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# PHYS 3031 Course Notes

## Mathematical Methods in Physics II

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*MATH METHODS IN PHYSICS*

PHYS 3031 Mathematical Methods in Physics II



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# 1 Series

## 1.1 Convergence Condition for Positive Series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

Necessary condition:  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} a_N = 0$

Hierarchy:  $N! > a^N > N^b > \ln N$

**Stirling's Formula**  $\ln N! \approx N \ln N - N \approx N \ln N$

**Comparison Test 1**  $\sum a_n < \sum b_n$ ,  $b$  converges  $\rightarrow a$  converges

**Comparison Test 2 (Integral Test)**  $\sum a_n$  &  $\int a(n)dn$  share the same fate

**Ratio Test**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \rho$ ,  $\rho > 1 \rightarrow$  Diverges,  $\rho < 1 \rightarrow$  Converges

**Extended (Special) Comparison Test**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 1$ , then  $\sum a_n$  &  $\sum b_n$  share the same fate

## 1.2 Convergence Condition for Alternating Series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$

If  $a_n > 0$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , this series may diverge.

(1) Absolute Convergence: If  $\sum a_n$  converges, then  $\sum (-1)^n a_n$  converges

(2) Convergence Condition:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$  and  $a_n > a_{n+1}$

(3) Diverge: If  $a_n < a_{n+1}$ , then the series diverges

## 1.3 Power Series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n \rightarrow f(x)$

Convergent condition for  $x$ :  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} (x - x_0) \right| < 1$

## 1.4 Asymptotic Series 渐近级数

For functions  $f(z)$  and  $\phi(z) \neq 0$  defined in  $\dot{U}(z_0)$ , we say that  $f(z) = O(\phi(z))$  at  $z \rightarrow z_0$  if  $f(z)/\phi(z)$  is bounded, and that  $f(z) = o(\phi(z))$  at  $z \rightarrow z_0$  if  $f(z)/\phi(z) \rightarrow 0$ .

If for  $\forall m$ , when  $z \rightarrow z_0$ ,

$$f(z) - \sum_{n=0}^m a_n \phi_n(z) = o(\phi_m(z))$$

we say that  $\sum_{n=0}^m a_n \phi_n(z)$  is an asymptotic series for  $f(z)$ , even though the series may not converge:

$$f(z) \sim \sum_{n=0}^m a_n \phi_n(z)$$

# 2 Taylor Expansion $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n$

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1} \quad \cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n} \quad \tan x = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^5}{15} + \frac{17x^7}{315} + \dots \quad e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

$$\arctan x = \int_0^x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-t^2)^n dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}, \text{ where } |x| < 1$$

## 2.1 Leibniz Rule

$$\frac{d^{(M)}}{dx^M}(u \cdot v) = \left( \frac{du}{dx} \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \frac{dv}{dx} \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \right)^M (u \cdot v) = \sum_{n=0}^M C_M^n \left( \frac{d^{(M-n)}u}{dx^{(M-n)}} \right) \left( \frac{d^{(n)}v}{dx^n} \right)$$

## 2.2 Error Estimation when N Terms are Kept

$$f(x) \approx \sum_{n=0}^N (-1)^n a_n (x - x_0)^n \quad b_n \equiv a_n (x - x_0)^n > 0$$

### 2.2.1 Alternating Series $S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_n$

Maximum possible error for  $f(x)$  is

$$b_{N+1} = a_{N+1} |x - x_0|^{N+1}$$

### 2.2.2 "Positive" Series $S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n, a_n (x - x_0)^n > 0$

If it converges when  $|x - x_0| < 1$ , and  $|a_{n+1}| < |a_n|$ , then

$$S - S_N < \frac{|a_{N+1}| |x - x_0|^{N+1}}{1 - |x - x_0|}$$

Note: In practice, Taylor Expansion is useful when  $|x - x_0| \ll 1$ , and an upper limit of error  $\epsilon$  to be tolerated is given, even if the series converges for any value of  $(x - x_0)$ .

