

## Pset 2

---

### 2.13.1

---

$$\begin{aligned}z &= x + iy \\u &= x^2 - y^2 \\v &= 2xy \\1 &\leq u, v \leq 2 \\1 &\leq x^2 - y^2, 2xy \leq 2\end{aligned}$$

We want the intersection of the area between the hyperbolas  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$  and  $x^2 - y^2 = 2$ , and the area between the hyperbolas  $xy = 1/2$  and  $xy = 1$ .

### 2.(14-17).7

---

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) &= w_0 \\ \implies \forall \epsilon \exists \delta, |f(z) - w_0| < \epsilon, 0 < |z - z_0| < \delta \\ \text{By the inequality } ||z_1| - |z_2|| &\leq |z_1 - z_2| \\ \implies ||f(z)| - |w_0|| &\leq |f(z) - w_0| < \epsilon \\ ||f(z)| - |w_0|| < \epsilon, 0 < |z - z_0| < \delta \\ \implies \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} |f(z)| &= |w_0|\end{aligned}$$

### 2.(14-17).10

---

a)

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4z^2}{(z-1)^2} &= 4 \\ \iff \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{4/z^2}{(1/z-1)^2} &= 4 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{4/z^2}{(1/z-1)^2} &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{4/z^2}{1/z^2 - 2/z + 1} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{4}{1 - 2z + z^2}, z \neq 0 \\ &= \frac{4}{1 - 2 \cdot 0 + 0^2} = 4\end{aligned}$$

b)

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{(z-1)^3} &= \infty \\ \iff \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1)^3 &= 0 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1)^3 &= (1-1)^3 = 0\end{aligned}$$

c)

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{z^2 + 1}{z - 1} &= \infty \\ \iff \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/z - 1}{1/z^2 + 1} &= 0 \\ \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/z - 1}{1/z^2 + 1} &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{z - z^2}{1 + z^2}, z \neq 0 \\ &= \frac{0 - 0^2}{1 + 0^2} = 0\end{aligned}$$

## 2.(14-17).13

Definition of bounded: every point of  $S$  lies inside some circle  $|z| = R$ .

Assume that there exists a neighborhood of  $\infty$  that contains no points of  $S$ . The definition of a neighborhood of  $\infty$  is some set  $|z| > 1/\epsilon$  for some small positive number  $\epsilon$ . Since no points of  $S$  lie in this neighborhood, all points of  $S$  must instead lie inside the set  $|z| \leq 1/\epsilon$ . This is the definition of a bounded set with  $R = 1/\epsilon$ , thus  $S$  is not unbounded. Each neighborhood of  $\infty$  must thus contain a point in  $S$  for  $S$  to be unbounded.

## 2.(18-19).8

a)

$$\begin{aligned}f(z) &= \bar{z} \\ \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} &= \frac{\overline{z + \Delta z} - \bar{z}}{\Delta z} \\ &= \frac{\bar{z} + \overline{\Delta z} - \bar{z}}{\Delta z} \\ &= \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z}\end{aligned}$$

Approach from  $(\Delta x, 0)$  :

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta z} = 1$$

Approach from  $(0, \Delta y)$  :

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\Delta z}{\Delta z} = -1$$

$1 \neq -1$ , so no limit exists and thus the derivative fails to exist for any point  $z$ .

b)

$$\begin{aligned}f(z) &= \Re(z) \\ \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} &= \frac{\Re(z + \Delta z) - \Re(z)}{\Delta z} \\ &= \frac{\Re(z) + \Re(\Delta z) - \Re(z)}{\Delta z} \\ &= \frac{\Re(\Delta z)}{\Delta z}\end{aligned}$$

Approach from  $(\Delta x, 0)$  :

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Re(\Delta z)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta z} = 1$$

Approach from  $(0, \Delta y)$  :

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Re(\Delta z)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{\Delta z} = 0$$

$1 \neq 0$ , so no limit exists and thus the derivative fails to exist for any point  $z$ .

