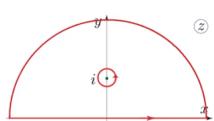


## residue\_theory\_introduction\_1

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 1

### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \arctan x \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} = \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \pi$$

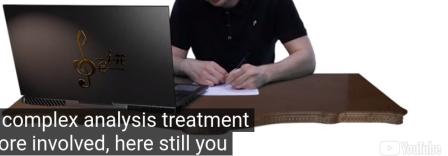


$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1+z^2}$$

$$z = \pm i$$

$$\frac{1}{1+z^2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{z^2}, |z| \rightarrow \infty$$

Well, despite that complex analysis treatment seems to be more involved, here still you



## integration\_with\_residues\_2

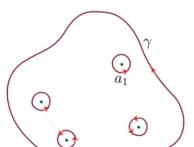
Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 2

### Integration with residues

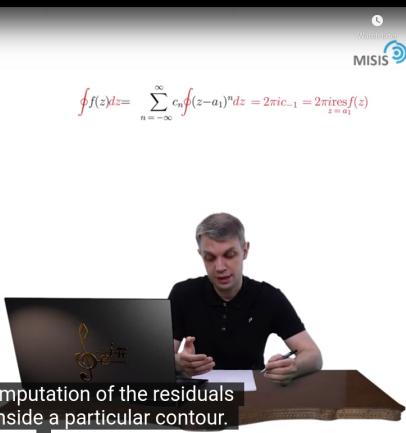
$$f(z) = \dots + \frac{c_{-1}}{(z-z_0)} + \dots$$

$$\text{res } f(z) = c_{-1}$$

$$\oint_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{z_i \in m} \text{res } f(z)$$



integral to the computation of the residuals of the function inside a particular contour.



at plus infinity minus infinity and that means that this arc integral must be equal to zero. So despite the fact that we changed our original integral, our closed contour

integral is equal to the initial integral, and eventually it's reduced to this infinitesimal circle integral round point  $i$  equals  $i$ . That is the amazing consequence of application of Cauchy's integral theorem. And now let's compute this circular integral. As usual,

we introduce the parameterization  $z = i + \varepsilon e^{i\varphi}$ ,  $dz = \varepsilon e^{i\varphi} id\varphi$ . Integrand =  $\frac{dz}{(z+i)(z-i)}$ ,  $\frac{dz}{z-i} = id\varphi$

$$\oint = I \quad z = i + \varepsilon e^{i\varphi} \quad dz = \varepsilon e^{i\varphi} id\varphi$$

$$\text{Integrand} = \frac{dz}{(z+i)(z-i)} \quad \frac{dz}{z-i} = id\varphi$$

$$\oint = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{id\varphi}{2i + \varepsilon e^{i\varphi}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi = \pi$$

$\varepsilon$  is tending to zero so we discard this epsilon term in the denominator and obtain

1/2 of the integral of  $d\varphi$  which is again equal to  $\pi$ .

Well, despite that complex analysis treatment seems to be more involved, here still you can't deny its geometrical beauty. So in our next video I will give you powerful theorems, which will provide you with formidable tools of computing that kind of integrals, and it will eventually automate your procedure of tackling these integrals.

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 2

### Integration with residues

$$f(z) = \dots + \frac{c_{-1}}{(z-z_0)} + \dots$$

$$\text{res } f(z) = c_{-1}$$

$$\oint_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{z_i \in m} \text{res } f(z)$$

$$\oint (z-a)^n dz = \begin{cases} 0, & n \neq -1 \\ 2\pi i, & n = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$z = a + re^{i\varphi}, \quad dz = re^{i\varphi} id\varphi$$

I  $d\varphi$  and obtain  $2\pi i$ . So that completes our proof and now back to the Residual theorem.

