Due Date: 13 October 2016, Thursday Class Time



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Math 503 Complex Analysis - Homework 1

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | TOTAL |
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| 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 100 |

Please do not write anything inside the above boxes!

Check that there are **4** questions on your booklet. Write your name on top of every page. Show your work in reasonable detail. A correct answer without proper or too much reasoning may not get any credit. **Submit your solutions on this booklet only. Use extra pages if necessary.**

Rules for Homework Assignments

- (1) You may discuss the problems with your classmates or with me but it is absolutely mandatory that you **write your answers alone**.
- (2) You must obey the usual rules of attribution: all sources you use must be explicitly cited in such a manner that the source is easily retrieved with your citation. This includes any ideas you borrowed from your friends. (It is a good thing to borrow ideas from friends but it is a bad thing not to acknowledge their contribution!)
- (3) Even if you find a solution online, you must rewrite it in your own narration, fill in the blanks if any, making sure that you **exhibit your total understanding of the ideas involved**.

Affidavit of compliance with the above rules: I affirm that I have complied with the above rules in preparing this submitted work.

Please sign here:

STUDENT NO:

Q-1) Let Λ be a circle lying on the unit sphere $S = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = 1\}$. Show that the stereographic projection of Λ to \mathbb{C} is a straight line if Λ passes through the North pole, and that it is a circle otherwise.

First Solution: Let us first immediately dispose the case when Λ passes through the North pole. In that case the plane π which cuts Λ is also the plane which contains all the lines from the North pole to the points on Λ . These rays intersect the \mathbb{C} along the line of intersection of \mathbb{C} with π .

Now assume that Λ does not pass through the North pole.

Let the plane π which cuts Λ be given by

$$b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 = d,$$

where $b_3 \neq d$ since the circle Λ , and hence the plane π does not pass through (0, 0, 1). Moreover we normalize the coefficients by forcing

$$b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2 = 1$$

In this case, by Cauchy-Schwartz inequality we have |d| < 1. Equality would hold when Λ is a degenerate circle, i.e. a point.

Under the stereographic projection we have

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mapsto (X, Y) = \left(\frac{x_1}{1 - x_3}, \frac{x_2}{1 - x_3}\right).$$

At this point, by trial and error, we try to find some constants X_0 and Y_0 such that

$$(X - X_0)^2 + (Y - Y_0)^2 > 0,$$

which would mean that all such (X, Y) lie on a circle in \mathbb{C} . After some playing around we find that

$$(X - X_0)^2 + (Y - Y_0)^2 = \left(\frac{x_1}{1 - x_3} - \frac{b_1}{d - b_3}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{x_2}{1 - x_3} - \frac{b_2}{d - b_3}\right)^2 = \frac{1 - d^2}{(d - b_3)^2} > 0,$$

as expected.

Another approach: Finding the constants X_0 and Y_0 may be easy on a clear day but on other days we can try the following approach. Suppose that (X, Y) is a point in the image of Λ under the stereographic projection as above. The inverse stereographic projection gives

$$(X,Y) \mapsto \left(\frac{2X}{X^2 + Y^2 + 1}, \frac{2Y}{X^2 + Y^2 + 1}, \frac{X^2 + Y^2 - 1}{X^2 + Y^2 + 1}\right).$$

These points must satisfy the equation of the plane π . Substituting these into that equation and simplifying we get

$$(b_3 - d)(X^2 + Y^2) + 2b_1X + 2b_2Y - (d + b_3) = 0.$$

Since we assumed that $b_3 \neq d$, this shows that the points (X, Y) lie on a circle as expected. Note that this is exactly the same circle equation we obtained above by guessing the center.

STUDENT NO:

Q-2) Show that $\{ cis k \mid k = 0, 1, 2, ... \}$ is dense in $T = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1 \}$.

Solution:

This is a classical result which you should work out yourself at least once in your life.

It suffices to show that $\{n \mod 2\pi \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}\$ is dense in $[0, 2\pi)$. Then for any point $\operatorname{cis} \theta \in T$ and for any $\epsilon > 0$ we can find an integer k such that $|\theta - (k \mod 2\pi)|$ is small enough to make $\operatorname{cis} \theta - \operatorname{cis} k||\epsilon$, proving the claim of the problem.