**c)**

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \Im(z) \\ \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} &= \frac{\Im(z + \Delta z) - \Im(z)}{\Delta z} \\ &= \frac{\Im(z) + \Im(\Delta z) - \Im(z)}{\Delta z} \\ &= \frac{\Im(\Delta z)}{\Delta z} \end{aligned}$$

Approach from  $(\Delta x, 0)$  :

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Im(\Delta z)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{\Delta z} = 0$$

Approach from  $(0, \Delta y)$  :

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Im(\Delta z)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta z} = 1$$

$0 \neq 1$ , so no limit exists and thus the derivative fails to exist for any point  $z$ .

## 2.(18-19).9

---

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{\bar{z}^2}{z}, z \neq 0 \\ \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} &= \frac{\frac{\overline{z+\Delta z}^2}{z+\Delta z} - \frac{\bar{z}^2}{z}}{\Delta z} \\ &= \frac{\frac{(z + \Delta z)^2}{(z + \Delta z)\Delta z} - \frac{\bar{z}^2}{z\Delta z}}{\Delta z} \end{aligned}$$

Approach from  $(\Delta x, 0)$  or  $(0, \Delta y)$ ,  $z = 0$  :

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{(z + \Delta z)}^2}{(z + \Delta z)\Delta z} - \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\bar{z}^2}{z\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{(\Delta z)}^2}{(\Delta z)^2} - 0 = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\Delta z)^2}{(\Delta z)^2} = 1$$

Approach from  $(\Delta x, \Delta x)$ ,  $z = 0$  :

$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta x + i\Delta x)^2 &= (\Delta x)^2 + 2i(\Delta x)^2 - (\Delta x)^2 = 2i(\Delta x)^2 \\ \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{(z + \Delta z)}^2}{(z + \Delta z)\Delta z} - \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\bar{z}^2}{z\Delta z} &= \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{(\Delta z)}^2}{(\Delta z)^2} - 0 = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2i(\Delta x)^2}{2i(\Delta x)^2} = -1 \end{aligned}$$

$1 \neq -1$ , so no limit exists and thus the derivative fails to exist at  $z = 0$ .

## 2.(20-22).1

---

**a)**

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \bar{z} = x - iy \\ u_x &= 1, v_y = -1, u_x \neq v_y \end{aligned}$$

Since the Cauchy-Riemann equations are never satisfied,  $f'(z)$  cannot possibly exist for any  $z$ .

**b)**

$$f(z) = z - \bar{z} = (x - x) + i(y - (-y)) = 0 + i \cdot 2y$$
$$u_x = 0, v_y = 2, u_x \neq v_y$$

Since the Cauchy-Riemann equations are never satisfied,  $f'(z)$  cannot possibly exist for any  $z$ .

**c)**

$$f(z) = 2x + ixy^2$$
$$u_x = 2, v_y = 2xy, u_x \neq v_y$$

Since the Cauchy-Riemann equations are never satisfied,  $f'(z)$  cannot possibly exist for any  $z$ .

**d)**

$$f(z) = e^x e^{-iy} = e^x (\cos(-y) + i \sin(-y)) = e^x \cos y - i \cdot e^x \sin y$$
$$u_y = -e^x \sin y, v_x = -e^x \sin y, u_y \neq -v_x$$

Since the Cauchy-Riemann equations are never satisfied,  $f'(z)$  cannot possibly exist for any  $z$ .

## 2.(20-22).4

---

**b)**

For all  $z$  in the domain of definition, the function is defined in its neighborhood, the first-order partial derivatives exist everywhere in that neighborhood, the function is continuous at the point, and the Cauchy-Riemann equations are satisfied:

$$f(z) = \sqrt{r} e^{i\theta/2} = \sqrt{r} \cos(\theta/2) + i \cdot \sqrt{r} \sin(\theta/2)$$
$$u_r = \frac{1}{2} r^{-1/2} \cos(\theta/2)$$
$$ru_r = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{r} \cos(\theta/2)$$
$$v_\theta = \sqrt{r} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cos(\theta/2)$$
$$ru_r = v_\theta$$
$$u_\theta = -\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{r} \sin(\theta/2)$$
$$v_r = \frac{1}{2} r^{-1/2} \sin(\theta/2)$$
$$-rv_r = -\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{r} \sin(\theta/2)$$
$$u_\theta = -rv_r$$

Thus, the function is differentiable in its domain of definition.

