Analysis qual study guide

James C. Hateley

1. Real Analysis

Exercise 1.1. Suppose that $f : [0,1] \to (0,1)$ is a non-decreasing function. Prove or disprove that there exists $x \in (0,1)$ such that f(x) = x.

Proof: First notice note that $0 < f(0) \le f(1) < 1$ and so $f^n : (0,1) \to (0,1)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $x \in (0,1)$, now if $f(x) \le x$, then $(f \circ f)(x) \le f(x)$. Otherwise if $x \le f(x)$ then $f(x) \le (f \circ f)(x)$ since f is a non-decreasing function. (WLOG) for a given x suppose $x \le f(x)$, then $f(x) \le f^n(x) < 1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. So $\{f^n(x)\}$ is a bounded monotonic sequence. Therefore by the monotone convergence theorem for real numbers, there exists a $y \in (0,1)$ such that $f^n(x) \to y$ as $n \to \infty$. Now

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f^n(x) = y \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(\lim_{n \to \infty} f^n(x)) = f(y) = y$$

since $f(\lim_{n \to \infty} f^n(x)) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f^{n+1}(x) = y$

Exercise 1.2. Suppose that \mathcal{X} is a compact metric space and that $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{X}$ is an isometry. Prove that $f(\mathcal{X}) = \mathcal{X}$.

Proof: If f(x) is an isometry and if d is the metric on \mathcal{X} we have d(x, y) = d(f(x), f(y)). Now suppose that f(x) is not surjective, then the set $\mathcal{X} \setminus f(\mathcal{X})$ is non empty, so let $x \in \mathcal{X} \setminus f(\mathcal{X})$. We have then $0 < 2\epsilon = dist(x, f(\mathcal{X}))$ for some $\epsilon > 0$. Since \mathcal{X} is compact, there exists a finite open covering \mathcal{O} such that

$$\mathcal{O} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} B(x_i, \epsilon),$$

for some x_i and some N, choose N to be as small as possible. Since $x \in B(x_\alpha, \epsilon)$ for some x_α and $2\epsilon = dist(x, f(\mathcal{X}))$ we have $B(x_\alpha, \epsilon) \subset \mathcal{X} \setminus f(\mathcal{X})$. This contradicts the minimality of this N, therefore f is surjective.

Exercise 1.3. Let f be a real-valued function defined on $[1, \infty)$, satisfying f(1) = 1 and $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + f(x)^2}$. Prove that $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x)$ exists and is less that $1 + \frac{\pi}{4}$.

Proof: First notice that $f'(x) \to 0$ as $x \to \infty$ and that f'(x) > 0 and so f(x) is always increasing. Since f(1) = 1 and f(x) is always increasing we have $f(x) \ge 1$ for all $x \in [1, \infty)$. Now

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + f(x)^2} \le \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$$

and so

$$\int_{1}^{x} f'(t) \, dt \le \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t^2 + 1} \, dt \le \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{t^2 + 1} \, dt = \tan^{-1}(t) \big|_{1}^{\infty} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

The second inequality is justified since we integrate a positive function over a larger set. So we have

$$\int_{1}^{x} f'(t) dt \le \frac{\pi}{4} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x) - f(1) \le \frac{\pi}{4} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x) \le 1 + \frac{\pi}{4}$$

and the result is shown.

Exercise 1.4. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function with the property:

$$\liminf_{y \to x} \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} > 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Prove that f is strictly increasing.

Proof: For all $\epsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that if $|x - y| < \delta$, then we have

(1.1)
$$\frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} \ge \epsilon.$$

Now for a given ϵ consider the covering \mathbb{R} by $B(x_{\alpha}, \eta_{\alpha})$, for $x_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$ and where $0 < \eta_{\alpha}$ is chosen such that 1.1 is satified. By Lindelöf's covering there is a countable subcover of this. Enumerate this subcover as $B(x_i, \eta_i)$. Choose $y_i, z_i \in B(x_i, \eta)$ such that $y_i < x_i < z_i$. Now for each x_i and z_i we have

$$f(x_i) - f(y_i) \ge \epsilon(x_i - y_i) > 0 \text{ and } f(z_i) - f(x_i) \ge \epsilon(z_i - x_i) > 0$$

Hence we have if, by transitivity,

$$x > y \quad \rightarrow \quad f(x) > f(y)$$

In other words f strictly increasing.

