MTH101: Review Session II

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Complex numbers

- Geometric form: z = (x, y);
- Algebraic form: z = x + iy;
- Polar form: $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$;
- Exponential form: $z = r \cdot e^{i\theta}$,

where $r = |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ is the distance between z and 0,

$$\theta = \operatorname{Arg}(z) = \begin{cases} \operatorname{arctan}(\frac{y}{x}), & \text{if } x > 0, \\ \operatorname{arctan}(\frac{y}{x}) + \pi, & \text{if } x < 0 \text{ and } y \geq 0, \\ \operatorname{arctan}(\frac{y}{x}) - \pi, & \text{if } x < 0 \text{ and } y < 0, \\ \frac{\pi}{2}, & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y > 0, \\ -\frac{\pi}{2}, & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y < 0. \end{cases}$$

Note that Principal Argument $Arg(z) \in (-\pi, \pi]$, argument $arg(z) = Arg(z) + 2n\pi$, $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ...$

Operational laws

$$z_1 \pm z_2 = (x_1 \pm x_2) + i(y_1 \pm y_2);$$

$$z_1 \cdot z_2 = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 + y_1 x_2);$$

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = z_1 \cdot \frac{1}{z_2} = (x_1 + iy_1) \left(\frac{x_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} + i \frac{-y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} \right)$$

Conjugate of a complex number

$$\bar{z} = x - iy$$

By using the formula $|z|^2 = z \cdot \bar{z}$, we have an easier approach to calculate the multiplicative inverse:

$$\frac{1}{z_2} = \frac{\overline{z_2}}{|z_2|^2}.$$



Operations using the Exponential Form

Consider $z_1 = r_1 e^{i\theta_1}$ and $z_2 = r_2 e^{i\theta_2}$, then

$$z_1 \cdot z_2 = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)},$$

 $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)},$
 $(z_1)^n = r_1^n e^{in\theta_1}.$

Roots of complex number The equation $z^n = re^{i\theta}$ has exactly n roots, and they are

$$r^{\frac{1}{n}}e^{i\frac{\theta+2k\pi}{n}}$$
, with $k = 0, 1, ..., n-1$.



Complex Functions

Complex functions $f(z): \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ can be written as the sum of two real functions for z = (x, y):

$$f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y).$$

Some topology terminology

- Neighborhood (Open Disk)
- Connected
- Domain (open and connected)
- Closed curve



Analyticity

We call a function f(z) is

- Analytic at z_0 if it is differentiable in a neighborhood of z_0 ;
- Analytic in a Domain D if it is Analytic at any points of D;
- **Entire** if it is Analytic on the whole complex plane \mathbb{C} .

Cauchy-Riemann Equations

Let f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y) for z = (x, y), then the following statements are equivalent:

- f(z) is Analytic in a domain D;
- $u_x = v_y$, $u_y = -v_x$. at all points of D.

Moreover, if f(z) is Analytic in a domain D, then both u and v satisfy **Laplace's equation**

$$\nabla^2 u = u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0,$$

$$\nabla^2 v = v_{xx} + v_{yy} = 0.$$



Some basic complex functions

- Polynomials: $f(z) = c_n z^n + c_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1 z + c_0$ are entire functions.
- Rational functions: $f(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ are analytic whenever $Q(z) \neq 0$.
- Exponential function: $f(z) = e^z = e^x(\cos y + i \sin y)$ is an **entire** function (some further properties need to be memorized: periodicity, $e^{2\pi i} = 1$, $(e^z)' = e^z$ etc.)
- Logarithm function $f(z) = \ln |z| + i \arg z$ is analytic except at 0 and on the negative real axis and $(\ln z)' = \frac{1}{z}$. In particular, the principle value of the logarithm function is $\operatorname{Ln} z = \ln |z| + i \operatorname{Arg} z$.



