Math Notes

Tyler Wilson

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1 Complex Analysis

1.1 Complex Algebra

Complex numbers arise from the roots of polynomials.

Ex: $x^2 + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow x^2 = -1 \Rightarrow x = \pm \sqrt{-1}$. This polynomial has no real roots, however, we can introduce an imaginary number i such that $i^2 = -1$. Then we will have the solution $x = \pm i$ We can introduce *complex numbers* which are numbers in the form z = x + iy, where x is the real part of z, $\Re(z)$, and y is the imaginary part of z, $\Im(z)$. These numbers can also be expressed in vector notation along the complex plane.

1.1.1 Complex Arithmetic

Addition, subtraction, and multiplication work the same, just with the addition of the fact $i^2 = -1$. For division, we require what is called the conjugate.

The conjugate of a complex number is the same number, just with the sign of the imaginary component flipped.

$$\overline{z} = x - yi$$

where \overline{z} is the conjugate of z.

Similarly to vectors, we can also define the modulus (length) of a complex number

$$|z|^2 = x^2 + y^2 = z \cdot \overline{z}$$

Using this, we can define the division of a complex number and also define the real and imaginary components of a complex number.

The general expression for division is:

$$\frac{u}{z} = \frac{s+it}{x+iy} = \frac{(s+it)(x-iy)}{(x+iy)(x-iy)} = \frac{u\overline{z}}{x^2+y^2} = \frac{u\overline{z}}{|z|^2}$$

The real and imaginary components can be computed as

$$z = x + iy$$

$$\overline{z} = x - iy$$

$$\Re(z) = \frac{z + \overline{z}}{2}$$

$$\Im(z) = \frac{z - \overline{z}}{2i}$$

Ex1: Simplify (1+2i)(3+i)(2-3i)

$$(1+2i)(3+i)(2-3i) = (3+i+6i-2)(2-3i) = (1+7i)(2-3i)$$

= 2-3i+14i+21
= 23+11i

Ex2: Simplify $\left(\frac{2+i}{1+i}\right)^2$

$$\left(\frac{2+i}{1+i}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{(2+i)(1-i)}{(1+i)(1-i)}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{2+i-2i+1}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{3-i}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{9-6i-1}{4}$$
$$= 2 - \frac{3}{2}i$$

Ex3: Simplify $(1+2i)^5$

$$(1+2i)^5 = 1^5 + 5(1)^4(2i) + 10(1)^3(2i)^2 + 10(1)^2(2i)^3 + 5(1)(2i)^4 + (2i)^5$$

$$= 1 + 10i + 10(-4) + 10(-8i) + 5(16) + 32i$$

$$= 1 + 10i - 40 - 80i + 80 + 32i$$

$$= 41 - 38i$$

Ex4: Prove

if
$$|z| = 1$$
 then $\Re\left(\frac{1}{1+z}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$

Proof.

$$\frac{\Re(w) = \frac{w + \overline{w}}{2}}{\frac{1}{1+z}} = \frac{1}{1+\overline{z}}$$

$$\Re\left(\frac{1}{1+z}\right) = \frac{\frac{1}{1+z} + \frac{1}{1+\overline{z}}}{2} = \frac{1+\overline{z}+1+z}{2(1+z)(1+\overline{z})} = \frac{2+z+\overline{z}}{2(1+z+\overline{z}+|z|^2)}$$
$$|z| = 1 \Rightarrow \Re\left(\frac{1}{1+z}\right) = \frac{2+z+\overline{z}}{2(2+z+\overline{z})} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Some properties of \overline{z} :

- $\bullet \ \ \overline{\overline{z}}=z$
- $\bullet \ \overline{z_1 z_2} = \overline{z}_1 \overline{z}_2$
- $\bullet |z_1z_2| = |z_1||z_2|$

Some common inequalities come from the triangle inequality:

$$|z_1 + z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$$

Proof.

$$|z_1 + z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$$

$$|z_1 + z_2| = \sqrt{(x_1 + x_2)^2 + (y_1 + y_2)^2}$$

$$\sqrt{(x_1 + x_2)^2 + (y_1 + y_2)^2} \le \sqrt{x_1^2 + y_1^2} + \sqrt{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

$$|z_1 + z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$$

$$\Rightarrow |z_1 \pm z_2| \ge ||z_1| - |z_2||$$

This leads to a general upper and lower bound that can be derived from these inequalities:

$$||z_1| - |z_2|| \le |z_1 \pm z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$$

Another way to represent complex numbers is through polar form. To use this we must first introduce Euler's identity:

$$e^{i\varphi} = \cos\varphi + i\sin\varphi$$

This then helps us with the equation for the polar form

$$z = a + ib = |z|(\cos \varphi + i\sin \varphi) = |z|e^{i\varphi}$$

For $z=re^{i\varphi}$ We call r the magnitude of the complex number and φ is the argument. This can be especially useful for simplifying some complex numbers. Ex:

$$\left| \frac{(1+\sqrt{3}i)^{100}}{(\sqrt{3}-i)^{100}} \right| = \frac{|1+\sqrt{3}i|^{100}}{|\sqrt{3}-i|^{100}} = \frac{2^{100}}{2^{100}} = 1$$

Note that because sinusoidal functions are periodic every 2π this means that there infinite ways to express a function in polar coordinates.

$$e^{i2\pi k} = 1, \ k \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow z = re^{i(\varphi + 2\pi k)}$$

To get around the issue of having infinite possible polar forms for every complex number we define what's called the principal argument to be

$$Arg(z) = \varphi \in (-\pi, \pi]$$

We define the regular argument to be

$$arg(z) = Arg(z) + 2k\pi, \ k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Note that Arg(z) is singular valued while arg(z) is multi-valued. We can define Arg(z) in terms of the real and imaginary parts (x and y) as

$$Arg(z) = \arctan(\frac{y}{x}) \pm k\pi$$

What it is specifically depends on what quadrant of the complex plane the point lies in.

- QI: $Arg(z) = arctan(\frac{y}{x})$
- QII: $Arg(z) = \arctan(\frac{y}{x}) + \pi$
- QIII: $\operatorname{Arg}(z) = \arctan(\frac{y}{x}) \pi$
- QIV: $Arg(z) = \arctan(\frac{y}{x})$

Ex:

$$Arg(-1 - \sqrt{3}i) = \arctan(\sqrt{3}) - \pi = -\frac{2\pi}{3}$$

Ex2:

$$\arg(1 - \sqrt{3}i)$$

$$\operatorname{Arg}(1 - \sqrt{3}i) = -\frac{\pi}{3}$$

$$\operatorname{arg}(1 - \sqrt{3}) = -\frac{\pi}{3} + 2k\pi, \ k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Ex3:

$$\arg(-1+2i)$$

$$\operatorname{Arg}(-1+2i) = \arctan(-2) + \pi$$

$$\operatorname{arg}(-1+2i) = \pi - \arctan(2) + 2k\pi$$

Ex4: Simplify

$$z = -3 + 3i$$

$$Arg(z) = \arctan\left(\frac{3}{-3}\right) + \pi = \frac{3\pi}{4}$$
$$|z| = 3\sqrt{2}$$
$$z = 3\sqrt{2}e^{\frac{3\pi}{4}i}$$

