

Recall: the residue of f (analytic in $\overline{D^*(p, \varepsilon)}$) at p is $\text{Res}_p(f) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$.
 $=$ coefft of $(z-p)^{-1}$ in Laurent series of f near p ($= \lim (z-p)f(z)$ if simple pole)

Residue Theorem: $\left\| \begin{array}{l} \overline{D} \text{ compact domain with piecewise smooth boundary } \gamma = \partial D, P \subset \text{int}(D) \text{ finite set,} \\ f \text{ analytic on } U \supset \overline{D} - P, \text{ then } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{p \in P} \text{Res}_p(f). \end{array} \right.$

We've used this to evaluate definite integrals, by completing path to a closed curve.

Example 3: mixed rational & exponential functions

Assume $f(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ is a rational function without real poles, $\deg Q \geq \deg P + 2$.

Then we can calculate $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) e^{iz} dz$ by considering a large semidisc in the upper half plane.

$$\int_{\partial D} f(z) e^{iz} dz = \int_{-R}^R + \int_{\text{semicircle}} = 2\pi i \sum_{|p| < R, \text{Im } p > 0} \text{Res}_p(f(z) e^{iz}). \quad + \text{ take limit as } R \rightarrow \infty.$$

The key point is that $|e^{iz}| = e^{-\text{Im}(z)} \leq 1$ in the upper half plane, so the path-integral along the semicircle goes $\rightarrow 0$. ($|f(z) e^{iz}| < C/R^2$, length $= \pi R$).
 (whereas if integrand has e^{-iz} we'd want to consider the lower half-plane instead.)

$$\text{Ex: } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{iz}}{1+z^2} dz = 2\pi i \text{Res}_{z=i} \left(\frac{e^{iz}}{1+z^2} \right) = 2\pi i \cdot \left(\frac{e^{iz}}{z+i} \right) \Big|_{z=i} = \frac{2\pi i e^{-1}}{2i} = \frac{\pi}{e}.$$

Taking real and imaginary parts:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos x}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{e}, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{1+x^2} dx = 0 \quad (\text{clear by symmetry})$$

Example 3': we can actually handle the case $\deg Q = \deg P + 1$ (still assuming \nexists real poles)

Then $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) e^{iz} dz$ still converges, but not absolutely!

(example: $\int_{n\pi}^{(n+1)\pi} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx \sim (-1)^n \frac{2}{n}$ convergent series, even though not abs. convergent).

Closing the path in \mathbb{C} also requires some care, to show the integrals along the portions we add do $\rightarrow 0$ as radius $\rightarrow \infty$: bounding the integrand by $C/|z|$ isn't good enough.

One popular choice = large rectangle, but semicircle is actually fine! The point is that:

- over the portion where $\text{Im}(z) > A$, $|e^{iz}| < e^{-A}$, so $\left| \int f(z) e^{iz} dz \right| \leq C e^{-A} \rightarrow 0$ as $A \rightarrow \infty$
- the portion where $\text{Im}(z) < A$ has length $\lesssim A$, and $|z| \gtrsim R$, so we have a bound by $\frac{CA}{R}$.

If we use eg. $A = \sqrt{R}$ to split things, we still get $\rightarrow 0$ as $R \rightarrow \infty$.

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Eg: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{ze^{iz}}{a^2+z^2} dz = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}_{z=ia} \left(\frac{ze^{iz}}{a^2+z^2} \right) = 2\pi i \left(\frac{ze^{iz}}{z+ia} \right) \Big|_{z=ia} = i\pi e^{-a}.$
 $(a>0)$

Taking imaginary part, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{a^2+x^2} dx = \pi e^{-a}.$

How about... $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$? (G.H. Hardy's note in the Mathematical Gazette, 1909, scores various methods (!)).

→ this one again converges, though not absolutely.

→ $\frac{\sin z}{z} = 1 - \frac{z^2}{3!} + \frac{z^4}{5!} - \dots$ is analytic in the whole plane, so... what residues ??

→ $\frac{\sin z}{z} = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2iz} \rightarrow \infty$ both in upper & lower half plane, so how do we use our trick of closing to a half-disc?