## integration\_with\_residues\_1

Well, to prove this elementary property, let us introduce a familiar to us already parametrization

$$z = r + e^{i\varphi} \text{phi}$$

and we see that the integrand is exponential so the antiderivative would be also an exponential function which is periodic. So when you integrate on a segment of  $2\pi$  the difference of antiderivatives will vanish due to the periodicity of the function with the only exception of a single situation, when  $n$  is equal to negative one. Well, in this situation the exponential in the integral disappears: it is turned into unity and in this case we are integrated to  $2\pi i$ .

$i d\varphi$  and obtain  $2\pi i$ . So that completes our proof and now back to the Residual theorem.

Well, suppose we have an arbitrary closed counter gamma, but say in the counterclockwise direction. And let's position some singularities

of our function inside this contour. The main consequence of Cauchy's integral theorem tells

us that we may deform the contour in an arbitrary manner without the integral changing its value,

as long as the deformation doesn't cross the singularities. So what we do: we define this

contour into a combination of infinitesimal circles around each pole connected by straight

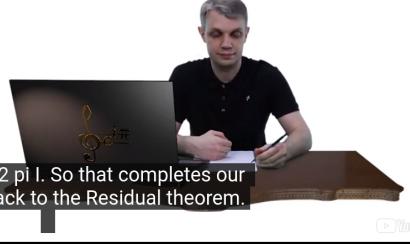
infinity close lines, forming a dumbbell-like shape. Well, first of all, let's address this

linear infinite closed segments of our contour. Well, each pair is passed in opposite directions

and due to the fact that they are infinitely close to each other, these integrals eventually cancel

each other, because the function is essentially the same on both parts of these linear segments,

and the directions are opposite. So this way our original closed contour integral is reduced to



4:58 / 5:25

Speed 1.0x

HD

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## integration\_with\_residues\_3

the residues of our function at point zero and plus minus  $i$ . The residue at point zero is

is equal to 1 while the residuals at points plus minus  $i$  are equal to zero.

Now let's use the Residual theorem to compute the respective integrals the integral over contour  $c$  is

Well, there are no poles inside this contour, so that no residues, and the integral is equal

to zero. Now the integral over contour  $c$  is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the residual of function:

There is only one pole inside this contour point  $i$ ) and the residue is equal to minus one half,

and the integral is equal to minus  $i$ .

Now, the integral over contour  $c$ : now there are two residues inside at point  $-i$  and at point  $+i$

and the integral is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the sum of these two residues,

which is minus one half plus one, and we obtain  $\pi i$ . And finally, the integral over contour  $c_4$ ,

which is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the sum of all three residues, which is one minus one half and

minus one half, and we obtain zero. So this is how residue theory works in most elementary examples.

Well, in our next video we'll introduce a slightly different technique of computing the close contour

integrals – not by the shrinking of the contour, but on the contrary, while expanding them,

and will introduce an important concept of residue of the function at infinity.

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 2

### Integration with residues

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z^2+1)}$$

$$\text{Simple poles: } z = 0, \pm i$$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z} \left( \frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{z+i} \right) \frac{1}{2i}$$

$$= \left( \left( \frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{z} \right) \frac{1}{i} - \left( \frac{1}{z+i} - \frac{1}{z} \right) \frac{1}{i} \right) \frac{1}{2i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{z-i} \frac{1}{z+i} - \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{z+i} \frac{1}{z-i}$$

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

minus one half, and we obtain zero. So this is how residue theory works in most elementary examples.



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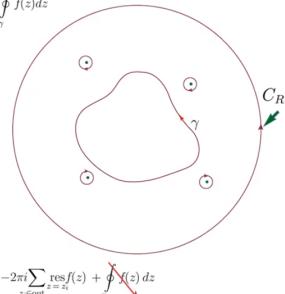
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## Integration with residues

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

## residue\_at\_infinity\_1

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n z^n, \quad z \rightarrow \infty$$

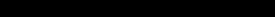
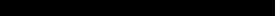
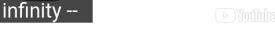
$$\oint \frac{dz}{z} = 2\pi i$$

$$f(z) = c_n z^n + c_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + c_0 + \frac{c_{-1}}{z} + \frac{c_{-2}}{z^2} + \dots$$

$z = \infty$  – pole of order  $n$ .

