

# EE 2015

## (Partial) Differential Equations and Complex Variables

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# Syllabus:

## ★ Course description and Introduction, 9/14

### 1. Ordinary Differential Equations: 4 weeks

- ▶ First-order ODEs, Ch. 1: 9/16, 9/21
- ▶ Second-order ODEs, Ch. 2: 9/23, 9/28, 9/30, 10/1
- ▶ Higher-order ODEs, Ch. 3: 10/12
- ▶ Systems of ODEs, Ch. 4: 10/14
- ▶ 1st EXAM, 10/15 (Friday night)

### 2. Transform Methods: 3+1 weeks

- ▶ Laplace Transforms, Ch. 6: 10/19 - 11/11
- ▶ 2nd EXAM, 11/12 (Friday night)

### 3. Series and Complex Variables: 3+3+3 weeks

- ▶ Power Series, Ch. 5: 11/16, 11/18, 11/23
- ▶ Fourier Series, Ch. 11: 11/25, 11/30, 12/2
- ▶ 3rd EXAM, 12/3 (Friday night)
- ▶ PDE by Fourier Series, Ch. 12, 12/7 - 12/22
- ▶ 4th EXAM, 12/23 (in Class)
- ▶ Taylor and Laurent Series, Ch. 13-16: 12/28, 12/30
- ▶ Complex and Residue Integrations, Ch. 16: 1/4 - 1/13
- ▶ 5th EXAM, 1/14 (Friday night)





# Complex Variables:

PDEs, Ch. 12

ODEs

- 1st-order, Ch. 1
- 2nd-order, Ch. 2
- Higher-order, Ch. 3
- Systems of ODEs, Ch. 4
- Integral Transform
  - ☒ Laplace Trans., Ch. 6
  - ☐ Fourier Trans., Ch. 11
  - ☐  $Z$  - Trans.
- Series Solutions
  - ☒ Power Series, Ch. 5
  - ☒ Fourier Series, Ch. 11
  - ☐ Taylor Series, Ch. 15
  - ☐ Laurent Series, Ch. 16

Complex Variables, Ch. 13-16, 17,18





# Complex Variables: Scope

## Complex Variables

- Complex Numbers, Ch. 13
- Complex Function, Ch. 13
- Complex Integraton, Ch. 14
- Power Series, Ch. 15
- Taylor Series, Ch. 15
- ☒ Laurent Series, Ch. 16
- ☒ Residue Integration, Ch. 16
- ☐ Conformal Mapping, Ch. 17
- ☐ Complex Analysis, Ch. 18
- ☐ Potential Theory, Ch. 18





# Complex Variables: complex plane, Ch. 13

- Cartesian form:

$$z = x + iy,$$

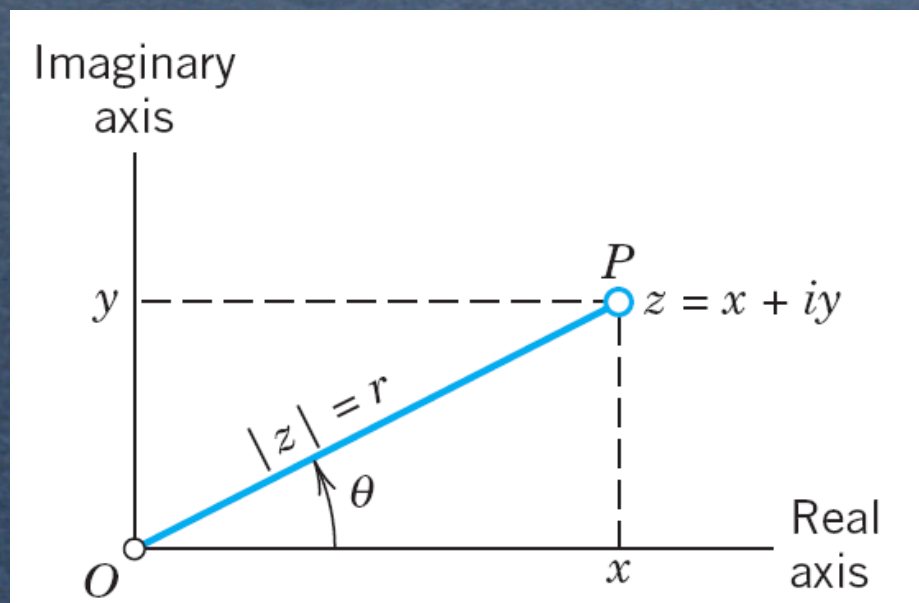
where  $x = \operatorname{Re}\{z\}$ ,  $y = \operatorname{Im}\{z\}$ ,  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .

- Polar form:

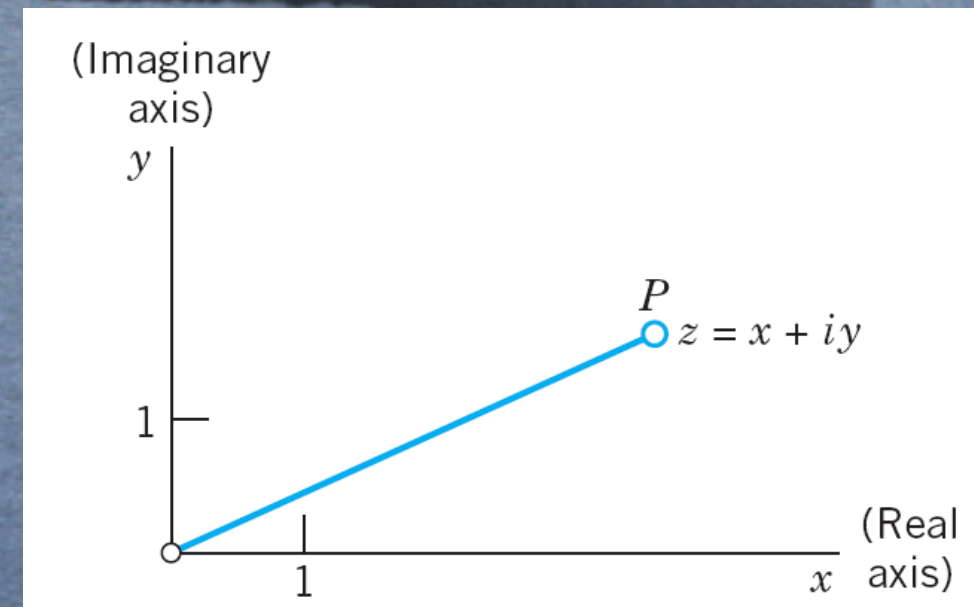
$$z = r e^{i\theta},$$

where  $r = |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  (absolute value or modulus),  
and  $\theta = \arg(z) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$  (argument).

- Principle value  $\operatorname{Arg}(z)$ :



$$-\pi < \operatorname{Arg}(z) \leq \pi.$$





# Complex Variables: Properties

- Addition: for two complex numbers  $z_1 = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $z_2 = (x_2, y_2)$

$$z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2),$$

- Multiplication:

$$z_1 z_2 = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2, x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1),$$

- Quotient:

$$z = \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} + i \frac{x_2 y_1 - x_1 y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

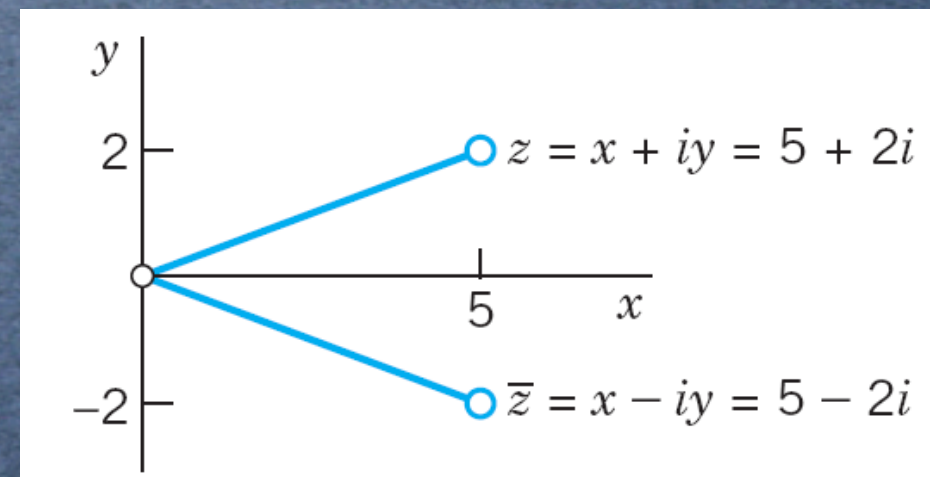
- Complex conjugate:

$$\bar{z} = z^* = x - i y,$$

- Real part and Imaginary part:

$$\operatorname{Re}(z) = x = \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z}),$$

$$\operatorname{Im}(z) = y = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \bar{z}),$$





# Complex Variables: Triangle Inequality

- Triangle inequality:

$$|z_1 + z_2| \leq |z_1| + |z_2|,$$

By induction, we can obtain the generalized triangle inequality:

$$|z_1 + z_2 + \cdots + z_n| \leq |z_1| + |z_2| + \cdots + |z_n|,$$

- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$|z_1 z_2|^2 \leq |z_1| \cdot |z_2|,$$

- Multiplication in polar form:

$$z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 [\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)],$$

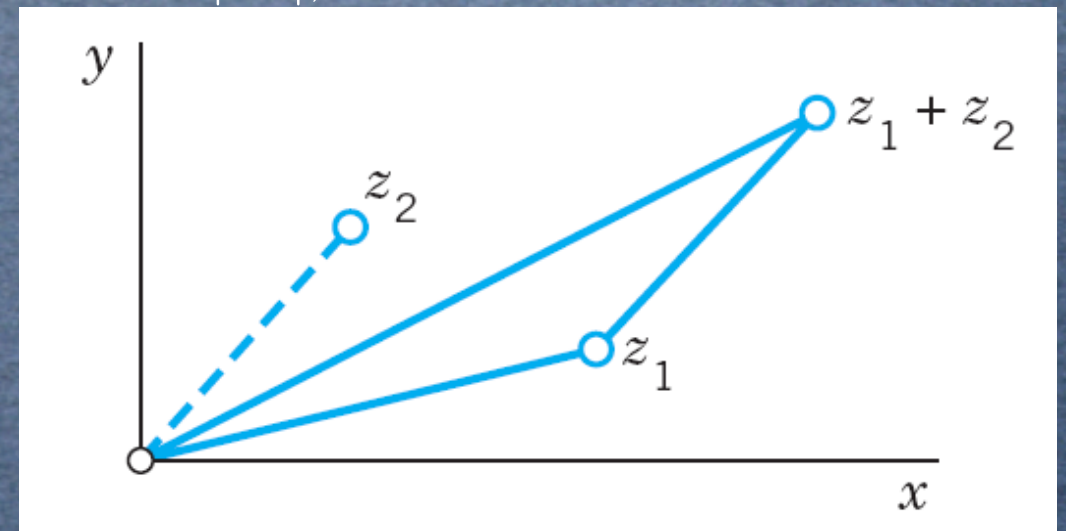
and

$$|z_1 z_2| = |z_1| |z_2|,$$

$$\left| \frac{z_1}{z_2} \right| = \frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|},$$

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

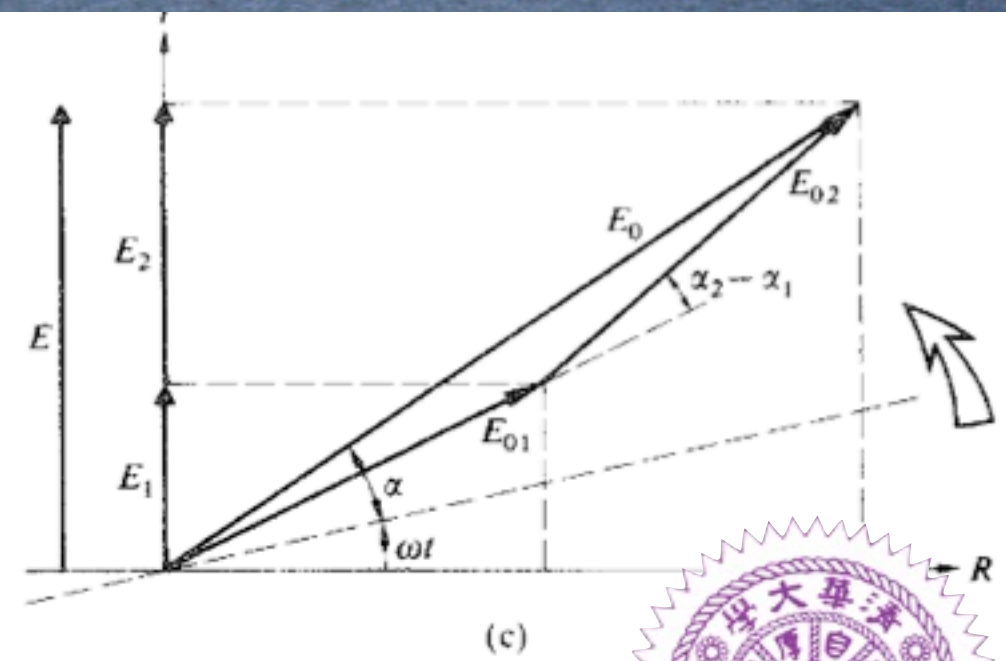
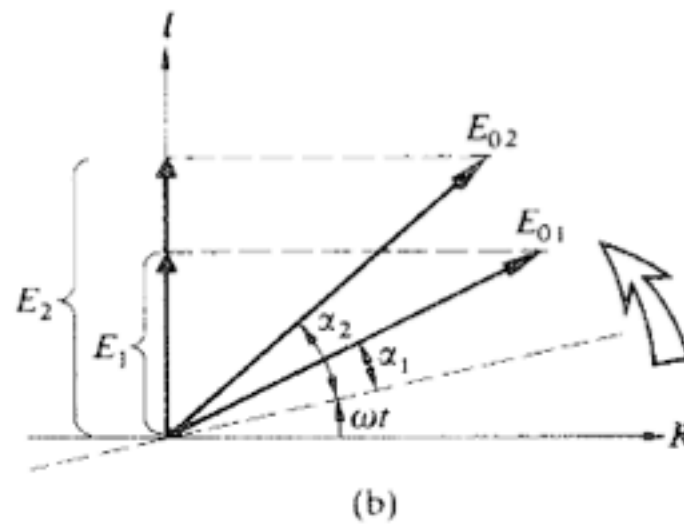
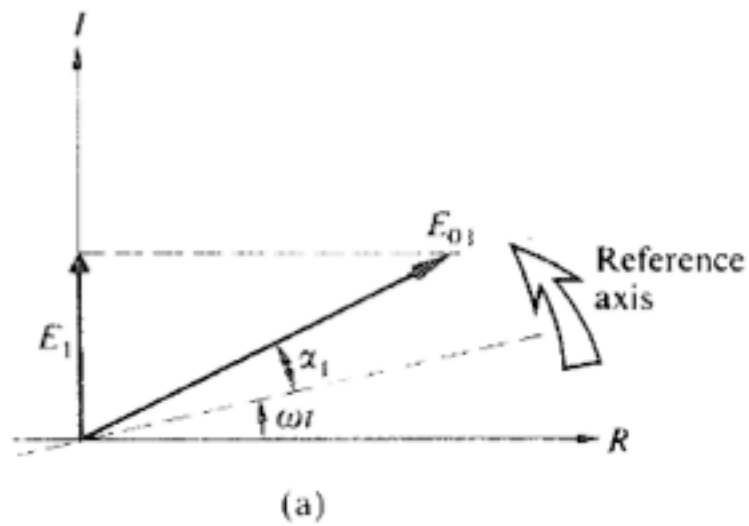
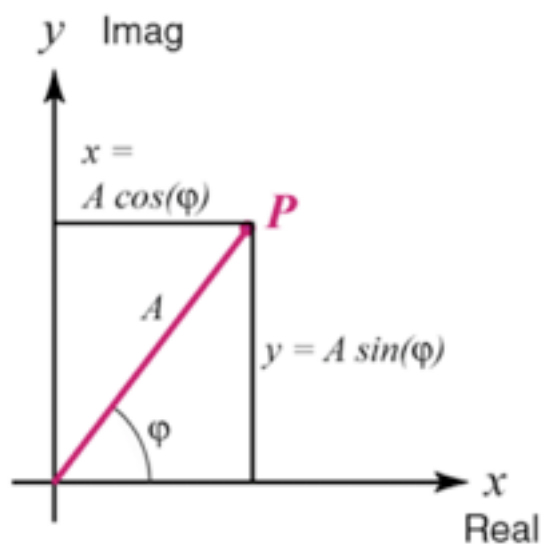
$$\arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2),$$





# Complex Variables: Phasor

$$E(x, t) = A_0 \cos[\omega t - kx + \theta] = \text{Re}\{A_0 e^{i(\omega t - kx + \theta)}\} = \text{Re}\{A(r) e^{i\omega t}\},$$





# Complex Variables: Power

- Integer powers, De Moivre's formula:

$$z^n = r^n [\cos(n\theta) + i \sin(n\theta)],$$

- Roots, if  $z = w^n$ ,

$$w = \sqrt[n]{z} = \sqrt[n]{r} \left[ \cos\left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n}\right) \right],$$

where  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$ .