For this however it suffices to show that for any irrational number α , the set $\{n\alpha \mod 1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is dense in [0, 1); using this it is immediate to see that $\{n \mod (1/\alpha) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is dense in $[0, 1/\alpha)$. Taking $\alpha = 1/(2\pi)$ will take us to where we want.

So we want to prove that for any irrational $\alpha > 0$ the set of all $n\alpha$ where n is an integer is dense in [0, 1).

For this I will follow the logic and the notation of a classical article:

John H. Staib and Miltiades S. Demos, *On the Limit Points of the Sequence* $\sin n$, Mathematics Magazine, Vol. 40, No. 4 (Sep., 1967), pp. 210-213 Published by: Mathematical Association of America.

First note that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

 $\lfloor x \rfloor$ = the greatest integer *n* with $n \leq x$.

Using the above article we define for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$(x) = x - \lfloor x \rfloor.$$

Clearly $(x) = x \mod 1$ and is in the interval [0, 1). We first prove a theorem.

Theorem 1: For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(x+y) = \begin{cases} (x) + (y) & \text{if } (x) + (y) < 1, \\ (x) + (y) - 1 & \text{if } (x) + (y) \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

Proof: If $0 \le (x) + (y) < 1$, writing the corresponding definitions we have

$$0 \le x + y - (\lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor) < 1.$$

Subtracting x + y from all sides and multiplying by -1 we get

$$x + y - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor \le x + y.$$

This shows that $\lfloor x + y \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor y \rfloor$, and it follows that

$$(x+y) = x+y - \lfloor x+y \rfloor = x - \lfloor x \rfloor + y - \lfloor y \rfloor = (x) + (y).$$

The other case is proved in exactly the same manner except that now we start with

$$0 \le (x) + (y) - 1 < 2.$$

Corollary 1: For any real x which is not an integer, we have (-x) = 1 - (x). Proof: In the theorem put -x for y. Then

$$0 = (x - x) = (x) + (-x) + \delta,$$

where $\delta \in \{0, -1\}$. But since both (x) and (-x) are strictly positive, we need to have $\delta = -1$. \Box

Corollary 2: If (z) > (x), then (z - x) = (z) - (x). Proof: In the theorem write z - x for y to get

$$(z) = (x + z - x) = (z) + (z - x) + \delta,$$

where $\delta \in \{0, -1\}$. Since $(z) - (x) = (z - x) + \delta > 0$, we must have $\delta = 0$.

Corollary 3: For any positive integer n and any real x, if we have n(x) < 1, then n(x) = (nx). Proof: Clearly holds for n = 1. Assume that [n - 1](x) < 1 implies [n - 1](x) = ([n - 1]x). Now assume n(x) < 1. Then clearly [n - 1](x) < 1 holds, and we have by the theorem and the induction hypothesis that

$$(nx) = ([n-1]x + x) = ([n-1]x) + (x) = [n-1](x) + (x) = n(x),$$

as claimed.

Lemma: Let $\alpha > 0$ be an irrational number. For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a positive integer n such that $(n\alpha) < \epsilon$.

Proof: Without loss of generality we may assume that $\epsilon < 1$. Choose an integer N such that $N > 1/\epsilon$. Consider the set

$$R = \{0, (\alpha), (2\alpha), \dots, (N\alpha)\}.$$

Let $b = \max R$. Then the points in R partitions the interval $[0, b] \subset [0, 1)$ into N subintervals. The length of the smallest of these subintervals must not exceed b/N. This means that there are distinct integers j and k, $0 \le j, k \le N$, such that

$$0 < (k\alpha) - (j\alpha) \le b/N < 1/N < \epsilon.$$

It follows from Corollary 2 that

$$0 < ([k-j]\alpha) < \epsilon.$$

If k - j > 0, then we are done by setting n = k - j. So suppose k - j < 0, and let m = j - k. We now have

$$(-m\alpha) = (-m\alpha) - \lfloor -m\alpha \rfloor.$$

Letting $(-m\alpha = \epsilon^*)$, we have $\epsilon^* < \epsilon < 1$, and

$$-m\alpha =$$
 negative integer $+\epsilon^*$.