Exercise 1.5. If the function f has a continuous derivative on [0, 1], prove that

$$\int_0^1 f'(x) \, dx = f(1) - f(0)$$

Proof: By definition of the Reimann integrable integral for the interval [0, 1] we have

$$\int_{0}^{1} f'(x) \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f'(x_i)$$

Where $x_i \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]$ and $\{t_i\}_{i=0}^n$ is a partition of [0, 1]. Now by the mean value theorem for derivatives, for each subinterval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ of the partition [0, 1], there exists an c_i such that

$$f'(c_i) = \frac{f'(t_i) - f(t_{i-1})}{t_i - t_{i-1}}$$

Let $x_i = c_i$ for each subinterval in the partition. So we have

$$\int_0^1 f'(x) \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f'(c_i) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1})}{t_i - t_{i-1}}$$

Now $|t_i - t_{i-1}| = 1/n$, hence we have

$$\int_0^1 f'(x) \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} (f(1) - f(0)) = f(1) - f(0).$$

Exercise 1.6. If the function $f : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x)$ exists, prove that f(x) is uniformly continuous on $[0, \infty)$.

Proof: Want to show that:

(1.2)
$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \text{s.t.} \ \text{if } |x - y| < \delta_{\epsilon} \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$$

Now since $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x)$ this means that first the limit is finite, and then for all $\eta > 0$ there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|f(x) - L| < \eta$ for all x > N, where L is the limit. Now consider the interval [0, N], since [0, N] is closed and bounded so continuity implies uniform continuity, so given an $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta_1 > 0$ such that 1.2 is satified. Let $x, y \in [N, \infty)$ since $|f(x) - L| < \eta$ and $|f(y) - L| < \eta$ we have by the triangle inequality

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le |f(x) - L| + |L - f(y)| < 2\eta = \epsilon$$

This implies that for any $\epsilon > 0$, and N large enough h if x, y > N, then $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$, denote $\delta_2 = \eta$. So if $|x - y| < \delta_2$, then we have $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$. In other words f(x) is uniformly continuous on (N, ∞) . Let $\delta_{\epsilon} = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$. This δ_{ϵ} either depends on ϵ or N, in the later case N depends on ϵ . This implies 1.2 is will be satisfied, so the result is shown.

Exercise 1.7. If $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is nonempty, define the distance d_A of $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to A by

$$d_A(x) = \inf\{\|x - z\| : z \in A\}$$

(a) Show that if $x, y \in m\mathbb{R}^n$ then $|d_A(x) - d_A(y)| \leq ||x - y||$. (b) If n = 2 and $A = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1^2 + x_2^2 > 1\}$, find a point in \mathbb{R}^2 at which d_A is not differentiable. Justify your claim.

Proof: For part (a) we can think of z as defined in the function d_A like an orthogonal projection to A, then d_A returns the length of this projection. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $z \in A$

$$d_A(x) \le ||x - z|| \le ||x - y|| + ||y - z|| \implies d_A(x) - ||y - z|| \le ||x - y||$$

$$d_A(y) \le ||y - z|| \le ||y - x|| + ||x - z|| \implies d_A(y) - ||x - z|| \le ||x - y||$$

Now subtracting we can obtain the following:

$$d_A(x) - d_A(y) \le ||y - z|| - ||z - x|| \le ||y - x||$$

$$d_A(y) - d_A(x) \le ||x - z|| - ||z - y|| \le ||y - x||$$

which implies $|d_A(x) - d_A(y)| \le ||x - y||$.

(b) Consider the point (0, 1). Then we have $d_A(0, 1) = 0$. Now

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{d_A(0, 1+h) - 0}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{h}{h} = 1$$

and

$$\lim_{h \to 0^+} \frac{d_A(h, 1) - 0}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0^+} \frac{\sqrt{1 + h^2}}{h} = \infty$$

The one-sided partial ∂_{x^+} is unbounded at (0,1) hence the derivative cannot exist.

Exercise 1.8. Let $\{f_n\}$ be a sequence of functions on [0,1] such that

$$\sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x)| = M_n < \infty, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Suppose $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly on [0,1]. Prove that there exists M, $0 \le M < \infty$, such that for all $x \in [0,1]$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the inequality $|f_n(x)| \le M$ holds.

Proof: If $\{f_n(x)\}$ converges uniformly, then there exists a function f such that for each $x \in [0, 1]$ and for all $1 > \epsilon > 0$ there is an N such that $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ for all n > N. So

For this x, let $M = \max_{i=1..N} \{M_i, 1 + M_{N+1}\}$, then we have $f_n(x) \leq M$ for all $n \in N$. Now if n > N then we have for all $x \in [0, 1], |f_n(x)| < \epsilon + M_{N+1}$, since $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$. If $n \leq N$ then $f_n(x) < M_n < M$. So the result holds for all $x \in [0, 1]$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Exercise 1.9. Let $\sum a_n, \sum b_n$ be two series with positive terms. Assume that $\sum b_n$ converges and that

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \le \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Prove that $\sum a_n$ converges.