## 2.3 L'Hôpital's Rule

$$\text{Theorem 1: } \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \xrightarrow{\frac{f(x_0)=0}{g(x_0)=0}} \frac{0}{0} \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \rightarrow \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

$$\text{Theorem 2: } \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \xrightarrow{\frac{f(x_0)=0}{g(x_0)=0}} \frac{\infty}{\infty} \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \rightarrow \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \text{ (proved by the inverse of the fraction)}$$

## 3 Complex Analysis

Convergence of the Complex Series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n + i \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n \implies a_n$  and  $b_n$  both converges.

Complex Power Series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n = f(z)$  with convergence region  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} \right| z < 1$ .

Euler's Formula:  $e^z = \cos z + i \sin z$  help solving the inverse trigonometric functions.

### 3.1 Complex Functions $f(z) = f(x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$

#### Analytic Function

Property:  $f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)}{\Delta z}$  is **unique** regardless how  $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ .

Necessary and Sufficient Conditions:

Cauchy-Riemann Conditions in Cartesian Coordinate:  $\partial_x u = \partial_y v, \quad \partial_y u = -\partial_x v$

Cauchy-Riemann Conditions in Polar Coordinate:  $\partial_\theta u = -\rho \partial_\rho v, \quad \partial_\theta v = \rho \partial_\rho u$

### Isolated Zeros 孤立零点

If  $f$  is analytic at  $z_0$ , then  $f$  has a zero of order  $m \geq 1$  at  $z_0$  if

$$f(z_0) = f'(z_0) = \dots = f^{(m-1)}(z_0) = 0$$

and  $f^{(m)}(z_0) \neq 0$ . Note that  $f$  becomes a **branch point** if  $m$  is not an integer, and that  $f$  is not analytic at that point.

**Theorem:** If  $z = a$  is a zero of  $f(z)$  which is not a constant at  $\dot{U}(a)$ , then  $\exists \rho > 0$ ,  $f(z)$  doesn't have any zeros in the region  $0 < |z - a| < \rho$ .

## 3.2 Line Integrals

With the substitution of line  $c : y = g(x)$ ,  $dy = g'(x)dx$

$$\lim_{\delta z_n \rightarrow 0} \sum_{z_n \in c} f(z_n) \Delta z_n = \int_c f(z) dz = \int_c f(x + iy)(dx + idy) = \int_a^b f(x + ig(x))(1 + ig'(x))dx \implies \int_c f(z) dz = - \int_{-c} f(z) dz$$

**Cauchy's Theorem for Analytic Functions:**

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

### Two Foundation Lemmas - Jordan's Lemma

- Small Arc Lemma (小圆弧引理):

If  $f(z)$  is continuous in  $\dot{U}(a)$ , and  $(z - a)f(z)$  approaches  $k$  consistently as  $|z - a| \rightarrow 0$  within  $\theta_1 \leq \arg(z - a) \leq \theta_2$ , then

$$\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{C_\delta} f(z) dz = ik(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$$

- Big Arc Lemma (大圆弧引理):

If  $f(z)$  is continuous in  $\dot{U}(\infty)$ , and  $zf(z)$  approaches  $K$  consistently as  $z \rightarrow \infty$  within  $\theta_1 \leq \arg(z - a) \leq \theta_2$ , then

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{C_R} f(z) dz = iK(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$$

**Cauchy's Integral Formula:**  $f(z)$  is analytic inside and on the contour, then for  $\forall z_0$  inside the contour,

$$\implies f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z) dz}{z - z_0} \implies f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(z_0 + Re^{i\theta}) d\theta \text{ (Mean Value Theorem 均值定理)}$$

i.e. Get full information inside by the information on the boundary only.

**Note:** If  $z_0$  were outside the contour, then

- If  $f$  is analytic inside  $C$ , then  $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z) dz}{z - z_0} = 0$
- If  $f$  is analytic outside  $C$  and  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = K$ , then  $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z) dz}{z - z_0} = f(z_0) - K$
- The above two lemmas are NOT contradictory. In fact, if a complex function is analytic and bounded within  $U(\infty)$ , then it must be a constant function.