Ex5: Simplify

$$z = -3 - 3i$$

$$Arg(z) = \arctan\left(\frac{-3}{-3}\right) - \pi = -\frac{3\pi}{4}$$

$$|z| = 3\sqrt{2}$$
$$z = 3\sqrt{2}e^{-\frac{3\pi}{4}i}$$

$$z = \frac{1-i}{-\sqrt{3}+i} = \frac{u}{v}$$

$$\arg(z) = \arg(u) - \arg(v) = \arctan\left(\frac{-1}{1}\right) - \left(\arctan\left(\frac{1}{-\sqrt{3}}\right) + \pi\right) + 2k\pi$$

$$= -\frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{5\pi}{6} + 2k\pi = -\frac{13\pi}{12} + 2k\pi$$

$$\operatorname{Arg}(z) = \frac{11\pi}{12}$$

$$|z| = \frac{|u|}{|v|} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$z = \frac{e^{\frac{11\pi}{12}i}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Ex7: Simplify

$$z = (\sqrt{3} - i)^2 = w^2$$

$$\arg(w) = \arctan\left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + 2k\pi = -\frac{\pi}{6}$$

$$\Rightarrow \arg(z) = 2\arg(w) = -\frac{\pi}{3} + 4k\pi$$

$$\operatorname{Arg}(z) = -\frac{\pi}{3}$$

$$|w| = 2 \Rightarrow |z| = |w|^2 = 4$$

$$z = 4e^{-\frac{\pi}{3}i}$$

Properties of Arg(z) and arg(z)

• $\operatorname{Arg}(z_1 z_2) \neq \operatorname{Arg}(z_1) + \operatorname{Arg}(z_2)$

Proof. Proof by contradiction: assume that $Arg(z_1z_2) = Arg(z_1) + Arg(z_2)$ is true. Take $z_1 = z_2 = -1$.

$$Arg(z_1) = Arg(z_2) = \pi$$

$$\begin{split} &\Rightarrow \operatorname{Arg}(z_1) + \operatorname{Arg}(z_2) = 2\pi \\ &\operatorname{Arg}(z_1 z_2) = \operatorname{Arg}(1) = 0 \\ &\operatorname{Arg}(z_1 z_2) \neq \operatorname{Arg}(z_1) + \operatorname{Arg}(z_2) \ \forall z_1, z_2 \neq 0 \in \mathbb{C} \end{split}$$

• $\arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$

• $\operatorname{Arg}(\overline{z}) \neq -\operatorname{Arg}(z)$

Proof. Proof by contradiction: assume that $\operatorname{Arg}(\overline{z}) = -\operatorname{Arg}(z)$ is true. Take z=-1

$$\begin{split} \overline{z} &= z = -1 \\ \operatorname{Arg}(z) &= \pi \\ \operatorname{Arg}(\overline{z}) &= \pi \\ -\operatorname{Arg}(z) &= -\pi \\ \Rightarrow \operatorname{Arg}(\overline{z}) \neq -\operatorname{Arg}(z) \ \forall z \in \mathbb{C} \end{split}$$

• $arg(z) = -arg(\overline{z})$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} z &= |z| e^{i \arg(z)} \ \forall z \in \mathbb{C} \\ \overline{z} &= |z| e^{-i \arg(z)} \\ \Rightarrow &\arg(\overline{z}) = -\arg(z) \end{split}$$

1.1.2 De Moirre's Formula

Using Euler's identity we can derive a powerful formula called De Moirre's Formula as follows:

$$e^{iN\varphi} = \cos(N\varphi) + i\sin(N\varphi)$$

$$e^{iN\varphi} = (e^{i\varphi})^N = (\cos\varphi + i\sin\varphi)^N$$

$$(\cos\varphi + i\sin\varphi)^N = \cos(N\varphi) + i\sin(N\varphi)$$

Applications of De Moirre's Formula:

Binomial expansion:

$$N = 2$$
:
 $\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta$
 $\sin(2\theta) = 2\cos \theta \sin \theta$

$$N = 3:$$

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^3 = \cos^3 \theta + 3\cos^2 \theta (i \sin \theta) + 3\cos \theta (i \sin \theta)^2 + (i \sin \theta)^3$$

$$\cos(3\theta) = \cos^3 \theta - 3\cos \theta \sin^2 \theta$$

$$\sin(3\theta) = 3\cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \sin^3 \theta$$

Ex: Prove

$$\sin(3\theta) = 3\sin\theta - 4\sin^3\theta$$

Proof. Using De Moivre's formula with N=3

$$(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^3 = \cos(3\theta) + i\sin(3\theta)$$

$$(\cos\theta)^3 + 3(\cos\theta)^2(i\sin\theta) + 3\cos\theta(i\sin\theta)^2 + (i\sin\theta)^3 = \cos(3\theta) + i\sin(3\theta)$$

$$\cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta\sin^2\theta + i(3\cos^2\theta\sin\theta - \sin^3\theta) = \cos(3\theta) + i\sin(3\theta)$$

$$\Im\left\{\cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta\sin^2\theta + i(3\cos^2\theta\sin\theta - \sin^3\theta)\right\} = \Im\left\{\cos(3\theta) + i\sin(3\theta)\right\}$$

$$3\cos^2\theta\sin\theta - \sin^3\theta = \sin(3\theta)$$

$$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1 \Rightarrow \cos^2\theta = 1 - \sin^2\theta$$

$$3(1 - \sin^2\theta)\sin\theta - \sin^3\theta = \sin(3\theta)$$

$$3\sin\theta - 3\sin^3\theta - \sin^3\theta = \sin(3\theta)$$

$$3\sin\theta - 4\sin^3\theta = \sin(3\theta)$$

Computing trigonometric integrals:

Ex:

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos^{8} \varphi d\varphi$$

$$e^{i\varphi} = \cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi$$

$$e^{-i\varphi} = \cos \varphi - i \sin \varphi$$

$$\cos \varphi = \frac{e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi}}{2}$$

$$\sin \varphi = \frac{e^{i\varphi} - e^{-i\varphi}}{2i}$$

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \left(\frac{e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi}}{2}\right)^{8} d\varphi = \frac{1}{2^{8}} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \left(e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi}\right)^{8} d\varphi$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{8}} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \left(e^{i8\varphi} + {}_{1}C_{8}e^{i7\varphi}e^{-i\varphi} + \dots + {}_{7}C_{8}e^{i\varphi}e^{-i7\varphi} + e^{-i8\varphi}\right) d\varphi$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{8}} \left(0 + \dots + {}_{4}C_{8}2\pi + \dots + 0\right) = \frac{4^{C_{8}}}{2^{7}}\pi$$

Ex2:

$$\cos\theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2}$$

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos^{6}\theta d\theta = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \left(\frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{6}} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{6} {k \choose 6} e^{i\theta k} e^{-i\theta(6-k)} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{6}} \sum_{k=0}^{6} {k \choose 6} \int_{0}^{2\pi} e^{i\theta(2k-6)} d\theta$$