Proof: Consider the two power series

$$A = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n, \quad B = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n x^n$$

Series B will converge if

$$\frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n}|x| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |x| < \frac{b_n}{b_{n+1}}$$

Now we know for x = 1 power series B converges, so

$$1 < \frac{b_n}{b_{n+1}}$$
 or $\frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} < 1$.

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This implies that

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}|x| \leq \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n}|x| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \leq \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} < 1$$

Or power series A will converge for |x| = 1 and the result is shown.

Exercise 1.10. Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at every point $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$, and there exists $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ so that

$$f(tx,ty) = t^{\alpha}f(x,y), \quad \forall t > 0, (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

Show that for any $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$

$$xf_x(x,y) + yf_y(x,y) = \alpha f(x,y)$$

Proof: Taking derivative with respect to t we have

$$xf_x(tx,ty) + yf_y(tx,ty) = \alpha t^{\alpha-1}f(x,y)$$

This equation holds for t > 0 and $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. In particular, let t = 1 and the result is shown.

Exercise 1.11. Suppose that a function $f \ge 0$ and that

$$\int_{4}^{\infty} f(x) \, dx = 5.$$

Show that

$$\int_{2}^{\infty} f(x^2) \, dx \le \frac{5}{4}$$

Proof: First consider the change of variable $u = x^2$, then the differentials are given by du = 2xdx since x > 0, we have $x = \sqrt{u}$ and so $dx = \frac{du}{2\sqrt{u}}$. With this change of variable the integral

$$\int_{2}^{\infty} f(x^{2}) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{4}^{\infty} \frac{f(u)}{\sqrt{u}} \, du \le \frac{1}{4} \int_{4}^{\infty} f(u) \, du = \frac{5}{4}$$

$$u \in [4, \infty)$$

Since $\frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for $u \in [4, \infty)$

Exercise 1.12. For positive numbers a, b, show that $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a^n + b^n)^{1/n} = \max\{a, b\}$.

Proof: Suppose that 0 < a < b. Let $y = (a^n + b^n)^{1/n}$, taking log and the limit as n goes to infinity we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \ln(y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\ln(a^n + b^n)}{n}$$
$$\stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a^n \ln(a) + b^n \ln(b)}{a^n + b^n}$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^n \ln(a) + \ln(b)}{\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^n + 1}$$
$$= \ln(b)$$

since $\frac{a}{b} \to 0$. The function $\ln(y)$ is continuous for y > 0 and so $\lim_{n\to\infty} \ln(y) = \ln(b)$ implies that $\ln(\lim_{n\to\infty} y) = \ln(b)$, which implies $\lim_{n\to\infty} y = b$.

Exercise 1.13. Let $f : [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}$

(a) Give a clear definition of f is Reimann integrable on [-1, 1].

(b) Using your definition show that the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & -1 \le x < 0\\ 5 & x = 0\\ x & 0 < x \le 1 \end{cases}$$

is Riemann integrable and find $\int_{-1}^{1} g(x) dx$.

Proof: For part (a), a function is said to be Riemann integrable over an interval [a, b] if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that if P is a partition of [a, b] with mesh $(P) < \delta$, then

(1.3)
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sup_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]} \{f(x)\} - \inf_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]} \{f(x)\} \right) (t_i - t_{i-1}) < \epsilon$$

where $t_0 = a$ and $t_n = b$.

For part (b), let P be a partition $\{t_i\}$, and mesh(P) < 1/n, also let $0 \in (t_k, t_{k+1})$, that is zero is not an endpoint of this partition. Now by definition we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sup_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]} \{f(x)\} - \inf_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]} \{f(x)\} \right) (t_i - t_{i-1})$$

$$= \sum_{i=k+1}^{n} \left(\sup_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]} \{f(x)\} - \inf_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]} \{f(x)\} \right) (t_i - t_{i-1})$$

$$\leq \frac{5}{n} + \sum_{i=k+2}^{n} (t_i - t_{i-1})^2$$

$$= \frac{5}{n} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{n} \frac{1}{n}^2 < \frac{6}{n} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

Hence the function is Riemann integrable. Note that for i < k the functional value is zero, so this will not contribute towards the sum and $\left(\sup_{x \in [t_k, t_{k+1}]} \{f(x)\} - \inf_{x \in [t_k, t_{k+1}]} \{f(x)\}\right) (t_i - t_{i-1}) < 5/n$ since $\operatorname{mesh}(P) < 1/n$, $\sup_{x \in [t_k, t_{k+1}]} \{f(x)\} = 5$ and $\inf_{x \in [t_k, t_{k+1}]} \{f(x)\} = 0$. Now to find the value of this integral we have

$$\int_{-1}^{1} g(x) \, dx = \int_{0}^{1} x \, dx = \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_{0}^{1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

since x = 5 is a set of measure zero and sets of measure will not contribute towards the value of the integral.

