$

Since  $u < A$ , it's easy to check that  $u^2 < (2A - u)^2$ . Since the real part of the denominator of  $g$  is positive, it's never 0, and so  $g$  is analytic,  $g(0) = \frac{f(0)}{2A - f(0)} = 0$ , and we can use the last problem with  $M = 1$ . Thus,

$$|g(z)| \leq \frac{|z|}{R} \implies \left| \frac{f(z)}{2A - f(z)} \right| \leq \frac{|z|}{R} \implies R|f(z)| \leq |z| \cdot |2A - f(z)| \leq |z|(2A + |f(z)|) \implies (R - |z|)|f(z)| \leq 2A|z|.$$

11. Follow the hint and write  $P(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n(z - a)^n$ . Write the contour as  $z = a + Re^{it}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \overline{P(z)} dz &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{t=0}^{2\pi} \overline{\left( \sum_{n=0}^N a_n R^n e^{int} \right)} i R e^{it} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{t=0}^{2\pi} \left( \sum_{n=0}^N \overline{a_n} R^n e^{-int} \right) i R e^{it} dt = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{t=0}^{2\pi} \overline{a_n} R^{n+1} e^{i(1-n)t} dt = R^2 \overline{a_1} = R^2 \overline{P'(0)}. \end{aligned}$$

12. Suppose  $|f(\frac{1}{n})| \leq \frac{1}{2^n}$  and  $f$  is analytic at 0. Then it is continuous at 0, and we must have  $f(0) = 0$ . If  $f$  is not identically zero in  $D$ , then there must exist an analytic function  $g(z)$  with  $g(0) \neq 0$  and a positive integer  $m$  so that  $f(z) = z^m g(z)$ . Since  $g$  is continuous, there exists  $N$  so that: if  $|z| < 1/N$ , then  $|g(z)| > \frac{1}{2}g(0) = \tau > 0$  and hence  $|f(z)| > \tau|z|^m$ . Then, for all  $n > N$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{2^n} \geq \left| f\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \right| \geq \frac{\tau}{n^m} \implies n^m \geq \tau 2^n.$$

But this inequality is impossible, because exponential functions grow more quickly than polynomials. This is a classic graduate complex exam problem.