- The principal value of  $w = \sqrt[n]{z}$  is obtained for the principal value of  $\arg(z)$  and  $k = 0$ .
- Example:  $w = \sqrt[3]{1}$ ,

$$w = 1, \omega, \omega^2,$$

where  $\omega = e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}}$ .





# Complex Variables: Circle in the complex plane

- Circle:

$$|z - a| = \rho$$

- Open (closed) circular **disk**:

$$|z - a| < \rho \quad (\text{open}), \quad |z - a| \leq \rho \quad (\text{closed}),$$

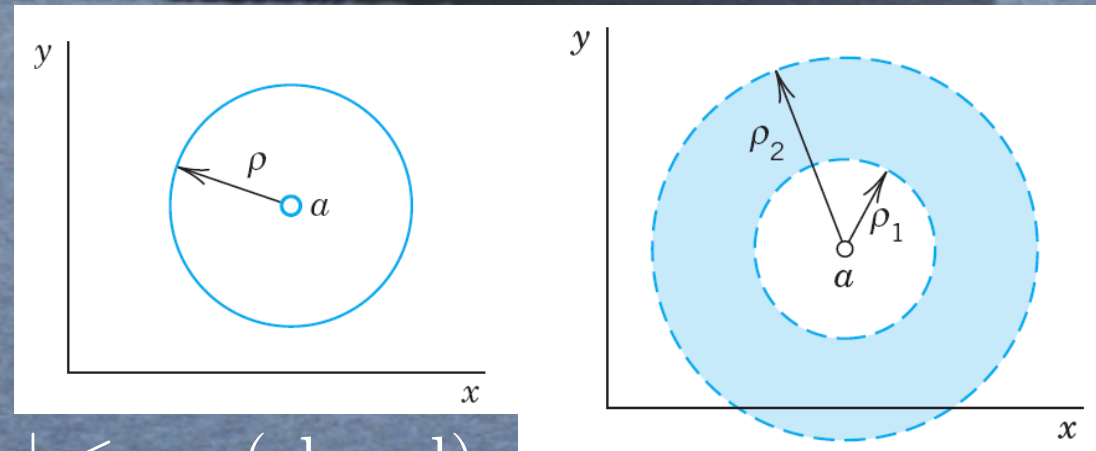
- An open circular disk  $|z - a| < \rho$  is also called a *neighborhood* of  $a$ , or a  $\rho$ -neighborhood of  $a$ .

- Open (closed) **annulus (circular ring)**:

$$\rho_1 < |z - a| < \rho_2 \quad (\text{open}), \quad \rho_1 \leq |z - a| \leq \rho_2 \quad (\text{closed}),$$

- Half-planes:

$$\begin{array}{ll} y > 0 \ (y < 0), & \text{upper half-plane (lower half-plane),} \\ x > 0 \ (x < 0), & \text{right half-plane (left half-plane).} \end{array}$$





# Complex Variables: Sets in the complex plane

- Neighborhood of  $a$ :  
An open circular disk  $|z - a| < \rho$  is also called a *neighborhood* of  $a$ , or a  $\rho$ -neighborhood of  $a$ .
- Open set  $S$ :  
Every point of  $S$  has a neighborhood only consisting of points belonging to  $S$ .  
E.g.  $|z| < 1$  is open,  $|z| \leq 1$  is not open.
- Connected set  $S$ :  
Any two of its points can be joined by a broken line (linear segments) within  $S$ .  
E.g.  $\{|z| < 1 \text{ and } |z - 3| < 1\}$  is NOT connected.
- Domain: **An open connected set.**
- Complement of a set  $S$ :  
The set of all points of the complex plane that *do not belong* to  $S$ .
- Closed set  $S$ :  
A set  $S$  is called closed if its complement is open.
- Boundary point:  
A boundary point of a set  $S$  is a point every neighborhood of which contains both points that belong to  $S$  and points that do not belong to  $S$ .





## Complex Variables: Complex function

- For a set of complex numbers,  $S$ ,
- a function  $f$  defined on  $S$  is that

$$w = f(z),$$

- $z$  varies in  $S$ , and is called a **complex variable**.
- The set  $S$  is called the **domain** of definition of  $f$ .  
**In most cases  $S$  will be open and connected.**
- The set of all values of a function  $f$  is called the *range* of  $f$ .
- Example:

$$w = f(z) = z^2 + 3z,$$

is a complex function defined for all  $z$ .





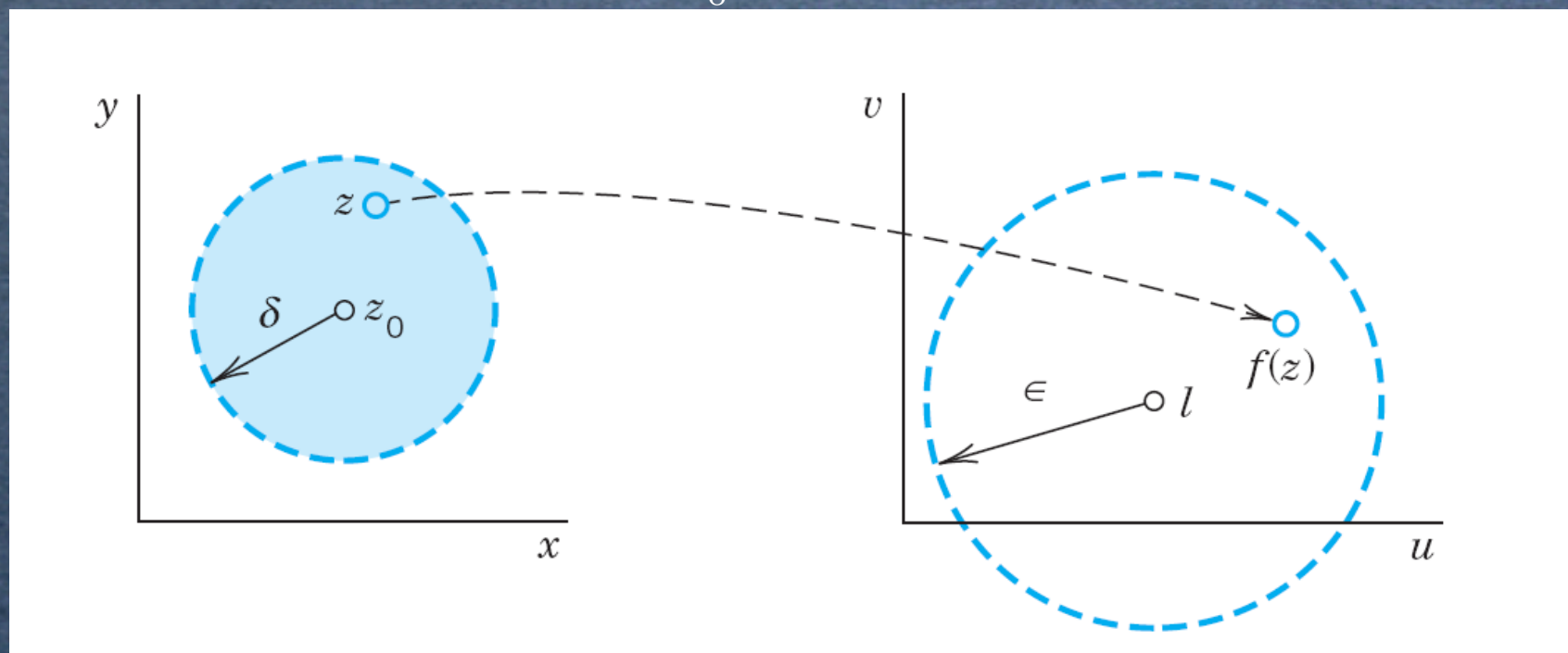
# Complex Variables: Complex function and Limit

- A function  $f(z)$  is said to have the **limit**  $l$  as  $z$  approaches a point  $z_0$ ,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = l,$$

- Unlike the calculus,  $z$  may approach  $z_0$  **from any direction** in the complex plane.
- Continuous: A function  $f(z)$  is said to be continuous at  $z = z_0$  if,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0).$$





# Complex Variables: Complex function, Derivative

- The **derivative** of a complex function  $f$  at a point  $z_0$  is,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(z_0) &= \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}, \end{aligned}$$

- Example 1:  $f(z) = z^2$

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(z + \Delta z)^2 - z^2}{\Delta z} = 2z$$

- Example 2:  $f(z) = \bar{z}$

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\overline{(z + \Delta z)} - \bar{z}}{\Delta z} = \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z} = \frac{\Delta x - i\Delta y}{\Delta x + i\Delta y}$$

not differentiable.

- Analyticity**: A function  $f(z)$  is said to be analytic in a domain  $D$  if  $f(z)$  is defined and differentiable at all points of  $D$ .





# Complex Variables: Cauchy-Riemann Equations

- For a complex function:

$$w = f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y),$$

the criterion (test) for the analyticity is the Cauchy-Riemann equations,

$$u_x = v_y, \quad \text{and} \quad u_y = -v_x.$$

- $f$  is analytic in a domain  $D$  if and only if the first partial derivatives of  $u$  and  $v$  satisfy the two Cauchy-Riemann equations.
- Example 1:  $f(z) = z^2 = x^2 - y^2 + 2 i x y$ ,

$$u_x = 2x = v_y, \quad u_y = -2y = -v_x.$$

- Example 2:  $f(z) = \bar{z} = x - i y$ ,

$$u_x = 1 \neq v_y = -1, \quad u_y = -v_x = 0.$$





# Complex Variables: Cauchy-Riemann Eq., Proof

- By assumption, the derivative  $f'(z)$  at  $z$  exists,  $f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)}{\Delta z}$ .
- Write  $\Delta z = \Delta x + i\Delta y$ ,

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{[u(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) + i v(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y)] - [u(x, y) + i v(x, y)]}{\Delta x + i\Delta y},$$

- For the first path  $I$ : let  $\Delta y \rightarrow 0$  first and then  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ ,

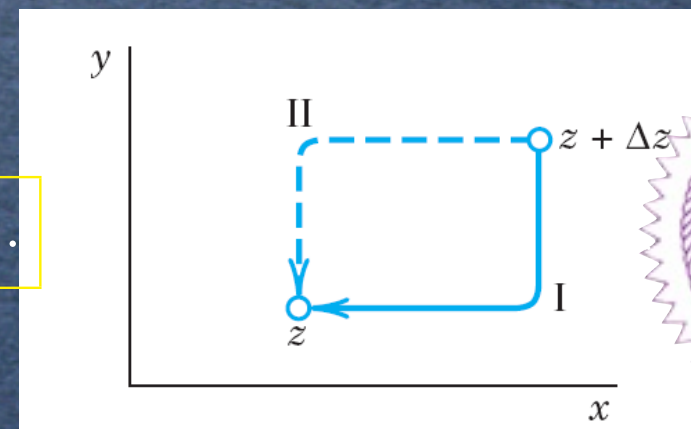
$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x + \Delta x, y) - u(x, y)}{\Delta x} + i \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(x + \Delta x, y) - v(x, y)}{\Delta x} = u_x + i v_x,$$

- For the second path  $II$ : let  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$  first and then  $\Delta y \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x, y + \Delta y) - u(x, y)}{i \Delta y} + i \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{v(x, y + \Delta y) - v(x, y)}{i \Delta y} = -i u_y + v_y,$$

- the Cauchy-Riemann equations,

$$u_x = v_y, \quad \text{and} \quad u_y = -v_x.$$





# Complex Variables: Exponential function

- The complex **exponential function**:  $e^z$ , or written as  $\exp(z)$ .
- $e^z$  is **analytical** for all  $z$ , i.e., an **entire function**.
- Proof: by using the Cauchy-Riemann equations, i.e.,

$$e^z = e^x [\cos(y) + i \sin(y)],$$

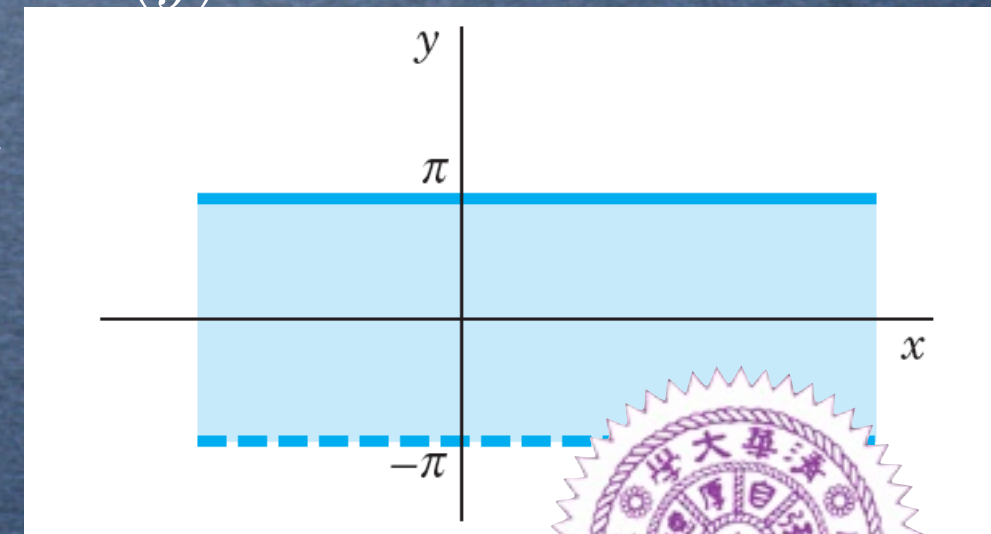
where

$$u = e^x \cos(y), \quad v = e^x \sin(y)$$

**Many to 1**

- The derivative of  $e^z$  is also  $e^z$ , i.e.,  $(e^z)' = e^z$ .
- The expansion of  $e^z = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots$
- $e^{z_1} e^{z_2} = e^{z_1 + z_2}$ ,
- Periodicity of  $e^z$  with period  $2\pi i$ , i.e.,

$$e^{z+2\pi i} = e^z, \quad \text{for all } z$$





# Complex Variables: Trigonometric function

- Euler formulas:

$$\begin{aligned}e^{iz} &= \cos(z) + i \sin(z), \\e^{-iz} &= \cos(z) - i \sin(z),\end{aligned}$$

- the complex trigonometric functions:

$$\begin{aligned}\cos z &= \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \\ \sin z &= \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i},\end{aligned}$$

- $\cos z$ ,  $\sin z$  are analytic for all  $z$ , but  $\tan z$  is not wherever  $\cos z = 0$ .
- General formulas of real trigonometric functions remain valid for complex counterparts, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(z_1 \pm z_2) &= \cos z_1 \cos z_2 \mp \sin z_1 \sin z_2, \\ \sin(z_1 \pm z_2) &= \sin z_1 \cos z_2 \pm \cos z_1 \sin z_2.\end{aligned}$$





# Complex Variables: Hyperbolic function

- The complex hyperbolic cosine and sine:

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

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

$$\tanh z = \frac{\sinh z}{\cosh z},$$

- These functions are *entire*, with derivatives

$$(\cosh z)' = \sinh z,$$

$$(\sinh z)' = \cosh z,$$

- Relations between complex trigonometric and hyperbolic functions,

$$\cosh(iz) = \cos z,$$

$$\cos(iz) = \cosh z,$$

$$\sinh(iz) = i \sin z,$$

$$\sin(iz) = i \sinh z,$$





# Complex Variables: Logarithm

- The **natural logarithm** of  $z = x + iy$  is denoted by  $\ln z$  or  $\log z$ ,
- Define:

$$e^w = e^{u+iv} = r e^{i\theta} = z,$$

then

$$\ln z = \ln r + i\theta, \quad (r = |z| > 0, \theta = \arg z),$$

- Since the argument of  $z$  is determined only up to integer multiples of  $2\pi$ ,
- the complex natural logarithm  $\ln z (z \neq 0)$  is infinitely many-valued.
- **Principal value** of  $\ln z$ ,

$$\text{Ln} z = \ln |z| + i \text{Arg}(z)$$

- Other values of  $\ln z$  are

$$\ln z = \text{Ln} z \pm 2n\pi i, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$





# Complex Variables: Logarithm, Example

- Examples:

$$\text{Ln}(1) = 0,$$

$$\text{Ln}(-1) = \pi i,$$

$$\text{Ln}(i) = \pi i/2,$$

$$\ln 1 = 0, \pm 2\pi i, \pm 4\pi i, \dots$$

$$\ln 1 = \pm \pi i, \pm 3\pi i, \pm 5\pi i, \dots$$

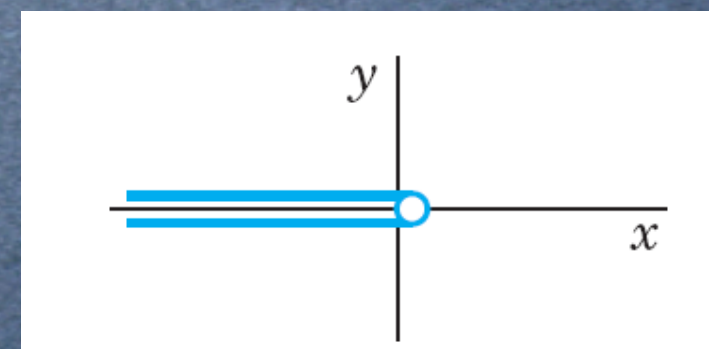
$$\ln i = \pi i/2, -3\pi i/2, 5\pi i/2, \dots$$

- Relations:

**1 to Many**

$$\ln(z_1 z_2) = \ln z_1 + \ln z_2,$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \ln z_1 - \ln z_2,$$



- Analyticity of the Logarithm: for every  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ ,

$$\ln z = \text{Ln} z \pm 2n\pi i, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

is analytic, except at 0 and on the negative real axis.