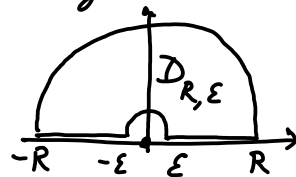
→ however... $\frac{\sin x}{x} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \sin x}{a^2+x^2}$, and in fact after a painful discussion of

the convergence as $a \rightarrow 0$ and interchange of limits, one can check $a \rightarrow 0$ is legitimate.

But it is more instructive to see how we can adjust the previous argument to handle $a=0$.

→ the actual issue: for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $\frac{\sin x}{x} = \operatorname{Im} \left(\frac{e^{ix}}{x} \right)$, but $\frac{e^{iz}}{z}$ has a pole at 0, on the path of integration. And in fact, $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x} dx$ is divergent at 0.

Solution: modify the contour of integration to avoid 0, to carve out a small half-disc from our large semidisc or rectangle.



Observe:

$$\bullet \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \lim_{\substack{R \rightarrow \infty \\ \epsilon \rightarrow 0}} \int_{[-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \lim_{\substack{R \rightarrow \infty \\ \epsilon \rightarrow 0}} \operatorname{Im} \int_{[-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz$$

$$\bullet \int_{\partial D_{R, \epsilon}} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = 0 \text{ by Cauchy (no poles in } D_{R, \epsilon})$$

• the integral on the semicircle of radius R tends to 0 as $R \rightarrow \infty$ as before

$$\left(\left| \frac{e^{iz}}{z} \right| = \frac{e^{-\operatorname{Im} z}}{R} \Rightarrow \text{consider separately regions } \operatorname{Im}(z) < A \text{ and } > A \text{ for } 1 < A < R. \right)$$

• on the semicircle of radius ϵ : $\operatorname{Res}_0 \left(\frac{e^{iz}}{z} \right) = 1$, so we can write

$$\frac{e^{iz}}{z} = \frac{1}{z} + g(z) \text{ where } g(z) \text{ is analytic near } 0 \left(g(z) = \frac{e^{iz} - 1}{z} \right).$$

$$\text{Since } g \text{ is bounded, } \int_{C_\epsilon} g(z) dz \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \epsilon \rightarrow 0, \text{ whereas } \int_{C_\epsilon} \frac{1}{z} dz = i\pi$$

$$\text{Combining: } \partial D_{R, \epsilon} = ([-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]) + C_R - C_\epsilon \quad (\text{half of our usual } 2\pi i !)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\substack{\epsilon \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty}} \int_{[-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = i\pi \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \pi.$$

* One more class of examples: non-integer powers of z .

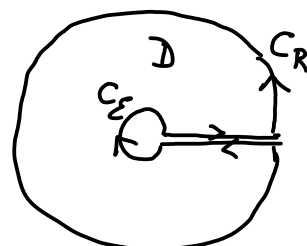
(3)

Consider for example, $\int_0^\infty \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx$ for $0 < \alpha < 1$. (\Rightarrow converges at ∞).

If $\alpha = \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$ we can evaluate by substitution $x = u^q$ to get a rational function (but still not much fun). But here's a more general approach.

Difficulty: $\frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2}$ isn't a single-valued analytic function \Rightarrow how to use residues?

Trick: do something similar to our last example, use a "keyhole" region of integration: $\varepsilon \leq |z| \leq R$, with a slit along real positive axis.



With a better behaved integrand, the two portions along $[\varepsilon, R]$ would cancel out! But here they don't; we can define $\frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2}$ as an analytic function over $\text{int}(D)$, but its values on either side of the real axis don't match!

Explicitly: we take $z^\alpha = e^{\alpha \log z}$ to be the branch with $\text{Im}(\log z) \in (0, 2\pi)$. Going around the origin, $\log z \rightarrow \log z + 2\pi i$, so z^α gets multiplied by $e^{2\pi i \alpha}$.

$$\text{So } \int_{\partial D} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz = \int_\varepsilon^R \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx + \int_{C_R} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz - \int_\varepsilon^R \frac{e^{2\pi i \alpha} x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx - \int_{C_\varepsilon} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz$$

$$\int_{C_R} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty \quad \left(\left| \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} \right| \leq \frac{C}{R^{2-\alpha}}, \text{ length} = 2\pi R, \text{ and } 2-\alpha > 1 \right).$$

$$\int_{C_\varepsilon} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \quad (\text{integrand and length} \rightarrow 0).$$

$$\text{So: } \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\partial D} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz = (1 - e^{2\pi i \alpha}) \int_0^\infty \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx.$$

