

Lecture 4

Properties of Logarithmic Function (Contd...)

Since, $\text{Log } z = \ln|z| + i \text{Arg } z$

$$u \equiv \text{Re } \text{Log } z = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + y^2)$$

$$v \equiv \text{Im } \text{Log } z = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} + \text{constant} \quad \text{☰}$$

It follows that $u_x = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} = v_y$, $u_y = \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} = -v_x$

This shows that $\text{Re } \text{Log } z$ and $\text{Im } \text{Log } z$ are (i) continuous in $\mathcal{C} - \{z : \text{Re } z \leq 0, \text{Im } z = 0\}$ (ii) partially differentiable and first order partial derivatives are continuous in $\mathcal{C} - \{z : \text{Re } z \leq 0, \text{Im } z = 0\}$ (iii) Cauchy-Riemann equations hold.

Therefore,

- $\text{Log } z$ is analytic in $\mathcal{C} - \{z : \text{Re } z \leq 0, \text{Im } z = 0\}$ and

$$\frac{d}{dz} \text{Log } z = u_x + i v_x = \frac{x - i y}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2} = \frac{1}{z}.$$

- The branch of logarithm $\log_{\theta_0} z$, with $\theta_0 < \arg z \leq \theta_0 + 2\pi$, is a single valued function, and its properties are similar to the above properties of $\text{Log } z$.

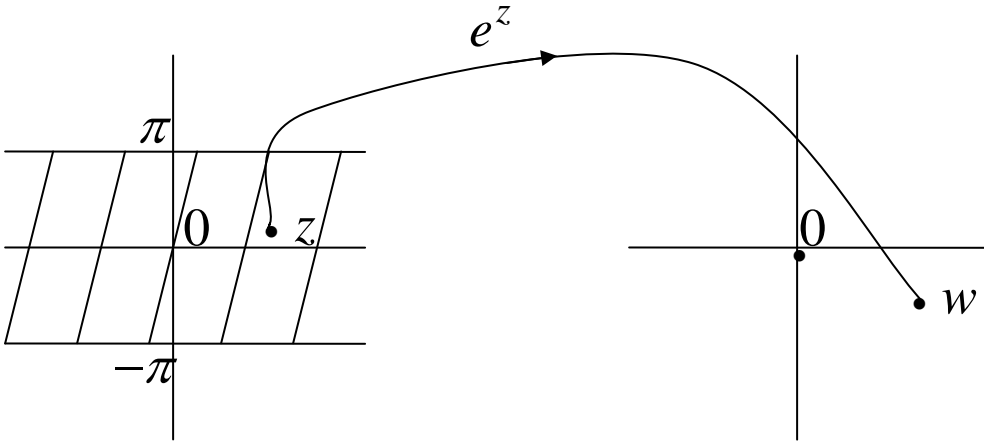
Exponential Function.

Define $e^z = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y)$

Note that $e^x \rightarrow \infty$ and $e^{-x} \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. But, $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} e^{iy}$ does not exist, since $\cos n\pi$ takes the values 1 and -1 for even and odd n , respectively. Consequently,

- $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} e^z$ does not exist.
- It follows easily by using the truth of CR equations for e^z and the continuity of first order partial derivatives of real and imaginary parts of e^z , that e^z is analytic for all z and $\frac{d}{dz} e^z = e^z$.
- Since, $|e^z| = e^x \neq 0$, it follows that $e^z \neq 0$ for any z .
- e^z is a periodic function of complex period $2\pi i$, since $e^{z+2\pi i} = e^{x+i(y+2\pi)} = e^z$.

The diagram sketched below illustrates that the fundamental period strip $\{z = x + iy : -\infty < x < \infty, -\pi < y \leq \pi\}$ is mapped one-one on-to $C - \{0\}$ by the function e^z .



The above diagram is explained by the following analytical arguments:

$$w = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y) \Rightarrow u = e^x \cos y, v = e^x \sin y, -\pi < y \leq \pi$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{2x} = u^2 + v^2 \text{ or } x = \ln|w|, w \neq 0$$

and

$$y = \text{Arg } w = \text{Tan}^{-1} \frac{v}{u}; \text{Tan}^{-1} \frac{v}{u} + \pi \text{ or } \text{Tan}^{-1} \frac{v}{u} - \pi$$

(According as $u > 0; u < 0, v \geq 0$ or $u < 0, v < 0$)

$\Rightarrow \exists$ a unique $z = (x, y)$, with $-\infty < x < \infty, -\pi < y \leq \pi$, such that

$$\text{Log } w = z \Leftrightarrow e^z = w.$$

- $\text{Log } z$ is inverse function of e^z , since $e^{\text{Log } z} = z$ and $\text{Log } e^z = z$.