Let p be the largest integer such that $p\epsilon^* < 1$, and multiply the above equation by p to get

 $-pm\alpha =$ negative integer $+p\epsilon^*$.

This shows that $(-pm\alpha) = p\epsilon^*$. Moreover the choice of p assures us that $0 < 1 - p\epsilon^* < \epsilon^*$. Therefore we have

$$0 < 1 - (-pm\alpha) < \epsilon^* < \epsilon,$$

and by Corollary 1,

$$0 < (pm\alpha) < \epsilon,$$

finishing the proof by setting n = pm.

After all this preparation we finally prove what we set out to prove.

Theorem 2: For any irrational α , the set of points $(n\alpha)$ where n is an integer is dense in [0, 1]. **Proof:** We lose no generality if we assume $\alpha > 0$ and show denseness in (0, 1). Take any number $u \in (0, 1)$, and any $\epsilon > 0$ with $0 < \epsilon < u$. By the above lemma there exists a positive integer k such that $(k\alpha) < \epsilon$. Take j as the largest integer such that

$$j(k\alpha) \le u < j(k\alpha) + (k\alpha).$$

It follows from this that

$$0 \le u - j(k\alpha) < (k\alpha) < \epsilon$$

Since u < 1, we must have $j(k\alpha) < 1$, and by Corollary 3 we have $j(k\alpha) = (jk\alpha)$. Hence taking n = jk we finally have

$$0 \le u - (n\alpha) < \epsilon,$$

proving the denseness property.

STUDENT NO:

Q-3 Let $\{f_n\}$ be a sequence of uniformly continuous functions from a metric space (X, d) into another metric space (Y, p) and suppose that $f = u - \lim f_n$ exists. Prove that f is uniformly continuous.

Solution:

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. The uniform convergence of f_n says that there exists an index N such that for all indices $n \ge N$ and for all $z \in X$ we have

$$p(f(z), f_n(z)) < \epsilon.$$

Moreover since each f_n is uniformly continuous on X, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x, y \in X$ with $d(x, y) < \delta$, we have

$$p(f_n(x), f_n(y)) < \epsilon.$$

Now for every $x, y \in X$ with $d(x, y) < \delta$, and any fixed index n with $n \ge N$, we have

$$p(f(x), f(y)) \le p(f(x), f_n(x)) + p(f_n(x), f_n(y)) + p(f_n(f_n(y), f(y)) < 3\epsilon,$$

showing that f is uniformly continuous on X.

STUDENT NO:

DEPARTMENT:

Q-4) Let $f, g, h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be C^2 -functions with f(0) = 1 and h(0) = 0. Moreover assume that the complex function

$$\phi(x+iy) = \sin x \cdot f(y) + ig(x)h(y)$$

is analytic on \mathbb{C} . (Here x and y are real variables.) Find f, g, h explicitly.

Solution:

This basically follows from Cauchy-Riemann equations. Let

$$\phi(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y),$$

where

$$u(x,y) = \sin x f(y), v(x,y) = g(x) h(y).$$

First, from $u_x = v_y$, we have $\cos x f(y) = g(x) h'(y)$. Puting y = 0 we get

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha} \cos x$$
, where $\alpha = h'(0)$:

Second, from $u_y = -v_x$ we get $\sin x f'(y) = (1/\alpha) \sin x h(y)$, which gives

$$f'(y) = \frac{1}{\alpha} h(y)$$
, with $f'(0) = 0$, since $h(0) = 0$.

Third, from $v_{yy} = -v_{xx}$ we get $(1/\alpha) \cos x h''(y) = (1/\alpha) \cos x h(y)$, which gives

h''(y) = h(y).

This last ODE together with h(0) = 0 and $h'(0) = \alpha$ gives us

$$h(y) = \alpha \sinh y.$$

Finally, since we know that $f'(y) = (1/\alpha)h(y)$, we immediately know that $f'(y) = \sinh y$. Together with f(0) = 1, this gives

$$f(y) = \cosh y.$$

Now we can put these together to conclude that

$$\phi(z) = \sin x \cosh y + i \cos x \sinh y.$$

This is an analytic function which restricts to $\sin x$ on the real line. Later we will see that it is the unique such function.