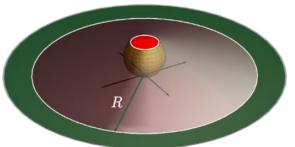
$$-c_{-1} = \text{res}_{z=\infty}$$

this coefficient  $c_{-1}$  with negative sign is called the residual of the function at infinity –



### Riemann\_sphere\_3

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 4  
Riemann sphere



neigh. of  $\infty$ :  $|z|>R$



This way, the Riemann sphere is very useful geometrical object, which is nice to work with,



on the Riemann sphere. But on the other hand the intersection of a plane with a sphere is always a circle. In fact, there is a beautiful demonstration of these observations. Suppose we have a collection of rings made of wire that are positioned on a sphere into second and its north pole as projection lines. You may use an ordinary point-like source of light and here it is.

Now let's talk a little bit more about the similarity of topology of a Riemann sphere and the complex plane. The neighborhood of infinity in the complex plane is understood as an exterior of a circle of radius  $r$ , so the equation is: the modulus of  $z$  is greater than  $r$ . But if you make a projection of this region onto a Riemann sphere, you will immediately see that it is an interior of a circle surrounding the north pole.

All other definitions of limits connectedness are translated onto Riemann sphere without any change. This way, the Riemann sphere is very useful geometrical object, which is nice to work with, when you deal with infinities in a complex plane. Now we won't use it much in our course but in differential geometry or algebraic topology it has many beautiful applications.

### integration\_with\_residues\_1



of  $z^{1/3}$ . And the task is to find the residual at the origin. So obviously point zero is a third order pole. Well, how to see this? The exponential at the origin behaves as one. And to extract the residual we simply perform a Laurent expansion of our exponential in the vicinity of zero, as a reminder we are hiding from over the term in our expansion so we have one plus  $z$  plus  $z^2$  squared over  $z$  factorial and plus so on always  $z$  cubed and we don't need any high order terms because everything is already combined with  $z$  cubed in the denominator. It will give us one over the term in our expansion and we see that the corresponding coefficient a negative one is simply one over two factorial so one half and that's our residual but don't get deceived of course that's our first example and it had to be very simple

but don't get deceived of course that's our first example and it had to be very simple

So the next example our function  $f(z)$  is equal to exponential to the power of  $az^2$ ,

where  $a$  is some parameter, times  $z$  to the power of  $n$ , where  $n$  is some positive integer. And the

goal is to find the residue at infinity. To find the residue at infinity we need to expand this function for large values of  $z$ , so basically we perform  $1/z$  expansion

and this is essentially a Taylor series for our exponential. So we write down the full series, and in this expansion we need only  $1/z$  to the power of  $(n+1)$  term,

because combined with  $z$  to the power of  $n$ , it will give us one over  $z$  term in the expansion, so our coefficient  $c_{-(1)}$  in the Laurent expansion will look like a

to the power of  $n+1$  divided by  $(n+1)!$  and the residual at infinity is minus  $c_{-(1)}$ . And so we get the answer.

The next example function  $f(z)$  equals  $1/(z-1)^2(2z^2+1)$ . And the assignment

is finding the residues of this function at all finite points. The poles quadratically at  $z=1$  and  $z=i$ , and we have the second order zero at  $z=-i$  and two first order zeros  $z=\pm i$ .

And since our denominator is constant, we indeed conclude that  $z=1$  is the second order pole while  $z=\pm i$  are first order poles. First let's find the residue at point  $z=1$ .

So we introduce a change of variables  $z-i+\epsilon$  and we expand our function in epsilon. So  $f(z)$  equals  $1/(z-1)^2(2(z-i+\epsilon)^2+1)$ . And let's rewrite this fraction as  $1/\epsilon^2$  epsilon squared times  $1/(2(z-i+\epsilon)^2+1)$ .