In fact, that any branch of logarithm is inverse of exponential function, can be seen as follows:

Let, $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = x + iy$. Then,

$\log_{\theta_0} z = \ln |z| + i \arg z$, where $\arg z = \theta$, with $\theta_0 < \theta \leq \theta_0 + 2\pi$.

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\log_{\theta_0} z} &= e^{\ln |z|} \cdot e^{i(\arg z)} \\ &= e^{\ln |z|} \cdot e^{i\theta} \\ &= |z| e^{i\theta} \\ &= z. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\log_{\theta_0} e^z = \ln |e^z| + i \arg(e^z),$$

where, $-\pi + 2k_0\pi \leq \arg(e^z) \leq \pi + 2k_0\pi$ for some integer k_0 .

$$\begin{aligned} &= \ln e^x + i y \\ &= z. \end{aligned}$$

Note: After introducing Power Series in the sequel we will be able to prove that

(i) If f is differentiable in the entire complex plane \mathbb{C} , $f(0) = 1$ and $f'(z) = f(z)$ for all z , then $f(z)$ is the exponential function.

(ii) If f is differentiable in the entire complex plane \mathbb{C} , $f(0) = f'(0) = 1$ and $f(z_1 + z_2) = f(z_1) \cdot f(z_2)$ for all z_1 and z_2 , then $f(z)$ is an exponential function.

Another characterization of the exponential function can be found in G. P. Kapoor, A new characterization of the exponential function, Amer. Math. Monthly (1974).

Trigonometric and Hyperbolic Functions. The definitions of Trigonometric and Hyperbolic Functions of complex valued functions of a complex variable as given below are analogous to corresponding Trigonometric and Hyperbolic Functions of real valued functions of a real variable.

However, some of properties of Trigonometric and Hyperbolic functions of a complex variable as pointed out below are drastically different from corresponding functions of a real variable.

Definitions

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \quad \sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}, \quad \tan z = \frac{\sin z}{\cos z}, \quad \cot z = \frac{\cos z}{\sin z},$$

$$\operatorname{cosec} z = \frac{1}{\sin z}, \quad \sec z = \frac{1}{\cos z}.$$

$$\cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2} = \cos iz, \quad \sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2} = -i \sin iz,$$

$$\tanh z = \frac{\sinh z}{\cosh z} = -i \tan iz, \quad \coth z = \frac{\cosh z}{\sinh z} = i \cot iz,$$

$$\operatorname{cosech} z = \frac{1}{\sinh z}, \quad \operatorname{sech} z = \frac{1}{\cosh z}$$

Properties: The following properties of Trigonometric and Hyperbolic functions of a complex variable are drastically different from corresponding functions of a real variable, rest of standard properties are analogous:

1. $\sin z = \sin x \cosh y + i \cos x \sinh y,$

$\cos z = \cos x \cosh y - i \sin x \sinh y,$ for $z = x + iy.$

Similar identities for other Trigonometric and Hyperbolic functions can also be easily derived.

2. $|\sin z|^2 = \sin^2 x + \sinh^2 y, \quad |\cos z|^2 = \cos^2 x + \sinh^2 y \quad \text{for}$
 $z = x + iy$

3. $\sin z$ and $\cos z$ are unbounded functions in \mathbf{C} (A complex valued function $f(z)$ is said to be bounded in a set A if $|f(z)| \leq M$ for some M and all $z \in A$, otherwise it is said to be unbounded). Since, $|\sin iy| \rightarrow \infty$ and $|\cos iy| \rightarrow \infty$ as $y \rightarrow \infty$, $\sin z$ and $\cos z$ are unbounded functions in \mathbf{C} . Recall that, since $|\sin x| \leq 1$ and $|\cos x| \leq 1$ for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$, $\sin x$ and $\cos x$ are bounded functions in \mathbf{R} .

Harmonic Conjugate:

Let $u : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be a harmonic function, i.e. the function u and its partial derivatives up to the second order are continuous and satisfy the Laplace's equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0. \quad \text{💬}$$

Definition: A function $v : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is said to be Harmonic Conjugate of harmonic function $u : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$, if

$$u_x = v_y \text{ and } v_x = -u_y.$$

The following *Leibnitz Rule of differentiation under integral sign* is needed for proving the existence of harmonic conjugate:

Let $\varphi : [a, b] \times [c, d] \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ be continuous. Define

$$g(t) = \int_a^b \varphi(s, t) ds.$$

If $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t}$ exists and is cont. on $[a, b] \times [c, d]$, then g is diff. &

$$g'(t) = \int_a^b \frac{\partial \varphi(s, t)}{\partial t} ds$$

Theorem 1 (Existence of Harmonic Conjugates).

