

### 3.8 Harmonic Functions

Let  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set. Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . If  $f$  is  $C^2$  on  $U$ , and satisfies the Laplace equation

$$\Delta f(x) := \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k^2}(x) = 0, \quad x \in U,$$

then we say that  $f$  is a harmonic function on  $U$ . The symbol  $\Delta$  is called the Laplace operator.

In this course, we focus on the case  $n = 2$ , and identify  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with  $\mathbb{C}$ . The Laplace equation becomes

$$\Delta f(z) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(z) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(z) = 0, \quad z \in U.$$

Note that a complex function is harmonic if and only if both of its real part and imaginary part are harmonic.

**Theorem 3.8.1.** *Let  $f$  be analytic in an open set  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $f$  is harmonic in  $U$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $f = u + iv$ . We have seen that  $f$  is infinitely many times complex differentiable, which implies that  $u$  and  $v$  are infinitely many times real differentiable. From the Cauchy-Riemann equation, we get  $u_x = v_y$  and  $u_y = -v_x$  in  $U$ . Thus,

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

which implies that both  $u$  and  $v$  are harmonic, and so is  $f$ . □

From now on, we assume that a harmonic function is always real valued.

**Lemma 3.8.1.** *Let  $u$  be a real valued  $C^2$  function defined in an open set  $U$ . Then  $u$  is harmonic in  $U$  if and only if  $u_x - iu_y$  is analytic in  $U$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose  $u$  is harmonic in  $U$ . Then  $u_x, u_y \in C^1$  and  $(u_x)_x = (-u_y)_y$  and  $(u_x)_y = -(-u_y)_x$ . Cauchy-Riemann equation is satisfied by  $u_x$  and  $-u_y$ . So  $u_x - iu_y$  is analytic. On the other hand, if  $u_x - iu_y$  is analytic, then the Cauchy-Riemann equation implies that  $(u_x)_x = (-u_y)_y$ , i.e.,  $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$ . So  $u$  is harmonic. □

**Definition 3.8.1.** *Let  $u$  be a harmonic function in a domain  $U$ . If a real valued function  $v$  satisfies that  $u + iv$  is analytic in  $U$ , then we say that  $v$  is a harmonic conjugate of  $u$  in  $U$ .*

A harmonic conjugate must also be a harmonic function because it is the imaginary part of an analytic function. If  $v$  and  $w$  are both harmonic conjugates of  $u$  in  $U$ , then  $v_x = -u_y = w_x$  and  $v_y = u_x = w_y$  in  $U$ . Since  $U$  is connected, we get  $v - w$  is constant. This means that, the harmonic conjugates of a harmonic function, if it exists, are unique up to an additive constant. Also note that if  $v$  is a harmonic conjugate of  $u$ , then  $-u$  (instead of  $u$ ) is a harmonic conjugate of  $v$ . This is because  $-i(u + iv) = v - iu$  is analytic.

**Theorem 3.8.2.** *Let  $u$  be a harmonic function in a simply connected domain  $U$ . Then there is a harmonic conjugate of  $u$  in  $U$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $f = u_x - iu_y$  in  $U$ . From the above lemma,  $f$  is holomorphic in  $U$ . Since  $U$  is simply connected,  $f$  has a primitive in  $U$ , say  $F$ . Write  $F = \tilde{u} + i\tilde{v}$ . Then

$$u_x - iu_y = f = F' = \tilde{u}_x - i\tilde{v}_x.$$

Thus,  $u_x = \tilde{u}_x$  and  $u_y = \tilde{v}_x$  in  $U$ . Since  $U$  is connected, we see that  $\tilde{u} - u$  is a real constant. Let  $C = \tilde{u} - u \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $F - C = u + i\tilde{v}$  is holomorphic in  $U$ . Thus,  $\tilde{v}$  is a harmonic conjugate of  $u$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** The theorem does not hold if we do not assume that  $U$  is simply connected. However, a harmonic conjugate always exists locally: if  $u$  is a harmonic function in an open set  $U$ , then for any disk  $D(z_0, r) \subset U$ , there is  $f$ , which is analytic in  $D(z_0, r)$  and satisfies that  $\operatorname{Re} f = u$ . Since such  $f$  is infinitely many times complex differentiable, we see that  $u$  is infinitely many times real differentiable in  $D(z_0, r)$ . Since  $D(z_0, r) \subset U$  can be chosen arbitrarily, we see that every harmonic function is infinitely many times real differentiable.

