Complex analysis examples discussion 08

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[08.1] Check that the Euclidean Laplacian $\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i}^{2}}$ on \mathbb{R}^{n} is rotation-invariant, in the following sense. A rotation is a linear map $g: \mathbb{R}^{n} \to \mathbb{R}^{n}$ preserving the usual inner product $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i}$, and preserving orientations (so det g = 1, rather than -1). The asserted rotation-invariance is

$$\Delta(f \circ g) = (\Delta f) \circ g$$
 (for twice-differentiable f and rotation g)

(In fact, Δ is also preserved by *reflections*, which are orientation-reversing, so the determinant condition can be safely ignored.)

The *n*-by-*n* real matrix *g* is a rotation-or-reflection when $g^{\top}g = 1_n$. Element-wise, this is

$$\delta_{ik} = \sum_{j} (g^{\top})_{ij} g_{jk} = \sum_{j} g_{ji} g_{jk}$$
 (with Kronecker delta δ_{ik})

Elements $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be expressed as either row vectors or column vectors, with g acting either by right multiplication or left, respectively, without affecting the conclusion. We choose *row* vectors and *right* multiplication:

$$\Delta(f \circ g)(x) = \sum_{\ell} (\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\ell}})^2 f(\dots, \sum_{i} x_i g_{ij}, \dots) = \sum_{\ell} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\ell}} \sum_{s} g_{\ell s} f_s(\dots, \sum_{j} x_i g_{ij}, \dots)$$

where f_s is the partial derivative of f with respect to its s^{th} argument. Taking the next derivative gives

$$\sum_{\ell} \sum_{s,t} g_{\ell s} g_{\ell t} f_{st}(\dots, \sum_{i} x_{i} g_{ij}, \dots)$$

Interchange the order of the sums and use $\sum_{\ell} g_{\ell s} g_{\ell t} = \delta_{st}$:

$$\sum_{s} f_{ss}(\dots, \sum_{i} x_i g_{ij}, \dots) = (\Delta f)(xg) = ((\Delta f) \circ g)(x)$$

as desired.

[08.2] Check that for harmonic h and holomorphic f, the composition $h \circ f$ is invariably harmonic, while $f \circ h$ need not be. (Yes, much of the issue is suitable formulation of the computation.)

First the easy part: with holomorphic $f(z) = z^2$ and harmonic h(x + iy) = y,

$$f(h(x+iy)) = f(y) = y^2$$

and $\Delta y^2 = 2 \neq 0$, so $f \circ h$ is not harmonic.

To prove that $h \circ f$ is harmonic, write h as a function of the real and imaginary parts of a complex number, and write f(x+iy) = u(x,y) + iv(x,y). Then

$$\Delta(h(u(x,y),v(x,y))) = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right)h(u(x,y),v(x,y))$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(h_1(u,v)u_x + h_2(u,v)v_x\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(h_1(u,v)u_y + h_2(u,v)v_y\right)$$

$$= \left(h_{11}u_x^2 + (h_{12} + h_{21})u_xv_x + h_1u_{xx} + h_{22}v_x^2 + h_2v_{xx}\right) + \left(h_{11}u_y^2 + (h_{12} + h_{21})u_yv_y + h_1u_{yy} + h_{22}v_y^2 + h_2v_{yy}\right)$$

$$= h_{11}(u_x^2 + u_y^2) + (h_{12} + h_{21})(u_xv_x + u_yv_y) + h_1(u_{xx} + u_{yy}) + h_{22}(v_x^2 + v_y^2) + h_2(v_{xx} + v_{yy})$$

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The real and imaginary parts u, v of f are themselves harmonic, so the h_1 and h_2 terms vanish, leaving

$$h_{11}(u_x^2 + u_y^2) + (h_{12} + h_{21})(u_xv_x + u_yv_y) + h_{22}(v_x^2 + v_y^2)$$

In terms of real and imaginary parts, the Cauchy-Riemann equation

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)(u + iv) = 0$$

becomes

$$u_x + v_y = 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad -u_y + v_x = 0$$

Thus, the coefficient of $h_{12} + h_{21}$ is

$$u_x v_x + u_y v_y = u_x u_y + u_y (-u_x) = 0$$

and

$$h_{11}(u_x^2 + u_y^2) + h_{22}(v_x^2 + v_y^2) = h_{11}(u_x^2 + v_x^2) + h_{22}(v_x^2 + (-u_x)^2) = (h_{11} + h_{22}) \cdot (u_x^2 + v_x^2) = 0 \cdot (u_x^2 + v_x^2)$$

so $h \circ f$ is holomorphic.