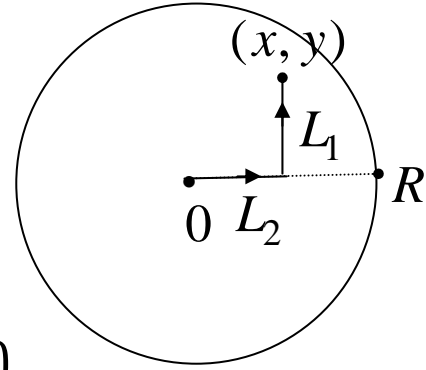
Let $G = B(0, R)$, $0 < R \leq \infty$ and $u : G \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be harmonic. Then, u has a harmonic conjugate in G



Proof. Define $v(x, y)$ by

$$v(x, y) = \int_0^y u_x(x, t) dt + \varphi(x)$$

and determine $\varphi(x)$ such that $v_x = -u_y$.
(Note that $v_y = u_x$ is obviously satisfied)



The above integral is well defined since $L_1 \in B(0, R)$.

Using Leibnitz Rule,


$$\begin{aligned} v_x(x, y) &= \int_0^y u_{xx}(x, t) dt + \varphi'(x) \\ &= -\int_0^y u_{yy}(x, t) dt + \varphi'(x) \\ &= -u_y(x, y) + u_y(x, 0) + \varphi'(x) \\ \Rightarrow \varphi'(x) &= -u_y(x, 0) \quad (\text{since } v_x = -u_y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Consequently, } v(x, y) &= \int_0^y u_x(x, t) dt - \int_0^x u_y(s, 0) ds \\ &\quad (\text{since } L_2 \in B(0, R)) \end{aligned}$$

is the required harmonic conjugate.

Notes.

1. The proof of above theorem gives a method to construct harmonic conjugate of a given harmonic function in the disk $B(0, R)$, $0 < R \leq \infty$
2. The arguments of the proof and the result of the above theorem are valid for any domain G that is convex both in the direction of x and direction of y .
3. If $G = B(c, R)$, where $c = (a, b)$, the above arguments could be modified to give the harmonic conjugate as:

$$v(x, y) = \int_b^y u_x(x, t) dt - \int_a^x u_y(s, b) ds$$


Remarks.

1. Harmonic conjugate of u is unique up to a constant (To see this, let v and w be two harmonic conjugates of u . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} u_x &= v_y = w_y \\ -u_y &= v_x = w_x \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} v_y &= w_y \Rightarrow v = w + \varphi(x) \\ v_x &= w_x \Rightarrow v = w + \psi(y) \end{aligned}$$

so that $\varphi(x) = \psi(y) = \text{constt.}$

2. The function f , whose real part is u is determined uniquely up to purely imaginary constant (Since harmonic conjugate v of u is unique up to a real constant, $f = u + i v$ is uniquely determined up to a purely imaginary constant.)

Examples.

1. $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$.

Since, $u_x(x, y) = 2x$, $u_y(x, y) = -2y$, the harmonic conjugate is

$$\begin{aligned} v(x, y) &= \int_0^y u_x(x, t) dt - \int_0^x u_y(s, 0) ds \\ &= \int_0^y 2x dt - \int_0^x 0 ds = 2xy. \end{aligned}$$

2. $u(x, y) = 2xy$.


Since $u_x(x, y) = 2y$, $u_y(x, y) = 2x$, the harmonic conjugate is

$$\begin{aligned} v(x, y) &= \int_0^y u_x(x, t) dt - \int_0^x u_y(s, 0) ds \\ &= \int_0^y 2t dt - \int_0^x 2s ds = y^2 - x^2. \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding analytic function is

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= 2xy + i(y^2 - x^2) \\ &= -i((x^2 - y^2) + 2ixy) \\ &= -iz^2 \end{aligned}$$

Other Methods to find Harmonic Conjugates

Method 2. If u is harmonic in a region contained in $\{z: z > 0\}$ (i.e., $x > 0, y > 0$ or first quadrant) and homogenous of degree m , $m \neq 0$, i.e. for any $t > 0$, $u(tz) = t^m u(z)$, then $v = \frac{1}{m}(yu_x - xu_y)$ is a conjugate harmonic function of u . 

Proof. Since $u(x, y)$ is a homogenous function, by Euler's Formula (see the derivation after this proof),

$$u(x, y) = \frac{1}{m}(xu_x + yu_y)$$

To show that $v = \frac{1}{m}(yu_x - xu_y)$ is the harmonic conjugate.