As usual, we are cutting for one over epsilon term, but here we already have two terms. One of them is multiplied by some expression

which is Taylor expanded in epsilon. And what I would argue is that we only need to know

### integration\_with\_residues\_2

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 5

#### Integration with residues

$$f(z) = e^{az/n}, n - \text{natural} \quad \underset{z=\infty}{\text{res } f(z)} = -c_{-1} = -\frac{a^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

$$e^{az/n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n! z^n}$$

$$c_{-1} = \frac{a^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$



that the corresponding coefficient a negative one is simply one over two factorial so one half and it's negative

but don't get deceived of course that's our first example and it had to be very simple

So the next example our function  $f(z)$  is equal to exponential to the power of  $az^2$ ,

where  $a$  is some parameter, times  $z$  to the power of  $n$ , where  $n$  is some positive integer. And the

assignment is to find the residue of this function at infinity. Well, to find the residue at infinity we need to expand this function for large values of  $z$ , so basically we perform  $1/z$  expansion

and this is essentially a Taylor series for our exponential. So we write down the full series,

and in this expansion we need only  $1/z$  to the power of  $(n+1)$  term,

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to the power of  $n+1$  divided by  $(n+1)!$  and the residual at infinity is minus  $c_{-(1)}$ . And so we obtain the answer.

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As usual, we are cutting for one over epsilon term, but here we already have two terms. One of them is multiplied by some expression

which is Taylor expanded in epsilon. And what I would argue is that we only need to know

### integration\_with\_residues\_3



Now let's find the residue at point  $z=1$ . And again as before, we introduce a new variable

$z-i$  equals epsilon and expand in epsilon. So  $f(z+\epsilon)$  equals  $1/(z-i)(z-i-\epsilon)(z-1)^2$

times  $z-1$  plus epsilon times  $z-1$  plus epsilon squared. And then we plug in this change and obtain  $1/(z-1)^2$

times  $2i$  plus epsilon times  $z-1$  plus epsilon squared. And again we have a prefactor

term  $1$  over  $z-1$  times some expression machine with Taylor expanded and epsilon.

And we do the same reasoning as before I want to argue that it's enough to keep only zero order terms in epsilon in this expansion. Why? because if you're negative again it's plus  $b$  epsilon.

Then again we see that this epsilon term is redundant it doesn't contribute anything and goes away.

So we don't need it and that means that we can cross out epsilon in the rest of the terms in the denominator. And we already got our  $c_{-1}$  coefficient, here it is, it's one over two!

times  $i$  minus one squared, now  $i$  minus one squared is equal to minus two  $i$ , and we obtain  $1/4$ .

Now the third residue, I could of course repeat the same procedure for point  $z=i$ .

but here I'd like to show you some workaround. We remember the theorem that the sum of all the

residues of the function including the residual at infinity is equal to zero.

Now we look at this function, what do you think could be residual of this function at infinity?

As you remember, the residual at infinity is given by the asymptotic behavior of our function

at large values of  $z$ . But here the asymptotic behavior is pretty obvious, it's  $1/z$  over  $z$  to the power of four, it decays pretty quickly, it doesn't have one over  $z$  term in its expansion

near infinity. So the residual at infinity is simply equal to zero.

It's clear and that means that the sum of all three remaining residues at point  $1$ ,  $i$  and  $-i$  is equal to zero. We already computed two of these residues, we obtained minus  $1/2$  and  $1/4$ . And so the third residue is  $1/4$ .

#### 2. $z=i$ .

$$z-i = \epsilon$$

$z=1$  (II order),  $z=\pm i$  (I order)

#### 1. $z=1$ .

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)^2(z^2+1)}$$

$z=1$  (II order),  $z=\pm i$  (I order)

$z-1 = \epsilon$

$$f(i+\epsilon) = \frac{1}{(z+i)(z-i)(z-1)^2} = \frac{1}{(2i+\epsilon)(-2i+\epsilon)(z-1)^2}$$

$c_{-1}$ .