[08.3] Show that every harmonic function u on an annulus r < |z| < R is of the form

$$u(z) = a_0 + b_0 \log |z| + \sum_{0 \neq n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left(a_n z^n + b_n \overline{z}^n \right)$$

for constants a_i, b_i .

Use polar coordinates $z = re^{i\theta}$ on 0 < |z| < 1, and express u as a Fourier series in θ with coefficients that are functions of r:

$$u(re^{i\theta}) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} c_n(r) e^{in\theta}$$

In polar coordinates, with $u(re^{i\theta})=f(r,\theta),$ with $r=\sqrt{x^2+y^2}$ and $\theta=\arctan\frac{y}{x}$

$$r_x = \frac{x}{r}$$
 $r_y = \frac{y}{r}$ $\theta_x = \frac{-\frac{y}{x^2}}{1 + (\frac{y}{x})^2} = \frac{-y}{r^2}$ $\theta_y = \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{1 + (\frac{y}{x})^2} = \frac{x}{r^2}$

and the Laplacian is

$$\Delta u = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(f_r r_x - f_\theta \theta_x \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(f_r r_y + f_\theta \theta_y \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(f_r \frac{x}{r} - f_\theta \frac{y}{r^2} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(f_r \frac{y}{r} + f_\theta \frac{x}{r^2} \right)$$

$$= \left(f_{rr} \left(\frac{x}{r} \right)^2 + f_r \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{x^2}{r^3} \right) - \left(f_{r\theta} + f_{\theta r} \right) \frac{xy}{r^3} + f_{\theta \theta} \left(\frac{y}{r^2} \right)^2 - f_\theta \frac{2xy}{r^4} \right)$$

$$+ \left(f_{rr} \left(\frac{y}{r} \right)^2 + f_r \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{y^2}{r^3} \right) + \left(f_{r\theta} + f_{\theta r} \right) \frac{xy}{r^3} + f_{\theta \theta} \left(\frac{x}{r^2} \right)^2 + f_\theta \frac{2xy}{r^4} \right)$$

$$= f_{rr} + \frac{f_r}{r} + \frac{f_{\theta \theta}}{r^2} = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \right) f$$

Applying this to the Fourier expansion, differentiating termwise,

$$0 = \Delta f(r,\theta) = \sum_{n} \Delta(c_n(r)e^{in\theta}) = \left(c''_n + \frac{1}{r}c'_n + \frac{1}{r^2}c_n(in)^2\right)e^{in\theta}$$

By uniqueness of Fourier expansions,

$$c_n'' + \frac{1}{r}c_n' - \frac{n^2}{r^2}c_n = 0$$

This equation is of Euler type, with indicial equation

$$\alpha(\alpha - 1) + \alpha - n^2 = 0$$

with solutions $\alpha = \pm n$. For n = 0, the root $\alpha = 0$ is doubled, and solutions of the differential equation are $r^0 = 1$ and $r^0 \cdot \log r = \log r$. For $n \neq 0$, the solutions are r^n and r^{-n} .

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Translating back to z and \overline{z} coordinates, we obtain the indicated expansion.

[08.4] Show that a harmonic function u on 0 < |z| < 1 such that

$$\int_{0 < x^2 + y^2 < 1} |u(x + iy)|^2 dx dy < \infty$$

is of the form $u(x+iy) = v(x+iy) + c \log |z|$ for v harmonic on the disk |z| < 1, for some constant c.

There is a Fourier expansion

$$u(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} c_n(r) e^{in\theta}$$

and the integral of $|u|^2$ over the punctured disk is

$$\int_{0 < r < 1} |u|^2 = \sum_{m,n} \int_0^1 c_m(r) \, \overline{c}_n(r) \Big(\int_0^{2\pi} e^{im\theta} e^{-in\theta} \, d\theta \Big) r \, dr = 2\pi \sum_n \int_0^1 |c_n(r)|^2 r \, dr$$

by orthogonality of distinct exponentials. From the previous example, the 0^{th} Fourier coefficient is a linear combination $a_0 + b_0 \log r$, and

$$\int_0^1 \left| a_0 + b_0 \log r \right|^2 r \, dr < \infty \qquad \text{(for arbitrary } a_0, b_0\text{)}$$

In contrast, for n > 0,

$$\int_0^1 \left| a_n r^n + b_n r^{-n} \right|^2 r \, dr = \int_0^1 \left(|a_n|^2 r^{2n} + (a_n \bar{b}_n + \bar{a}_n b_n) + |b_n|^2 r^{-2n} \right) r \, dr$$

The first two summands have finite integrals, but $\int_0^1 r^{-2n} r dr = +\infty$. Thus, $b_n = 0$. That is, apart from the log r term, the only non-zero coefficients in the Fourier expansion give terms $z^n = r^n e^{-n\theta}$ and $\overline{z}^n = r^n e^{-in\theta}$ with $n \ge 0$. A sum of such terms is harmonic on the whole disk.