- Each of the infinitely  $n$  is call a **branch** of the logarithm.





# Complex Variables: Logarithm, Derivative

- If  $z$  is negatively real (where real logarithm is undefined),  $\text{Ln} z = \ln |z| + i\pi$ .
- The derivative:

$$(\ln z)' = \frac{1}{z}, \quad (z \text{ not } 0 \text{ or negative real}).$$

- Proof:

$$\ln z = \ln r + i(\theta + c) = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + y^2) + i\left[\tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} + c\right],$$

where the constant  $c$  is a multiple of  $2\pi$ . By the Cauchy-Riemann equations, i.e.,  $u_x = v_y$ ,  $u_y = -v_x$ , and

$$(\ln z)' = u_x + i v_x = \frac{x - i y}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{1}{z}.$$





# Complex Variables: General Powers

- The general powers of a complex number,

$$z^c = e^{c \ln z}, \quad c \text{ is complex and } z \neq 0.$$

- Principle value:

$$z^c = e^{c \operatorname{Ln} z},$$

- Example 1:

$$i^i = e^{i \ln i} = \exp\left[i\left(\frac{\pi}{2}i \pm 2n\pi i\right)\right] = e^{-\pi/2 \mp 2n\pi},$$

the principal value ( $n = 0$ ) is  $e^{-\pi/2}$ .

- Example 2:

$$\begin{aligned} (1+i)^{2-i} &= \exp\left[(2-i)(\ln \sqrt{2} + \frac{1}{4}\pi i \pm 2n\pi i)\right] \\ &= 2e^{\pi/4 \pm 2n\pi} \left[\sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \ln 2\right) + i \cos\left(\frac{1}{2} \ln 2\right)\right] \end{aligned}$$





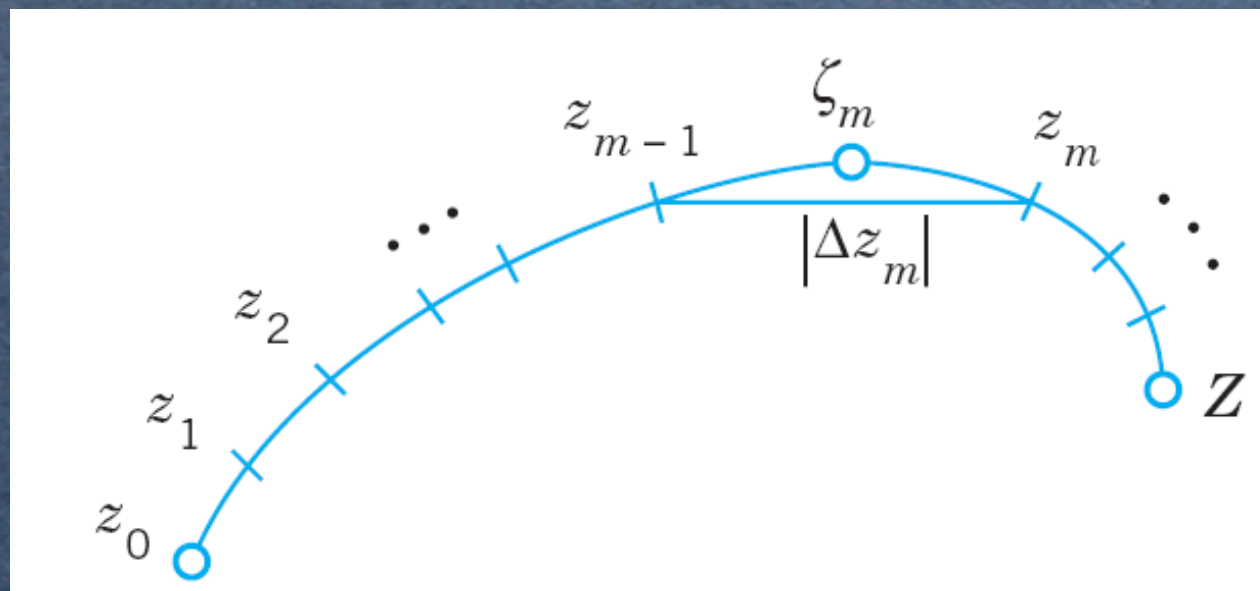
# Complex Variables: Complex Integral, Ch. 14

- Complex definite integrals are called **line integrals**,

$$\int_C f(z) dz,$$

- The line integral over curve  $C : \{z(t) = x(t) + iy(t)\}$  in the complex plane is defined as the limit of partial sum,

$$\int_C f(z) dz \approx \sum_{m=1}^n f(\xi_m) \Delta z_m$$





# Complex Variables: Complex Integral, Analytical functions

$$\int_{z_0}^{z_1} f(z) dz = F(z_1) - F(z_0), \quad F'(z) = f(z)$$

- Examples:

$$\int_0^{1+i} z^2 dz = \frac{-2}{3} + \frac{2}{3}i,$$

$$\int_{-\pi i}^{\pi i} \cos z dz = 2 \sin \pi i,$$

$$\int_{-i}^i \frac{1}{z} dz = \operatorname{Ln} z \Big|_{-i}^i = i\pi,$$





# Complex Variables: Complex Integral, Path

- Let  $C$  be a piecewise smooth path, represented by  $z = z(t)$ , where  $a \leq t \leq b$ ,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = \int_a^b f[z(t)] \dot{z}(t) dt, \quad \dot{z} = \frac{dz}{dt}$$

- Example 1:** around the Unit Circle

$$\oint_C \frac{dz}{z},$$

- Use  $z(t) = \cos t + i \sin t = e^{it}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ , i.e.,

$$\oint_C \frac{dz}{z} = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-it} i e^{it} dt = i \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi i,$$

- Compare with  $\text{Ln} z|_{z_1}^{z_1} = 0$ .
- Now  $1/z$  is not analytic at  $z = 0$ . But any simply connected domain containing the unit circle must contain  $z = 0$ .





# Complex Variables: Complex Integral, around a circle

- Example 2:

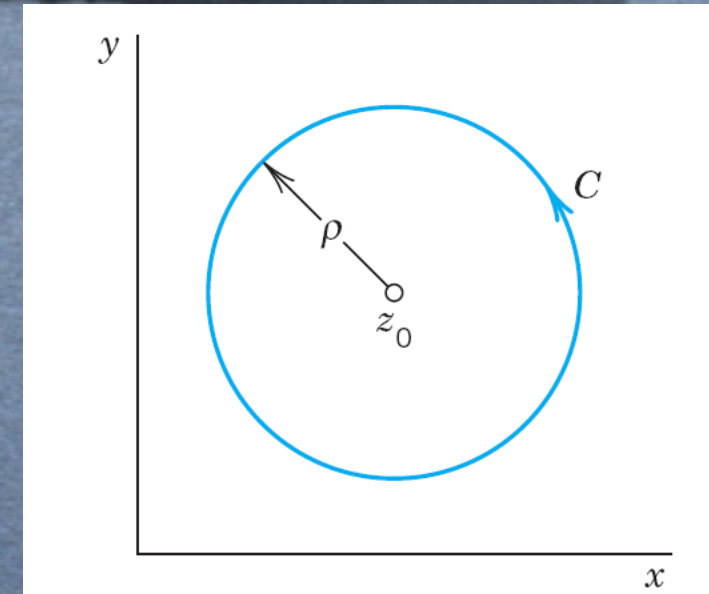
$$\oint_C (z - z_0)^m dz$$

- Represent  $C$  in the form,

$$z(t) = z_0 + \rho(\cos t + i \sin t) = z_0 + \rho e^{it},$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C (z - z_0)^m dz &= \int_0^{2\pi} \rho^m e^{imt} i \rho e^{it} dt, \\ &= i \rho^{m+1} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(m+1)t} dt, \\ &= \begin{cases} 2\pi i & ; \quad m = -1 \\ 0 & ; \quad m \neq -1 \text{ and integer} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$





# Complex Variables: Complex Integral, Non-analytic

- Example 3:

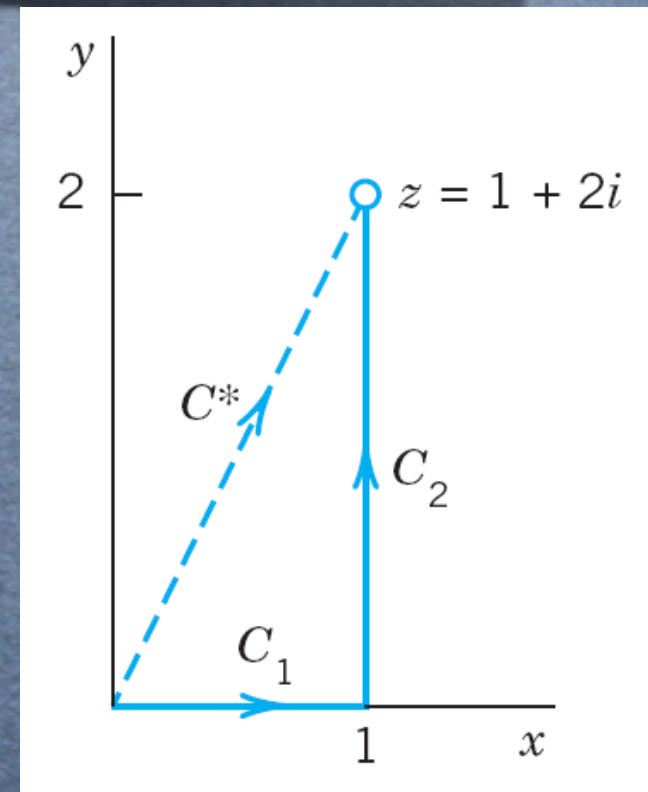
$$\int_C \operatorname{Re}(z) dz$$

- Path 1:  $C^*$ , where  $z(t) = t + 2it$ , ( $0 \leq t \leq 1$ ),

$$\int_C \operatorname{Re} z dz = \int_0^1 t(1 + 2i) dt = \frac{1}{2} + i,$$

- Path 2:  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , where  $z(t) = t$  and  $z(t) = 1 + it$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \operatorname{Re} z dz &= \int_{C_1} \operatorname{Re} z dz + \int_{C_2} \operatorname{Re} z dz, \\ &= \int_0^1 t dt + \int_0^2 i dt = \frac{1}{2} + 2i. \end{aligned}$$





# Homework #17:

## 1. [Complex Numbers and Functions]:

Find the principal value

(a)  $(1 - i)^{1+i}$

## 2. [Line Integrations]:

(a)  $\int_C (z + z^{-1}) dz$ ,  $C$  the unit circle (counterclockwise),

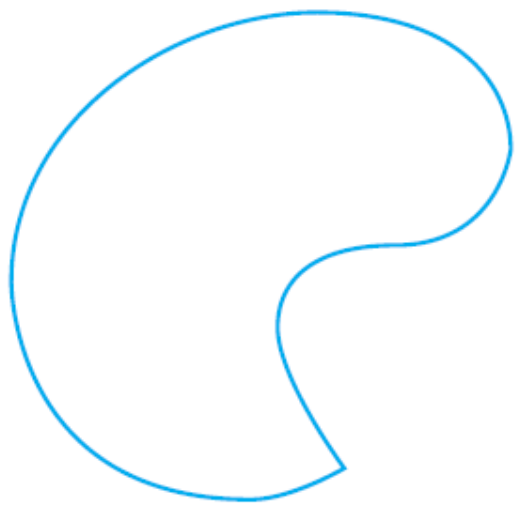
(b)  $\int_C \cosh(4z) dz$ ,  $C$  any path from  $-\pi i/8$  to  $\pi i/8$ ,

(c)  $\int_C \operatorname{Im}(z^2) dz$ ,  $C$  around the triangle with vertices  $z = 0, 1, i$  (counterclockwise),