### Liouville Theorem (in Complex Analysis) 刘维尔定理

Every bounded entire function must be constant. That is, every holomorphic function  $f$  for which there exists a positive number  $M$  such that  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  is constant. Equivalently, non-constant holomorphic functions on  $\mathbb{C}$  have unbounded images.

### Poisson's Formula

Idea: If  $f(z = x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  is analytic on the upper-half plane and that we only know the value of  $u(x, 0)$  or  $v(x, 0)$ , we can first get the value of  $f(x \in \mathbb{R})$ , then apply the Cauchy's Integral Formula to get all the complex value on the upper-half plane:

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\pi i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{u(\xi, 0)}{\xi - (x + iy)} d\xi = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{v(\xi, 0)}{\xi - (x + iy)} d\xi$$

$$f(z) = \frac{y}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - x)^2 + y^2} d\xi = \frac{1}{\pi i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{(\xi - x)f(\xi)}{(\xi - x)^2 + y^2} d\xi$$

### 3.3 Taylor Series

#### Derivative of $f(z)$

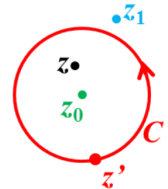
$$f^{(n)}(a) \equiv \frac{d^{(n)}f}{da^n} = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)dz}{(z - a)^{n+1}}$$

**Taylor Series**  $f(z) = \sum a_n(z - z_0)^n$

Suppose  $f(z)$  has a singular point at  $z_1$ , we can expand  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$ :

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z')dz'}{z' - z} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z - z_0)^n \oint_C \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z' - z_0)^{n+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - z_0)^n$$

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



### 3.4 Lauren Series

Suppose  $f(z)$  has a pole at  $z_0$ , define the hole as order  $N \geq 1$  at  $z_0$  if  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)^N f(z)$  is finite and non-zero. ("Essential Pole" if such  $N \rightarrow \infty$  like  $e^{1/z}$  at  $z = 0$ )

$f(z)$  can be expressed as

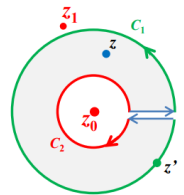
$$f(z) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m(z - z_0)^m + \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{b_n}{(z - z_0)^n} \text{ as } \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)^N f(z) = b_N$$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{z' - z} + \oint_{C_2} \frac{f(z')dz'}{z' - z} = I_1 + I_2$$

We have

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z')dz'}{(z' - z_0)^{n+1}} \quad b_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} f(z')dz' \quad b_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} f(z')(z' - z_0)^n dz' \quad (\text{Not Useful})$$

Note that when  $f(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0$ ,  $a_n$  becomes the same as the coefficient in Taylor Series, and  $b_i \equiv 0$  for  $\forall i$ .



### 3.5 Analytic Continuation 解析延拓

Suppose  $f_1(z)$  is analytic in region  $g_1$ ,  $f_2(z)$  is analytic in region  $g_2$ , such that  $g_1 \cap g_2 \neq \emptyset$ . If  $f_1(z) \equiv f_2(z)$  in  $g_1 \cap g_2$ , then  $f_2(z)$  is the analytic continuation for  $f_1(z)$  in region  $g_2$ .

### 3.6 Residue Theorem 留数定理

We want to evaluate  $\oint_C f(z)dz$  around the pole. By applying the Lauren Series, one can prove that

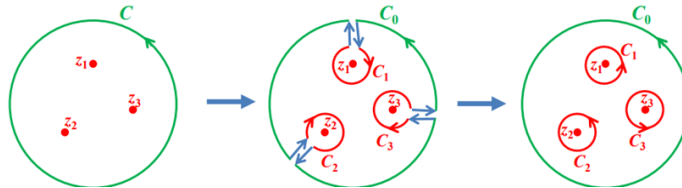
$$\oint_C f(z)dz = 2\pi i b_1$$

To find  $b_1$ , notice that  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)^N f(z)$  is finite and all the other terms in the Laurent Series would disappear by taking  $(N - 1)$  times derivatives and taking  $z = z_0$ :

$$b_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{g^{(M-1)}(z)}{(M-1)!}, \text{ where } g(z) \equiv (z - z_0)^M f(z), \quad M \geq N$$