It is easily verified that

$$u_x = \frac{1}{m}(u_x + xu_{xx} + yu_{yx})$$

$$v_y = \frac{1}{m}(u_x + yu_{xy} - xu_{yy})$$

$\Rightarrow u_x = v_y$ (since, u_{xy} is continuous and u satisfies Laplace's equation.

The equation $u_y = -v_x$ is verified similarly.

Example. Find an analytic function whose real part is $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 + xy$.

The function u is homogenous of degree 2 and harmonic for all $z = x + i y$. Therefore, by Method 1 above,

$$\begin{aligned} v(x, y) &= \frac{1}{2} [y(2x + y) - x(-2y + x)] \\ &= 2xy + \frac{1}{2}(y^2 - x^2) \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding analytic function is therefore

$$f(z) = u + iv = (1 - \frac{1}{2}i)z^2.$$

Derivation of Euler's Formula for Homogenous Functions:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(u(tz)) = mt^{m-1}(u(z)) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x'} \frac{\partial x'}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y'} \frac{\partial y'}{\partial t} = mt^{m-1}u(z),$$

where $x' = tx$, $y' = ty$.

Now, make $t \rightarrow 1$ and use continuity of u , to get

$$u_{x'} \rightarrow u_x \text{ and } u_{y'} \rightarrow u_y \left(\frac{u(x' + h) - u(x)}{h} \rightarrow \frac{u(x + h) - u(x)}{h} \right)$$

as $x' \rightarrow x$ and $y' \rightarrow y$

Method 3 (Milne-Thompson Method: A completely informal method). Let $u(x, y)$ be a given Harmonic function.

- In the given expression of $u(x, y)$, put $x = \frac{z}{2}$, $y = \frac{z}{2i}$ (!) and

consider $g(z) = 2u\left(\frac{z}{2}, \frac{z}{2i}\right) - \overline{f(0)}$.

- The imaginary part of $g(z)$ is the desired harmonic conjugate of $u(x, y)$.

Example. $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$

Using Milne-Thompson method,

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= 2u\left(\frac{z}{2}, \frac{z}{2i}\right) - u(0, 0) \\ &= 2\left[\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{z}{2i}\right)^2\right] = z^2 \end{aligned}$$

Thus the desired harmonic conjugate is

$$v(x, y) = \operatorname{Im} f(z) = 2xy.$$

Informal Justification of Milne-Thompson Method:

Let $v(x, y)$ be a Harmonic conjugate of the given Harmonic function $u(x, y)$ and $g = u + iv$ be the corresponding analytic function,

Denote, $\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \equiv \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i\frac{\partial}{\partial y})$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \overline{g(z)} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (u - iv) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i\frac{\partial}{\partial y})(u - iv) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}[u_x - iv_x - i(u_y - iv_y)] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}[u_x - iv_x - iu_y - v_y] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}[u_x - v_y - i(v_x + u_y)] \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Informally assuming that z, \bar{z} are independent variables (!),

deduce from (1) that $\overline{f(z)}$ is independent of z , i.e. it is a function of \bar{z} alone, i.e. $\overline{g(z)} = g^*(\bar{z})$ (say).

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Rightarrow u(x, y) &= \frac{1}{2}[g(z) + \overline{g(z)}] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}[g(z) + g^*(\bar{z})]
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

In (2), $z = x + i y$, where, x and y are real. **Let us informally assume that (2) holds as well with x and y complex (!) and put**

$$x = \frac{z}{2}, \quad y = \frac{z}{2i}.$$

Then, (2) gives

$$\begin{aligned} u\left(\frac{z}{2}, \frac{z}{2i}\right) &= \frac{1}{2}[g(z) + g^*(0)] \quad (\text{since } \bar{z} = x - iy = \frac{z}{2} - i \frac{z}{2i} = 0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}[g(z) + \overline{g(0)}] \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equation (3)} \Rightarrow g(z) &= 2u\left(\frac{z}{2}, \frac{z}{2i}\right) - \overline{g(0)} \\ &= 2u\left(\frac{z}{2}, \frac{z}{2i}\right) - u(0,0) + u(0,0) - \overline{g(0)} \end{aligned}$$

Since $u(0,0) - \overline{f(0)}$ is a purely imaginary constant, it can be dropped from the above expression (since harmonic conjugates are unique only up to an imaginary constant).

$$\Rightarrow g(z) = 2u\left(\frac{z}{2}, \frac{z}{2i}\right) - \overline{f(0)}$$

is an analytic function whose real part is $u(x, y)$.

The imaginary part of $g(z)$ is therefore the desired harmonic conjugate of $u(x, y)$.