**Example.**

1. Let  $D = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ . Let  $u(z) = \ln |z| = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + y^2)$ . Then  $u_x = \frac{x}{x^2+y^2}$  and  $u_y = \frac{y}{x^2+y^2}$ . So  $u_x - iu_y = \frac{1}{x+iy}$  is holomorphic in  $D$ . From the above lemma,  $u$  is harmonic. If  $v$  is a harmonic conjugate of  $u$  in  $D$ , then  $u + iv$  is a primitive of  $u_x - iu_y = \frac{1}{z}$  in  $D$ . However, we already know that  $\frac{1}{z}$  has no primitive in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ . Recall that  $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{dz}{z} = 2\pi i \neq 0$ . Thus,  $u$  has no harmonic conjugates in  $D$ .
2. Let  $u(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy - y^2$ . Then  $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 2 - 2 = 0$ . So  $u$  is harmonic in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We now find a harmonic conjugate of  $u$ . If  $v$  is a harmonic conjugate, then  $v_y = u_x = 2x + 2y$ . Thus,  $v = 2xy + y^2 + h(x)$ , where  $h(x)$  is a differentiable function in  $x$ . From  $-u_y = v_x$ , we get  $2y - 2x = 2y + h'(x)$ . So we may choose  $h(x) = -x^2$ . So one harmonic conjugate of  $u$  is  $2xy + y^2 - x^2$ .

**Theorem 3.8.3. [Mean Value Theorem for Harmonic Functions]** *Let  $u$  be harmonic on  $D(z_0, R)$ . Then for any  $r \in (0, R)$ ,*

$$u(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} u(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) d\theta;$$

$$u(z_0) = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \int_{|z-z_0| \leq r} u(z) dx dy.$$

*Proof.* This follows from the Mean Value Theorem for holomorphic functions, and the existence of harmonic conjugates of  $u$  in the simply connected domain  $D(z_0, R)$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.8.1.** *With the above setup, if  $u$  attains its maximum at  $z_0$ , then  $u$  is constant in  $D(z_0, R)$ .*

*Proof.* We have seen a similar proposition, which says that if  $f$  is holomorphic in  $D(z_0, R)$ , and  $|f|$  attains its maximum at  $z_0$ , then  $|f|$  is constant in  $D(z_0, R)$ . The two proofs are similar.

Here is another proof. Let  $f$  be analytic such that  $u = \operatorname{Re} f$ . Then  $e^f$  is also analytic, and  $|e^f| = e^u$ . Since  $u$  attains its maximum at  $z_0$ ,  $|e^f|$  also attains its maximum at  $z_0$ . An earlier proposition shows that  $|e^f|$  is constant, which implies that  $u = \log |e^f|$  is constant.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.8.4. [Maximum Principle for Harmonic Functions]** *Let  $u$  be harmonic in a domain  $U$ .*

(i) *Suppose that  $u$  has a local maximum at  $z_0 \in U$ . Then  $u$  is constant.*

(ii) *If  $U$  is bounded, and  $u$  is continuous on  $\bar{U}$ , then there is  $z_0 \in \partial U$  such that  $u(z_0) = \max\{u(z) : z \in U\}$ .*