[08.5] Define f on the unit circle by $f(e^{i\theta}) = \theta^2$, for $-\pi < \theta < \pi$. Find a harmonic function u on the open disk whose boundary values are f.

There are several ways to think about this. One is to determine the Fourier expansion of the boundary-value function, make the obvious extension to a sum of power series in z and \overline{z} as in that sort of derivation of the Poisson kernel, and then presumably sum the resulting series to an elementary function. Yes, this amounts to re-doing part of the discussion of the Poisson kernel, but may be a reasonable choice in circumstances where the integral against the Poisson kernel cannot be expressed in elementary closed form.

The 0^{th} Fourier coefficient of the function $F(\theta) \to \theta^2$ on $[-\pi, \pi]$ is

$$\widehat{F}(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} F(\theta) d\theta = \frac{\pi^3/3}{2\pi} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

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For $n \neq 0$, the n^{th} Fourier coefficient is computed by integrating by parts:

$$\begin{split} \widehat{F}(n) \; &= \; \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \theta^2 \cdot e^{-in\theta} \; d\theta \; = \; \frac{1}{2\pi} \Big[\theta^2 \cdot \frac{e^{-in\theta}}{-in} \Big]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} 2\theta \cdot \frac{e^{-in\theta}}{-in} \; d\theta \; = \; \frac{1}{\pi in} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \theta \cdot e^{-in\theta} \; d\theta \\ &= \; \frac{1}{\pi in} \Big[\theta \cdot \frac{e^{-in\theta}}{-in} \Big]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{\pi in} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{e^{-in\theta}}{-in} \; d\theta \; = \; \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$f(e^{i\theta}) = F(\theta) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} + \sum_{n \neq 0} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} e^{in\theta}$$

As in the Fourier series treatment of the Dirichlet problem, extend the positive-index exponentials to powers of z and the negative exponentials to powers of \overline{z} : put

$$u(z) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} + \sum_{n>1} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} z^n + \sum_{n>1} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} \overline{z}^n$$

This function seems to have no simpler expression, although there is the related elementary identity

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\sum_{n>1} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} x^n \right) = -1 + \frac{z}{2} - \frac{z^2}{3} - \dots = -\frac{1}{x} \log(1+x)$$

[08.6] (Euler-type equations of second order) An ordinary differential equation of the form

$$u'' + \frac{b}{x}u' + \frac{c}{x^2}u = 0$$

with constants b, c is said to be of Euler type. Show that it has solutions x^{α} and x^{β} where α, β are solutions of the **auxiliary equation**

$$\lambda(\lambda - 1) + b\lambda + c = 0$$

Show that $x^{\alpha} \log x$ is the second solution if the root of the auxiliary equation is *double*, i.e., if $\alpha = \beta$. Use the Mean Value Theorem to genuinely prove that there are no other solutions.

We choose to consider these differential equations on $(0, +\infty)$, so that complex powers x^{α} are unambiguous.

Among various ways to discuss Euler-type equations, an approach that scales up to higher-degree versions

$$x^{n}u^{(n)} + c_{n-1}x^{n-1}u^{(n-1)} + \ldots + c_{2}x^{2}u'' + c_{1}xu' + c_{0}u = 0$$

observes that differential operators $x^{\ell} \frac{\partial^{\ell}}{\partial x^{\ell}}$ are all polynomials in the single operator $x \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$, and factors the differential operator

$$x^{n} \frac{\partial^{n}}{\partial x^{n}} + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} \frac{\partial^{n-1}}{\partial x^{n-1}} + \ldots + c_{1} x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + c_{0} = \left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_{1} \right) \left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_{2} \right) \ldots \left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_{n} \right)$$

for constants α_i . We solve the equation

$$\left(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_1\right)\left(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_2\right)\dots\left(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_n\right)u = 0$$

in steps, first solving $(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_1)u_1 = 0$, then $(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_2)u_2 = u_1$, then $(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha_3)u_3 = u_2$, and so on.

Solving $xu' - \alpha u = 0$ is easy: u(x) is a constant multiple of x^{α} . Uniqueness is proven via the mean value theorem: for another solution u(x), with $v(x) = u(x)/x^{\alpha}$,

$$x(x^{\alpha}v)' - \alpha(x^{\alpha}v) = 0$$

gives

$$0 = x(\alpha x^{\alpha - 1}v + x^{\alpha}v') - \alpha x^{\alpha}v = x^{\alpha + 1}v'$$

That is, v' = 0 and v is a constant, proving uniqueness.