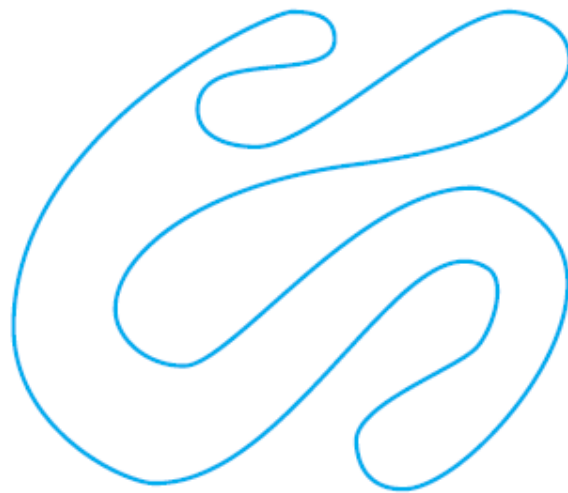




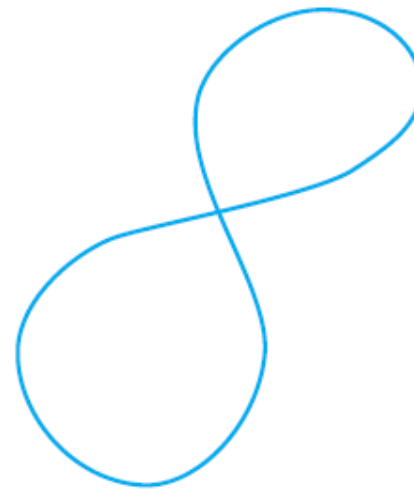
## Complex Variables: Closed paths



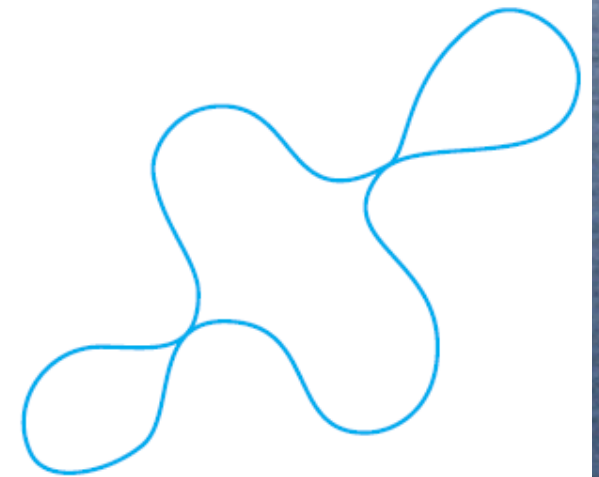
Simple



Simple



Not simple

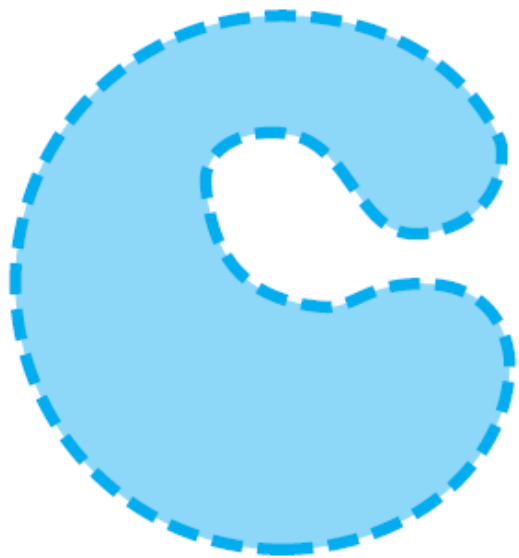


Not simple

**Simple closed path:** a closed path that does not intersect or touch itself.



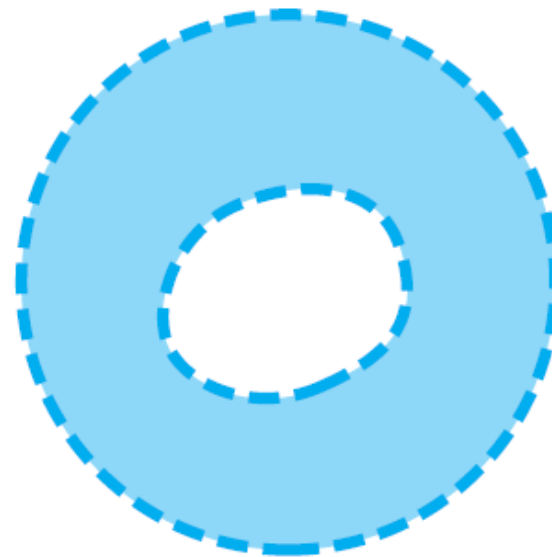
## Complex Variables: Domain



Simply  
connected



Simply  
connected



Doubly  
connected



Triply  
connected

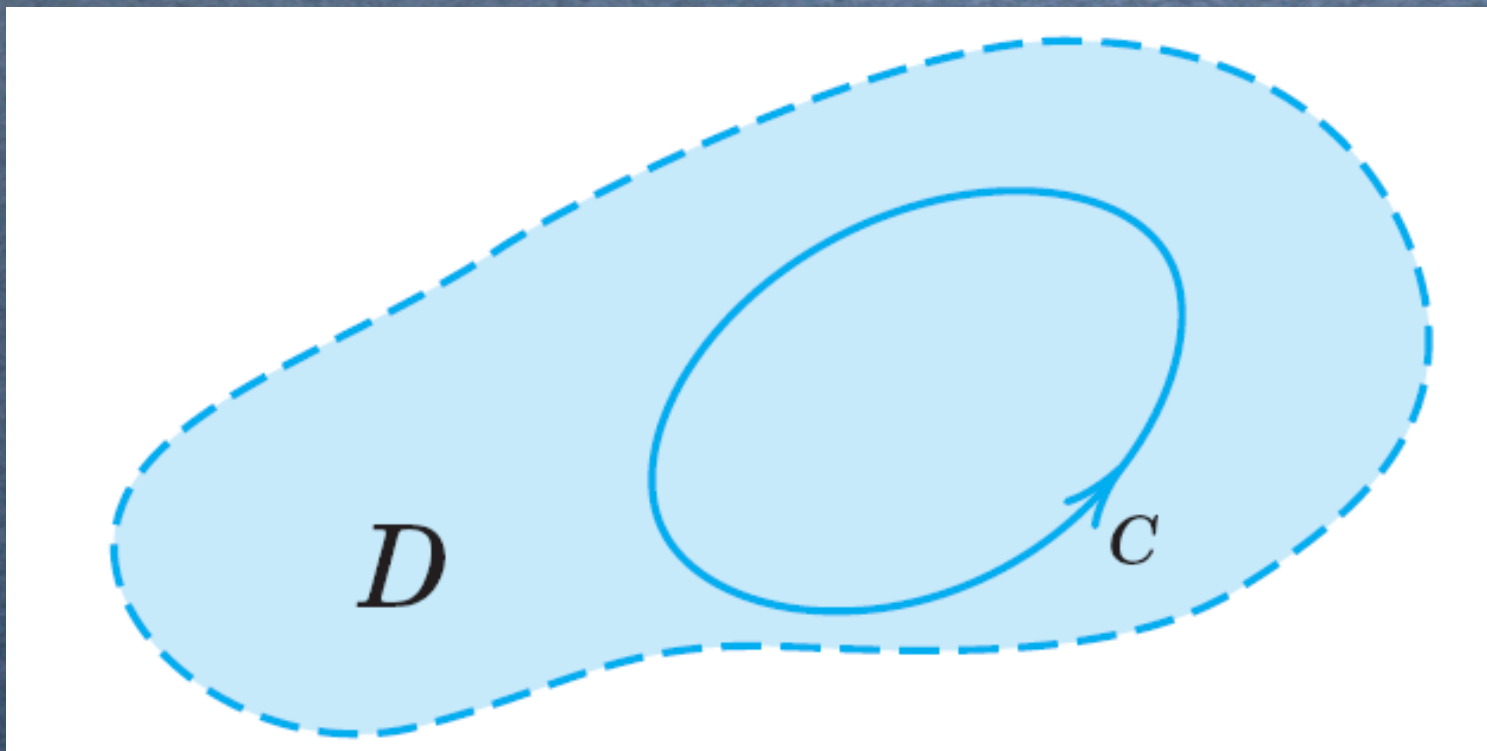
**Simply connected domain  $D$ :** a domain such that every simple closed path in  $D$  enclosed only points of  $D$ .



# Complex Variables: Cauchy integral theorem

- If  $f(z)$  is analytic in a simply connected domain  $D$ , then for every simple closed path  $C$  in  $D$ ,

$$\oint_C f(z) \, dz = 0.$$





# Complex Variables: Cauchy integral theorem, Proof

- Proof:

$$\oint_C f(z) \, dz = \oint_C [u \, dx - v \, dy] + i \oint_C [u \, dy + v \, dx].$$

Since  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $D$ , its derivative  $f'(z)$  exists in  $D$ .

- Green's theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} &= \iint_R \nabla \times \vec{F} \cdot \vec{k} \, dx \, dy \\ \oint_C [F_1 \, dx + F_2 \, dy] &= \iint_R \left[ \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial y} \right] dx \, dy \end{aligned}$$

- Replace  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  in the Green's theorem by  $u$  and  $-v$ ,

$$\oint_C [u \, dx - v \, dy] = \iint_R \left[ -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right] dx \, dy = 0.$$

by using the Cauchy-Riemann equations.

- Replace  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  in the Green's theorem by  $v$  and  $u$ ,

$$\oint_C [u \, dy + v \, dx] = \iint_R \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right] dx \, dy = 0.$$

by using the Cauchy-Riemann equations again.





# Complex Variables: Cauchy integral theorem, Example

- Example 1: No singularities (entire functions),

$$\oint_C e^z dz = 0, \quad \oint_C \cos z dz = 0, \quad \oint_C z^n dz = 0, \quad (n = 0, 1, \dots).$$

- Example 2: Singularities outside the contour,

$$\oint_C \sec(z) dz = 0, \quad C \text{ is the unit circle.}$$

$$\oint_C \frac{1}{z^2 + 4} dz = 0.$$

- Example 3: nonanalytic function,  $C$  is the unit circle,

$$\oint_C \operatorname{Re}(z) dz = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-it} i e^{it} dt = 2\pi i.$$

- Example 4: Simple connectedness essential,

$$\oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i.$$





# Complex Variables: Independence of Path

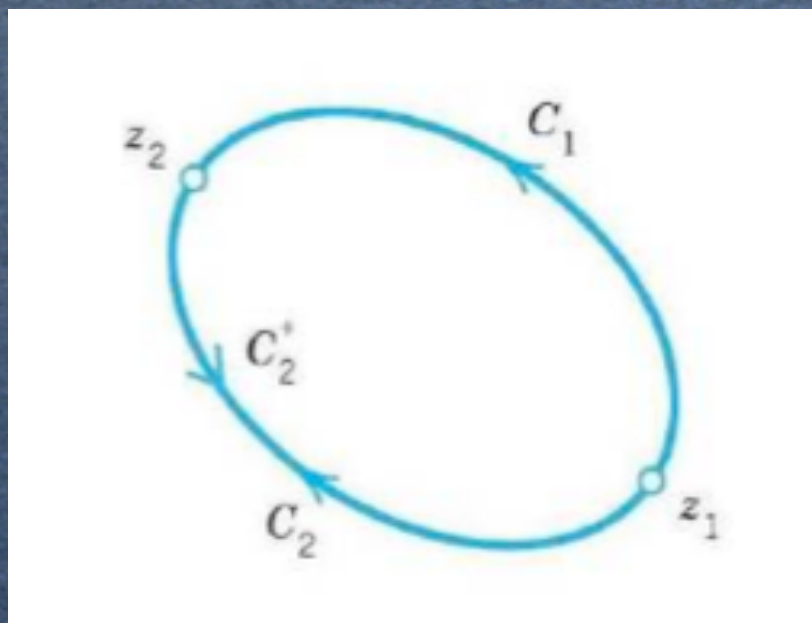
- Independence of Path:

If  $f(z)$  is analytic in a simply connected domain  $D$ , then the integral of  $f(z)$  is independent of path in  $D$ .

- Proof:

$$\int_{C_1} f \, dz + \int_{C_2^*} f \, dz = 0$$

thus, 
$$\int_{C_1} f \, dz = - \int_{C_2^*} f \, dz = \int_{C_2} f \, dz$$





# Complex Variables: Cauchy's integral formula

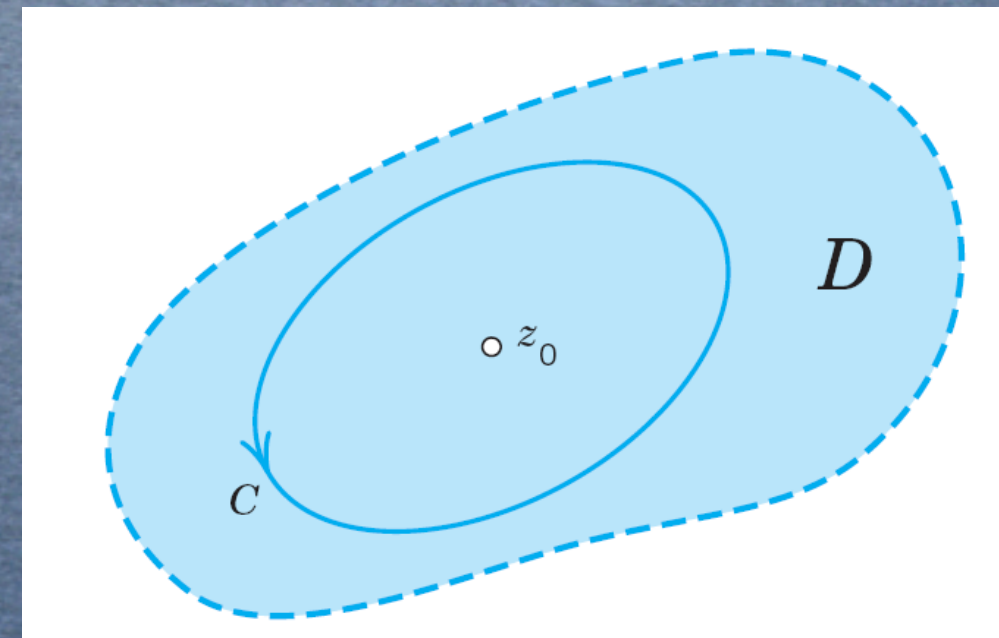
- Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in a simply connected domain  $D$ . Then for any points  $z_0$  in  $D$  and any simple closed path  $C$  in  $D$  that enclose  $z_0$ ,

$$\oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = 2\pi i f(z_0).$$

where the integration being taken *counterclockwise*.

- Alternatively for  $f(z_0)$ ,

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz,$$



- Proof:** by replacing  $f(z) = f(z_0) + [f(z) - f(z_0)]$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz &= f(z_0) \oint_C \frac{1}{z - z_0} dz + \oint_C \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} dz \\ &= 2\pi i f(z_0) + \frac{\epsilon}{\rho} 2\pi \rho, \\ &= 2\pi i f(z_0) \end{aligned}$$





# Complex Variables: Complex Integral, ML - Inequality

- ML-inequality:

$$\left| \int_C f(z) \, dz \right| \leq M L$$

where  $L$  is the length of  $C$  and  $M$  is a constant such that  $|f(z)| \leq M$  everywhere on  $C$ .

- Example: estimation of an integral (find an upper bound),

$$\int_C z^2 \, dz, \quad C \text{ the straight-line segment from } 0 \text{ to } 1 + i$$

- Solution:  $L = \sqrt{2}$  and  $|f(z)| = |z^2| \leq 2$  on  $C$ ,

$$\left| \int_C z^2 \, dz \right| \leq 2\sqrt{2}.$$





# Complex Variables: Cauchy integral formula, Example

- Example 1:

$$\oint_C \frac{e^z}{z-2} dz = 2\pi i e^z|_{z=2} = 2\pi i e^2.$$

- Example 2:

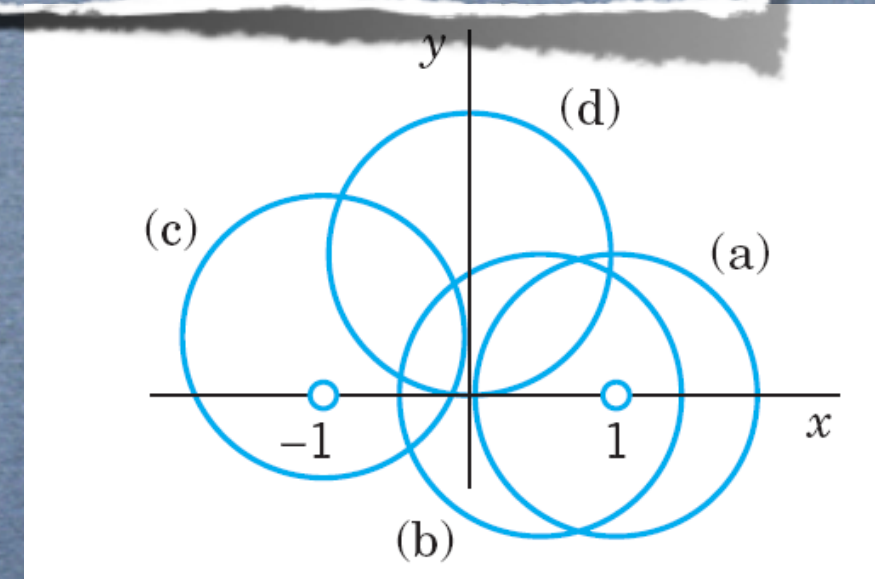
$$\oint_C \frac{z^3 - 6}{2z - i} dz = 2\pi i \left[ \frac{1}{2} z^3 - 3 \right]_{z=i/2} = \frac{\pi}{8} - 6\pi i.$$





# Complex Variables: Cauchy's integral formula, cont.

$$\oint_C \frac{z^2 + 1}{z^2 - 1} dz$$



- (a): The circle  $|z - 1| = 1$ , enclosing the point  $z_0 = +1$

$$\oint_C \frac{z^2 + 1}{z^2 - 1} dz = \oint_C \left[ \frac{z^2 + 1}{z + 1} \right] \left[ \frac{1}{z - 1} \right] dz = 2\pi i \left[ \frac{z^2 + 1}{z + 1} \right] \Big|_{z=1} = 2\pi i.$$

- (b): Enclosing the point  $z_0 = +1$ , gives the same as (a) by the principle of deformation of path.
- (c): The path encloses the point  $z_0 = -1$ ,

$$\oint_C \frac{z^2 + 1}{z^2 - 1} dz = \oint_C \left[ \frac{z^2 + 1}{z - 1} \right] \left[ \frac{1}{z + 1} \right] dz = 2\pi i \left[ \frac{z^2 + 1}{z - 1} \right] \Big|_{z=-1} = -2\pi i.$$

- (d): Don't enclose any singular point,

$$\oint_C \frac{z^2 + 1}{z^2 - 1} dz = 0.$$

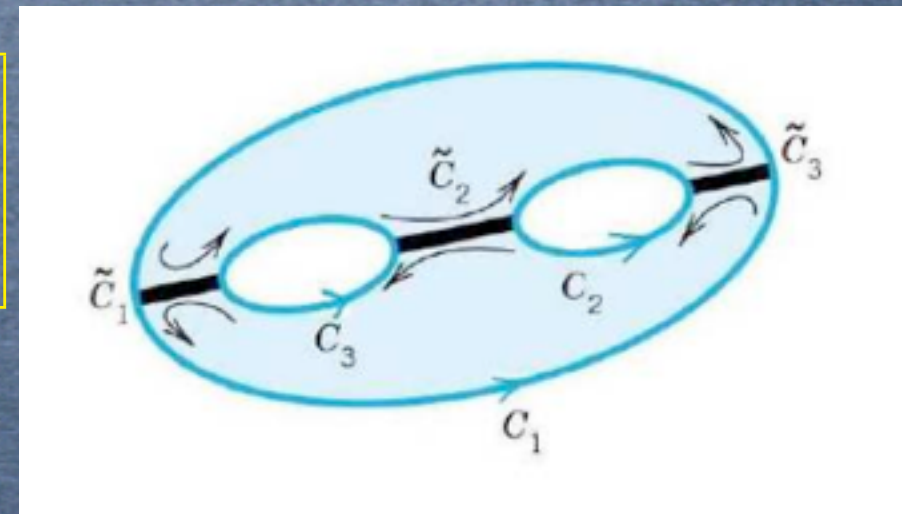




# Complex Variables: Multiple-connected domain

- Cauchy's theorem applies to multiply connected domains.
- If  $f(z)$  is analytic in a multiply connected domain  $D$  defined by an outer contour  $C_1$  and multiple inner contours  $C_i, i = 2, 3, \dots, n$  (all are in counterclockwise sense),

$$\oint_{C_1} f dz = \sum_{i=2}^n \oint_{C_i} f dz$$



- **Proof:**  
Introducing three inner cuts  $\tilde{C}_1, \tilde{C}_2, \tilde{C}_3$  to divide the domain  $D$  into two simply connected domains. Apply Theorem 1 to them, integral over cuts will be canceled.