Exercise 1.14. If the terms of a series

$$A = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

are nonnegative and decrease monotonically to zero, then show that the series converges if and only if the following related series converges

$$B = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^j a_{2^j}$$

Proof: This is Cauchy condensation test. (\Rightarrow) Suppose the series A converges. Then for n large enough we must have $a_n < 1/n$, so let n be large enough, since A converges we know by the root test we have

$$\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt[j]{|2^j a_{2^j}|} = 2\sqrt[j]{|a_{2^j}|} < 2\frac{1}{\sqrt[j]{2^j}} = 1$$

hence the series B converges by the root test.

 (\Leftarrow) Now suppose the series B converges, grouping the series A we have in terms of powers of 2

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + \{a_2 + a_3\} + \{a_4 + a_5 + a_6 + a_7\} + \cdots$$
$$\leq a_1 + \{a_2 + a_2\} + \{a_4 + a_4 + a_4 + a_4\} + \cdots$$
$$= a_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^j a_{2^j} < \infty$$

Hence series A converges.

Exercise 1.15. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfy

$$0 \le f(x,y) \le |(x,y)|^{1.02}$$

for all (x, y). Find f'(x, y) or show by example that it need not exist.

Proof: f'(x, y) need not exist. Consider the function

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} |(x,y)|^{1.02} & ||(x,y)|| \ge 1\\ 0 & ||(x,y)|| < 1 \end{cases}$$

It is clear the inequality in the problem holds for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. The function f(x, y) is not continuous on ||(x, y)|| = 1, hence the derivative does not exist on \mathbb{R} .

Exercise 1.16. Let f be a differentiable real function defined on (0,1). Show that f' maps (0,1) onto an interval.

Proof: I shall show a slightly more generalized version of this question. That is, if f(x) is a differentiable function defined on an open interval I then f'(I) can be written as an interval. First if f(x) is a linear function or a constant, then f'(x) is constant so the result holds. Now suppose f(x) is neither of these. Let $x_1, x_2 \in f(I)$ with $x_1 < x_2$ and let $y \in (x_1, x_2)$, we need to show that $y \in f'(I)$. Let $a, b \in I$ such that $f'(a) = x_1$ and $f'(b) = x_2$. Consider the function g(x) = f(x) - yx, then g'(x) = f'(x) - y. Now the function g(x) is a continuous function, hence the restriction of g to the interval [a, b] is continuous. Now recall that the continuous image of a compace space is compact. Hence g attains a minimum on the interval [a, b]. By construction we have g'(a) < 0 and g'(b) > 0. It is clear that the minimum cannot occur at a or b since $g'(a), g'(b) \neq 0$, hence there is a $c \in (a, b)$ such that g'(c) = 0 this implies that f'(x) = y. In other words f'(I) is an interval.

2. Complex Analysis

Exercise 2.1. Prove or disprove that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} e^{(e^{i\theta})} d\theta = 0.$$

Proof: This is not true, to see why let us compute the integral. Writing the power series for e^z with $z = e^{i\theta}$ and integrating we have

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} e^{(e^{i\theta})} d\theta = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ki\theta}}{k!} d\theta$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{e^{ki\theta}}{k!} d\theta$$
$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{e^{ki\theta}}{k!} d\theta$$
$$= 2\pi - i \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ki\theta}}{(k-1)!} \Big|_{0}^{\pi}$$
$$= 2\pi$$

We can switch the integral and sum since the sum converges uniformly. Also the value of $\frac{e^{i\nu}}{(k-1)!}\Big|_0^{\pi}$ is computed to be zero using Euler's formula.

Exercise 2.2. Let a and b be distinct complex numbers that lie in the interior of the left half-plane. Prove that $|e^a - e^b| < |a - b|$

Proof: First notice that if a = x + iy, then we have

$$|e^a| = |e^{x+iy}| = |e^x| < 1$$

Now let $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\Re(a), \Re(b) < 0$. By the mean value theorem, there exists a c such that c lies on the line $r(t) = a(1-t) + tb, t \in [0, 1]$ and

$$e^c = \frac{e^a - e^b}{a - b}$$

now the line r(t) connecting a and b is contained in the left half-plane hence for all $t \in [0, 1], \Re(r(t)) < 0$ and hence we have

$$\left|\frac{e^a - e^b}{a - b}\right| = |e^c| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |e^a - e^b| < |a - b|$$

Exercise 2.3.

(a) Find the radius of convergence of the Taylor series for f(z) at z = 1.