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} e^{ik\theta} d\theta = \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{ik} \Big|_{0}^{2\pi} = \frac{e^{2\pi ik} - 1}{ik}$$

$$e^{2\pi ik} = 1, \ k \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow \int_{0}^{2\pi} e^{ik\theta} d\theta = 0, \ k \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos^{6}\theta d\theta = \frac{1}{2^{6}} {3 \choose 6} \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta = \frac{(20)(2\pi)}{2^{6}} = \frac{5\pi}{8}$$

Ex3:

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin^{6}(2\theta) d\theta$$

$$\sin(2\theta) = \frac{e^{2i\theta} - e^{-2i\theta}}{2i}$$

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin^{6}(2\theta) d\theta = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \left(\frac{e^{2i\theta} - e^{-2i\theta}}{2i}\right)^{6} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2i)^{6}} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{6} {k \choose 6} (-1)^{6-k} e^{2ik\theta} e^{-2i\theta(6-k)} d\theta$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2^{6}} \sum_{k=0}^{6} {k \choose 6} (-1)^{6-k} \int_{0}^{2\pi} e^{i\theta(4k-12)} d\theta$$

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} e^{ik\theta} d\theta = \frac{e^{ik\theta}}{ik} \Big|_{0}^{2\pi} = \frac{e^{2\pi ik} - 1}{ik}$$

$$e^{2\pi ik} = 1, \ k \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow \int_{0}^{2\pi} e^{ik\theta} d\theta = 0, \ k \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin^{6}(2\theta) d\theta = -\frac{1}{2^{6}} {3 \choose 6} (-1)^{3} \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{5\pi}{8}$$

Ex4: Prove

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \cos(k\theta) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sin\left(\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\theta\right)}{2\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

Proof. De Moivre's formula states

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos(n\theta) + i \sin(n\theta)$$

If we take the conjugate of both sides we get

$$(\cos \theta - i \sin \theta)^n = \cos(n\theta) - i \sin(n\theta)$$

Summing these two equations gives

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^k + (\cos \theta - i \sin \theta)^k = 2\cos(k\theta)$$
$$\cos \theta \pm i \sin \theta = e^{\pm i\theta}$$
$$2\cos(k\theta) = (e^{i\theta})^k + (e^{-i\theta})^k$$

We can sum both sides of this to get

$$2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) = \sum_{k=0}^{n}(e^{i\theta})^{k} + \sum_{k=0}^{n}(e^{-i\theta})^{k}$$

The formula for the geometric sum is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} z^k = \frac{1 - z^{n+1}}{1 - z}$$

Applying this we get

$$\begin{split} 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= \frac{1-(e^{i\theta})^{n+1}}{1-e^{i\theta}} + \frac{1-(e^{-i\theta})^{n+1}}{1-e^{-i\theta}} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= \frac{(1-e^{i\theta(n+1)})(1-e^{-i\theta}) + (1-e^{-i\theta(n+1)})(1-e^{i\theta})}{(1-e^{i\theta})(1-e^{-i\theta})} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= \frac{1-e^{i\theta(n+1)}-e^{i\theta}+e^{i\theta n}+1-e^{-i\theta(n+1)}-e^{-i\theta}+e^{-i\theta n}}{1-e^{i\theta}-e^{-i\theta}+1} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= 1+\frac{e^{i\theta n}+e^{-i\theta n}-e^{i\theta(n+1)}-e^{-i\theta(n+1)}}{2-e^{i\theta}-e^{-i\theta}} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= 1+\frac{e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}\left(e^{-i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}-e^{i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}\right)+e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}\left(e^{i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}-e^{i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}\right)}{e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}\left(e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}-e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}\right)+e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}\left(e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}-e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}\right)} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= 1+\frac{\left(e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}-e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}\right)\left(e^{i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}-e^{-i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}\right)}{-\left(e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}-e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}\right)^2} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= 1+\frac{e^{i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}-e^{-i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}}{e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}-e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= 1+\frac{\frac{1}{2i}\left(e^{i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}-e^{-i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}\right)}{e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}-e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}} \\ 2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) &= 1+\frac{\frac{1}{2i}\left(e^{i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}-e^{-i\theta(n+\frac{1}{2})}\right)}{e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}}-e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}}} \\ \sin(x) &= \frac{e^{ix}-e^{-ix}}{2i} \end{split}$$

$$2\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) = 1 + \frac{\sin\left(\theta(n + \frac{1}{2})\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n}\cos(k\theta) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sin\left(\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\theta\right)}{2\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

1.1.3 Geometry in the Complex Plane

Using the notation such that z = x + iy where $\Re(z) = x$ and $\Im(z) = y$ we can define a circle in the complex plane as

$$(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 = r_0^2$$

This is analogous to writing

$$|z - z_0| = r_0$$

The two can be related as follows:

$$|z - z_0| = r_0$$

$$|x + iy - x_0 - iy_0| = r_0$$

$$\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2} = r_0$$

$$(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 = r_0^2$$

Ex: describe the circle formed by 2|z|=|z+1|

$$\begin{aligned} 2|z| &= |z+1| \\ 4|z|^2 &= |z+1|^2 \\ 4x^2 + 4y^2 &= (x+1)^2 + y^2 \\ 4x^2 + 4y^2 &= x^2 + 2x + 1 + y^2 \\ 3x^2 + 3y^2 - 2x - 1 &= 0 \\ 3x^2 - 2x + \frac{1}{3} + 3y^2 - \frac{4}{3} &= 0 \\ 3\left(x - \frac{1}{3}\right)^2 + 3y^2 &= \frac{4}{3} \\ \left(x - \frac{1}{3}\right)^2 + y^2 &= \frac{4}{9} \end{aligned}$$

A line in the complex plane can be written as

$$ax + by = c \longleftrightarrow a\frac{z + \overline{z}}{2} + b\frac{z - \overline{z}}{2i} = c$$

Ex: describe the line formed by |z - 1 + i| = |z - 2i|

$$|z - 1 + i| = |z - 2i|$$

$$|z - 1 + i|^2 = |z - 2i|^2$$

$$(x - 1)^2 + (y + 1)^2 = x^2 + (y - 2)^2$$

$$x^2 - 2x + 1 + y^2 + 2y + 1 = x^2 + y^2 - 4y + 4$$

$$-2x + 2 + 2y = -4y + 4$$

$$6y = 2x + 2$$

$$y = \frac{1}{3}(x + 1)$$

We can define an ellipse in the complex plane as

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

If we have a > b then we will have a horizontal ellipse and if b > a then we will have a vertical ellipse.

Assuming that a > b then we can define the foci points to be at

$$+F = (\sqrt{a^2 - b^2}, 0)$$

 $-F = (-\sqrt{a^2 - b^2}, 0)$

The equation of an ellipse can also be described by

$$|z - F| + |z + F| = 2a$$

Ex: describe the ellipse formed by |z-1|+|z+1|=4

$$|z - 1| + |z + 1| = 4$$

$$|z - F| + |z + F| = 2a \Rightarrow 2a = 4 \Rightarrow a = 2$$

$$F = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} = 1 \Rightarrow 1 = 4 - b^2 \Rightarrow b^2 = 3$$

$$\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{3} = 1$$

Ex2: describe the ellipse formed by |z - 1| + |z + 3| = 6

$$|z-1| + |z+3| = 6$$

note that this ellipse is not centered at the origin so we need to shift it

$$|z+1-2| + |z+1+2| = 6$$

$$2a = 6 \Rightarrow a = 3$$

$$F = 2 = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} \Rightarrow 4 = 9 - b^2 \Rightarrow b^2 = 5$$

$$\frac{(x+1)^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{5} = 1$$

1.1.4 Roots of a Complex Number

Given
$$z_0 = r_0 e^{i\varphi_0}$$
, what is $z_0^{\frac{1}{n}}$?