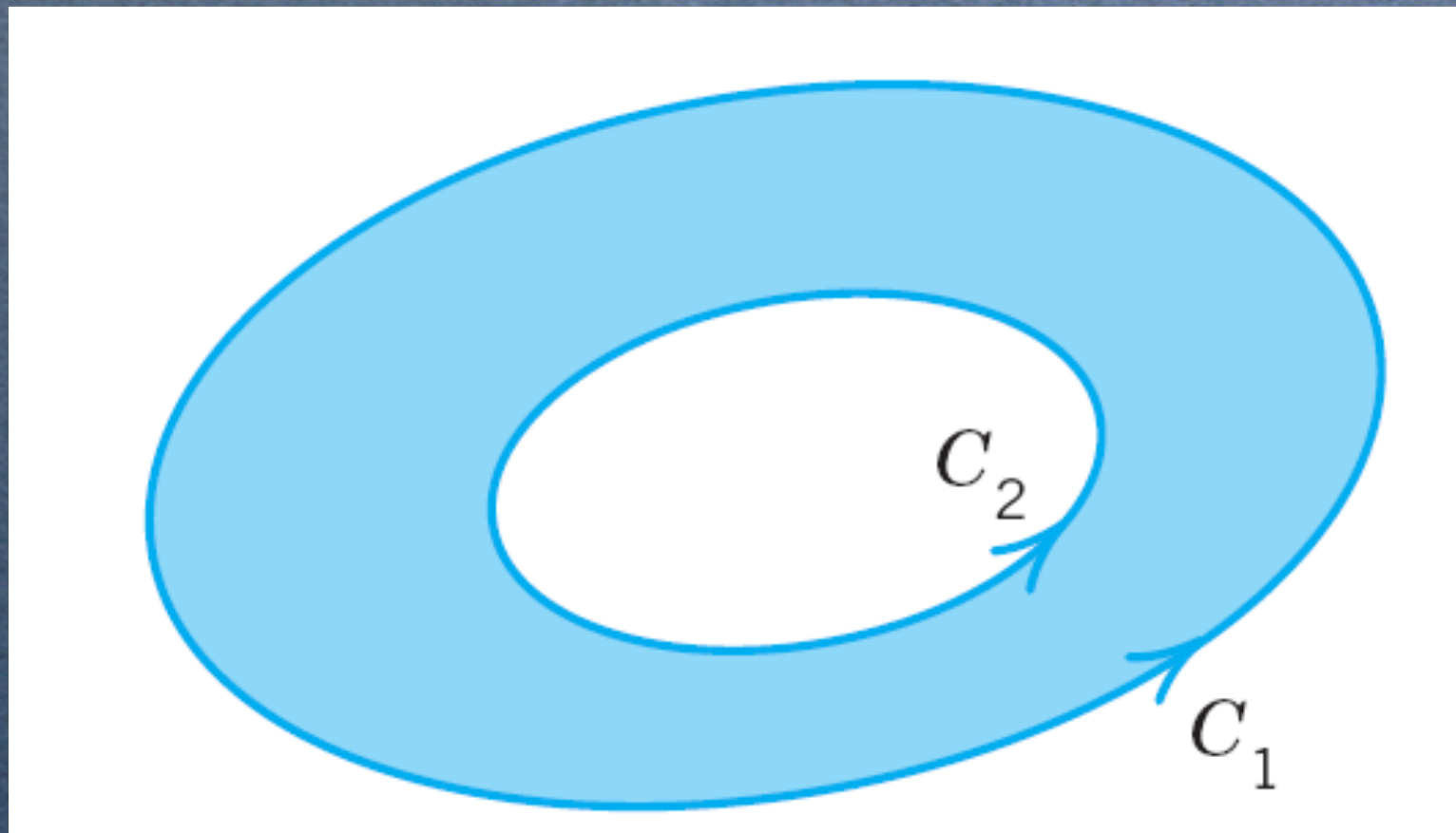




# Complex Variables: Multiple-connected domain

- If  $f(z)$  is analytic in a doubly connected domain  $D$  bounded by two counterclockwise contours  $C_1, C_2$ ,

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[ \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz - \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz \right].$$





# Complex Variables: Derivatives of Analytic function

- If  $f(z)$  is **analytic** in a domain  $D$ , then it has derivatives of all orders in  $D$ , which are then also analytic functions in  $D$ .
- The values of these derivatives at a point  $z_0$  in  $D$  are given by

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^2} dz,$$

$$f''(z_0) = \frac{2!}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^3} dz,$$

- and in general

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz,$$

where  $C$  is any simple closed path in  $D$  that encloses  $z_0$  and whose full interior belongs to  $D$ ;

- We integrate *counterclockwise* around  $C$ .





# Complex Variables: Derivatives, Proof

- The definition of the Derivative,

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

- By Cauchy's integral formula,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z} &= \frac{1}{2\pi i \Delta z} \left[ \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - (z_0 + \Delta z)} dz - \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz \right], \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0 - \Delta z)(z - z_0)} dz \end{aligned}$$

- as  $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^2} dz,$$





# Complex Variables: Contour integral

- **Example 1:** for any contour enclosing the point  $\pi i$  (counterclockwise)

$$\oint_C \frac{\cos z}{(z - \pi i)^2} dz = 2\pi i (\cos z)'|_{z=\pi i} = 2\pi \sinh \pi.$$

- **Example 2:** for any contour enclosing the point  $-i$  (counterclockwise)

$$\oint_C \frac{z^4 - 3z^2 + 6}{(z + i)^3} dz = \pi i (z^4 - 3z^2 + 6)''|_{z=-i} = -18\pi i.$$

- **Example 3:** for any contour for which 1 lies inside and  $\pm 2i$  lie outside (counterclockwise)

$$\oint_C \frac{e^z}{(z - 1)^2(z^2 + 4)} dz = 2\pi i \left( \frac{e^z}{z^2 + 4} \right)'|_{z=1} = \frac{6\pi e}{25} i.$$





# Complex Variables: Cauchy's inequality

- For  $|f(z)| \leq M$  on  $C$ ,

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \left| \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz \right| \leq \frac{n!}{2\pi i} M \frac{1}{r^{n+1}} 2\pi r$$

- Cauchy's inequality

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!M}{r^n}.$$





# Complex Variables: Liouville's & Morera's theorems

- **Liouville's theorem:**

If an entire function is bounded in absolute value in the whole complex plane, then this function must be a constant.

- **Proof:** By assumption,  $|f(z)|$  is bounded, say,  $|f(z)| < K$  for all  $z$ . Using Cauchy's inequality, we see that  $|f'(z_0)| < K/r$ .

- Since  $f(z)$  is entire, this holds for every  $r$ , so that we can take  $r$  as large as we please and conclude that  $f'(z_0) = 0$ . Since  $z_0$  is arbitrary,  $f'(z) = 0$  for all  $z$ , then  $f(z)$  is a constant.

- **Morera's theorem:**

If  $f(z)$  is continuous in a simply connected domain  $D$  and if

$$\oint_C f(z) \, dz = 0,$$

for every closed path in  $D$ , then  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $D$ .





# Power Series: Ch. 15

- A **power series**, in powers of  $x - x_0$ , is an infinite series of the form:

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m = a_0 + a_1 (x - x_0) + a_2 (x - x_0)^2 + \cdots$$

- $x$  is a variable.
- $a_0, a_1, a_2, \cdots$  are constants, called the *coefficients* of the series.
- $x_0$  is a constant, called the *center* of the series.
- We shall assume that all variables and constants are *real*,  
c.p. **Laurent Series**.





# Power Series: Theory

- A **power series**, in powers of  $x - x_0$ , is an infinite series of the form:

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m = a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)^2 + \cdots$$

- The  **$n$ th partial sum** is

$$S_n(x) = a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)^2 + \cdots + a_n(x - x_0)^n.$$

- The **remainder** is

$$\begin{aligned} R_n(x) &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (x - x_0)^m - S_n(x) \\ &= a_{n+1}(x - x_0)^{n+1} + a_{n+2}(x - x_0)^{n+2} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$





# Power Series: Convergence, Chap. 15.1

- A sequence:

$$z_1, z_2, \dots$$

- A Series:

$$S_n(x) = \sum_{m=0}^n z_m.$$

- A **convergent sequence** is one that has a limit,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = c.$$

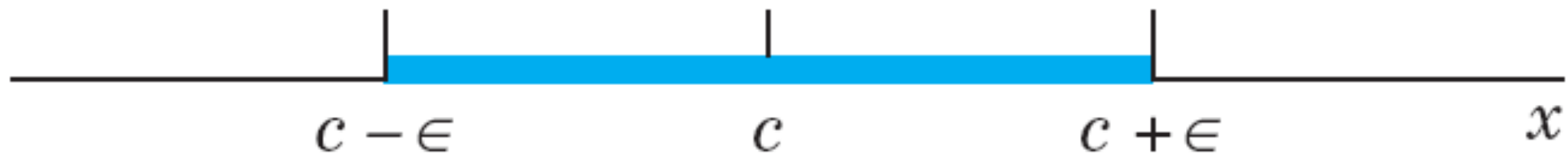
- By definition of *limit*, this means that for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find an  $N$  such that,

$$|z_n - c| < \epsilon, \quad \text{for all } n > N;$$





# Power Series: Convergent Sequence



- The sequence:  $\{\frac{i^n}{n}\}$

$$i, -1/2, -i/3, 1/4, \dots$$

is **convergent** with limit 0.

- The sequence:  $\{i^n\}$

$$i, -1, -i, 1, \dots$$

is **divergent**.





# Power Series: Convergent Series

- A **convergent series** is one whose sequence of partial sums converges, say

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = s = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} z_m$$

- $s$  is called the **sum** or *value* of the series.
- A series that is not convergent is called *divergent series*.



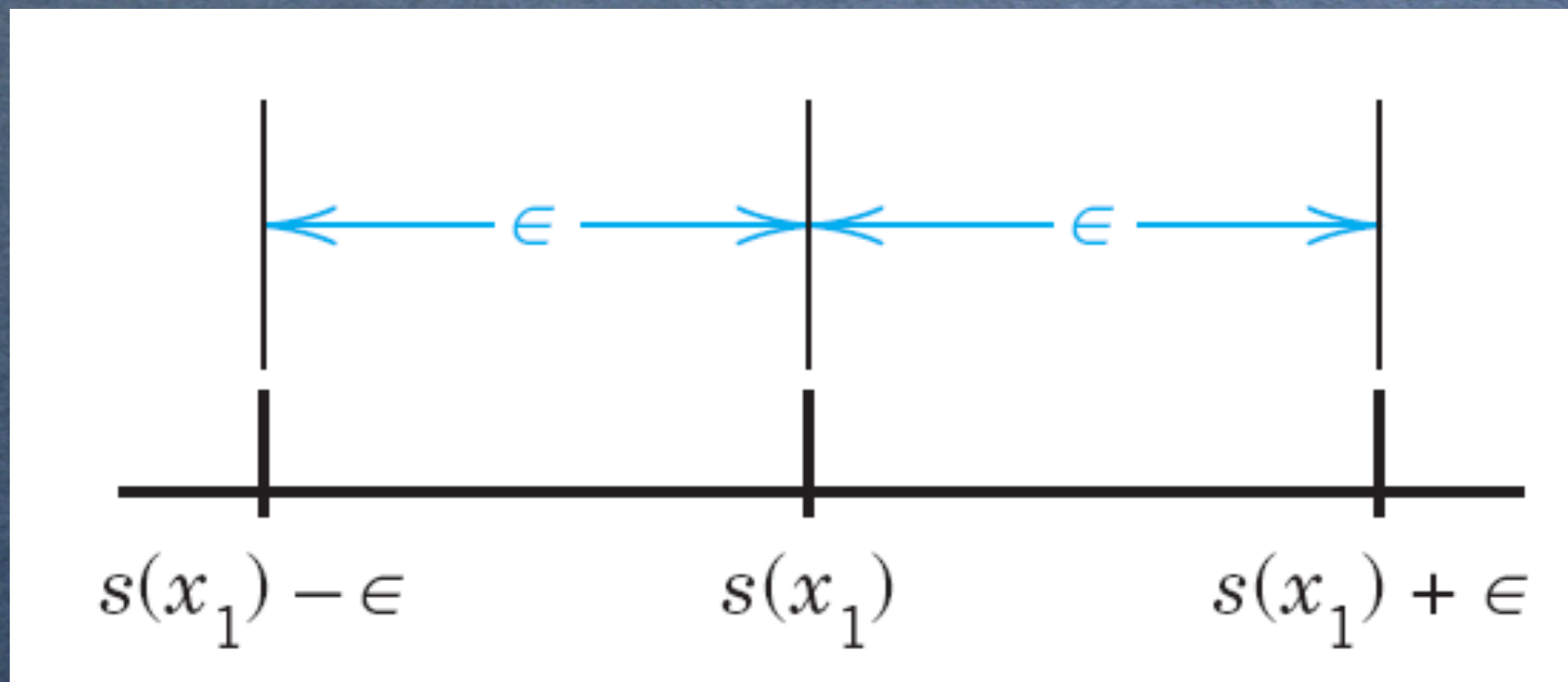


# Power Series: Convergent Interval

- Cauchy's convergence principle for series:

A series  $z_1 + z_2 + \dots$  is *convergent* if and only if for every given  $\epsilon < 0$  (no matter how small) we can find an  $N$  (which depends on  $\epsilon$ , in general) such that

$$|z_{n+1} + z_{n+2} + \dots + z_{n+p}| < \epsilon, \quad \text{for every } n > N \text{ and } p = 1, 2, \dots$$





# Power Series: Convergence Test

1. Comparison Test: i.e., *Harmonic Series*

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots, \quad \text{divergent}$$

2. Integral Test: i.e.,  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  converges,

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \dots, \quad \text{convergent}$$

3. Ratio Test:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!n!}{(2m)!}, \quad \text{convergent}$$

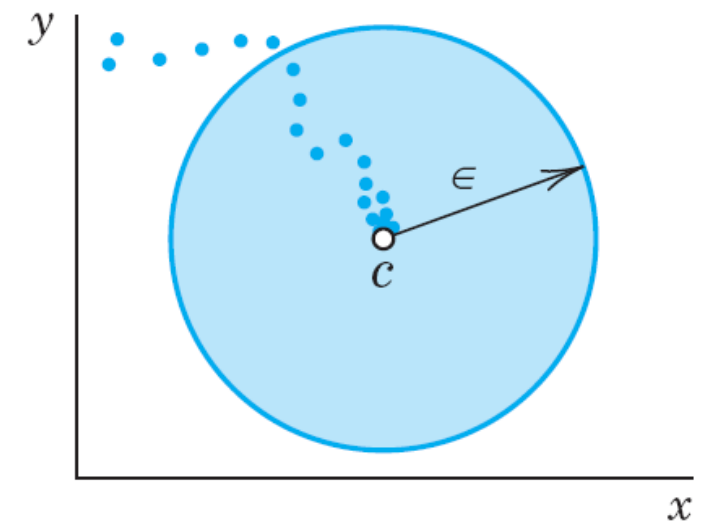
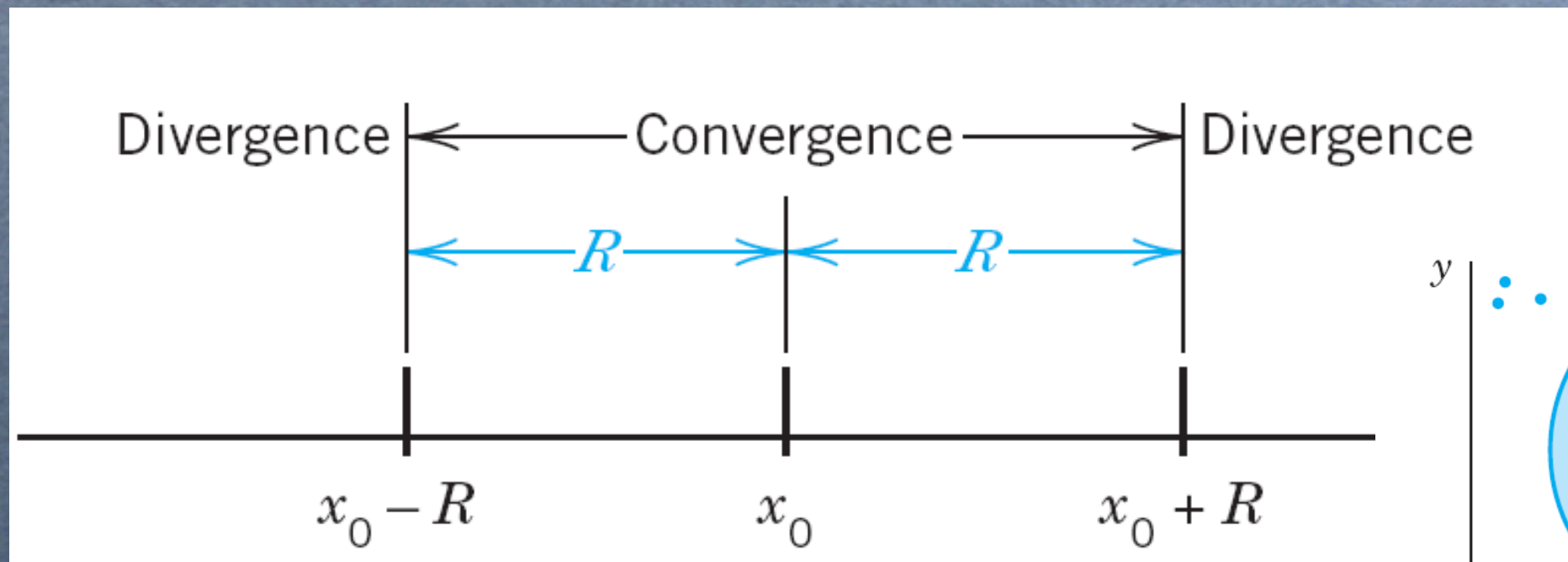
4. *n*th-Root Test:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{m^2}{2^m}, \quad \text{convergent}$$





# Power Series: Radius of Convergence, ROC



- For a series converges for all  $x$  such that  $|x - x_0| < R$ ,
- and diverges for all  $x$  such that  $|x - x_0| > R$ , the interval defined by  $R$  is called the *convergence interval*.
- No general statement about convergence or divergence can be made for  $x - x_0 = R$  or  $-R$ .
- The number  $R$  is called the **radius of convergence**.
- $R$  is called "radius" because for a *complex* power series it is the radius of a disk of convergence.