While the residue formula equates this with $2\pi i \left(\text{Res}_{z=i} \left(\frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} \right) + \text{Res}_{z=-i} \left(\frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} \right) \right)$

$$\text{at } z=i: \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{z^\alpha (z-i)}{z^2+1} = \left(\frac{z^\alpha}{z+i} \right) \Big|_{z=i} = \frac{1}{2i} e^{\alpha \log(i)} = \frac{1}{2i} e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}\alpha}$$

$$\text{at } z=-i: \text{ similarly get } -\frac{1}{2i} e^{3i\frac{\pi}{2}\alpha}.$$

$$\text{Hence: } \int_0^\infty \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx = \pi \frac{e^{i\pi\alpha/2} - e^{3i\pi\alpha/2}}{1 - e^{2\pi i \alpha}} = \frac{\pi \sin(\frac{\pi\alpha}{2})}{\sin(\pi\alpha)} = \frac{\pi}{2 \cos(\pi\alpha/2)}.$$

Our next topic is infinite sum & product expansions (Ahlfors ch. 5.1-5.2)

We've seen: if f is analytic in the annulus $\{R_1 < |z| < R_2\}$ then it has a

Laurent series expansion $f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^\infty a_n z^n$, which may or may not have a finite negative part.

If the inner radius is $R_1 = 0$, then finite negative part \Leftrightarrow pole at $z=0$ ④
infinite \Leftrightarrow essential singularity

But if $R_1 > 0$ this need not be the case!

Ex: $\frac{1}{1-z}$ has a pole at $z=1$. So we have two different Laurent series:

• for $|z| < 1$, $\frac{1}{1-z} = 1 + z + z^2 + \dots$ ($R_2=1$)

• for $|z| > 1$, $\frac{1}{1-z} = \frac{-1}{z(1-\frac{1}{z})} = -z^{-1} - z^{-2} - z^{-3} - \dots$ ($R_1=1$)

Of course, in this example (and for most rational functions) Laurent series aren't the best choice of representation. Partial fractions make more sense, or product expansions.

• Products: $R(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} \Rightarrow$ can factor $R(z) = c \frac{\prod_{i=1}^k (z-a_i)^{n_i}}{\prod_{i=1}^l (z-b_i)^{m_i}}$

• Sums (partial fractions): if the poles are all simple, can write

$$R(z) = \frac{c_1}{z-b_1} + \dots + \frac{c_l}{z-b_l} + S(z) \quad \text{where } c_i \in \mathbb{C}, S(z) \text{ polynomial.}$$

or in general, $R(z) = \frac{C_1(z)}{(z-b_1)^{m_1}} + \dots + \frac{C_l(z)}{(z-b_l)^{m_l}} + S(z)$

where C_1, \dots, C_l, S are polynomials, $\deg(C_i) \leq m_i - 1$.

We'll learn how to find similar (infinite) sum or product expansions for general meromorphic functions.

Starting point: if $f(z)$ is meromorphic with a pole of order m at $b \in \mathbb{C}$, then we can write $f(z) = \frac{g(z)}{(z-b)^m}$ with $g(z)$ analytic in a nbd. of b .

Or, expressing $g(z)$ as a power series in $(z-b)$, $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-b)^n$

we have a Laurent series for f with finite negative part, as already noticed:

THE POLAR PART OF f at $z=b$ $\rightarrow f(z) = \left[\frac{a_0}{(z-b)^m} + \frac{a_1}{(z-b)^{m-1}} + \dots + \frac{a_{m-1}}{z-b} \right] + h(z)$, $h(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{m+n} (z-b)^n$ analytic near b .

This looks a lot like partial fractions, and in fact, for rational functions, it is partial fractions: if f is meromorphic with finitely many poles b_1, \dots, b_l , by induction on #poles (observe: remainder $h(z)$ has one fewer pole than f), we get $f(z) = \frac{C_1(z)}{(z-b_1)^{m_1}} + \dots + \frac{C_l(z)}{(z-b_l)^{m_l}} + g(z)$, $C_i(z)$ polynomials of degree $< m_i$, where $g(z)$ is now analytic everywhere. What if there's ∞ many poles?