$$f'(z) = e^{-i\theta} (u_r + i v_r)$$
$$= e^{-i\theta} \left( \frac{1}{2} r^{-1/2} \cos(\theta/2) + i \cdot \frac{1}{2} r^{-1/2} \sin(\theta/2) \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{r} e^{i\theta}} \cdot e^{i\theta/2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{r} e^{i\theta/2}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2f(z)}$$

## 2.(20-22).6

---

$$f(z) = 0, z = 0$$
$$u_x = v_y = u_y = -v_x = 0$$

The Cauchy-Riemann equations are satisfied at the origin, yet in Exercise 9, Sec. 19, we proved  $f'(0)$  fails to exist. This is because  $z_0$  satisfying the Cauchy-Riemann equations alone is insufficient to ensure the existence of  $f'(z_0)$ .

## 2.(20-22).9

---

a)

$$\begin{aligned} f'(z_0) &= \frac{-i}{z_0}(u_\theta + iv_\theta) \\ &= \frac{-i}{re^{i\theta}}(-rv_r + iru_r) \\ &= \frac{v_r}{e^{i\theta}}i + \frac{u_r}{e^{i\theta}} \\ &= e^{-i\theta}(u_r + iv_r) \end{aligned}$$

b)

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) = 1/z &= 1/re^{i\theta} = \frac{1}{r}e^{-i\theta} = \frac{1}{r}(\cos \theta - i \sin \theta) \\ u_r &= -\frac{1}{r^2} \cos \theta \\ v_r &= \frac{1}{r^2} \sin \theta \\ f'(z) &= e^{-i\theta} \left( -\frac{1}{r^2} \cos \theta + i \cdot \frac{1}{r^2} \sin \theta \right) = -\frac{e^{-i\theta}}{r^2} \cdot e^{-i\theta} = -\frac{1}{r^2 e^{i2\theta}} = -\frac{1}{(re^{i\theta})^2} = -\frac{1}{z^2} \end{aligned}$$

## 2.(23-24).1

---

a)

Existence of neighborhood and continuity conditions are satisfied.

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= (3x + y) + i(3y - x) \\ u_x &= 3, v_y = 3, u_x = v_y \\ u_y &= 1, v_x = -1, u_y = -v_x \end{aligned}$$

The Cauchy-Riemann equations are also satisfied, thus  $f(z)$  is analytic everywhere, and thus  $f(z)$  is entire.

## 2.(23-24).2

---

a)

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= xy + iy \\ u_x &= y, v_y = 1, u_x \neq v_y \end{aligned}$$

Since the Cauchy-Riemann equations are never satisfied,  $f(z)$  is not differentiable anywhere and thus not analytic anywhere.

## 2.(23-24).4

---

a)

$$f(z) = \frac{2z + 1}{z(z^2 + 1)}$$
$$z(z^2 + 1) = 0 \implies z = 0, \pm i$$

$z = 0, \pm i$  are singular points. The function is analytic everywhere except at those points because at the aforementioned points,  $f(z)$  is not defined.

## 2.(23-24).5

---

$f(z)$  is defined, has partial derivatives, and is continuous everywhere.

$$f(z) = 2z - 2 + i = (2x - 2) + i(2y + 1)$$
$$u_x = 2, v_y = 2, u_x = v_y$$
$$u_y = 0, v_x = 0, u_y = -v_x$$

Thus,  $f(z)$  is analytic everywhere.

When  $x > 1$ ,  $\Re(2z - 2 + i) = 2x - 2 > 2 \cdot 1 - 2 = 0$ , meaning  $r \cos \theta > 0$  and thus  $-\pi < \theta < \pi$ , so the image of  $f(z)$  in the half plane is within the domain of definition of  $g(w)$ . It is also known that the composition of two analytic functions is analytic if the image of the inner function is contained in the domain of definition of the outer function, so  $G(z) = g(f(z))$  is analytic in the half plane.

$$G'(z) = G'(f(z))f'(z) = \frac{1}{2 \cdot g(2z - 2 + i)} \cdot 2 = \frac{1}{g(2z - 2 + i)}$$

## 2.(23-24).7

---

a)

If  $f(z)$  is real-valued in  $D$ , then  $v = 0, v_x = v_y = 0$ . Being analytic implies it satisfies Cauchy-Riemann, so  $u_x = v_y = 0$ . It is also known that  $f'(z) = u_x + iv_x = 0 + i0 = 0$ , which means  $f(z)$  is constant throughout  $D$ .