# Power Series: Radius of Convergence, cont.

- The radius of convergence  $R$  is defined as

$$R \equiv \frac{1}{\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[m]{|a_m|}}, \quad \text{or} \quad R \equiv \frac{1}{\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} \right|}.$$

**Example:**

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m! x^m$$

**Solution:**

- by Ratio test:

$$\frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} = m + 1 \rightarrow \infty, \quad \text{as } m \rightarrow \infty$$

- This series converges only at the center  $x = 0$ , i.e., a useless series.





# Power Series: Radius of Convergence, Example

## Example 1:

Geometric series:

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} x^m = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

## Solution:

- by Ratio test:

$$\frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} = 1,$$

## Example 2:

- This series converges with a ROC,  $R = 1$ .

## Solution:

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m}{8^m} x^{3m}$$

- by Ratio test:

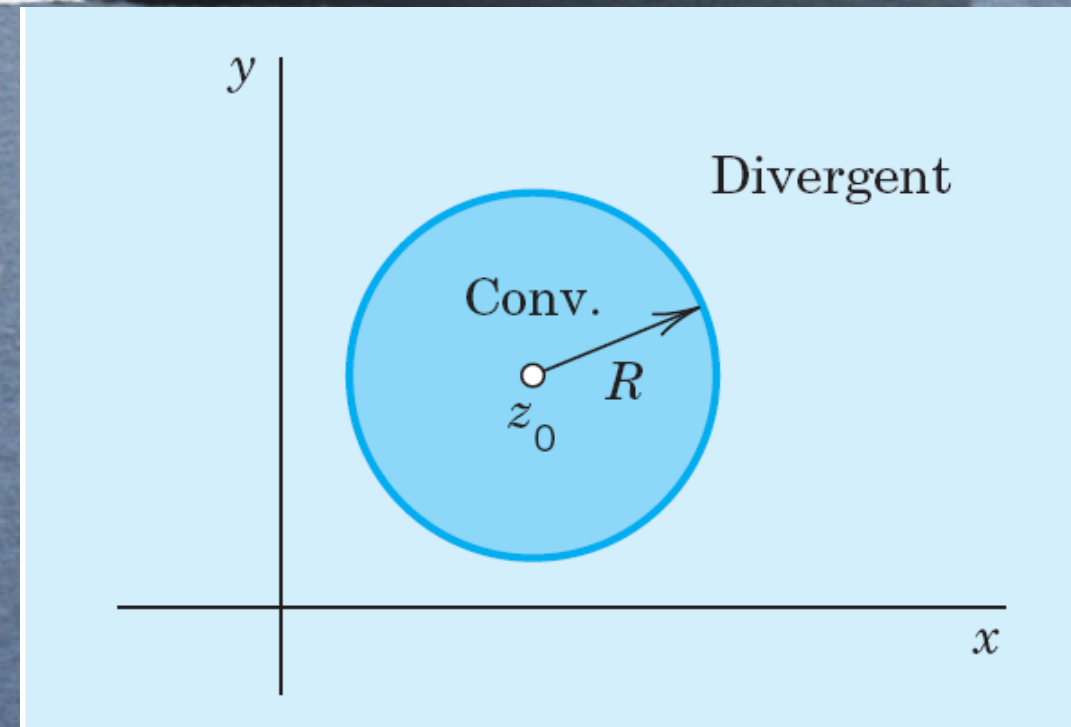
$$\frac{a_{m+1}}{a_m} = \frac{1}{8},$$

- This series converges with a ROC,  $|x^3| < R = 8$ , or  $|x| < 2$ .





# Taylor Series: Circle of Convergence



- The **Taylor series** of a function  $f(z)$  is,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n, \quad \text{where} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(z_0),$$

- A **Maclaurin series** is a Taylor series with center  $z_0 = 0$ ,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n, \quad \text{where} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(0),$$





# Taylor Series: Proof

- The fundamental theorem of calculus states that

$$\int_a^x f'(t) dt = f(x) - f(a),$$

which can be rearranged to,

$$f(x) = f(a) + \int_a^x f'(t) dt.$$

- By integration by parts,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(a) + (x - a)f'(a) + \int_a^x (x - t)f''(t) dt, \\ &= f(a) + (x - a)f'(a) + \frac{1}{2}(x - a)^2 f''(a) + \frac{1}{2} \int_a^x (x - t)^2 f'''(t) dt, \end{aligned}$$

- The Taylor series of a function  $f(z)$  is,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n, \quad \text{where} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(z_0),$$





# Power Series: Common-used Maclaurin Series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} x^m, \quad |x| < 1.$$

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - \cdots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (-1)^m x^m, \quad |x| < 1.$$

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!}, \quad |x| < \infty.$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m}}{(2m)!}, \quad |x| < \infty.$$

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!}, \quad |x| < \infty.$$

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{m-1} x^m}{m}, \quad -1 < x \leq 1.$$

**Complex numbers:**  
 **$x \rightarrow z$**





# Taylor Series: with Cauchy's integral formula

- The Taylor series of a function  $f(z)$  is,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n, \quad \text{where} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(z_0),$$

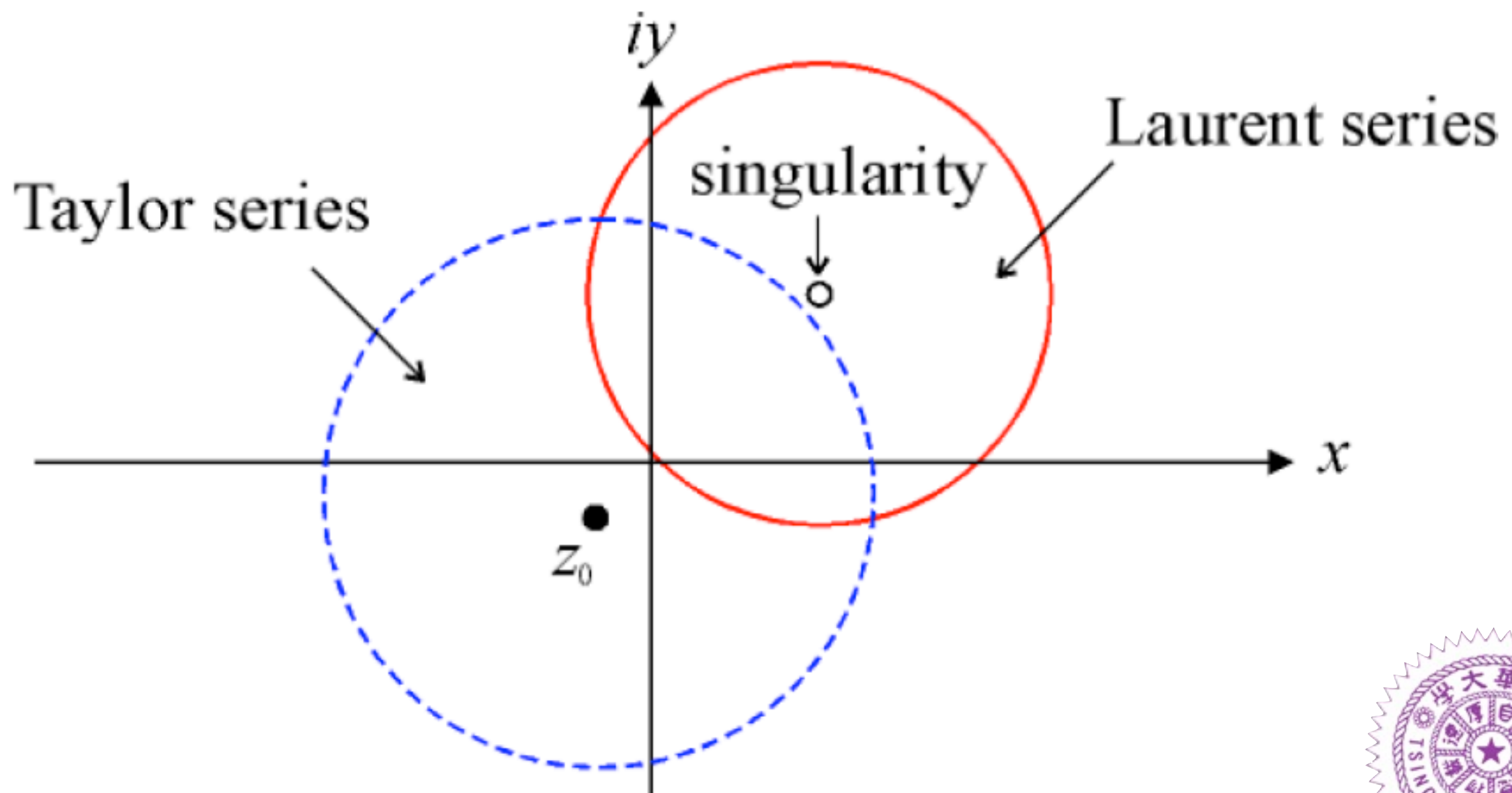
- By Cauchy's integral formula,

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz.$$





# Laurent Series: Expansion around the singularity

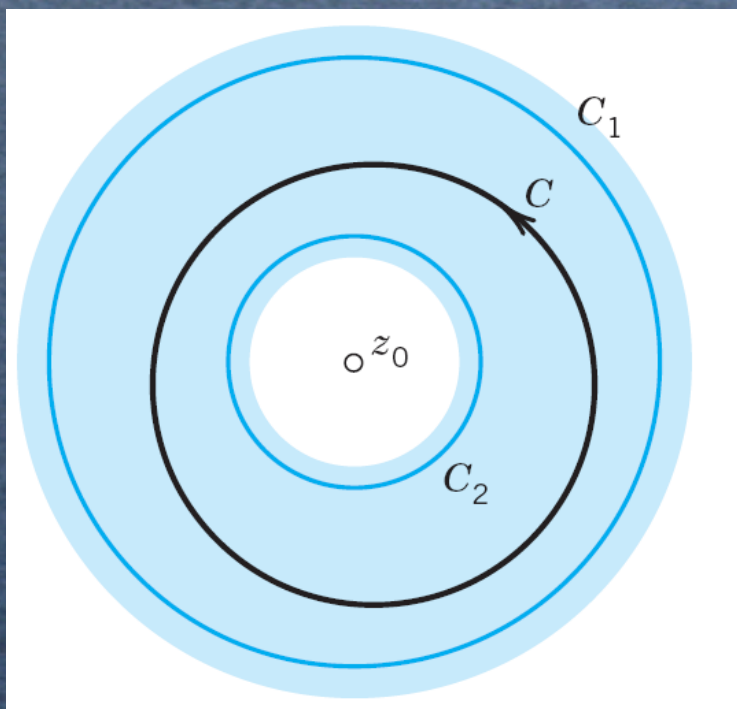




# Laurent Series: Ch. 16

- Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in a domain containing two concentric circles  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  with center  $z_0$  and the annulus between them. Then  $f(z)$  can be represented by the Laurent series,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{(z - z_0)^n},$$
$$= a_0 + a_1(z - z_0) + a_2(z - z_0)^2 + \cdots + \frac{b_1}{z - z_0} + \frac{b_2}{(z - z_0)^2} + \cdots$$





# Laurent Series: Laurent theorem

- The coefficients of this Laurent series are given by the integrals,

$$\begin{aligned}a_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^* - z_0)^{n+1}} dz^*, \\b_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C (z^* - z_0)^{n-1} f(z^*) dz^*,\end{aligned}$$

taken counterclockwise around any simple closed path  $C$  that lies in the annulus and encircles the inner circle.

- This series **converges**.
- Denote  $b_n$  by  $a_{-n}$ , one have

$$\begin{aligned}f(z) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n, \\a_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^* - z)^{n+1}} dz^*, \quad (n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots)\end{aligned}$$





# Laurent Series: Laurent theorem, proof

- By the Cauchy's integral formula,

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z^*)}{z^* - z} dz^* - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z^*)}{z^* - z} dz^* = g(z) + h(z),$$

- The non-negative powers, the Taylor series of  $g(z)$  is,

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^* - z)} dz^* = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n,$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^* - z_0)^{n+1}} dz^*,$$

- The negative powers, now instead of  $|\frac{z-z_0}{z^*-z_0}| < 1$ , we have  $|\frac{z^*-z_0}{z-z_0}| < 1$ , i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{z^* - z} &= \frac{-1}{z - z_0} \frac{1}{(1 - \frac{z^* - z_0}{z - z_0})} \\ &= \frac{-1}{z - z_0} \left\{ 1 + \frac{z^* - z_0}{z - z_0} + \left( \frac{z^* - z_0}{z - z_0} \right)^2 + \cdots + \left( \frac{z^* - z_0}{z - z_0} \right)^n \right\} - \frac{1}{z - z^*} \left( \frac{z^* - z_0}{z - z_0} \right)^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$





# Laurent Series: Laurent theorem, proof, cont.

- Multiplication by  $-f(z^*)/2\pi i$  and integration over  $C_2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} h(z) &= -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z^*)}{z^* - z} dz^* \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left\{ \frac{1}{z - z_0} \oint_{C_2} f(z^*) dz^* + \frac{1}{(z - z_0)^2} \oint_{C_2} (z^* - z_0) f(z^*) dz^* + \cdots \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{(z - z_0)^n} \oint_{C_2} (z^* - z_0)^{n-1} f(z^*) dz^* + \frac{1}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} \oint_{C_2} (z^* - z_0)^n f(z^*) dz^* \left. \right\} \\ &\quad + R_n^*(z) \end{aligned}$$

- where the last term,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n^*(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{1}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} \oint_{C_2} \frac{(z^* - z_0)^{n+1}}{z - z^*} f(z^*) dz^* \right\} = 0$$

- Convergence
- Uniqueness





# Laurent Series: Laurent theorem, Example

- Example 1:  $z^{-5} \sin z$

$$z^{-5} \sin z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} z^{2n-4},$$

with the annulus of convergence  $|z| > 0$ , the whole complex plane without the origin and the **principal part** of the series at 0 is  $z^{-4} - \frac{1}{6}z^{-2}$ .

- Example 2:  $z^2 e^{1/z}$ ,

$$z^2 e^{1/z} = z^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1!z} + \frac{1}{2!z^2} + \cdots \right) = z^2 + z + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3!z} + \frac{1}{4!z^2} + \cdots$$

with the annulus of convergence  $|z| > 0$ .