("≥" to overkill the denominator, theoretically taking  $M = N$  is enough)

We then define the coefficient  $b_1$  of the Laurent Series at the pole  $z_0$  as  $b_1(z_0) \equiv R(z_0)$ , and refer as the **residue** of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$



If  $f(z)$  has singular points  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n$  inside contour  $C$ , then

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{n=1}^N R(z_n)$$

### Residue at Infinity

If  $\infty$  is NOT a non-isolated singularity, define

$$R(f(\infty)) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C'} f(z) dz$$

where  $C'$  is a closed curve **clockwise** around a point at infinity.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} R(f(\infty)) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C'} f(z) dz = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C'} \frac{f(1/t)}{t^2} dt \\ &= -\frac{f(1/t)}{t^2} \quad t^{-1}\text{'s coefficient expanding at } t = 0 \\ &= -f(1/t) \quad t^1\text{'s coefficient expanding at } t = 0 \\ &= -f(z) \quad z^{-1}\text{'s coefficient expanding at } z = \infty \end{aligned}$$

Note:  $R(f(\infty))$  may NOT be zero even if  $f(z)$  is analytic at  $z = \infty$ .

### 3.6.1 Rational Trigonometric Function $\int_0^{2\pi} f(\sin \theta, \cos \theta) d\theta$

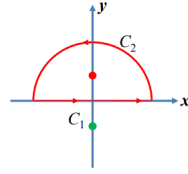
By applying the transformation below,

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \theta &= \frac{z^2 - 1}{2iz} \quad \cos \theta = \frac{z^2 + 1}{2z} \quad d\theta = \frac{dz}{iz} \\ \int_0^{2\pi} f(\sin \theta, \cos \theta) d\theta &= \oint_{|z|=1} f\left(\frac{z^2 - 1}{2iz}, \frac{z^2 + 1}{2z}\right) \frac{dz}{iz} \end{aligned}$$

**Example:**

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{1 + \epsilon \cos \theta} dz \quad (|\epsilon| < 1) &= \oint_{|z|=1} \frac{2}{\epsilon z^2 + 2z + \epsilon} \frac{dz}{i} = 2\pi \sum_{|z|<1} R\left(\frac{2}{\epsilon z^2 + 2z + \epsilon}\right) \\ &= 2\pi \frac{2}{\frac{d}{dz}(\epsilon z^2 + 2z + \epsilon) \Big|_{z=(-1+\sqrt{1-\epsilon^2})/\epsilon}} = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{1-\epsilon^2}} \end{aligned}$$

### 3.6.2 Improper Integral (over $\mathbb{R}$ ) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx$



**Example:**

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \oint_{C_1+C_2} \frac{1}{1+z^2} dz = 2\pi i R(i) = \pi$$

**Note:** This requires the integral around the infinite point to be exist, so that when the radius of the integral path  $C_2 \rightarrow \infty$ , the integral  $\rightarrow 0$ .

**Properties:**

In general,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = 2\pi i \sum_{i=1}^N R(z_n)$$

where  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  are polynomials and that  $Q(x)$  is at least two orders higher than  $P(x)$ , and have no real roots (i.e. No extra poles on the x-axis).

Such order difference is required because

$$\int_{C_2} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz \text{ as } C_2 \rightarrow \infty \text{ requires } \lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(\rho e^{i\theta})}{Q(\rho e^{i\theta})} i \rho e^{i\theta} \sim \lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \rho^{1-M} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Integer } M \geq 2$$

To deal with the poles on the x-axis when computing the (improper) integral over the real numbers, one can make use of the Jordan's Lemma (See Page 4) to compute the integral over a semi-circle to get the **Principal Value (PV)** at that point.