If we let
$$w = z_0^{\frac{1}{n}}$$
 then $w^n = z_0$

$$w = re^{i\varphi}, \ w_n = r^n e^{in\varphi}$$

$$w^{n} = z_{0} \Rightarrow r^{n}e^{in\varphi} = r_{0}e^{i\varphi_{0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow r^{n} = r_{0} \Rightarrow r^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

$$e^{in\varphi} = e^{i\varphi_{0}} \Rightarrow n\varphi = \varphi_{0} + 2k\pi$$

$$\varphi = \frac{\varphi}{n} + \frac{2k\pi}{n}$$

So all solutions to $w^n = z_0$ are given by

$$w = r_0^{\frac{1}{n}} e^{i\left(\frac{\varphi_0}{n} + \frac{2k\pi}{n}\right)}, \ k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

If we normalize $\varphi_0 = \operatorname{Arg}(z_0)$ then k will be in the range $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$. Note that the expression

$$w = r_0^{\frac{1}{n}} e^{i\left(\frac{\varphi_0}{n} + \frac{2k\pi}{n}\right)}, \ k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

is multi-valued. If we want to avoid this, we can take what's called the principal value which is the value when k = 0:

$$z_0^{\frac{1}{n}} = r_0^{\frac{1}{n}} e^{i\frac{\varphi_0}{n}}$$

Ex: Compute $(-1)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

$$z_0 = -1 = 1^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{i(\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{2k\pi}{2})} = e^{i(\frac{\pi}{2} + k\pi)} = \left\{ \dots, e^{-i\frac{3\pi}{2}}, e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}}, e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}, e^{i\frac{3\pi}{2}}, e^{i\frac{5\pi}{2}}, \dots \right\}$$

note that there are only 2 unique values

$$(-1)^{\frac{1}{2}} = e^{i(\frac{\pi}{2} + k\pi)}, \ k \in \{0, 1\}$$

The principal value (when k=0) of this equation works out to be i.

Ex2: Find all solutions to

$$\begin{split} z^7 &= i - 1 \\ z^7 &= \sqrt{2} e^{i(\frac{3\pi}{4} + 2\pi k)} \\ z &= 2^{1/14} e^{i(\frac{3\pi}{28} + \frac{2\pi}{7}k)}, \ k \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \end{split}$$

Ex3: Find all solutions to

$$\begin{split} z^5 &= \frac{2i}{-1 - \sqrt{3}i} \\ z^5 &= \frac{2e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}}{2e^{-i\frac{2\pi}{3}}} = e^{i\frac{7\pi}{6}} = e^{-i(\frac{5\pi}{6} + 2\pi k)} \\ z &= e^{-i(\frac{\pi}{6} + \frac{2\pi}{5}k)}, \ k \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\} \end{split}$$

Ex4: Find all solutions to

$$\left(\frac{z}{z+1}\right)^2 = i$$

$$\begin{split} &\left(\frac{z}{z+1}\right)^2 = e^{i(\frac{\pi}{2} + 2\pi k)} \\ &\frac{z}{z+1} = e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4} + \pi k)}, \ k \in \{0, 1\} \\ &e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4} + \pi k)} = \left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1+i), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-1-i)\right\} \\ &z = e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4} + k\pi)}(z+1) \\ &z = \frac{e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4} + k\pi)}}{1 - e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4} + k\pi)}} = \left\{\frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2} - 1 - i}, \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{2} + 1 + i}\right\} \end{split}$$

Ex5: Find all solutions to

$$z^{2} + 4iz + 1 = 0$$

$$(z^{2} + 4iz - 4) + 4 + 1 = 0$$

$$(z + 2i)^{2} + 5 = 0$$

$$(z + 2i)^{2} = -5 = 5e^{i(\pi + 2\pi k)}$$

$$z + 2i = \sqrt{5}e^{i(\frac{\pi}{2} + \pi k)} = \left\{\sqrt{5}i, -\sqrt{5}i\right\}$$

$$z = \left\{(\sqrt{5} - 2)i, -(\sqrt{5} + 2)i\right\}$$

1.2 Complex Functions

1.2.1 Mapping Properties of Simple Functions

Similar to how functions with real variables map values to a different set of values, complex functions do the same. The main difference is that with complex functions we're mapping a 2 dimensional set of inputs to a 2 dimensional set of outputs.

$$w = f(z) = u + iv$$

We define $z \in \mathcal{S}$ the image of \mathcal{S} under w. Some common mappings:

• The identity map

$$w = f(z) = z$$

$$\begin{cases} u = x \\ v = y \end{cases}$$

• Translation by z_0

$$w = f(z) = z + z_0$$

$$\begin{cases} u = x + x_0 \\ v = y + y_0 \end{cases}$$

• Stretching (a > 1) or contraction (a < 1)

$$w = f(z) = az = are^{i\varphi}, \ a \in \mathbb{R}$$

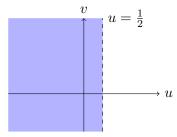
$$\begin{cases} u = ax \\ v = ay \end{cases}$$

• Rotation by φ_0

$$w = f(z) = e^{i\varphi_0}z = e^{i(\varphi + \varphi_0)}$$

Using these basic mapping principles we are able to lay the foundation for some more complicated mappings.

Ex: Find the image of $S = \{|z - 1| \ge 1\}$ under the mapping $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$



$$z = \frac{1}{w} = \frac{1}{u+iv} = \frac{u-iv}{u^2+v^2}$$

$$x = \frac{u}{u^2+v^2}$$

$$y = -\frac{v}{u^2+v^2}$$

$$|z-1| \ge 1 \Rightarrow \left|\frac{1}{w}-1\right| \ge 1$$

$$\frac{1-w}{w} \ge 1$$

$$|1-w| \ge |w|$$

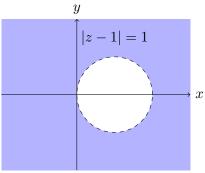
$$|1-w|^2 \ge |w|^2$$

$$(1-u)^2+v^2 \ge u^2+v^2$$

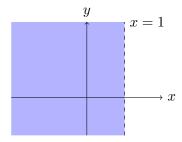
$$-2u+1 \ge 0$$

$$u \le \frac{1}{2}$$

$$S' = \left\{u \le \frac{1}{2}\right\}$$



Ex2: Find the image of $S=\{x\leq 1\}$ under the mapping $f(z)=\frac{1}{z}$

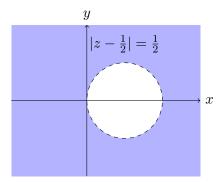


$$z = \frac{1}{w} = \frac{1}{u+iv} = \frac{u-iv}{u^2+v^2}$$

$$x = \frac{u}{u^2+v^2}$$

$$x \le 1 \Rightarrow \frac{u}{u^2+v^2} \le 1 \Rightarrow u^2+v^2 \ge u$$

$$(u-\frac{1}{2})^2+v^2 \ge \frac{1}{4}$$



We see from the previous two examples that circles map to lines and lines map to circles. Let's see why this is the case.