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^4 + z^2 + 1}$$

(b) Explicitly find the constant term and the linear term of the series.

Proof: The Taylor series about z = 1 is given by

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k (z-1)^k, \quad a_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(1)}{k!}.$$

Instead of computing the coefficients a_k , the series must avoid the sigularities the radius will be the distance from the center to the closest singularity, i.e. $r = \inf\{|z_k - 1|\}$, where z_k are the roots of f(z). To compute the roots let $w = z^2$,

$$w^2 + w + 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad w = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{3}i}{2} = e^{2\pi i/3}, e^{4\pi i/3}$$

Hence we have

$$z = \{\pm e^{\pi i/3}, \pm e^{2\pi i/3}\}, \quad z_k = \{e^{k\pi i/3} : k = 1, 2, 4, 5\}$$

Considering the complex plane we have

$$r = \inf\{|z_k - 1|\} = ||1 - e^{k\pi i/3}|| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4}} = 1.$$

Now using the definition of the Taylor series we have that

$$a_0 = f(1) = \frac{1}{3}, \quad a_1 = f'(1) = \frac{-4z^3 - 2z}{(z^4 + z^2 + 1)^2}\Big|_{z=1} = -\frac{2}{3}.$$

Exercise 2.4. Compute the following integral using residues. You may leave your solution as a sum of explicitly complex numbers.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x^4 + 1}{x^6 + 1} \, dx$$

Proof: This is an application of the Residue Theorem. The roots of $z^4 + 1$ are computed to be $\{e^{k\pi i/4} : k = 1, 3, 5, 7\}$ and the roots of $z^6 + 1$ are computed to be $\{e^{k\pi i/6} : k = 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11\}$. Now consider the following contour:

$$\Gamma = \begin{cases} t & t \in [-R, R] \\ Re^{it} & t \in [0, \pi] \end{cases}$$

By the Residue Theorem we have

$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{z^4 + 1}{z^6 + 1} dz = 2\pi \sum_k \operatorname{Res}(f(z_k)), \quad z_k \in \Omega, \text{ where } \partial\Omega = \Gamma.$$

Now first let's compute the integral by evalutating on the contour.

$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{z^4 + 1}{z^6 + 1} \, dz = \int_{-R}^{R} \frac{t^4 + 1}{t^6 + 1} \, dt + \int_{0}^{\pi} iR \frac{R^4 e^{4it} + 1}{R^6 e^{6it} + 1} \, dt$$

For the first integral, if $\lim_{R\to\infty}$ this converges to the original integral in question. For the second integral we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{0}^{\pi} \imath R \frac{R^{4} e^{4it} + 1}{R^{6} e^{6it} + 1} \, dt \right| &\leq \int_{0}^{\pi} \left| \imath R \frac{R^{4} e^{4it} + 1}{R^{6} e^{6it} + 1} \right| \, dt \\ &\leq R \frac{|R^{4} e^{4it} + 1|}{R^{6} - 1} \, dt \\ &\leq \frac{2R^{5}}{R^{6} - 1} \, dt \to 0 \text{ as } R \to \infty \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{t^4 + 1}{t^6 + 1} dt = 2\pi i \sum_k \operatorname{Res}(f(z_k)).$$

Now the roots that lie inside Γ are $\{e^{k\pi i/6}: k=1,3,5\}$ and so we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{t^4 + 1}{t^6 + 1} \, dt = 2\pi i \sum_{j=1}^3 \left(e^{2(2j-1)\pi i/3} - 1 \right) \left[\prod_{k=1, j \neq k}^6 \left(e^{(2j-1)\pi i/6} - e^{(2k-1)\pi i/6} \right)^{-1} \right]$$

Exercise 2.5. Suppose that f is a non-constant entire function. Prove or disprove each of the following statements.

- (a) The range of f is dense in \mathbb{C} .
- (b) The range of f is all of \mathbb{C} .

Proof: For statement (a), suppose f(z) is a non-constant entire function that is not dence in all of \mathbb{C} , then there exists a $w \in \mathbb{C}$ and an r > 0 such that the $B(w, r) \not\subset f(\mathbb{C})$. Define the function

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{f(z) - w}$$

Since f(z) is entire, it is clear that g(z) is entire and we have the bound

$$|g(z)| = \frac{1}{|f(z) - w|} < \frac{1}{r}.$$

By Liouville's theorem g(z) is a bounded entire function thus must be constant, hence f(z) is constant. This is a contradiction, hence the range of f(z) must be dense in \mathbb{C} .

For part (b) this statuent need not be true, consider the function $f(z) = e^z$. This is an entire function, but this function never attains the value zero, hence the image of f(z) is not all of \mathbb{C} .