**Properties for Poles on the Real Axis (Corollary of Jordan's Lemma):**

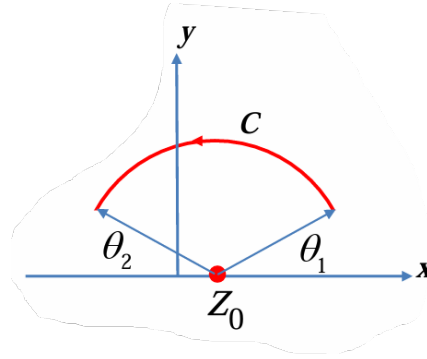
Make substitutions:  $z - z_0 = \rho e^{i\theta}$ ,  $dz = i \rho e^{i\theta} d\theta$

$$PV(z_0) = \int_{C(z_0)} f(z) dz = \lim_{\rho \rightarrow 0} \int_{C_\rho(z_0)} f(z) dz = i \lim_{\rho \rightarrow 0} \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} f(z_0 + \rho e^{i\theta}) \rho e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

Suppose  $z_0$  is a pole of order 1 on the real axis. According to the Lauren Series:

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (z - z_0)^m + \frac{b_1}{z - z_0} \\ \Rightarrow \int_{C(z_0)} (z - z_0)^m dz &= \lim_{\rho \rightarrow 0} \int_{C_\rho(z_0)} \rho^m e^{im\theta} i \rho e^{i\theta} d\theta = i \lim_{\rho \rightarrow 0} \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \rho^{m+1} e^{i(m+1)\theta} d\theta = 0 \\ \Rightarrow PV &= i \lim_{\rho \rightarrow 0} \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} f(z_0 + \rho e^{i\theta}) \rho e^{i\theta} d\theta = i b_1 \lim_{\rho \rightarrow 0} \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \frac{\rho e^{i\theta}}{\rho e^{i\theta}} d\theta = i b_1 (\theta_2 - \theta_1) = i(\theta_2 - \theta_1) R(z_0) \end{aligned}$$





### Example: PV of the Integral of $\frac{1}{x}$

In general,

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \frac{dx}{x} = \ln \left| \frac{x_2}{x_1} \right|$$

where, when  $x_1 < 0, x_2 > 0$ ,

$$PV\left(\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \frac{dx}{x}\right) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[ \int_{x_1}^{-\epsilon} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_{\epsilon}^{x_2} \frac{dx}{x} \right] = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[ \ln \left| \frac{-\epsilon}{x_1} \right| + \ln \left| \frac{x_2}{\epsilon} \right| \right] = \ln \left| \frac{x_2}{x_1} \right|$$

### 3.6.3 Other Possible Integral Path

**Certain Types of Integrals**  
Page-692 Example-5

$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{1+x} dx, 0 < p < 1$

Upper Line:  $z = x, z^{p-1} = x^{p-1}$   
Lower Line:  $z = xe^{2\pi i}, z = x, z^{p-1} = x^{p-1} e^{2\pi i(p-1)} \neq x^{p-1}$

$2\pi i R(-1) = \oint_C \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz$

$= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{1+x} dx + \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{|z|=R} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz \right) - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1} e^{2\pi i(p-1)}}{1+x} dx + \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz$

$= I(1 - e^{2\pi i(p-1)}) + \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{|z|=R} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz \right) + \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz$

$= I(1 - e^{2\pi i p}) + \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{|z|=R} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz \right) + \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz$

**Certain Types of Integrals**  
Page-692 Example-5

$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{1+x} dx, 0 < p < 1$

Continue...

$R(-1) = \lim_{p \rightarrow -1} x^{p-1} = (-1)^{p-1} = e^{i\pi(p-1)} = -e^{i\pi p}$

$\int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{p \rightarrow -1} \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{\rho^{p-1} e^{i(p-1)\theta}}{1+\rho e^{i\theta}} i\rho e^{i\theta} d\theta$

$= i \lim_{p \rightarrow -1} \rho^p \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} e^{i\theta} d\theta = 0$

$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{|z|=R} \frac{z^{p-1}}{1+z} dz \right) \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{R^{p-1} e^{i(p-1)\theta}}{1+R e^{i\theta}} i R e^{i\theta} d\theta \right) = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} R^p = 0$

$\Rightarrow I(1 + e^{2\pi i p}) = 2\pi i R(-1) = -2\pi i e^{i\pi p}$

$\Rightarrow I = \frac{-2\pi i e^{i\pi p}}{1 - e^{2\pi i p}} = \frac{\pi}{\sin(\pi p)}$

**Certain Types of Integrals**  
Page-692 Example-5

$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{a+x} dx, 0 < p < 1, a > 0$

Continue...