$$a(x^{2} + y^{2}) + bx + cy + d = 0$$
$$a|z|^{2} + b\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} + c\frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} + d = 0$$

In the case where a = 0, we have a line. In the case where $a \neq 0$, we have a circle.

$$w = \frac{1}{z} \Rightarrow z = \frac{1}{w}$$

$$\begin{split} z\bar{z} &= |z|^2 = \frac{1}{|w|^2} = \frac{1}{w\bar{w}} \\ a\frac{1}{w\bar{w}} + b\frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} + c\frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} + d &= 0 \\ a\frac{1}{w\bar{w}} + \frac{b}{2}\left(\frac{1}{w} + \frac{1}{\bar{w}}\right) + \frac{c}{2i}\left(\frac{1}{w} - \frac{1}{\bar{w}}\right) + d &= 0 \\ a + \frac{b}{2}\left(w + \bar{w}\right) + \frac{c}{2i}\left(w - \bar{w}\right) + d\left(w\bar{w}\right) &= 0 \end{split}$$

If we have a linear transformation of the form az + b it corresponds to the scaling and translation of the set only. A line will map to a line and a circle will map to a circle.

We can combine this with the $w = \frac{1}{z}$ transformation property to get a more general transformation. We call this the *Mobius transformation*:

$$f(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d} = \frac{a}{c} + \frac{b-\frac{ad}{c}}{cz+d}$$

where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$

Ex: Find the mapping of $f(z) = \frac{1}{z+1}$ on the set $S = \{\Re(z) > 0\}$

$$u + iv = \frac{1}{x+1+iy} \Rightarrow x+1+iy = \frac{1}{u+iv}$$

$$x+1 = \frac{u}{u^2+v^2}$$

$$x > 0 \Rightarrow x+1 > 1$$

$$\frac{u}{u^2+v^2} > 1 \Rightarrow u > u^2+v^2$$

$$u^2+v^2-u+\frac{1}{4} < \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\left(u-\frac{1}{2}\right)^2+v^2 < \frac{1}{4}$$

$$S' = \left\{w = u+iv \left| \left(u-\frac{1}{2}\right)^2+v^2 < \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \right\}$$

Ex2: Find the mapping of $f(z) = \frac{z-i}{z+i}$ on $S = \{|z| < 3\}$

$$wz + iw = z - i \Rightarrow z(w - 1) = -i - iw \Rightarrow z = \frac{i(w + 1)}{1 - w}$$

$$|z| = \frac{|w + 1|}{|w - 1|} < 3$$

$$|w + 1| < 3|w - 1| \Rightarrow |w + 1|^2 < 9|w - 1|^2$$

$$(u + 1)^2 + v^2 < 9(u - 1)^2 + 9v^2$$

$$u^2 + 2u + 1 + v^2 < 9u^2 - 18u + 9 + 9v^2$$

$$0 < 8u^2 - 20u + 8 + 8v^2 \Rightarrow 0 < u^2 - \frac{5}{2}u + 1 + v^2$$

$$\frac{9}{16} < u^2 - \frac{5}{2}u + \frac{25}{16} + v^2$$

$$\frac{9}{16} < \left(u - \frac{5}{4}\right)^2 + v^2$$

$$S' = \left\{ w = u + iv \middle| \left(u - \frac{5}{4}\right)^2 + v^2 > \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 \right\}$$

Another common mapping is the $f(z) = z^2$ or more generally $f(z) = z^n$ mapping. For $w = z^2$,

$$w = z^2 = r^2 e^{2i\varphi} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} |w| = |z|^2 \\ \arg(w) = 2\arg(z) \end{cases}$$

This mapping scales the magnitude but more notably, it doubles the argument. This means that the mapping of a half circle will now be a full circle.

Ex: Find the mapping of $f(z) = z^2$ on $S = \{0 \le \Re(z) \le 1, \Im(z) = 1\}$

$$w = x^{2} + i2xy - y^{2}$$

$$u = x^{2} - y^{2} = x^{2} - 1 \Rightarrow -1 \le u \le 0$$

$$v = 2xy = 2x \Rightarrow 0 \le v \le 2$$

$$S' = \{w = u + iv | -1 \le u \le 0, \ 0 \le v \le 2\}$$

Ex2: Find the mapping of $f(z)=-2z^5$ on $S=\left\{|z|<1,0<\mathrm{Arg}(z)<\frac{\pi}{2}\right\}$

$$z^{5} = -\frac{w}{2} \Rightarrow |z|^{5} = \frac{|w|}{2} < 1 \Rightarrow |w| < 2$$

$$5 \arg(z) = \arg(w) \pm \pi$$

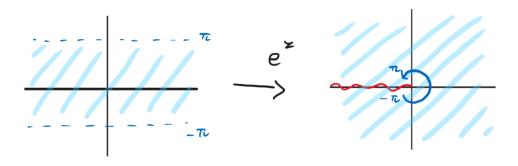
$$0 < \arg(w) \pm \pi < \frac{5\pi}{2}$$

$$-\pi < \arg(w) < \frac{3\pi}{2}$$

$$S' = \{|w| < 2\}$$

Another common mapping is the $f(z) = e^z$ mapping.

$$w = e^z = e^{x+iy} = e^x e^{iy}$$
$$\begin{cases} |w| = e^x \\ \arg(w) = y \end{cases}$$



This mapping has the property that the magnitude is only dependent on x and the argument is exactly y.

Ex: Find the mapping of $f(z) = e^z$ on $S = \{\Re(z) = 1\}$

$$w = e^x e^{iy}$$
$$|w| = e, \arg(w) = y$$
$$S' = \{|w| = e\}$$

Ex2: Find the mapping of $f(z) = e^z$ on $S = \{0 \le \Im(z) \le \frac{\pi}{4}\}$

$$|w| = x$$

 $\arg(w) = y \Rightarrow 0 \le \arg(w) \le \frac{\pi}{4}$
 $S' = \left\{ 0 \le \operatorname{Arg}(w) \le \frac{\pi}{4} \right\}$

Ex3: Find the mapping of $f(z)=e^{iz}$ on $S=\left\{z:-\frac{\pi}{2}\leq\Re(z)\leq\pi,-1\leq\Im(z)\leq1\right\}$ (Note that multiplying z by i rotates it by 90°)

$$\begin{split} w &= e^{iz} = e^{ix}e^{-y} \\ |w| &= e^{-y} \Rightarrow e^{-1} \le |w| \le e \\ \arg(w) &= x \Rightarrow -\frac{\pi}{2} \le \arg(w) \le \pi \\ S' &= \left\{ w \middle| e^{-1} \le |w| \le e, -\frac{\pi}{2} \le \arg(w) \le \pi \right\} \end{split}$$

Ex4: Prove

$$|e^{-z^3}| \le 1 \ \forall \left\{ z \middle| -\frac{\pi}{6} \le \operatorname{Arg}(z) \le \frac{\pi}{6} \right\}$$