- Example 3:  $1/(1-z)$ ,

$$\frac{1}{1-z} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n, \quad \text{valid if } |z| < 1,$$

$$\frac{1}{1-z} = \frac{-1}{z(1-z^{-1})} = -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^{n+1}}, \quad \text{valid if } |z| > 1,$$





# Laurent Series: Laurent theorem, Example

- Example 4:  $1/(z^3 - z^4)$ ,

$$\frac{1}{z^3 - z^4} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^{n-3}, \quad \text{valid if } 0 < |z| < 1,$$

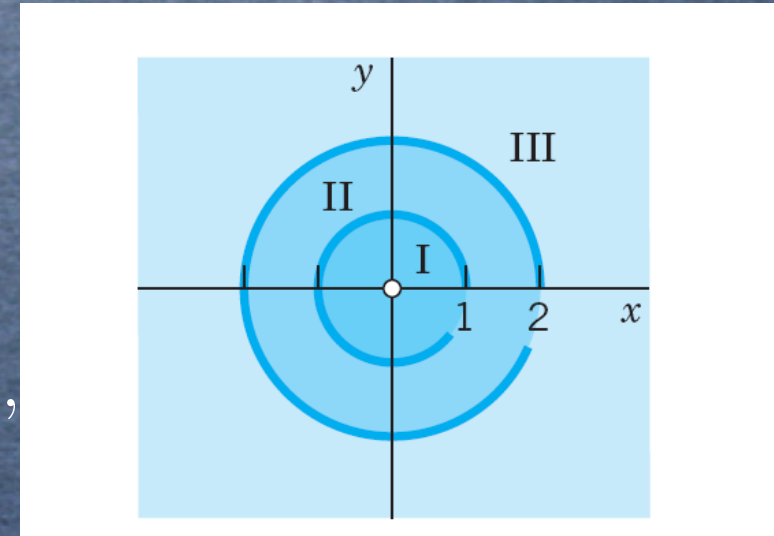
$$\frac{1}{z^3 - z^4} = \frac{-1}{z^4(1 - z^{-1})} = -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^{n+4}}, \quad \text{valid if } |z| > 1,$$

- Example 5:  $f(z) = \frac{-2z+3}{z^2-3z+2} = \frac{-1}{z-1} + \frac{-1}{z-2}$ ,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}\right) z^n, \quad \text{valid if } |z| < 1,$$

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} z^n - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^{n+1}}, \quad \text{valid if } 1 < |z| < 2,$$

$$f(z) = -\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (2^n + 1) \frac{1}{z^{n+1}}, \quad \text{valid if } |z| > 2,$$





# Complex Variables: Scope

## Complex Variables

- Complex Numbers, Ch. 13
- Complex Function, Ch. 13
- Complex Integraton, Ch. 14
- Power Series, Ch. 15
- Taylor Series, Ch. 15
- ☐ Uniform Convergence, Ch. 15.5
- ☒ Laurent Series, Ch. 16
- ☒ Residue Integration, Ch. 16
- ☐ Conformal Mapping, Ch. 17
- ☐ Complex Analysis, Ch. 18
- ☐ Potential Theory, Ch. 18





# Homework #18:

## 1. [Contour Integrations]:

(a)  $\oint_C \frac{1}{2z-i} dz$ ,  $C$  the unit circle  $|z| = 3$  (counterclockwise),

(b)  $\oint_C \frac{\operatorname{Ln}(z+3)+\cos z}{(z+1)^2} dz$ ,  $C$  the unit circle  $|z| = 2$  (counterclockwise),

## 2. [Power Series]:

Find the radius of convergence for the power series,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n} (z+i)^{2n}, \quad (1)$$

## 3. [Taylor and Laurent Series]:

Find all Taylor and Laurent series with center  $z = z_0$  and determine the precise regions of convergence.

$$\frac{1}{1-z^3}, \quad z_0 = 0, \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{1}{1-z^2}, \quad z_0 = 1, \quad (3)$$





# Laurent Series: Singularity, Zero and Pole

- A **singularity point** of an analytic function  $f(z)$  is a  $z_0$  at which  $f(z)$  ceases to be analytic.
- A **zero** is a  $z$  at which  $f(z) = 0$ .
- Laurent series can be used for classifying singularities and Taylor series for discussing zeros.
- An **isolated singularity** of  $f(z)$  is a  $z_0$ , which has a neighborhood without further singularities of  $f(z)$ .
- The singularity of  $f(z)$  at  $z = z_0$  is called a **pole**, and  $m$  is called its *order*,

$$f(z) = \frac{b_1}{z - z_0} + \cdots + \frac{b_m}{(z - z_0)^m}$$

- Poles of the first order are also known as *simple poles*.





# Laurent Series: **Pichard's theorem**

- If the principal part of  $f(z)$  has infinitely many terms, we say that  $f(z)$  has at  $z = z_0$  an **isolated essential singularity**.
- If  $f(z)$  is analytic and has a pole at  $z = z_0$ , then  $|f(z)| \rightarrow \infty$  as  $z \rightarrow z_0$  in any manner.
- **Picard's Theorem:**  
If  $f(z)$  is analytic and has an isolated essential singularity at a point  $z_0$ , it takes on every value, with at most one exceptional value, in an arbitrarily small  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of  $z_0$ .





# Laurent Series: Removable Singularity

- **Removable singularities:** a function  $f(z)$  has a removable singularity at  $z = z_0$  if  $f(z)$  is not analytic at  $z = z_0$ , but can be made analytic there by assigning a suitable value  $f(z_0)$ .
- **Example:**  $f(z) = (\sin z)/z$  becomes analytic at  $z = 0$  if we define  $f(0) = 1$ .





# Laurent Series: Zero

- A **zero** of an analytic function  $f(z)$  in a domain  $D$  is a  $z = z_0$  in  $D$  such that  $f(z_0) = 0$ .
- A zero has order  $n$  if not only  $f$  but also the derivatives  $f', f'', \dots, f^{(n-1)}$  are all 0 at  $z = z_0$  but  $f^{(n)} \neq 0$ .
- A first-order zero is also called a **simple zero**.
- Taylor Series at a  $n$ -th order Zero: At an  $n$ -th order zero  $z = z_0$  of  $f(z)$ , the derivatives  $f'(z_0), \dots, f^{(n-1)}(z_0)$  are zero, by definition.

$$f(z) = a_n(z - z_0)^n + a_{n+1}(z - z_0)^{n+1} + \dots$$

- The zeros of an analytic function  $f(z)$  are isolated, that is, each of them has a neighborhood that contains no further zeros of  $f(z)$ .
- **Poles and Zeros:**  
Let  $f(z)$  be analytic at  $z = z_0$  and have a zero of  $n$ -th order at  $z = z_0$ . Then  $1/f(z)$  has a pole of  $n$ -th order at  $z = z_0$ .





# Laurent Series: Residue integration method

$$\oint_C f(z) dz$$

- If  $f(z)$  is analytic everywhere on  $C$  and inside  $C$ ,  $\oint_C f(z) dz = 0$ .
- If  $f(z)$  has a **singularity** at a point  $z = z_0$  inside  $C$ , but is otherwise analytic on  $C$  and inside  $C$ , then  $f(z)$  has a Laurent series,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{(z - z_0)^n},$$

that converges for all points near  $z = z_0$ , except at  $z = z_0$  itself.

- With the first negative power,  $b_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) dz$ , we can evaluate the integral,

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i b_1,$$

- The coefficient  $b_1$  is called the **residue** of  $f(z)$  at  $z = z_0$ ,

$$b_1 = \text{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z).$$





# Laurent Series: Residue integral, Example

- **Example 1:** Integrate the function  $f(z) = z^{-4} \sin z$  counterclockwise around the unit circle  $C$ ,

Laurent series : 
$$f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z^4} = \frac{1}{z^3} - \frac{1}{3!z} + \frac{z}{5!} - \frac{z^3}{7!} + \dots$$

which converges for  $|z| > 0$ , with the residue  $b_1 = -1/3!$ , then

$$\oint_C \frac{\sin z}{z^4} dz = 2\pi i b_1 = -\frac{\pi i}{3}.$$

- **Example 2:** Integrate the function  $f(z) = 1/(z^3 - z^4)$  counterclockwise around the circle  $C : |z| = 1/2$ ,

Laurent series : 
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^3} + \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z} + 1 + z + \dots$$

which converges  $0 < |z| < 1$ , with the residue  $b_1 = 1$ , then

$$\oint_C \frac{1}{z^3 - z^4} dz = 2\pi i.$$





# Laurent Series: Residue integral, Simple pole

- For the residue of  $f(z)$  at a simple pole at  $z_0$ ,

$$\text{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) = b_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z),$$

- **Proof:** For a simple pole at  $z = z_0$  the Laurent series is

$$f(z) = \frac{b_1}{z - z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z - z_0) + a_2(z - z_0)^2 + \cdots, \quad 0 < |z - z_0| < R$$

Multiplying both sides by  $z - z_0$  and then letting  $z \rightarrow z_0$ , we obtain

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z) = b_1 + \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) [a_0 + a_1(z - z_0) + \cdots] = b_1.$$





# Residue Integral: Simple pole

- If  $f(z) = p(z)/q(z)$ ,  $p(z_0) \neq 0$  and  $q(z)$  has a simple zero at  $z_0$  (so that  $f(z)$  has at  $z_0$  a simple pole),

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) = \operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} \frac{p(z)}{q(z)} = \frac{p(z_0)}{q'(z_0)}.$$

- **Proof:** The Taylor series of  $q(z)$  at a simple zero  $z_0$  is

$$q(z) = (z - z_0)q'(z_0) + \frac{(z - z_0)^2}{2!}q''(z_0) + \cdots$$

substituting this into  $f = p/q$  and then

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) \frac{p(z)}{q(z)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{(z - z_0)p(z)}{(z - z_0)[q'(z_0) + (z - z_0)q''(z_0)/2 + \cdots]} \\ &= \frac{p(z_0)}{q'(z_0)}.\end{aligned}$$





# Residue Integral: Simple poles, Example

- **Example:**  $f(z) = \frac{(9z+i)}{(z^3+z)}$  has a simple pole at  $i$  because  $z^2+1 = (z+i)(z-i)$ ,
- Using  $\text{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) = b_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z)$ ,

$$\text{Res}_{z=i} \frac{(9z+i)}{(z^3+z)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \frac{(9z+i)}{z(z+i)(z-i)} = \left[ \frac{9z+i}{z(z+i)} \right]_{z=i} = -5i,$$

- Using  $\text{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) = \text{Res}_{z=z_0} \frac{p(z)}{q(z)} = \frac{p(z_0)}{q'(z_0)}$  with  $p(z) = 9z+i$  and  $q'(z) = 3z^2+1$ ,

$$\text{Res}_{z=i} \frac{(9z+i)}{(z^3+z)} = \left[ \frac{9z+i}{3z^2+1} \right]_{z=i} = -5i.$$





# Residue Integral: Poles of Any Order

- The residue of  $f(z)$  at an  $m$ -th order pole at  $z_0$  is

$$\text{Res}_{z=z_0} = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} [(z - z_0)^m f(z)],$$

- In particular, for a 2nd-order pole,  $\text{Res}_{z=z_0} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{d}{dz} [(z - z_0)^2 f(z)]$ .
- Proof:** The Laurent series converging near  $z_0$  is

$$f(z) = \frac{b_m}{(z - z_0)^m} + \frac{b_{m-1}}{(z - z_0)^{m-1}} + \cdots + \frac{b_1}{z - z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z - z_0) + a_2(z - z_0)^2 + \cdots,$$

Multiplying both sides by  $(z - z_0)^m$  gives

$$(z - z_0)^m f(z) = b_m + b_{m-1}(z - z_0) + \cdots + b_1(z - z_0)^{m-1} + a_0(z - z_0)^m + \cdots,$$

Now  $b_1$  is the coefficient of the power  $(z - z_0)^{m-1}$  of the power series of  $g(z) = (z - z_0)^m f(z)$ , then

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} g^{(m-1)}(z_0) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} [(z - z_0)^m f(z)].$$





# Residue Integral: Poles of any order, Example

- $f(z) = \frac{50z}{(z^3+2z^2-7z+4)}$  has a pole of second order at  $z = 1$  because the denominator equals  $(z+4)(z-1)^2$ .
- The Residue of  $f(z)$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{Res}_{z=1} f(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{d}{dz} [(z-1)^2 f(z)] \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{d}{dz} \left( \frac{50z}{z+4} \right) \\ &= 8.\end{aligned}$$

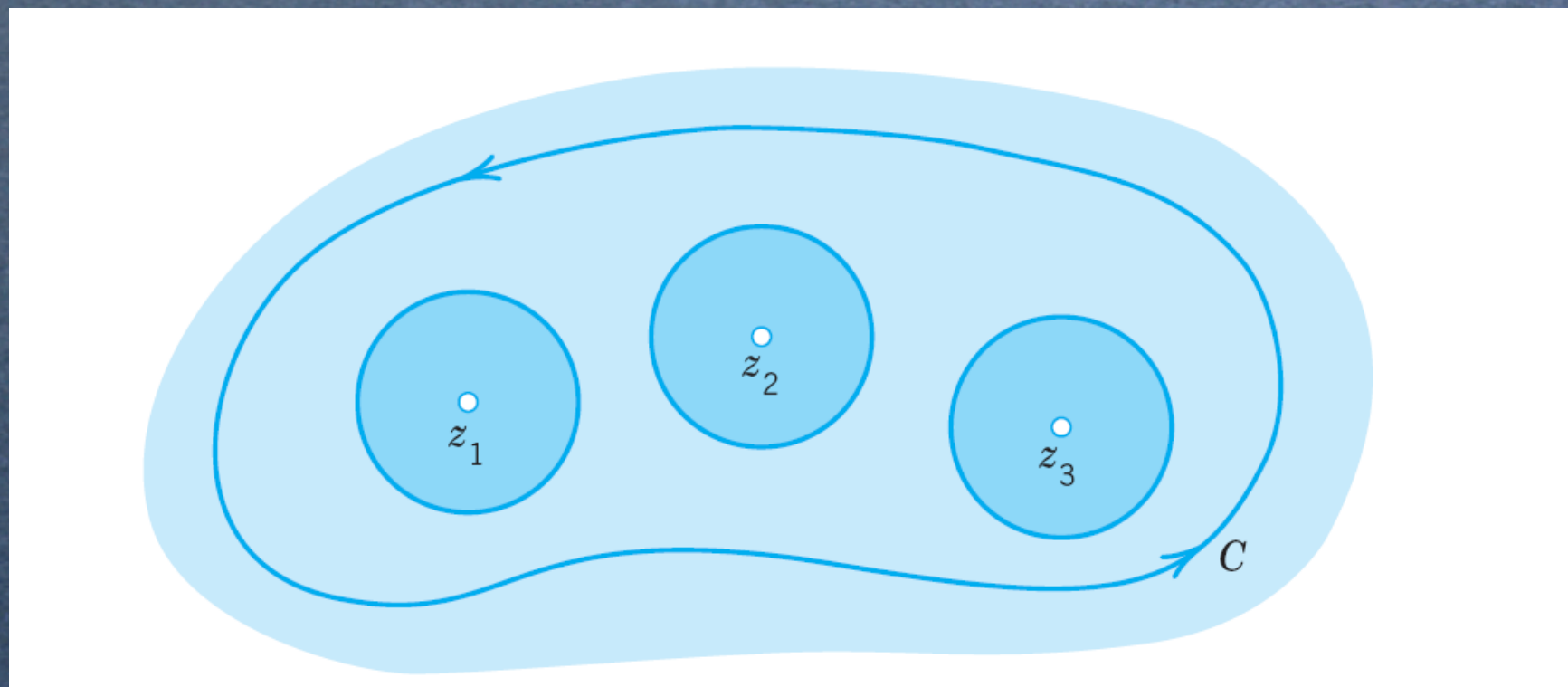




# Residue Integral: Several singularities

- Let  $f(z)$  be analytic inside a simple closed path  $C$  and on  $C$ , except for finitely many singular points  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k$  inside  $C$ . Then the integral of  $f(z)$  taken counterclockwise around  $C$  equals  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $f(z)$  at  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k$ :

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{j=1}^k \text{Res}_{z=z_j} f(z).$$





# Residue Integral: Several singularities, Example

- Example 1: Evaluate the integral counterclockwise

$$\oint_C \frac{4 - 3z}{z^2 - z} dz$$

1. 0 and 1 are inside  $C$ ; Ans.  $2\pi i(-4 + 1) = -6\pi i$ .
2. 0 is inside, and 1 outside  $C$ ; Ans.  $2\pi i(-4) = -8\pi i$ .
3. 1 is inside, and 0 outside  $C$ ; Ans.  $2\pi i$ .
4. 0 and 1 are outside  $C$ ; Ans. 0.

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=0} \frac{4 - 3z}{z(z - 1)} = -4, \quad \operatorname{Res}_{z=1} \frac{4 - 3z}{z(z - 1)} = 1.$$

- Example 2: Integrate  $\frac{\tan z}{z^2 - 1}$  counterclockwise around the circle  $C : |z| = 3/2$ ,

$$\oint_C \frac{\tan z}{z^2 - 1} dz = 2\pi i \left[ \operatorname{Res}_{z=1} \frac{\tan z}{z^2 - 1} + \operatorname{Res}_{z=-1} \frac{\tan z}{z^2 - 1} \right] = 2\pi i \tan 1.$$





# Homework #19:

## 1. [Contour Integrations]:

(a)  $\oint_C \frac{1}{2z-i} dz$ ,  $C$  the unit circle  $|z| = 3$  (counterclockwise),

(b)  $\oint_C \frac{\operatorname{Ln}(z+3)+\cos z}{(z+1)^2} dz$ ,  $C$  the unit circle  $|z| = 2$  (counterclockwise),

## 2. [Power Series]:

Find the radius of convergence for the power series,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n} (z+i)^{2n}, \quad (1)$$

## 3. [Taylor and Laurent Series]:

Find all Taylor and Laurent series with center  $z = z_0$  and determine the precise regions of convergence.

$$\frac{1}{1-z^3}, \quad z_0 = 0, \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{1}{1-z^2}, \quad z_0 = 1, \quad (3)$$





# Residue Integral: Rational sine and cosine functions

- Consider the integrals of the type

$$J = \int_0^{2\pi} F(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) d\theta$$

where  $F(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$  is a *real rational function* of  $\cos \theta$  and  $\sin \theta$  and is finite on the interval of integration.

- Setting  $e^{i\theta} = z$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \theta &= \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) = \frac{1}{2}\left(z + \frac{1}{z}\right), \\ \sin \theta &= \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}) = \frac{1}{2i}\left(z - \frac{1}{z}\right),\end{aligned}$$

- Since  $dz/d\theta = ie^{i\theta}$ , the given integral takes the form,

$$J = \oint_C f(z) \frac{dz}{iz},$$

counterclockwise around the unit circle  $|z| = 1$ .