Theorem: (Little Picard) If a function $f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ is entire and non-constant, then the set of values that f(z) assumes is either the whole complex plane or the plane minus a single point.

Theorem: (Big Picard) If an analytic function f(z) has an essential singularity at a point w, then on any punctured neighborhood of w, f(z) takes on all possible complex values, with at most a single exception, infinitely often.

Exercise 2.6. Let f(z) be an analytic function on $B_r(z_0) \setminus \{z_0\}$, the punctured disk of radius r. Show that if f is bounded, then f can be analytically extended to the whole disk. That is, there is an analytic function F(z) on $B_r(z_0)$ whose restriction on $B_r(z_0) \setminus \{z_0\}$ is f(z).

Proof: Suppose f(z) is bounded on the $B_r(z_0) \setminus \{z_0\}$ punctured disk. Let

$$M = \sup_{z \in B_r(z_0) \setminus \{z_0\}} \{f(z)\},$$

this is finite by hypothesis. Let $z \neq z_0$ be in $B_r(z_0)$, and let $0 < \epsilon < |r - |z_0||$. Now

$$\left| \int_{|w-z_0|=r} \frac{u(w)}{w-z} \, dw \right| = \left| \int_{|w-z_0|=\epsilon} \frac{u(w)}{w-z} \, dw \right|$$
$$\leq \int_{|w-z_0|=\epsilon} \left| \frac{u(w)}{w-z} \right| \, dw$$
$$\leq 2\pi \frac{M}{r} \epsilon \to 0 \text{ as } \epsilon \to 0.$$

So fix $0 < R < |r - |z_0||$, then define

$$\tilde{u}(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-z_0|=R} \frac{u(w)}{w-z} dw$$

for $|z - z_0| < R$. By the Residue theorem we have $\tilde{u}(z) = u(z)$ and furthermore $\tilde{u}(z)$ is analytic for $|z - z_0| < R$, so the result is shown.

Exercise 2.7. Prove that if u(x,y) is harmonic in a simply connected domain Ω then the line integral

$$\int_{z_0}^z (-u_y \ dx + u_x \ dy)$$

is independent of the path in Ω from z_0 to z.

Proof: Using Green's Theorem we have

$$\int_{\partial\Omega} (-u_y \ dx + u_x \ dy) = \int_{\Omega} u_{xx} + u_{yy} \ dA = \int_{\Omega} \delta u \ dA = 0$$

since u(x, y) is harmonic. Now let $\gamma_1 : z_0 \to z$ be any path and choose $\gamma_2 : z \to z_0$ such that the region enclosed is contained inside Ω and forms a simply connected domain. We then have

$$0 = \int_{\gamma_1 \cup \gamma_2} (-u_y \ dx + u_x \ dy) = \int_{\gamma_1} (-u_y \ dx + u_x \ dy) + \int_{\gamma_2} (-u_y \ dx + u_x \ dy)$$

This means we have

$$\int_{\gamma_1} (-u_y \, dx + u_x \, dy) = -\int_{\gamma_2} (-u_y \, dx + u_x \, dy) = \int_{-\gamma_2} (-u_y \, dx + u_x \, dy)$$

This holds for all such paths, hence the integral is independent of path from z_0 to z.

Exercise 2.8. The Bessel function $J_0(z)$ is defined by

$$J_0(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \exp(z(w - w^{-1})/2) \frac{dw}{w},$$

where Γ is any simple closed curve around the origin counterclockwise. Compute the Taylor series expansion for $J_0(z)$ by carrying out the following steps:

- (a) Expand $\exp(zw/2)$ and $\exp(-z/(2w))$ as a power series.
- (b) Multiply them formally to get a Laurent expansion, in the variable w, for $\exp(z(w-w^{-1})/2)$.
- (c) Switch the sums and integral.
- (d) Apply the Residue Theorem. Don't forget the extra 1/w in the integral

Proof: First the Talor expansions for $\exp(zw/2)$ and $\exp(-z/(2w))$ are given as:

$$\exp(zw/2) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(zw)^k}{2^k k!} \quad \exp(-z/(2w)) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-z)^k}{(2w)^k k!}$$

$$\exp(zw/2)\exp(-z/(2w)) = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{zw^k}{2^k k!}\right) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-z)^k}{(2w)^k k!}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-z)^k}{(2w)^k k!} \frac{(zw)^{n-k}}{2^{n-k}(n-k)!}$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^k z^k z^{n-k}}{2^k 2^{n-k} n!(n-k)!} \frac{w^n}{w^{2k}}$$

Hence we have

$$J_0(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^k \frac{(-1)^k z^k z^{n-k}}{2^k 2^{n-k} n! (n-k)!} \frac{w^n}{w^{2k+1}} \, dw.$$