Proof. We can express $-z^3$ as some complex number a+ib where $a=\Re(-z^3)$ and $b=\Im(-z^3)$. Taking the magnitude gives

$$|e^{-z^3}| = |e^{a+ib}| = |e^a e^{ib}| = |e^a||e^{ib}| = |e^a| = |e^{\Re(-z^3)}|$$

z can be written as

$$\begin{split} z &= |z|e^{i\operatorname{Arg}(z)} \\ z^3 &= |z|^3e^{i3\operatorname{Arg}(z)} = |z|^3\left(\cos(3\operatorname{Arg}(z)) + i\sin(3\operatorname{Arg}(z))\right) \\ -z^3 &= -|z|^3\left(\cos(3\operatorname{Arg}(z)) + i\sin(3\operatorname{Arg}(z))\right) \\ \Re(-z^3) &= -|z|^3\cos(3\operatorname{Arg}(z)) \\ \operatorname{Arg}(z) &\in \left[-\frac{\pi}{6}, \frac{\pi}{6}\right] \\ &\Rightarrow 3\operatorname{Arg}(z) \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \\ \cos(3\operatorname{Arg}(z)) &\in [0, 1] \end{split}$$

$$|z|^{3} \in \{x \in \mathbb{R} | x \ge 0\}$$

$$\Re(-z^{3}) = -|z|^{3} \cos(3\operatorname{Arg}(z)) \in \{x \in \mathbb{R} | x \le 0\}$$

$$e^{\Re(-z^{3})} \in [0, 1]$$

$$\Rightarrow |e^{-z^{3}}| \le 1$$

1.2.2Calculus of Complex Functions

We define the limit of a complex function to be

$$w = f(z) = u + iv$$

$$\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z) = \lim_{(x,y) \to (x_0,y_0)} u(x,y) + i \lim_{(x,y) \to (x_0,y_0)} v(x,y)$$

Note that the notation $(x,y) \to (x_0,y_0)$ means that the limit is taken as (x,y) approaches (x_0,y_0) along any path.

The usual limit arithmetic rules are able to be applied as with real numbers.

In order for $\lim_{z\to z_0} f(z)$ to exist, we require that both $\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_0,y_0)} u(x,y)$ and $\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_0,y_0)}$ If we define $z_0=x_0+iy_0$ then we can define the derivative of a complex function as

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z}$$

If this limit exists then the function is said to be differentiable at z_0 .

Ex: f(z) = z

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z} = \frac{z_0 + \Delta z - z_0}{\Delta z} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(z_0) = 1$$

Ex2:
$$f(z) = \bar{z}$$

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z}$$

$$\Delta z = h_1 + ih_2 \Rightarrow \overline{\Delta z} = h_1 - ih_2$$

$$h_2 = 0: \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z} = \lim_{h_1 \to 0} \frac{h_1}{h_1} = 1$$

$$h_1 = 0: \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z} = \lim_{h_2 \to 0} \frac{-ih_2}{ih_2} = -1$$

$$\lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{h_1}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{-ih_2}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{-ih_2}{\Delta z} = -1$$

 $\lim_{h_1 \to 0} \frac{h_1}{h_1} \neq \lim_{h_2 \to 0} \frac{-ih_2}{ih_2}$: the derivative does not exist

An easy way to determine if a function is differentiable is to use the Cauchy-Riemann equations. Any path that can be taken to approach z_0 can be written as a linear combination of the paths $\Delta z = \Delta x$ and $\Delta z = i\Delta y$ so the derivative must satisfy both of these paths.

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z}$$

$$f(z_0) = u(x_0, y_0) + iv(x_0, y_0)$$
Define $\Delta z = \Delta x$

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{u(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0) + iv(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0) - u(x_0, y_0) - iv(x_0, y_0)}{\Delta x}$$

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{u(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0) - u(x_0, y_0)}{\Delta x} + i \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{v(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0) - v(x_0, y_0)}{\Delta x}$$

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)$$
Define $\Delta z = i\Delta y$

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \frac{u(x_0, y_0 + \Delta y) + iv(x_0, y_0 + \Delta y) - u(x_0, y_0) - iv(x_0, y_0)}{i\Delta y}$$

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \frac{u(x_0, y_0 + \Delta y) - u(x_0, y_0)}{i\Delta y} + i \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \frac{v(x_0, y_0 + \Delta y) - v(x_0, y_0)}{i\Delta y}$$

$$f'(z_0) = -i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) = -i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)$$

Splitting the real and imaginary parts we get that the Cauchy-Riemann equations are

$$\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$$

If the Cauchy-Riemann equations are satisfied and the partial derivatives are continuous then the function is differentiable.

Some functions are not differentiable everywhere, but are differentiable at a point or a set of points.

- If f(z) is differentiable everywhere in the complex plane then it is said to be **entire**.
- If f(z) is differentiable in some region R then it is said to be **analytic** in R. (note that this region cannot be a single point, as the Cauchy-Riemann equations require the partial derivatives to be continuous)

Ex: Show using the Cauchy-Riemann equations that $f(z) = \bar{z}$ is not differentiable anywhere.

$$\overline{z} = x - iy$$
$$u_x = 1 \neq v_y = -1$$

Ex2: Show that $f(z) = z^2$ is entire

$$f(z) = z^{2} = (x + iy)^{2} = x^{2} - y^{2} + 2ixy$$

$$u(x, y) = x^{2} - y^{2}$$

$$v(x, y) = 2xy$$

$$u_{x} = 2x = v_{y}$$

$$u_{y} = -2y = -v_{x}$$

Ex3: Show that $f(z) = \bar{z}$ is differentiable but not analytic at $z_0 = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} |z|^2 + 2z &= x^2 + 2x + y^2 + i2y \\ u_x &= 2x + 2 = v_y = 2 \Rightarrow x = 0 \\ u_y &= 2y = -v_x = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0 \\ \text{differentiable but not analytic on } z = \{0\} \end{aligned}$$

differentiable but not analytic on z =

1.2.3 Conformal Mappings

Using the Cauch-Riemann equations,

$$\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ u_y = -v_x \end{cases}$$

we can get the Laplacian of u and v,

$$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = v_{yx} - v_{xy} = 0$$

 $v_{xx} + v_{yy} = -(u_{yx} + u_{xy}) = 0$

If the Laplacian of u and v are both zero then the function is said to be **harmonic**. If $\nabla^2 u = 0$ then we can use the Cauchy-Riemann equations to find its harmonic conjugate v. Ex: Find the harmonic conjugate of u = xy - x + y

$$u_x = y - 1 = v_y$$

$$v = \int y - 1 dy = \frac{y^2}{2} - y + h(x)$$

$$u_y = x + 1 = -v_x = -h'(x)$$

$$h(x) = \int -x - 1 dx = -\frac{x^2}{2} - x + C$$

$$v = \frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2} - y - x + C$$

Ex2: Find the harmonic conjugate of $u = \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

$$\begin{aligned} u_x &= \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} = v_y \\ v &= \int \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} dy = \int \frac{1/x}{1 + \frac{y^2}{x^2}} dy = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) + h(x) \\ u_y &= \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} = -v_x = -\frac{y}{1 + \frac{y^2}{x^2}} \left(\frac{-1}{x^2}\right) - h'(x) = \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} - h'(x) \Rightarrow h'(x) = 0 \\ h(x) &= C \\ v &= \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) + C \\ v &= \arg(z) + C \end{aligned}$$

