1. Let  $\gamma$  denote the boundary of the square with vertices (0, 0), (1, 0), (1, 1), and (0, 1), oriented counterclockwise as usual. (See the figure.)



Solution. Method 1: Parametrize the path. The integral can be expressed as

$$\int_0^1 \operatorname{Re}(t) \, dt + \int_0^1 \operatorname{Re}(1+it) \, i \, dt + \int_0^1 \operatorname{Re}(1-t+i) \, (-1) \, dt + \int_0^1 \operatorname{Re}(i(1-t)) \, (-i) \, dt,$$

which simplifies to

$$\int_0^1 (t+i-(1-t)+0) dt, \quad \text{or} \quad \int_0^1 (2t-1+i) dt, \quad \text{or} \quad i.$$

Method 2: Apply Green's theorem.

$$\int_{\gamma} x \, dx + x \, i \, dy = \iint_{\text{square}} \left( \frac{\partial(xi)}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial y} \right) \, dx \, dy = \iint_{\text{square}} (i - 0) \, dx \, dy.$$

Since the area of the square is equal to 1, the answer is *i*.

2. Suppose  $v(x, y) = x^3 - 3xy^2 - 4y$ . Determine a function u(x, y) such that u + iv is an analytic function.

**Solution.** Consistency check:

$$\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} = 6x - 6x = 0.$$

Thus the function v is harmonic in the entire plane, which is a simply connected domain, so there must exist a harmonic function u such that u + iv is harmonic.

To compute *u*, invoke the Cauchy–Riemann equations and integrate, as follows.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = -6xy - 4.$$

Therefore  $u(x, y) = -3x^2y - 4x + g(y)$  for some function g. Consequently,

$$-3x^{2} + g'(y) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -(3x^{2} - 3y^{2}).$$

Comparing the left-hand side with the right-hand side reveals that  $g'(y) = 3y^2$ , so  $g(y) = y^3$  (plus a constant). Therefore  $u(x, y) = -3x^2y - 4x + y^3$  (plus a constant).

**Remark.** The underlying analytic function, u + iv, is  $iz^3 - 4z$ .

3. Let  $\gamma$  denote a simple closed curve, oriented counterclockwise, and suppose  $f(z) = \frac{z}{z^2 - 1}$ . What are the possible values of the integral  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$  for different choices of the curve  $\gamma$ ?

**Solution.** The two singular points of the function f are 1 and -1. If the curve  $\gamma$  encloses neither of these singular points, then Cauchy's theorem implies that the value of the integral is 0. If the curve  $\gamma$  encloses the point 1 but not the point -1, then Cauchy's integral formula implies that

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} \frac{z/(z+1)}{z-1} dz = 2\pi i \cdot \frac{1}{1+1} = \pi i.$$

If the curve  $\gamma$  encloses the point -1 but not the point 1, then Cauchy's integral formula implies that

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} \frac{z/(z-1)}{z+1} dz = 2\pi i \cdot \frac{-1}{-1-1} = \pi i.$$

If the curve  $\gamma$  encloses both of the singular points, then the value of the integral is the sum of the preceding two quantities: namely,  $2\pi i$ . If one of the singular points lies *on* the curve  $\gamma$ , then the integral is not well defined (being a divergent improper integral).

In summary, the possible values of the integral are 0,  $\pi i$ , and  $2\pi i$ .

Remark. You could alternatively solve the problem by saying that

$$f(z) = \frac{z}{z^2 - 1} = \frac{1/2}{z - 1} + \frac{1/2}{z + 1}$$
 (partial fractions)

and then invoking Cauchy's integral formula.

4. If *n* is a natural number, and

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{\cos(z)}{z^n} \, dz = 0,$$

then what can you deduce about the number n?

Solution. Method 1. Cauchy's integral formula for derivatives implies that

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{\cos(z)}{z^n} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{(n-1)!} \cdot \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} \cos(z) \Big|_{z=0}$$

A derivative of cos(z) of even order equals  $\pm cos(z)$ , hence is nonzero when z = 0. On the other hand, a derivative of cos(z) of odd order equals  $\pm sin(z)$ , hence is zero when z = 0. Thus n - 1 must be odd, so n must be even.

**Method 2.** Expand cos(z) in a power series and exchange the order of summation and integration to see that

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{\cos(z)}{z^n} \, dz = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_{|z|=1} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k)!} z^{2k-n} \, dz.$$

The integral of an integer power of z around the unit circle is equal to zero except when the exponent is -1 (in which case the integral is equal to  $2\pi i$ ). Therefore the preceding expression is always equal to zero when n is even, for then 2k - n cannot be equal to -1. But if n is odd, then there will be exactly one value of k for which 2k - n = -1, so the sum will be nonzero.

5. Determine the radius of convergence of the power series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\cos(in)}{2^n + 3^n} \right) z^n.$ 

**Solution.** Method 1. Since cos(z) is the average of  $e^{iz}$  and  $e^{-iz}$ , the quantity cos(in) is the average of  $e^{-n}$  and  $e^{n}$ . In particular, the quantity cos(in) is real and positive. Now  $e^{-n} < 1 < e^{n}$ , so

$$\frac{1}{2}e^n < \frac{e^{-n} + e^n}{2} < e^n.$$

On the other hand,

$$3^n < 2^n + 3^n < 2 \cdot 3^n.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\frac{1}{2}e^n}{2\cdot 3^n} < \frac{\cos(in)}{2^n + 3^n} < \frac{e^n}{3^n},$$

and

$$\frac{1}{4^{1/n}} \cdot \frac{e}{3} < \left(\frac{\cos(in)}{2^n + 3^n}\right)^{1/n} < \frac{e}{3}.$$

Since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} 4^{1/n} = 1$ , the squeeze theorem implies that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\left(\frac{\cos(in)}{2^n+3^n}\right)^{1/n}=\frac{e}{3}.$$

By the root test or by the Cauchy–Hadamard formula, the radius of convergence of the given power series is equal to the reciprocal of this value: namely, to 3/e.