$R(-a) = \lim_{p \rightarrow -a} x^{p-1} = a^{p-1} (-1)^{p-1} = a^{p-1} e^{i\pi(p-1)} = -a^{p-1} e^{i\pi p}$

$\int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{z^{p-1}}{a+z} dz \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{p \rightarrow -a} \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} \frac{\rho^{p-1} e^{i(p-1)\theta}}{a+\rho e^{i\theta}} i\rho e^{i\theta} d\theta$

$= i \lim_{p \rightarrow -a} \rho^p \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} e^{i\theta} d\theta = 0$

$I(1 + e^{2\pi i p}) = 2\pi i R(-a) = -2\pi i a^{p-1} e^{i\pi p} \rightarrow I = \frac{-2\pi i e^{i\pi p} a^{p-1}}{1 - e^{2\pi i p}} = \frac{\pi a^{p-1}}{\sin(\pi p)}$

Or:  $I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{a+x} dx \xrightarrow{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^{p-1}}{a} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{y^{p-1}}{1+y} dy = \frac{\pi a^{p-1}}{\sin(\pi p)}$

**Certain Types of Integrals**  
Page-692 Example-5

$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{a+x} dx, 0 < p < 1, a > 0$

$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{a+x} dx = I = \frac{\pi a^{p-1}}{\sin(\pi p)}$

$\frac{dI}{da} \Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{(a+x)^2} dx = (1-p) \frac{\pi a^{p-2}}{\sin(\pi p)}$

$\frac{d^{(N-1)} I}{da^{(N-1)}} \Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{p-1}}{(a+x)^N} dx$

$= \frac{(1-p)(2-p) \cdots (N-p)}{(N-1)!} \frac{\pi a^{p-N}}{\sin(\pi p)}, N \geq 2$

Figure 1: HKUST PHYS3031, 2023, Complex Analysis Page 93-97

### 3.7 Argument (Phase) Principle

**Theorem 1:**

If  $f(z)$  has a root  $z_1$  of order  $n_1$  within the contour  $C$ , then

$$I = \oint_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = 2\pi i n_1$$

Proof goes as  $G(z) = \frac{d}{dz} \ln(f(z))$  has a pole of order 1 at  $z_1$  with residue  $n_1$ .

**Theorem 2**

If  $f(z)$  has a pole  $z_1$  of order  $p_1$  within the contour  $C$ , then

$$I = \oint_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = -2\pi i p_1$$

Proof goes according to the Laurent Series of  $f(z)$ .

**Corollary**

If  $f(z)$  is analytic everywhere, for a very large contour  $C$  that contains all roots,

Nouns	Explanations
Analytic (Holomorphic) Point	A point which the function has a derivative at and in a neighborhood around that point
Branch Point 分枝点	A point such that all of its neighborhoods contain a point that has more than $n$ values
Regular Point	A point in the function's domain where the function is differentiable
Singularity 奇点	Essential Singularity 本性奇点: $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)^N f(z)$ is always infinite
	Isolated Singularity 孤立奇点: One that has no other singularities close to it
	Pole 极点: Lauren Series contains finitely many negative power terms
	Removable Singularity 可去奇点: Lauren Series doesn't contain term with negative power terms

Table 1: Explanation of Important Nouns

## 4 Special Functions

## 5 Partial Differential Equations

### Typical Types of PDE

$$\text{Laplace Equation: } \nabla^2 T = \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

$$\text{Diffusion Equation: } \alpha^2 \nabla^2 u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$$

$$\text{Wave Equation: } \nabla^2 u = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$

### 5.1 2D Laplace Equation

$$\nabla^2 T = \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

#### Case 1

Separation of variables:  $T(x, y) = X(x)Y(y)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{X} \frac{d^2 X}{dx^2} = -\frac{1}{Y} \frac{d^2 Y}{dy^2} = \lambda$$

Raises two sets of solution for  $\lambda > 0$  and  $\lambda < 0$ .