(Continued)

- General Power function: $f(z) = z^c = e^{c \ln z} = e^{c(\ln z + 2n\pi i)}$, $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ...$ and its principle value is $e^{c \ln (z)}$.
- Trigonometric Functions: $\cos z = \frac{1}{2}(e^{iz} + e^{-iz})$, $\sin z = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{iz} e^{-iz})$, $(\sin z)' = \cos z$, $(\cos z)' = -\sin z$, $\sin^2 z + \cos^2 z = 1$ and they are **entire** functions (Note that $\tan z$, $\cot z$, $\sec z$ and $\csc z$ are not entire!)
- Hyperbolic Functions: $\cosh z = \frac{1}{2}(e^z + e^{-z})$, $\sinh z = \frac{1}{2}(e^z e^{-z})$, $(\sinh z)' = \cosh z$, $(\cosh z)' = \sinh z$, $\cosh^2 z \sinh^2 z = 1$ and they are **entire** functions (Note that $\tanh z$, $\coth z$, $\operatorname{sech} z$ and $\operatorname{csch} z$ are not entire!)

Complex Integrals

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz$$

(Note: Orientation Matters!!)

• Integrate by parametrization with a parametrization of $\gamma = z(t), t \in [a, b]$:

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{a}^{b} f(z(t)) \dot{z}(t) dt,$$

where $\dot{z}(t)$ is the derivative of $z(\cdot)$ with respect to t. (If you see functions, e.g., |z|, \bar{z} , or if γ is not closed, then integrate it by parametrization.)



• Cauchy's Integtal Theorem If a function f(z) is Analytic in a Simply Connected Domain D, then for every simply closed path γ in D we have

$$\oint_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$$

(Check Hypotheses carefully!!)



Cauchy's Integral Formulas
 If f(x) is Analytic in a Simply Connected Domain D, then for any point z₀ ∈ D and any counterclockwise oriented simple closed path γ that encloses the point z₀ we have

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



Cauchy's Integral Formulas for derivatives
 If f(x) is Analytic in a Simply Connected Domain D, then
 for any point z₀ ∈ D and any counterclockwise oriented
 simple closed path γ that encloses the point z₀ we have

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

Residue's Theorem

If f(z) is analytic in a simply connected Domain D except for finitely many isolated singularities $z_1, z_2,..., z_n$ and γ is a simple closed path with counterclockwise orientation in D which encloses all the isolated singularities. Then

$$\oint_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^{n} \operatorname{Res}_{z_{k}}(f).$$

(This method will be convenient if you see an isolated singular point which is not a pole, e.g., $\oint_{\gamma} e^{1/z} dz$ where γ is a unit circle; or if you find more than one singularities, e.g., $\oint_{\gamma} \frac{1}{(z-2)(z-3)} dz$ where γ is all z such that |z-2|=2.)

Classification of singularities

We need to classify the singularities, which needs the Laurent Series

Taylor's Series: In a open disk, has no negative powers: **Laurent Series**: In an annulus, possibly has negative powers.

- If it has infinitly many negative power terms, the singularity is essential;
- If it has finitely many negative power terms, the singularity is a pole;
- If it has no negative power term, the singularity is removable.



1 The singularity is a pole, how to identify poles? If

$$f(z)=\frac{p(z)}{q(z)},$$

where q(z) is analytic at z_0 and has a zero of order n at z_0 , p(z) is analytic and non-zero at z_0 , then f(z) has a pole of order n at z_0 .

- simple pole $\operatorname{Res}_{z_0}(f) = \lim_{z \to z_0} (z z_0) f(z)$, or $\operatorname{Res}_{z_0}(f) = \frac{p(z_0)}{q'(z_0)}$
- pole of order n $\operatorname{Res}_{z_0}(f) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} [(z-z_0)^n f(z)].$



- 2 The singularity z_0 is removable, e.g., $\frac{\sin z}{z}$, there is no negative power term $\Rightarrow b_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \operatorname{Res}_{z_0}(f) = 0$.
- 3 The singularity is essensial, e.g., $e^{1/z}$, then you need to write the Laurent Series at z_0 , and collect the coefficient of term $(z-z_0)^{-1}$.

Real Integrals

Example

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

Use Residue integration method to calculate

$$\int_{\gamma \cup [-R,R]} \frac{1}{z^4 + 1} \ dz$$

along the closed curve formed by a semicircle γ above the real axis and the interval [-R, R] on the real axis.

• Use ML-inequality to prove that along the semicircle γ the integral is 0 as $R \to \infty$.

0

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^4 + 1} \ dx = \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{[-R,R]} \frac{1}{z^4 + 1} \ dz = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res } f(z)$$

Bibliography

1 Kreyszig, E. Advanced Engineering Mathematics. Wiley, 9th Edition.