Ex3: Find the harmonic conjugate of $u = \sin x \cosh y$

$$u = \sin x \cosh y$$

$$u_x = \cos x \cosh y = v_y$$

$$v = \int \cos x \cosh y dy = \cos x \sinh y + h(x)$$

$$u_y = \sin x \sinh y = -v_x = -(-\sin x \sinh y) - h'(x) \Rightarrow h'(x) = 0$$

$$h(x) = C$$

$$v = \cos x \sinh y + C$$

Another property is that

$$|f'(z)|^2 = |\nabla u|^2 = |\nabla v|^2$$

This also implies that

$$\nabla u \cdot \nabla v = 0$$

$$f'(z) = u_x + iv_x = \frac{1}{i}(u_y + iv_y)$$
$$|f'(z)|^2 = u_x^2 + v_x^2 = u_y^2 + v_y^2 = |\nabla u|^2 = |\nabla v|^2$$
$$\nabla u \cdot \nabla v = u_x u_y + v_x v_y = u_x v_x + (-v_x)(u_x) = 0$$

A conformal mapping is a mapping between two regions that preserves angles. If we have some function f(z) = u + iv that is analytic then the can create a function of a function as

$$\Phi(u(x,y),v(x,y)) = \phi(x,y)$$

where $\phi(x,y)$ is a conformal mapping.

A conformal mapping will have the property that

$$\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} = |f'(z)|^2 (\Phi_{uu} + \Phi_{vv})$$

where $|f'(z)|^2$ is known as the *conformal factor*.

This can be shown as follows:

$$\begin{split} \phi_{x} &= \Phi_{u}u_{x} + \Phi_{v}v_{x} \\ \phi_{xx} &= u_{xx}\Phi_{u}^{2} + 2u_{x}v_{x}\Phi_{u}\Phi_{v} + v_{xx}\Phi_{v}^{2} + \Phi_{u}u_{xx} + \Phi_{v}v_{xx} \\ \phi_{y} &= \Phi_{u}u_{y} + \Phi_{v}v_{y} \\ \phi_{yy} &= u_{yy}\Phi_{u}^{2} + 2u_{y}v_{y}\Phi_{u}\Phi_{v} + v_{yy}\Phi_{v}^{2} + \Phi_{u}u_{yy} + \Phi_{v}v_{yy} \\ \phi_{xx} &+ \phi_{yy} &= \Phi_{u}\nabla^{2}u + \Phi_{v}\nabla^{2}v + \Phi_{uu}|\nabla u|^{2} + 2\Phi_{u}\Phi_{v}\nabla u \cdot \nabla v + \Phi_{vv}|\nabla v|^{2} \\ \phi_{xx} &+ \phi_{uy} &= |f'(z)|^{2}(\Phi_{uu} + \Phi_{vv}) \end{split}$$

Ex:
$$f(z) = z^2$$
 under $\Phi(u, v) = e^u + v^2$

$$f(z) = x^2 - y^2 + i(2xy)$$

 $u = x^2 - y^2$

$$v = 2xy$$

$$\phi(x, y) = e^{x^2 - y^2} + (2xy)^2$$

$$\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} = 4|z|^2(e^u + 2)$$

f(z) is considered a conformal mapping if f is analytic and $f'(z) \neq 0$. As a consequence, if $\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} = 0$ then $\Phi_{uu} + \Phi_{vv} = 0$.

If f is a conformal mapping then it will preserve angles.

If we have two curves C_1 and C_2 described by the parametrized functions $z_1(t)$ and $z_2(t)$ that intersect at a point z_0 then the angle between the two curves is given by $\theta = \arg(z_2'(t)) - \arg(z_1'(t))$. If we then apply a conformal mapping w = f(z) to the curves then we get $w_1(t) = f(z_1(t))$ and $w_2(t) = f(z_2(t))$ and the angle between the two curves is given by $\theta_w = \arg(w_2'(t)) - \arg(w_1'(t))$.

$$\theta_w = \arg(f'(z_2)z_2'(t)) - \arg(f'(z_1)z_1'(t))$$

$$\theta_w = \arg(f'(z_2)) - \arg(f'(z_1)) + \arg(z_2'(t)) - \arg(z_1'(t))$$

$$\arg(f'(z_1)) = \arg(f'(z_2))$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_w = \arg(z_2'(t)) - \arg(z_1'(t)) = \theta$$

So the angle between the two curves is preserved under a conformal mapping.

Note that $f'(z) \neq 0$ is a necessary condition in this proof.

If we have a nonconformal mapping then the angle between the two curves will not be preserved. One such case is that of $f(z) = z^2$ at $z_0 = 0$. At this point, $f'(z_0) = 0$ and the angle between the two curves is doubled.

Conformal mappings also have the property that they map Neumann boundary conditions to Neumann boundary conditions.

If we let \hat{n} represent the normal vector to the curve $\phi(x,y)$ then they are related by

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = \nabla \phi \cdot \hat{n}$$

and the mapping is similarly related breurly

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n'} = \nabla \Phi \cdot \hat{n}'$$
$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = |f'(z)| \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n'}$$

So for Neumann bounday conditions, we will have

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n'} = 0$$

Some examples of conformal mappings come from harmonic functions (having the property that $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$).

Some common harmonic functions are:

- \bullet $\phi = C$
- $\bullet \ \phi = ax + by + c$

•
$$\ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
, $\mathbb{C} \setminus 0$

•
$$\phi = \operatorname{Arg}(z), \ \mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty]$$

1.2.4 Conformal Mapping to Solve Laplace's Equation

Given the useful properties of matching boundary conditions, we can use conformal mappings to help us solve Laplace's equation for a given region.

Ex: Given $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$ for $1 < x^2 - y^2 < 4$ and $\phi = 1$ on $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ and $\phi = 3$ on $x^2 - y^2 = 4$, find $\phi(x,y)$.

choose
$$\phi = x^2 - y^2$$

choose $\Phi(u, v) = Au + B$
 $\begin{cases} A(1) + B = 1 \\ A(4) + B = 3 \end{cases} \Rightarrow A = \frac{2}{3}, \ B = \frac{1}{3}$
 $\Phi(u, v) = \frac{2}{3}u + \frac{1}{3}$
 $u = x^2 - y^2$
 $\phi(x, y) = \frac{2}{3}(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{1}{3}$

Ex2: Given $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$ within the circular region $\mathcal{D} = \{1 < x^2 + y^2 < 4\}$ with $\phi = 1$ on $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $\phi = -2$ on $x^2 + y^2 = 4$, find $\phi(x, y)$.

$$\begin{split} \phi(x,y) &= A_1 \ln r + A_2 \\ r &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ r &= 1: \ \phi = 1 \Rightarrow A_1 \ln(1) + A_2 = 1 \\ r &= 2: \ \phi = -2 \Rightarrow A_1 \ln(2) + A_2 = -2 \\ \Rightarrow A_2 &= 1, \ A_1 = -\frac{3}{\ln 2} \\ \phi(x,y) &= -\frac{3}{\ln 2} \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + 1 \end{split}$$