Method 2. By the ratio test, the radius of convergence equals the limit

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{\cos(in)}{2^n + 3^n} \cdot \frac{2^{n+1} + 3^{n+1}}{\cos(in+i)} \right|$$

if the limit exists. Now

 $\frac{\cos(in)}{\cos(in+i)} = \frac{\cos(in)}{\cos(in)\cos(i) - \sin(in)\sin(i)} = \frac{\cosh(n)}{\cosh(n)\cosh(1) + \sinh(n)\sinh(1)}.$ 

Since  $\cosh(n)/\sinh(n) \to 1$  when  $n \to \infty$ , the limit of the preceding expression equals

$$\frac{1}{\cosh(1) + \sinh(1)}$$
, or  $\frac{1}{e}$ .

On the other hand,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2^{n+1} + 3^{n+1}}{2^n + 3^n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2(\frac{2}{3})^n + 3}{(\frac{2}{3})^n + 1} = 3,$$

since  $(2/3)^n \to 0$  when  $n \to \infty$ . Multiplying the two limits together shows that the radius of convergence of the series equals 3/e.

6. Give an example of a function f(z) whose Taylor series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(4)}{n!}(z-4)^n$  with center at the point 4 has radius of convergence equal to 2.

**Solution.** There are many examples. A simple one is  $\frac{1}{z-2}$ . This function is analytic in a disk of radius 2 centered at 4 but is analytic in no larger disk with center 4, so the Taylor series with center 4 must have radius of convergence equal to 2.

Alternatively, you could produce an example by starting with the geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z-4}{2}\right)^n,$$

which converges precisely when |z-4|/2 < 1 and thus has radius of convergence equal to 2. A geometric series sums to the first term divided by 1 minus the ratio, so the underlying analytic function f(z) is

$$\frac{1}{1-\frac{z-4}{2}}$$
, or  $\frac{2}{6-z}$ .

#### Extra Credit

Lee and Orville conjecture that if f is an entire function such that  $|f(z)| \le \sqrt{|z|}$  for every z, then f must be a constant function.

Lee says, "The only plausible candidate for f(z) is  $z^{1/2}$ , but this function is not entire: the derivative does not exist when z = 0. So I think that the conjecture must be true."

Orville says, "Certainly f cannot be a nonconstant *polynomial*, for then |f(z)| would grow more or less like  $|z|^n$  for some positive integer n, which is faster growth than  $|z|^{1/2}$ . But I am not sure about general entire functions, that is, power series with infinite radius of convergence."

What do you think? Can you prove Lee–Orville's theorem, or can you find a counterexample?

**Solution.** The conjecture is a correct variation of Liouville's theorem.

**Method 1.** The hypothesis implies, in particular, that  $|f(0)| \le 0$ , that is, f(0) = 0. Therefore the power series expansion of f(z) is divisible by z, so there is an entire function g such that f(z) = zg(z) for every z. The hypothesis implies moreover that

$$|g(z)| = \frac{|f(z)|}{|z|} \le \frac{\sqrt{|z|}}{|z|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|z|}}$$
 when  $z \ne 0$ .

Therefore |g(z)| < 1 when |z| > 1. But g is a continuous function, so |g(z)| attains a finite maximum on the closed disk where  $|z| \le 1$ . Accordingly, the entire function g is bounded in the whole plane. By Liouville's theorem, the function g reduces to a constant C.

Then f(z) = Cz. But now the hypothesis implies that  $|Cz| \le \sqrt{|z|}$ , or  $|C| \sqrt{|z|} \le 1$ , and this inequality cannot hold for large values of |z| unless C = 0. Therefore the function f not only is constant but actually is the constant 0.

**Method 2.** Adapt the proof of Liouville's theorem that I gave in class. If  $z_0$  is an arbitrary point in the plane, and  $R > |z_0|$ , then Cauchy's integral formula implies that

$$f(z_0) - f(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w|=R} \left( \frac{f(w)}{w - z_0} - \frac{f(w)}{w - 0} \right) \, dw = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w|=R} \frac{z_0 f(w)}{w(w - z_0)} \, dw.$$

Parametrize the integration curve as  $Re^{i\theta}$ , use that the absolute value of an integral is at most the integral of the absolute value, and bring in the hypothesis to deduce that

$$|f(z_0) - f(0)| \le \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{|z_0|\sqrt{R}}{R(R - |z_0|)} \, R \, d\theta = \frac{|z_0|\sqrt{R}}{R - |z_0|}.$$

Let *R* tend to infinity to conclude that  $|f(z_0) - f(0)| \le 0$ , that is,  $f(z_0) = f(0)$ . Since the point  $z_0$  is arbitrary, the given function is equal to the constant value f(0).

**Method 3.** Adapt the proof of Liouville's theorem given in the textbook. Cauchy's formula for the first derivative says that

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w|=R} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^2} dw \quad \text{when } R > |z_0|.$$

Bound the absolute value of the integral by a strategy similar to the one used in Method 2:

$$|f'(z_0)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\sqrt{R}}{(R-|z_0|)^2} \, R \, d\theta = \frac{R^{3/2}}{(R-|z_0|)^2}.$$

Holding  $z_0$  fixed, let *R* tend to infinity to conclude that  $f'(z_0) = 0$ . But the point  $z_0$  is arbitrary, so the derivative f' is identically equal to zero. Therefore f is a constant function.

**Remark.** This problem is related to Exercise 4 on page 119 in Section IV.5 of the textbook.