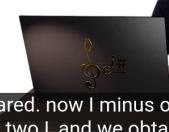
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2(2z+\epsilon^2)} = \frac{1}{z^2} \frac{1}{2z+\epsilon^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2z^2} \frac{1}{1-\frac{\epsilon^2}{2z}} = \frac{1}{2z^2} \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2z} + \dots\right) = \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2z} + \dots$$

$$c_{-1} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\underset{z=i}{\text{res } f(z)} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

times  $i$  minus one squared. now  $i$  minus one squared is equal to minus two  $i$ , and we obtain  $1/4$ .



$$c_{-1} = \frac{1}{2i(i-1)^2}$$

times  $i$  minus one squared, now  $i$  minus one squared is equal to minus two  $i$ , and we obtain  $1/4$ .

Now the third residue, I could of course repeat the same procedure for point  $z=i$ .

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near infinity. So the residual at infinity is simply equal to zero.

It's clear and that means that the sum of all three remaining residues at point  $1$ ,  $i$  and  $-i$  is equal to zero. We already

computed two of these residues, we obtained minus  $1/2$  and  $1/4$ . And so the third residue is  $1/4$ .

## integration\_with\_residues\_4

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 5

### Integration with residues

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)^2(z+1)}$$

$z=1$  (II order),  $z=\pm i$  (I order)

1.  $z=1$ .

$$\text{res}_{z=1} f(z) = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$f(z) \underset{z \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} \frac{1}{z^4}, \quad \text{res}_{z=\infty} f(z) = 0$$

2.  $z=i$ .

$$\text{res}_{z=i} f(z) = \frac{1}{4}$$

computed two of these residues, we obtained minus 1/2 and 1/4. And so the third residue is 1/4.



times 1 minus one squared, now 1 minus one squared is equal to minus two, and we obtain 1/4.  
Now the third residue could of course repeat the same procedure for point  $z=-i$ .  
but here I'd like to show you some workaround. We remember the theorem that the sum of all the residues of the function including the residual at infinity is equal to zero.

Now look at this function: what do you think could be residual of the function at infinity?

As you remember, the residual at infinity is given by the asymptotic behavior of our function

at large values of  $z$ . But here the asymptotic behavior is pretty obvious, it's 1 over  $z^2$ .  
The residual of  $z^2$  decays pretty quickly, it doesn't have one over  $z$  term in its expansion.

near infinity. So the residual at infinity is simply equal to zero, it's clear and that means

that the sum of all three remaining residuals at point 1,  $i$  and  $-i$  is equal to 0. We already

computed two of these residues, we obtained minus 1/2 and 1/4. And so the third residue is 1/4.

And our final example for this lecture: function  $f(z)$  equals  $\cos(i\pi/(z^2+1))^2$ .

As before, the poles are the zeroes of the denominator, there are two of them:  $z=\pm i$   
and they are the second order zeros. And since the nominator doesn't vanish at this point,

then these points are second order poles of this function.

Now let us compute the residual at point  $z=i$ . Again we change the variable  $z$  to  $i+\varepsilon$ .

And here we go,  $i+\varepsilon$  (epsilon) equals to  $\cos(\varepsilon)$  plus  $\sin(\varepsilon)$  over  $z$  plus 1 squared

times  $z$  minus 1 squared. Well,  $z$  minus 1 squared is converted to  $\varepsilon^2$  plus epsilon squared, while  $z^2$  plus 1 squared becomes  $2\varepsilon^2$  plus epsilon squared. Well, we have one epsilon squared term as a pre-factor  
and the remaining expression is cosine of  $i\varepsilon$  plus epsilon divided by  $2\varepsilon^2$  plus epsilon squared.

And we need to Taylor expand this second term and keep only first of the terms in epsilon, so let's do this.  
as you remember from your previous exercise. So let's do this.