(iii) *The above statements also hold if “maximum” is replaced by “minimum”.*

*Proof.* (i) From the above corollary, there is  $r_0 > 0$  such that  $u$  is constant in  $D(z_0, r_0)$ . Let  $w \in U$ . Since  $U$  is connected, we may find a finite sequence of disks  $D_k = D(z_k, r_k)$ ,  $0 \leq k \leq n$ , in  $U$ , such that  $w \in D_n$  and  $D_{k-1} \cap D_k \neq \emptyset$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq n$ . Since each  $D_k$  is simply connected, there is  $f_k$  holomorphic in  $D_k$  such that  $u = \operatorname{Re} f_k$  in  $D_k$ . We already see that  $u$  is constant in  $D_0$ . So  $\operatorname{Re} f_1 = u$  is constant in  $D_0 \cap D_1$ . From C-R equations, we see that  $f_1$  is constant in  $D_0 \cap D_1$ . From the Uniqueness Theorem, we see that  $f_1$  is constant in  $D_1$ . Thus,  $u = \operatorname{Re} f_1$  is constant in  $D_1$ . Using induction, we see that  $u$  is constant in every  $D_k$ . Since  $D_{k-1} \cap D_k \neq \emptyset$ ,  $u$  is constant in  $\bigcup_{k=0}^n D_k$ . Thus,  $f(w) = f(z_0)$  as  $w \in D_n$  and  $z_0 \in D_0$ .

(ii) Since  $U$  is bounded,  $\bar{U}$  is compact. Since  $u$  is continuous on  $\bar{U}$ , it attains its maximum at some  $w_0 \in \bar{U}$ . If  $w_0 \in \partial U$ , we may let  $z_0 = w_0$ . If  $w_0 \in U$ , then (i) implies that  $u$  is constant in  $U$ . The continuity then implies that  $u$  is constant in  $\bar{U}$ . We may take  $z_0$  to be any point on  $\partial U$ .

(iii) Note that  $-u$  is also harmonic, and when  $-u$  attains its maximum,  $u$  attains its minimum.  $\square$

**Corollary 3.8.2.** *Suppose  $u$  and  $v$  are both harmonic in a bounded domain  $U$  and continuous on  $\bar{U}$ . Suppose that  $u = v$  on  $\partial U$ . Then  $u = v$  on  $\bar{U}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $h = u - v$ . Then  $h$  is harmonic in  $U$ , continuous on  $\bar{U}$ , and  $h \equiv 0$  on  $\partial U$ . From the above theorem,  $h$  attains its maximum and minimum at  $\partial U$ . So  $h$  has to be 0 everywhere, i.e.,  $u = v$  in  $\bar{U}$ .  $\square$

The above corollary says that, if  $u$  is harmonic in a bounded domain  $U$  and continuous on  $\bar{U}$ , then the values of  $u$  on  $U$  are determined by the values of  $u$  on  $\partial U$ .

We introduce the differential operators

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right), \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right).$$

This means that, if  $f = u + iv$ , then

$$f_z := \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2}(u_x + iv_x) - \frac{i}{2}(u_y + iv_y) = \frac{u_x + v_y}{2} + i \frac{v_x - u_y}{2};$$

$$f_{\bar{z}} := \frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2}(u_x + iv_x) + \frac{i}{2}(u_y + iv_y) = \frac{u_x - v_y}{2} + i \frac{v_x + u_y}{2}.$$

So the Cauchy-Riemann equation is equivalent to  $f_{\bar{z}} = 0$ ; and if  $f$  is holomorphic, then  $f_z = u_x + iv_x = f'$ . Moreover, it is clear that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{4} \Delta.$$

Thus, if  $f$  is holomorphic, then  $\Delta f = 0$ , from which we see again that  $f$  is harmonic. If  $u$  is harmonic, then from  $\partial_{\bar{z}} \partial_z u = \frac{1}{4} \Delta u = 0$  we see that  $\partial_z u$  is holomorphic, which is used in a proof of a theorem.

**Remark.** The smoothness, mean value theorem and the maximum principle also hold for harmonic functions in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for  $n \geq 3$ . But the technique of complex analysis can not be used. For example, the mean value theorem follows from the divergence theorem.