Since the sum converges uniformly to the function $\exp(z(w-w^{-1})/2)$ we can interchange integration and summation. Using the Residue Theorem we have:

$$J_{0}(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k} z^{k} z^{n-k}}{2^{k} 2^{n-k} n! (n-k)!} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{w^{n}}{w^{2k+1}} dw = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k} z^{k} z^{n-k}}{2^{k} 2^{n-k} n! (n-k)!} (2\pi i)_{n=2k}$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k} z^{2k}}{2^{2k} (n!)^{2}}.$$

Since the integral

$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{w^n}{w^{2k+1}} \, dw = 0, \quad n \neq 2k$$

Exercise 2.9. Suppose w = f(z) is entire and not constant. Show that the image set $f(\mathbb{C})$ intersects every open set in the w-plane.

Proof: Let f(z) be an entire and not-constant function and suppose that there is an open set such that f(z) does not intersect all open sets in the *w*-plane. Then there is a $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and an r > 0 such that $f(\mathbb{C})$ intersect $B_r(z_0)$ is empty. Consider the function $g(z) = (f(z) - z_0)^{-1}$. The function g(z) is entire and we have

$$|g(z)| = \frac{1}{|f(z) - z_0|} < \frac{1}{r}, \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}.$$

The function g(z) is an entire bounded function hence by Lioville's Theomre is it constant, hence f(z) is is constant. Therefore the image set of $f(\mathbb{C})$ intersects every open set in \mathbb{C} .

Theorem: (Residue:) Let Γ be a simple closed curve with and let *a* point inside gamma. Suppose f(z) is a function with no singularities inside Γ and let *n* be a positive integer, then we have

$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^n} = 2\pi i \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} f(a)$$

Exercise 2.10. Evaluate the integral

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z \exp(z)}{(z-a)^3} dz$$

Assuming the point a lies inside the simple closed curve C.

Proof: This is an application of the Residue Theorem. Applying the Residue theorem we have

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z \exp(z)}{(z-a)^3} \, dz = \frac{1}{2} e^a (2+a)$$

Exercise 2.11. Compute the definite integral

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{x^2} \, dx$$

Proof: Consider the following identity and change of variables

$$\frac{1 - \cos(2x/2)}{x^2} = \frac{2\sin^2(x/2)}{x^2} \quad y = x/2.$$

Then we have

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{x^2} dx = 2 \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin(x/2)}{x^2} dx$$
$$= 2 \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin^2(y)}{(2y)^2} 2dy$$
$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin^2(y)}{y^2} dy = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

This is integrated by considering the following contour:

$$\Gamma = \begin{cases} \gamma_1 := t & t \in [-R, -1/R] \\ \gamma_2 := e^{it}/R & t \in [\pi, 2\pi] \\ \gamma_3 := t & t \in [1/R, R] \\ \gamma_4 := Re^{it} & t \in [0, \pi] \end{cases}$$

Now our function has a removable singularity at x = 0, so consider the following

$$f(x) = \frac{1 - e^{2ix}}{2x^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Re(f(x)) = \frac{1 - \cos(2x)}{2x^2} = \frac{\sin^2(x)}{x^2}$$

Now for the integral around Γ we have

$$\int_{\Gamma} f(z) \, dz = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f(z)) = 2\pi i \lim_{z \to 0} \frac{d}{dz} z^2 f(z) = 2\pi i \lim_{z \to 0} -i e^{2iz} = 2\pi i (-i) = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}(f(z)) = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}$$

Now for the integral on γ_1 we have

$$\int_{\gamma_1} f(z) \, dz = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-R}^{-1/R} \frac{1 - e^{2it}}{t^2} \, dt \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1 - e^{2it}}{t^2} \, dt \text{ as } R \to \infty$$

For the integral on γ_2 we have

$$\int_{\gamma_2} f(z) dz = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \frac{\left(1 - e^{2ie^{it}/R}\right) ie^{it}/R}{e^{2it}/R^2}$$
$$= \frac{i}{2} \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \frac{1 - e^{2ie^{it}/R}}{e^{2it}/R}$$

Now letting $R \to \infty$ and using L'Hospitals rule we have

$$\frac{i}{2} \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \frac{-e^{2ie^{it}/R} \left(2ie^{it}/R\right)(i)}{ie^{it}/R} = \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} dt = \pi$$

For the integral on γ_3 we have

$$\int_{\gamma_3} f(z) \, dz = \frac{1}{2} \int_{1/R}^R \frac{1 - e^{2it}}{t^2} \, dt \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{1 - e^{2it}}{t^2} \, dt \text{ as } R \to \infty$$