b)

We know  $|f(z)|^2 = f(z) \cdot \overline{f(z)}$ . Since  $|f(z)|$  is constant, say  $|f(z)| = c$ , we get that  $\overline{f(z)} = c^2 / f(z)$ . If  $c = 0$ , then  $\overline{f(z)} = 0$  is analytic, and the result from Example 3, Sec. 24 says if  $f(z)$  and  $\overline{f(z)}$  are both analytic,  $f(z)$  is constant throughout  $D$ . If  $c \neq 0$ , then  $\overline{f(z)}$  is still analytic because the quotient of two analytic functions is analytic, so Example 3, Sec. 24 applies once again.

## 2.25.1

---

a)

$$u(x, y) = 2x(1 - y)$$
$$u_{xx} = 0, u_{yy} = 0, u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0 \implies u(x, y) \text{ is harmonic}$$
$$u_x = 2 - 2y, u_y = -2x$$
$$u_x = v_y, u_y = -v_x$$
$$v(x, y) = 2y - y^2 + x^2$$
$$v_{xx} = 2, v_{yy} = -2, v_{xx} + v_{yy} = 0 \implies v(x, y) \text{ is harmonic}$$

$v(x, y)$  is a harmonic conjugate of  $u$ .

## 2.25.2

---

Suppose that  $V = v + c(x, y)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}u_x = v_y = V_y, u_y = -v_x = -V_x \\v_{xx} + v_{yy} = V_{xx} + V_{yy} = 0 \\v_y = V_y = v_y + c_y \implies c_y = 0 \implies c(x, y) \text{ contains no } y\text{'s} \\v_x = V_x = v_x + c_x \implies c_x = 0 \implies c(x, y) \text{ contains no } x\text{'s}\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $c(x, y)$  must be a constant.

## 2.25.7

---

$u(x, y)$  and  $v(x, y)$  are constant, meaning their derivatives are zero:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla u = \left\langle \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right\rangle = \langle 0, 0 \rangle \\ \nabla v = \left\langle \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right\rangle = \langle 0, 0 \rangle \\ \nabla u \cdot \nabla v = 0 \implies \text{perpendicular}\end{aligned}$$

## 2.25.8

---

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

When you plot  $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$  and  $v(x, y) = 2xy$ , you indeed get two hyperbolas that look as shown in the diagram.

## 3.28.3

---

$$\begin{aligned}f(z) = e^{\bar{z}} = e^x e^{-iy} = e^x (\cos y - i \sin y) \\ u_x = e^x \cos y, v_y = -e^x \cos y, u_x \neq v_y\end{aligned}$$

Since the Cauchy-Riemann equations are never satisfied,  $f(z)$  is not differentiable and thus not analytic anywhere.

## 3.28.5

---

$$\begin{aligned}|e^{2z+i}| &= |e^{2x} e^{i(2y+1)}| = e^{2x} \\ |e^{iz^2}| &= |e^{-2xy} e^{i(x^2-y^2)}| = e^{-2xy} \\ |e^{2z+i} + e^{iz^2}| &\leq |e^{2z+i}| + |e^{iz^2}| = e^{2x} + e^{-2xy}\end{aligned}$$

## 3.28.10

---

**a)**

If  $e^z$  is real, that implies  $e^z = e^x e^{iy}$ ,  $e^{iy} = \pm 1$ , as  $e^z$  must lie on the real axis. This means  $y \in \{0 + n \cdot 2\pi\} \cup \{\pi + n \cdot 2\pi\}$ , or  $y \in \{0 + n\pi\}$ , and  $y = \Im(z)$

**b)**

$y \in \pi/2 + n\pi$ , as that's the necessary angle to get  $e^z$  onto the imaginary axis.

## 3.28.13

---

Because of the nature of  $e^z$  giving itself when differentiating, and  $\cos z$  and  $\sin z$  giving signed versions of each other upon differentiating, and we get several other chain rule terms that end up canceling, we get  $U_{xx} + U_{yy} = V_{xx} + V_{yy} = 0$  and the Cauchy-Riemann equations satisfied, so the two functions are harmonic and  $V$  is a harmonic conjugate of  $U$ .