Ex3: Given $\nabla^2=0$ within the strip described by $\{z:-3\leq 3\Re(z)-4\Im(z)\leq 2\}$ with $\phi=0$ for $\{z:-3=3\Re(z)-4\Im(z)\}$ and $\phi=4$ for $\{z:3\Re(z)-4\Im(z)=2\}$ find $\phi(x,y)$

$$u = 3x - 4y$$

$$u(-3) = 0, \ u(2) = 4$$

$$\Phi = Au + B$$

$$\Phi(-3) = -3A + B = 0 \Rightarrow B = 3A$$

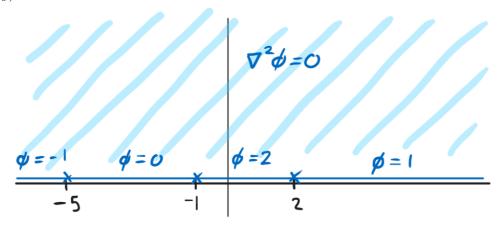
$$\Phi(2) = 2A + 3A = 5A = 4 \Rightarrow A = \frac{4}{5} \Rightarrow B = \frac{12}{5}$$

$$\phi(x, y) = \frac{4}{5}(3x - 4y) + \frac{12}{5}$$

Ex4: Given $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$ for the upper half-plane described by $\{y > 0 \land x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ with the boundary conditions along the x-axis given by

$$\phi(x,0) = \begin{cases} -1 & x < -5 \\ 0 & -5 < x < -1 \\ 2 & -1 < x < 2 \\ 1 & x > 2 \end{cases}$$

find $\phi(x,y)$.



One trick to solve a problem like this is to choose a linear combination of functions of the form $Arg(z-z_0)$ with a different point z_0 for every place where the boundary condition changes along the x-axis.

$$\begin{split} \phi &= A_1 \operatorname{Arg}(z+5) + A_2 \operatorname{Arg}(z+1) + A_3 \operatorname{Arg}(z-2) + A_4 \\ \phi(x>2,0) &= A_4 = 1 \\ \phi(-1 < x < 2,0) &= \pi A_3 + 1 = 2 \Rightarrow A_3 = \frac{1}{\pi} \\ \phi(-5 < x < -1,0) &= \pi A_2 + 1 + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow A_2 = -\frac{2}{\pi} \\ \phi(x < -5,0) &= \pi A_1 - 2 + 2 = -1 \Rightarrow A_1 = -\frac{1}{\pi} \\ \phi(x,y) &= -\frac{1}{\pi} \operatorname{Arg}(z+5) - \frac{2}{\pi} \operatorname{Arg}(z+1) + \frac{1}{\pi} \operatorname{Arg}(z-2) + 1 \end{split}$$

We can also apply these techniques to other types of boundary conditions in some cases. Ex5: Given $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$ in the circular region $\{z : 1 \le |z| \le 2\}$ with the boundary conditions $\phi = 1$ for |z| = 1 and $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} = 2$ for |z| = 2, find $\phi(x, y)$

$$\phi = A \ln r + B$$

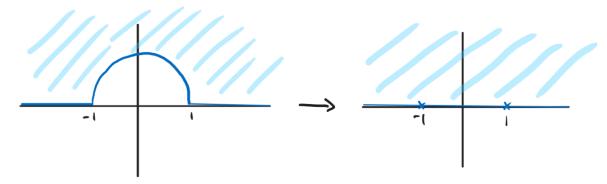
$$\phi(1) = B = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi(2)}{\partial r} = \frac{A}{2} = 2 \Rightarrow A = 4$$

$$\phi = 4 \ln r + 1$$

$$\phi(x, y) = 4 \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + 1$$

If we have a region that has a semicircle in it we can use the Joukowski mapping to transform it into a region that is easier to work with.



Ex6: Given $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$ in the upper region of the plane described by $\{y > 0 \land x^2 + y^2 > 9\}$ with the boundary conditions $\phi = -1$ for x < 3, $\phi = 0$ for $x^2 + y^2 = 9$, and $\phi = 2$ for x > 3, find $\phi(x, y)$.

$$\begin{cases} \phi(x,0) = -1 & x < -3 \\ \phi(x,y) = 0 & x^2 + y^2 = 9 \\ \phi(x,0) = 2 & x > 3 \end{cases}$$

$$w = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{z}{3} + \frac{3}{z} \right) = u + iv$$

$$\Phi = A_1 \operatorname{Arg}(w+1) + A_2 \operatorname{Arg}(w-1) + A_3$$

$$\Phi(u > 1, v) = A_3 = 2$$

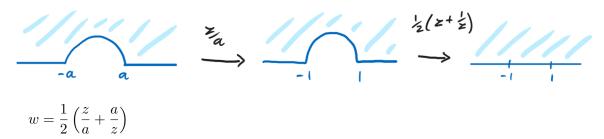
$$\Phi(-1 < u < 1, v) = \pi A_2 + 2 = 0 \Rightarrow A_2 = -\frac{2}{\pi}$$

$$\Phi(u < -1, v) = \pi A_1 - 2 + 2 = -1 \Rightarrow A_1 = -\frac{1}{\pi}$$

$$\Phi = -\frac{1}{\pi} \operatorname{Arg}(w+1) - \frac{2}{\pi} \operatorname{Arg}(w-1) + 2$$

$$\phi(z) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{z}{3} + \frac{3}{z}\right) + 1\right) - \frac{2}{\pi} \operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{z}{3} + \frac{3}{z}\right) - 1\right) + 2$$

In the case that we have a semicircle not of radius 1 we can apply a scaling before the Joukowski mapping to get the correct radius.



1.2.5 Sinusoidal Functions

If we recall Euler's formula $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$ we can use with complex numbers to get the following identities for complex sinusoidals:

•
$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$

•
$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}$$

•
$$\sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}$$

•
$$\cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}$$

•
$$\cos z = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - z\right)$$

•
$$\sinh z = -i\sin(iz)$$

•
$$\cosh z = \cos(iz) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - iz)$$

•
$$\frac{d}{dz}\sin z = \cos z$$

•
$$\frac{d}{dz}\cos z = -\sin z$$

$$\bullet \cos^2 z + \sin^2 z = 1$$

•
$$\frac{d}{dz}\sinh z = \cosh z$$

•
$$\frac{d}{dz}\cosh z = \sinh z$$

$$\bullet \cosh^2 z - \sinh^2 z = 1$$

The most notable difference between the real and complex versions of these functions is that $|\sin z| \leq 1$. We will see cases of this soon but it is easy to see once we write out the real and imaginary components of $\sin z$.

$$\sin z = \sin(x + iy) = \frac{e^{i(x+iy) - e^{-i(x+iy)}}}{2i} = \frac{e^{-y}e^{ix} - e^{y}e^{-ix}}{2i}$$

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{-y}(\cos x + i\sin x) - e^{y}(\cos x - i\sin x)}{2i} = \frac{e^{-y} - e^{y}}{2}\cos x + \frac{e^{-y} + e^{y}}{2i}\sin x$$

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