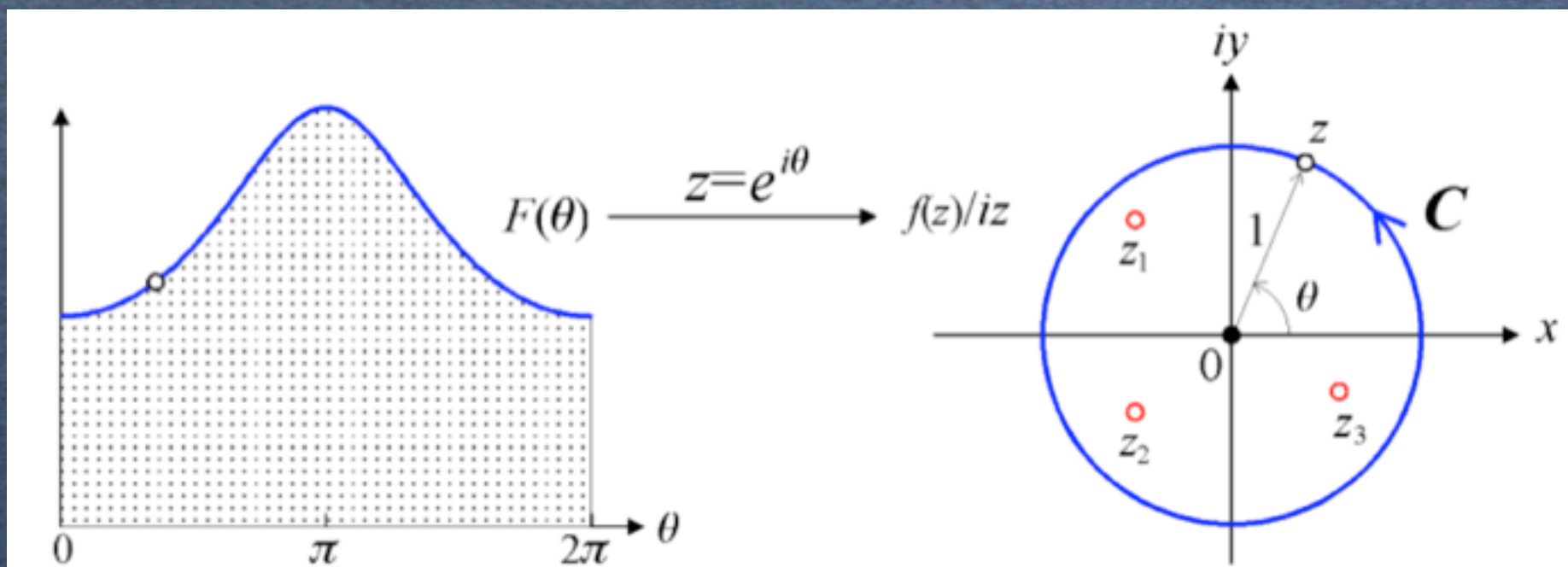




# Residue Integral: Rational functions, Example

- Integrate

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{\sqrt{2} - \cos \theta} &= \oint_C \frac{dz/iz}{\sqrt{2} - \frac{1}{2}(z + \frac{1}{z})} \\
 &= \frac{i}{2} \oint_C \frac{1}{(z - \sqrt{2} - 1)(z - \sqrt{2} + 1)} dz \\
 &= 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}_{z=\sqrt{2}-1} \left[ \frac{i}{2} \frac{1}{(z - \sqrt{2} - 1)(z - \sqrt{2} + 1)} \right] \\
 &= 2\pi.
 \end{aligned}$$

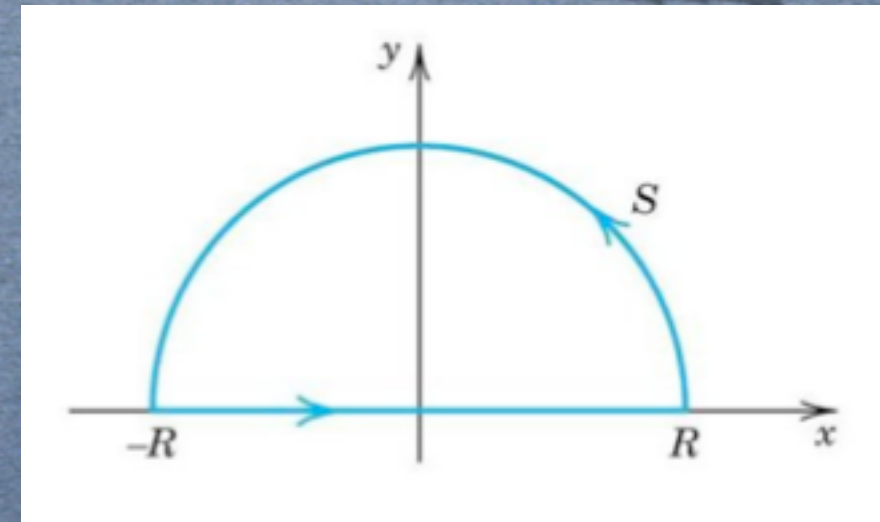




# Residue Integral: Improper Integral of Rational functions

- Consider real integrals of the form,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R f(x) dx$$



- The limit is called the **Cauchy principal value** of the integral, i.e.,  $P.V \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$
- If the function  $f(x)$  is a real rational function whose denominator is different from zero for all  $x$  and is of degree at least two units higher than the degree of the numerator, then the limit exists.
- We may consider the corresponding contour integral,

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \oint_S f(z) dz + \int_{-R}^R f(x) dx = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res} f(z).$$





# Residue Integral: Improper Integral, cont.

- The sum consists of all the residues of  $f(z)$  at the points in the upper half-plane.

$$\int_{-R}^R f(x) dx = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res} f(z) - \oint_S f(z) dz$$

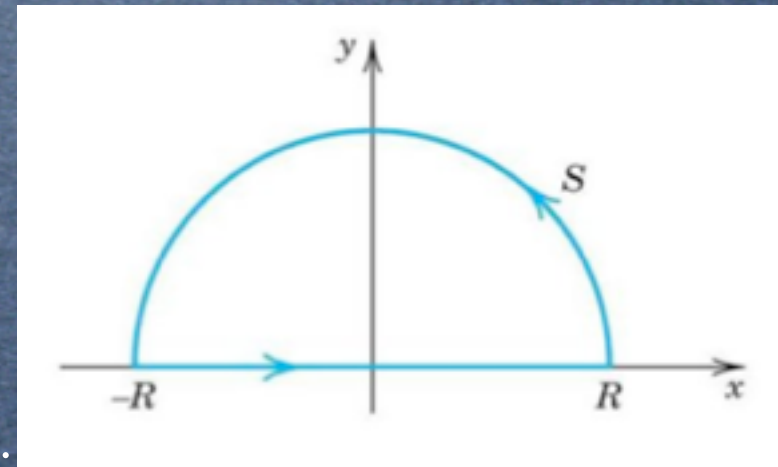
- If  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , the value of the integral over the semicircle  $S$  approaches zero.
- Proof: If we set  $z = Re^{i\theta}$ , and by assumption, the degree of the denominator of  $f(z)$  is at least two units higher than the degree of the numerator, we have

$$|f(z)| < \frac{k}{|z|^2}, \quad |z| = R > R_0$$

for sufficiently large constant  $k$  and  $R_0$ .

- By the ML-inequality,  $|\oint_S f(z) dz| < \frac{k}{R^2} \pi R = \frac{k\pi}{R}$ ,  $R > R_0$ .  
Hence, as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , the value of the integral over  $S$  approaches zero.
- Then the integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res} f(z).$$





# Residue Integral: Improper Integral, Example

- Integrate

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^4} dx$$

- first consider the improper integral from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^4} dx = 2\pi i \left\{ \text{Res}_{z=e^{\pi i/4}} \left[ \frac{1}{1+x^4} \right] + \text{Res}_{z=e^{3\pi i/4}} \left[ \frac{1}{1+x^4} \right] \right\} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$$

- since  $1/(1+x^4)$  is an even function, we obtain,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^4} dx = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}.$$





# Residue Integral: Fourier Integral

- If  $f(z)$  is a rational function satisfying the assumption on the degrees, we may consider the corresponding integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{ikx} dx = \oint_C f(z) e^{ikz} dz = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res}[f(z) e^{ikz}], \quad k \text{ real and positive.}$$

- The real and imaginary parts are,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \cos kx dx &= -2\pi \sum \text{Im}\{\text{Res}[f(z) e^{ikz}]\}, \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \sin kx dx &= 2\pi \sum \text{Re}\{\text{Res}[f(z) e^{ikz}]\}, \end{aligned}$$





# Residue Integral: Fourier Integral, Example

- Integrate  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos kx}{a^2 + x^2} dx$  for  $k > 0, a > 0$ .
- For  $\frac{e^{ikz}}{a^2 + z^2}$  has only one pole in the upper half-plane, i.e., a simple pole at  $z = ia$ , then

$$\text{Res}_{z=ia} \left[ \frac{e^{ikz}}{a^2 + z^2} \right] = \frac{e^{-ak}}{2ia}$$

- Thus

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ikx}}{a^2 + x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ak}.$$

- Fourier cosine integral becomes

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos kx}{a^2 + x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ak}.$$

- Fourier sine integral becomes

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin kx}{a^2 + x^2} dx = 0.$$

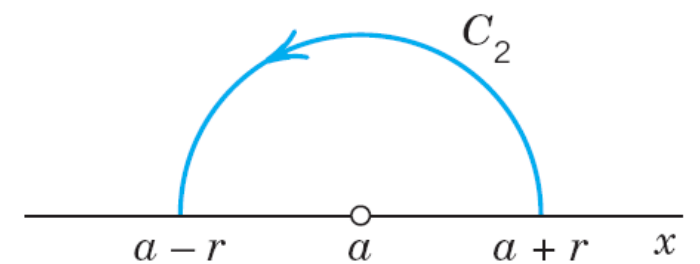




# Residue Integral: Simple poles on the Real axis

- If  $f(z)$  has a simple pole at  $z = a$  on the real axis, then

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \int_{C_2} f(z) dz = \pi i \operatorname{Res}_{z=a} f(z).$$



- **Proof:** By the definition of a simple pole (poles of the first order), the integrand  $f(z)$  has the Laurent series for  $0 < |z - a| < R$ ,

$$f(z) = \frac{b_1}{z - a} + g(z), \quad b_1 = \operatorname{Res}_{z=a} f(z).$$

- Here  $g(z)$  is analytic on the semicircle of integration,  $C_2 : z = a + re^{i\theta}$ ,  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ , and for all  $z$  between  $C_2$  and the  $x$ -axis.
- By integration  $\int_{C_2} f(z) dz = \int_0^\pi \frac{b_1}{re^{i\theta}} i re^{i\theta} d\theta + \int_{C_2} g(z) dz = \pi i b_1.$





# Residue Integral: Simple poles on the Real axis, P.V.

- For sufficient large  $R$ , the integral over the entire contour has the value  $J$  given by

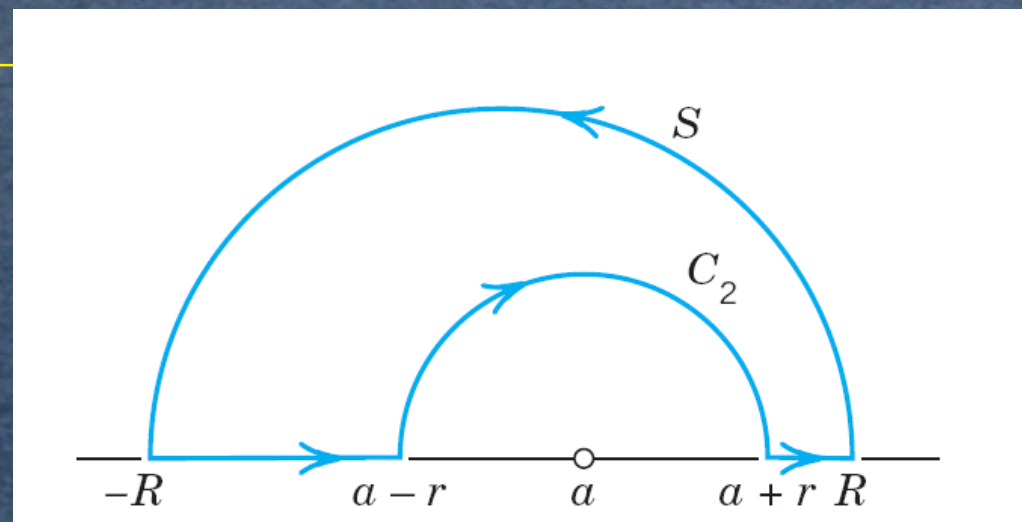
$$J = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res}[f(z)],$$

- For a simple pole on the real axis, the integral over  $C_2$  (clockwise !) approaches the value,

$$K = -\pi i \sum_{z=a_i} \text{Res}[f(z)],$$

- The principal value  $P$  of the integral is

$$\text{P.V.} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = J - K = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res}[f(z)] + \pi i \sum_{z=a_i} \text{Res}[f(z)].$$





# Residue Integral: Simple poles on the Real axis, Example

- Integrate

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(x^2 - 3x + 2)(x^2 + 1)} dx$$

- In the upper half-plane, the integrand  $f(z)$  has simple poles at

$$z = 1, \quad \text{Res}_{z=1} f(z) = \frac{-1}{2},$$

$$z = 2, \quad \text{Res}_{z=2} f(z) = \frac{1}{5},$$

$$z = i, \quad \text{Res}_{z=i} f(z) = \frac{3-i}{20},$$

- the principal value of  $f(z)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{P.V.} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(x^2 - 3x + 2)(x^2 + 1)} dx &= 2\pi i \left( \frac{3-i}{20} \right) + \pi i \left( \frac{-1}{2} + \frac{1}{5} \right) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{10}. \end{aligned}$$





# Residue Integral: Fractional function

- Evaluate

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{a x}}{1 + e^x} dx, \quad 0 < a < 1$$

where the limits on  $a$  are necessary (and sufficient) to prevent the integral from diverging as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ .

- The principle value

$$\begin{aligned} \oint \frac{e^{a z}}{1 + e^z} dz &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{-R}^R \frac{e^{a x}}{1 + e^x} dx - e^{2\pi i a} \int_{-R}^R \frac{e^{a x}}{1 + e^x} dx \right) \\ &= (1 - e^{2\pi i a}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{a x}}{1 + e^x} dx \\ &= 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}_{z=i\pi} \left[ \frac{e^{a z}}{1 + e^z} \right] = -2\pi i e^{i\pi a} \end{aligned}$$

- Then the integral

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{a x}}{1 + e^x} dx = \frac{\pi}{\sin a\pi}.$$





# Residue Integral: Inverse Laplace transform

- Laplace transform

$$F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} f(t) e^{-st} dt,$$
$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-i\infty}^{c+i\infty} F(s) e^{st} ds,$$

- For the inverse Laplace transform,  $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$ , i.e.,  $f(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{F(s)\}$ .
- To avoid the exponential divergence, one write

$$f(t) = e^{ct} g(t).$$

If  $f(t)$  diverges as  $e^{\alpha t}$ , we require  $c$  to be great than  $\alpha$  so that  $g(t)$  will be convergent.

- For  $g(t) = 0$  for  $t < 0$ , and may be represented by a Fourier integral,

$$g(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega t} d\omega \int_0^{\infty} g(\tau) e^{-i\omega\tau} d\tau$$





# Residue Integral: Inverse Laplace transform, cont.

- Then

$$f(t) = \frac{e^{ct}}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega t} d\omega \int_0^{\infty} f(\tau) e^{-c\tau} e^{-i\omega\tau} d\tau$$

- With the change of variable,  $s = c + i\omega$ , the integral over  $\tau$  is thrown into the form of a Laplace transform,

$$\int_0^{\infty} f(\tau) e^{-c\tau} e^{-i\omega\tau} d\tau = \int_0^{\infty} f(\tau) e^{-s\tau} d\tau \equiv F(s)$$

$s$  is now a complex variable and  $\text{Re}(s) \geq c$  to guarantee convergence.

- With  $c$  as a constant,  $ds = i d\omega$ , we obtain

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c-i\infty}^{c+i\infty} F(s) e^{st} ds,$$





# Residue Integral: Inverse Laplace transform, Example

- Find the inverse Laplace transformation for

$$F(s) = \frac{a}{s^2 - a^2},$$

- For the integrand,

$$e^{st} F(s) = \frac{ae^{st}}{(s+a)(s-a)}$$

has the Residues at one simple pole  $s = a$  and the other simple pole at  $s = -a$  are,

$$\text{Res}_{s=a} = \frac{1}{2}e^{at}, \quad \text{Res}_{s=-a} = \frac{-1}{2}e^{-at},$$

- Then the inverse Laplace transformation is

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= \sum_i \text{Res}_{z=z_i} \frac{ae^{zt}}{(z+a)(z-a)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(e^{at} - e^{-at}) = \sinh at. \end{aligned}$$





# 5th EXAM:

## 1. Topics cover “Complex Analysis” Ch. 13-16:

- Complex numbers, functions, Ch. 13
- Complex integration, Ch. 14
- Power, Taylor series, Ch. 15 (skip 15.5)
- Laurent series, Ch. 16
- Residue Integration, Ch. 16

Skip: Conformal Mapping (Ch. 17), Potential Theory (Ch. 18).

## 2. You can bring an ONE-PAGE NOTE.

Jan. 14 (this Friday night), 7-10PM.