## integration\_with\_residues\_5

## integration\_with\_residues\_5

epison squared. Now retaining only first of the terms in denominator we substitute cosine  
of epison with one and sine epsilon with epsilon, and cosine of  $i$  is turned into cosine hyperbolic of 1. And we obtain: 1 plus 1 epison times cosine of 1 minus 1 times epsilon and we obtain: 1 plus 1 epison times cosine of 1 minus 1 times epsilon. And now we need to multiply braces and collect only those terms which contain first powers of epsilon. And here we have 1 epison times cosine hyperbolic of 1 minus 1 times epsilon squared plus 1 epison times sine epsilon of 1 minus 1 times epsilon. Then consider this with one over epsilon squared prefactor we obtain our  $f(z)$  coefficients. It's equal to minus 1/4 times cosine hyperbolic of one minus 1 times epsilon. The difference of these two hyperbolic functions will produce one over 4 minus 1 and this is the residue of our function and point  $i$ . Now the residue at point  $i$  equals negative 1. Well, in principle we could repeat all these computations for this point and I actually strongly advise you to do so just for practice. But to save time again I'll use a workaround as before. Let us look at it: it's an even function of  $z$ . It can't have one over  $z$  terms in its expansion, it only has even powers of  $z$ . So the residual at infinity is automatically zero. And that means that the second residue of our function is simply minus the residue we just obtained, so it's 1 over 4 minus 1. And that completes our practice, so enjoy your homework.

But on the right hand side we'll have  $n$  minus 1 factorial times  $c_{n-1}$  plus  $c_0$  times obviously  $n$  factorial times  $z$  minus  $a$  to the first power, right, and then all the rest of the terms with the raising powers of  $z$  minus  $a$  as you probably observe, we are getting closer to our goal. We need to isolate term  $c_{n-1}(z-a)^n$  and we almost achieved it. And our final step is isolating  $z-a$  in both of this equation. This way we obtain all the terms, which stand to the right of the  $c_{n-1}(z-a)^n$  expression and here it is. This way we obtained the desired formula for our residual: the residual of function  $f(z)$  at point  $a$  equals  $c_{n-1}(z-a)^{n-1}$  derivatives of  $f(z)$  at the end of the calculation. And let's see how this formula is obtained. Our first example would be a function  $f(z) = \cos(z)$  over  $z$  minus one squared plus 1. Well, first of all this function has a second order pole at point  $z=1$ , so let's find the residual at this pole, so we use our formula 1 over 1 factorial which is 1 for the first derivative of  $f(z)$  times  $z$  minus 1 squared. And then we set  $z$  equals 1 at the end of the calculation. So once we plug in the function  $f(z)$ , we immediately note that  $z$  minus 1 squared in denominator and denominator cancel each other, and we are left with the first derivative of cosine of  $z$  at point  $z=1$ , which is minus sine of one. And so we obtain the result: minus sine of one. Quite fast and efficient! Our second example is in fact the same example. From the previous video function  $f(z)$  equals 1 over  $z$  minus 1 squared times  $z$  squared plus 1. And let's find the residue at point  $z=1$  and  $z=1$  equals plus minus 1.

## integration\_with\_residues\_6

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 5

### Integration with residues

$$f(z) = \frac{\cos z}{(z^2+1)^2}$$

$z=\pm i$

means that the second residue of our function

is simply minus the residue we just obtained,  
 $(0) = \dots i\varepsilon \cosh 1 - i\varepsilon \sinh 1 \dots$

$$c_{-1} = -\frac{1}{4} i (\cosh 1 - \sinh 1) = -\frac{i}{4e} = \text{res}_{z=i} f(z)$$



The difference of these two hyperbolic functions will produce one over  $e$ . As the result we obtain

minus 1 over 4 and this is the residue of our function and point  $i$ .

Now the residue at point  $i$  equals negative 1. Well, in principle we could repeat all

these computations for this point and I actually strongly advise you to do so just for practice.

But to save time again I'll use a workaround as before. Let us use a theorem about the sum of the residuals: it should be equal to zero. Well, there are two residues of this function

at finite points,  $z$  equals plus minus  $i$ , and the residual at infinity. The residual at infinity

is zero, because we have the power of the expansion at infinity. But here is our function, look at it: it's an even function of  $z$ . It can't have one over  $z$  terms in its expansion,

it only has even powers of  $z$ . So the residual at infinity is automatically zero. And that

means that the second residue of our function is simply minus the residue we just obtained.

so it's 1 over 4 and this completes our practice, so enjoy your homework.