**Homework.** Chapter VIII, §1: 7 (a,b,c,e).

1. Find all real-valued  $C^2$  differentiable functions  $h$  defined on  $(0, \infty)$  such that  $u(x, y) = h(x^2 + y^2)$  is harmonic on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .
2. Prove that any positive harmonic function in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is constant. Hint: If  $f$  is an entire function with  $\operatorname{Re} f > 0$ , then consider  $e^{-f}$ .  
Remark: This statement does not hold for  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with  $d \geq 3$ .
3. Let  $u$  be a nonconstant harmonic function on  $\mathbb{C}$ . Show that for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $u^{-1}(c)$  is unbounded. Hint:  $\{|z| > R\}$  is connected for any  $R > 0$ .

### 3.9 Winding Numbers

Let  $\gamma$  be a closed curve, and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma$ . The winding number or index of  $\gamma$  with respect to  $\alpha$  is

$$W(\gamma, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z - \alpha} dz.$$

**Example.** Suppose  $\gamma$  is a Jordan curve. If  $\alpha$  lies in the exterior of  $\gamma$ , then applying Cauchy's Theorem to  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z - \alpha}$ , we get  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = 0$ . If  $\alpha$  lies in the interior of  $\gamma$ , then applying Cauchy's Formula to  $f(z) = 1$ , we get  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = 1$  or  $-1$ , where the sign depends on the orientation of  $\gamma$ .

**Lemma 3.9.1.**  $W(\gamma, \alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $\gamma$  is defined on  $[a, b]$ . Define  $F(t) = \int_a^t \frac{\gamma'(s)}{\gamma(s) - \alpha} ds$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ . Then  $F$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,  $F(a) = 0$ ,  $F(b) = 2\pi i W(\gamma, \alpha)$ , and  $F'(t) = \frac{\gamma'(t)}{\gamma(t) - \alpha}$  for  $t \in [a, b]$  other than the partition points, say  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$ . We now compute

$$\frac{d}{dt} e^{-F(t)} (\eta(t) - \alpha) = e^{-F(t)} \eta'(t) - e^{-F(t)} F'(t) (\eta(t) - \alpha) = 0, \quad t \in [a, b] \setminus \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}.$$

Hence there is a constant  $C \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $C(\eta(t) - \alpha) = e^{F(t)}$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ . Since  $\eta$  is closed, we have  $e^{F(b)} = e^{F(a)} = e^0 = 1$ , which implies that  $F(b) \in 2\pi i \mathbb{Z}$ . So  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} F(b) \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** Let  $\theta_0$  be an argument of the  $C$  in the above proof. From  $\eta(t) - \alpha = C e^{F(t)}$  we see that  $\text{Im } F(t) + \theta_0$  is an argument of  $\eta(t) - \alpha$  for  $a \leq t \leq b$ . Now suppose  $h$  is a continuous function on  $[a, b]$  such that  $h(t)$  is an argument of  $\eta(t) - \alpha$  for  $a \leq t \leq b$ , then  $(h(t) - \text{Im } F(t) - \theta_0)/(2\pi i)$  is an integer-valued continuous function on  $[a, b]$ , which must be constant. Thus,

$$W(\gamma, \alpha) = \frac{F(b) - F(a)}{2\pi i} = \frac{i \text{Im } F(b) - i \text{Im } F(a)}{2\pi i} = \frac{h(b) - h(a)}{2\pi}.$$

This means that  $2\pi W(\gamma, \alpha)$  equals to the total increment of  $\arg(z - \alpha)$  along  $\gamma$ .

**Lemma 3.9.2.** The map  $\alpha \mapsto W(\gamma, \alpha)$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $\alpha_0 \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma$ . Let  $(\alpha_n)$  be a sequence that converges to  $\alpha_0$ . It suffices to show that  $\frac{1}{z - \alpha_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{z - \alpha_0}$  uniformly on  $z \in \gamma$ . Let  $r = \text{dist}(\alpha_0, \gamma) > 0$ . For  $n$  big enough, we have  $|\alpha_n - \alpha_0| < r/2$ , which implies that  $\text{dist}(\alpha_n, \gamma) \geq r/2$ . For those  $n$ , we have

$$\left| \frac{1}{z - \alpha_n} - \frac{1}{z - \alpha_0} \right| = \frac{|\alpha_n - \alpha_0|}{|z - \alpha_n| |z - \alpha_0|} \leq \frac{|\alpha_n - \alpha_0|}{r^2/2}, \quad z \in \gamma.$$