Now for γ_4 we have

$$\int_{\gamma_4} f(z) \, dz = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\pi \frac{1 - Re^{2it}}{R^2 e^{2it}} Rie^{it} \, dt$$
$$= \frac{i}{2} \int_0^\pi \frac{1 - Re^{2it}}{Re^{it}}$$

Putting this all together we have

$$2\pi = \pi + \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{1 - e^{2it}}{t^2} dt + \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1 - e^{2it}}{t^2} dt$$

Taking real parts we have

$$\pi = \int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{\sin^2(t)}{t^2} dt + \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2(t)}{t^2} dt = 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2(t)}{t^2} dt$$

Hence we have $\int_0^\infty \frac{\sin^2(t)}{t^2} dt = \frac{\pi}{2}$

Exercise 2.12. Let f and g be two entire functions such that for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $\Re(f(z)) \leq \Re(g(z))$. Prove or disprove that there is a complex number z_1 such that for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $f(z) = g(z) = z_1$.

Proof: text

Exercise 2.13. Define a one-to-one conformal map from the semidisc

$$D = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} : \Re(z) > 0, \left| z - \frac{\imath}{2} \right| < \frac{1}{4} \right\}$$

onto the upper-half plane $H = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \Im(z) > 0\}$. Explain, by citing theorems or giving details, why your map is conformal and why it is 1-1 from D onto H.

Proof: First consider sequence of transformations

$$\phi_1: z \to z - \frac{i}{2}, \quad \phi_2: z \to 4z, \quad \phi_3: z \to z^2, \quad \phi_4: z \to i\left(\frac{1+z}{1-z}\right)$$

The first transformation $\phi_1(z)$ is a translation down by 1/2 so that the center of the semidisk is at the origin. The second $\phi_2(z)$ is a dilation to the right unit semidisk. The third transformation $\phi_3(z)$ is maps the semidisk to the unit disk. The last transformation $\phi_4(z)$ is the inverse Cayley transform that maps the unit disk into the upper-half plane. The composition that will take D to H is as follows

$$\phi(z) = (\phi_4 \circ \phi_3 \circ \phi_2 \circ \phi_1)(z)$$

Exercise 2.14. Let u and v be real-valued functions defined in a connected open set D of \mathbb{C} such that f = u + iv is holomorphic in D. Suppose there are real constants α , β and γ such that $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 \neq 0$ and $\alpha u + \beta v = \gamma$ in D. Prove that f is constant in D.

Proof: Consider the Cauchy Riemann equations with the condition that $\alpha u + \beta v = \gamma$.

$$C.R. = \begin{cases} u_x &= v_y \\ u_y &= -v_x \end{cases}$$

Taking partial with respect to x and y and using the we have

$$\begin{cases} \alpha u_x + \beta v_x = 0\\ \alpha u_y + \beta v_y = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \alpha u_x - \beta u_y = 0\\ \alpha u_y + \beta u_x = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow u_x = \frac{\beta}{\alpha} u_y$$

 $\alpha \neq 0$ since $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 \neq 0$. This implies that

$$\alpha u_y + \beta \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right) u_y \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left(\alpha^2 + \beta^2\right) u_y = 0$$

which implies that $u_y = v_x = 0$, hence u and v are constant, hence f(z) = u + iv is constant in D.

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Exercise 2.15. Let E be the union of two coordinate axes, i.e. $E = \{z = x + iy, xy = 0\}$. Describe all entire functions f satisfying $f(E) \subset E$.

Proof: It is clear that functions of the form $f(z) = \alpha z^n e^{k \iota \pi/2}$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. If $z \in E$, in polar form we can write all such functions as

$$f(r,\theta) = r^n e^{ni\pi/2}.$$

If $z \in E$, this is rotation by a multiple of $\pi/2$ or a dialation, hence $f(z) \in E$ if $z \in E$. Now linear combinations will work if and only if the each exponent in the linear combination is equal mod 2, i.e each term in the polynomial produces either a real or imaginary number. (e.g. the function $f(z) = z^4 + z^2 + 1 \in E$ if $z \in E$.

Exercise 2.16. Let p(x) be a polynomial with real coefficients. Prove that Laplace's transform

$$\tilde{p}(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-xz} p(x) \, dx,$$

is an analytic function in the right half-plane $\Re(z) > 0$.

Proof: First suppose that $p(x) = ax^n$, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then we have

$$\tilde{p}(z) = a \frac{n!}{z^{n+1}}$$

Now this function has a pole at 0, and hence is analytic for $\Re(z) > 0$. Integration is linear hence given a general polynomial

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k x^k \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{p}(z) = a_n \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k!}{z^{k+1}}$$

which is a sum of analytic functions for $\Re(z) > 0$ and hence is analytic.