Continue by induction: $xu' - \alpha u = x^{\beta}$ with $\alpha \neq \beta$ has solution $x^{\beta}/(\beta - \alpha)$, and uniqueness for the associated homogeneous equation gives uniqueness. Thus, when the α_i are all different, all solutions are linear combinations of x^{α_i} .

To treat multiple roots, a general observation is helpful: for any (linear) differential operator D and function u satisfying $(D - \lambda)u = 0$, with u depending of course on λ , differentiation in λ gives

$$\frac{-u + (D - \lambda)\partial u}{\partial \lambda = 0}$$

or

$$\frac{(D-\lambda)\partial u}{\partial \lambda = u}$$

Repeating,

$$\frac{(D-\lambda)\partial^2 u}{\partial \lambda^2} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \lambda}$$

and so on. In the case at hand, the n^{th} derivative of x^{α} with respect to the eigenvalue α is $x^{\alpha} \cdot \log^n x$, and

$$(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \alpha)(x^{\alpha} \cdot \log^{n} x) = x^{\alpha} \cdot \log^{n-1} x$$

Thus, with roots α with multiplicities $\nu = \nu_{\alpha}$, all solutions are linear combinations of x^{α} , $x^{\alpha} \log x$, $x^{\alpha} \log^{2} x$, ..., $x^{\alpha} \log^{\nu-1} x$.

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[08.7] (Rotationally invariant harmonic functions in \mathbb{R}^n) For f twice-differentiable on \mathbb{R}^n , expressible as a (twice-differentiable) function of the radius r alone (at least away from 0), say f is spherically symmetric or rotationally invariant. (This could also be formulated as invariance under the action of the orthogonal group by rotations). Show that

$$\Delta f = f'' + \frac{n-1}{r}f'$$

(This is of Euler type). On $\mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$, find two linearly independent harmonic functions.

Compute directly, with $r = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \ldots + x_n}$,

$$\Delta f(r) = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i}^{2}} f(r) = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} \left(\frac{x_{i}}{r} \cdot f'(r) \right) = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} \left(\frac{1}{r} f' - \frac{x_{i}^{2}}{r^{3}} f' + \left(\frac{x_{i}}{r} \right)^{2} f'' \right) = f'' + \frac{n-1}{r} f'$$

The indicial equation is

$$\lambda(\lambda - 1) + (n - 1)\lambda = 0$$

so $\lambda = 0, 2 - n$. For $n \neq 2$, the roots are distinct, giving linearly independent solutions $1, x^{2-n}$. For n = 2, the root is doubled, giving linearly independent solutions $1, \log x$.

[08.8] The Fourier expansion

$$\delta(\theta) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{in\theta} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{\delta}(n) e^{in\theta} \quad (\text{with } \widehat{\delta}(n) = 1 \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z})$$

certainly does not converge *pointwise*, but does make sense as the expansion of the periodic Dirac δ , sometimes called $Dirac\ comb$ function on $\mathbb{R}/2\pi\mathbb{Z}$, in the following sense. The $Plancherel\ identity$

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} u(\theta) \, \overline{v(\theta)} \, d\theta = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{u}(n) \cdot \overline{\widehat{v}(n)}$$
 (for $u, v \in L^2(S^1)$)

 $L^2(S^1) \times L^2(S^1) \to \mathbb{C}$ can be restricted in the first argument and extended in the second, so that for *smooth* $u(\theta) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{u}(n) \, e^{in\theta}$, pairing against δ correctly evaluates u at $\theta = 0$:

$$u(0) \ = \ \sum_n \widehat{u}(n) \, e^{in \cdot 0} \ = \ \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{u}(n) \cdot 1 \ = \ \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{u}(n) \cdot \overline{\widehat{\delta}(n)} \ = \ \langle u, \delta \rangle$$

Identifying the circle with the boundary $\{z: |z|=1\}$ of the disk $\{z: |z|<1\}$, determine the harmonic function on the disk whose boundary value function is the periodic Dirac δ .

Again following the path in the Fourier series derivation of the Poisson kernel, replace positive-index Fourier terms by powers of \overline{z} , and negative-index Fourier terms by powers of \overline{z} , producing

$$u(z) = 1 + \sum_{n \ge 1} z^n + \sum_{n \ge 1} \overline{z}^n = 1 + \frac{z}{1-z} + \frac{\overline{z}}{1-\overline{z}} = \frac{(1-z-\overline{z}+|z|^2)+z(1-\overline{z})+\overline{z}(1-z)}{(1-z)(1-\overline{z})} = \frac{1-|z|^2}{|1-z|^2}$$

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Yes, this is the Poisson kernel $P(e^{i\theta}, z)$ at $\theta = 0$.