Thus,  $\left\| \frac{1}{z - \alpha_n} - \frac{1}{z - \alpha_0} \right\|_{\gamma} \leq \frac{|\alpha_n - \alpha_0|}{r^2/2}$  when  $n$  is big enough, which implies that  $2\pi i W(\gamma, \alpha_n) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z - \alpha_n} dz \rightarrow \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z - \alpha_0} dz = 2\pi i W(\gamma, \alpha_0)$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.9.1.**  $W(\gamma, \cdot)$  is constant on each connected component of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma$ .

*Proof.* This follows from the above two lemmas and the fact that a continuous integer valued function is constant on a domain.  $\square$

**Corollary 3.9.2.**  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = 0$  if  $\alpha$  lies on the unbounded component of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma$ .

*Proof.* This follows from the fact that, as  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\frac{1}{z-\alpha} \rightarrow 0$  uniformly in  $z \in \gamma$ .  $\square$

We define a contour  $\gamma$  to be a “sum” of finitely many closed curves  $\gamma_k$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , which may or may not have intersections. The repetitions in  $\gamma_k$ ’s are allowed. The integral along a contour is defined to be  $\int_\gamma = \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{\gamma_k}$ . The winding number of a contour  $\gamma$  with respect to  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \gamma = \mathbb{C} \setminus \bigcup_{k=1}^n \gamma_k$  is  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = \sum_{k=1}^n W(\gamma_k, \alpha)$ . The above propositions also hold for contours.

### Examples.

1. The winding numbers of a trefoil knot in 5 different domains.

Observe that the winding number increases by 1 if we cross the contour from its right to its left; decreases by 1 if we cross the contour from its left to its right.

**Theorem 3.9.1. [The General Cauchy’s Theorem]** Let  $f$  be holomorphic in a domain  $U$ . Let  $\gamma$  be a contour in  $U$  such that  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = 0$  for every  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus U$ . Then  $\int_\gamma f = 0$ .

The interested reader may refer to Chapter IV, § 3 of Lang’s book for a proof. Note that the condition that  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = 0$  for every  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus U$  is necessary. For otherwise we may construct a counterexample:  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z-\alpha}$ .

**Theorem 3.9.2. [The General Cauchy’s Formula]** Let  $f$  be holomorphic in a domain  $U$ . Let  $\gamma$  be a contour in  $U$  such that for every  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus U$ ,  $W(\gamma, \alpha) = 0$ . Let  $z_0 \in U$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\gamma \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = W(\gamma, z_0) f(z_0).$$

*Proof.* Assuming the general Cauchy’s Theorem, the proof of this theorem is not difficult. Let  $r > 0$  be such that  $\bar{D}(z_0, r) \subset U$ . Define a contour  $\eta$  to be  $\gamma + (-W(\gamma, z_0))\{|z - z_0| = r\}$ . Here if  $W(\gamma, z_0) = 0$ , then  $\eta = \gamma$ ; if  $W(\gamma, z_0) > 0$ , this should be understood as  $\eta = \gamma + W(\gamma, z_0)\{|z - z_0| = r\}^-$ . If Let  $U' = U \setminus \{z_0\}$ . Then for any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus U'$ ,  $W(\eta, \alpha) = 0$ . Since  $\frac{f(z)}{z-z_0}$  is holomorphic in  $U'$ , from the general Cauchy’s Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\eta \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\gamma \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz - \frac{W(\gamma, z_0)}{2\pi i} \int_{|z-z_0|=r} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_\gamma \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz - W(\gamma, z_0) f(z_0), \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows from the Cauchy’s Formula for Jordan curves.  $\square$

**Homework.** Find the winding numbers for a given closed curve. See the course webpage.