For the given boundary condition, we have  $\lambda = K^2 < 0$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 X}{dx^2} &= -K^2 X \Rightarrow X(x) = A \cos Kx + B \sin Kx \\ \frac{d^2 Y}{dy^2} &= K^2 Y \Rightarrow Y(y) = C \cosh Ky + D \sinh Ky \end{aligned}$$

With the boundary condition, the general solution is given by

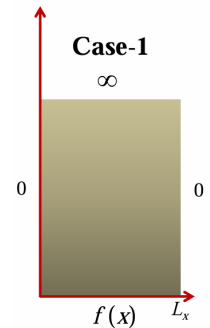
$$T(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n T_n(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L_x} e^{-\frac{n\pi y}{L_x}}$$

Compare with the remaining boundary condition

$$\begin{aligned} T(x, 0) &= f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L_x} \\ \Rightarrow a_n &= \frac{2}{L_x} \int_0^{L_x} f(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L_x} dx = \frac{2}{L_x} \langle f(x), \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L_x} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

For constant function  $f(x) = C$ ,

$$a_n = \frac{4C}{n\pi} \text{ for odd } n, 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

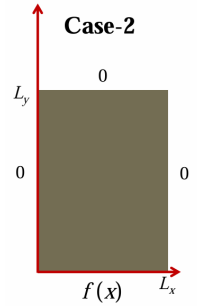


## Case 2

This also requires  $x$ -direction to be sinusoidal, and  $y$ -direction to be exponential.

$$T(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n T_n(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin K_n x \sinh[K_n(L_y - y)]$$

$$\text{with } a_n = \frac{2}{L_x \sinh(K_n L_y)} \int_0^{L_x} f(x) \sin K_n x dx$$



## Linearity of the Solution

If  $T_1(x, y)$  and  $T_2(x, y)$  are solutions to the Laplace equation, then  $T(x, y) = aT_1(x, y) + bT_2(x, y)$  is also a solution.

## Uniqueness Theorem

Because of the orthogonality of the eigenfunctions  $\sin(K_n x)$ , if two functions  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  both satisfies the Laplace equation and the boundary condition, then the difference of these two functions raise  $a_n \equiv 0 \Rightarrow T_1 = T_2$ . Thus, the solution to the Laplace equation is unique.

## Case 3

$\bar{0}$  refers to the boundary condition of  $\partial_x T = 0$

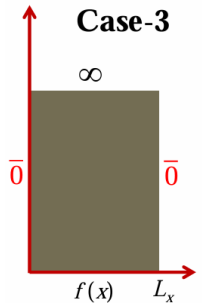
$$\begin{cases} X(x) = A \sin Kx + B \cos Kx \text{ with } X'(x) = 0 \text{ at boundaries} \Rightarrow K_n = \frac{n\pi}{L_x} \\ Y(y) = Ce^{Ky} + De^{-Ky} \text{ with finite value at } y \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow Y_n = e^{-K_n y} \end{cases}$$

For  $K = 0$ ,  $T(x, y) = A_0 + A_1 x + A_2 y + A_3 xy$  with boundary consitions  $\Rightarrow A_1 = A_2 = A_3 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow T(x, y) = A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n e^{-K_n y} \cos(K_n x)$$

Applying Fourier Transformation,

$$T(x, y) = \frac{L_x}{2} - \frac{4L_x}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n+1)^2} e^{-K_{2n+1} y} \cos(K_{2n+1} x)$$



## Useful Integrals:

$$\int_0^{L_x} x \cos(K_n x) dx = -\frac{2}{K_n^2} = -\frac{2L_x^2}{n^2 \pi^2}$$

$$\int_0^{L_x} x \sin(K_n x) dx = \frac{(-1)^{n+1} L_x^2}{n\pi}$$