## general\_formula\_for\_the\_residue\_1

$c_{n-1}(z-a)^{n-1}$ . And its power initially it was minus one but after  $n$  minus one differentiations will become zero. So naturally the first term again will have no  $z$  minus  $a$  power

so let's write it down on the left hand side. We have  $n$  minus 1 derivative.

But on the right hand side we'll have  $n$  minus 1 factorial times  $c_{n-1}$  plus  $c_0$  times obviously  $n$  factorial times  $z$  minus  $a$  to the first power,

right, and then all the rest of the terms with the raising powers of  $z$  minus  $a$  as you probably observe, we are getting closer to our goal. We need to isolate term  $c_{n-1}(z-a)^n$  and we almost

achieved it. And our final step is isolating  $z-a$  in both of this equation. This way we obtain all the terms, which stand to the right of the  $c_{n-1}(z-a)^n$  expression and here it is. This way we obtained the desired formula for our residual: the residual of function  $f(z)$ .

We obtain all the terms, which stand to the right of the  $c_{n-1}(z-a)^n$  expression and here it is. This way we obtained the desired formula for our residual: the residual of function  $f(z)$ .

at point  $z=a$  equals  $c_{n-1}(z-a)^{n-1}$  derivatives so it's 1 over  $n$  minus 1 factorial

$d^n$  minus 1 over  $dz$   $n$  minus 1  $f(z)$  times  $z$  minus  $a$  to the power of  $n$ . And then we take the limit

$$f(z) = \frac{c_{-n}}{(z-a)^n} + \frac{c_{-n+1}}{(z-a)^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{c_{-1}}{z-a} + c_0 + \dots$$

$$\text{res}_{z=a} f(z) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} f(z)(z-a)^n$$

$$(z-a)^n f(z) = c_{-n} + c_{-n+1}(z-a) + c_{-n+2}(z-a)^2 + c_{-n+3}(z-a)^3 + \dots$$

$$+ c_{-1}(z-a)^{n-1} + c_0(z-a)^n + \dots$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} (z-a)^n f(z) = c_{-n+1} + c_{-n+2}2(z-a) + c_{-n+3}3(z-a)^2 + \dots$$

$$+ c_{-1}(n-1)(z-a)^{n-2} + c_0 n(z-a)^{n-1} + \dots$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dz^2} (z-a)^n f(z) = 2c_{-n+2} + 2 \cdot 3c_{-n+3}(z-a) + \dots$$

$$+ c_{-1}(n-2)(z-a)^{n-3} + c_0 n(n-1)(z-a)^{n-2} + \dots$$

$$\frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} (z-a)^n f(z) = (n-1)! \frac{d}{dz} (z-a)^n f(z) = d^n \text{ minus } 1 \text{ over } dz \text{ } n \text{ minus } 1 \text{ } f(z) \text{ times } z \text{ minus } a \text{ to the power of } n. \text{ And then we take the limit}$$

$$\text{MISIS} \quad \text{YouTube} \quad \text{Speed: 1.0x} \quad \text{HD} \quad \text{Exit}$$

5:19 / 12:46

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 6

## Integration with residues

$\text{res } f(z) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \left. \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} f(z)(z-a)^n \right|_{z=a}$

Simple pole:  $\text{res}_{z=a} f(z) = f(z)(z-a) \Big|_{z=a}$

1.  $f(z) = \frac{\cos z}{(z-1)^2}$

$\text{res}_{z=1} f(z) = \frac{1}{1!} \left. \frac{d}{dz} f(z)(z-1)^2 \right|_{z=1} = \left. \frac{d}{dz} \cos z \right|_{z=1} = -\sin 1$

2.  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)^2(z^2+1)}$

$z=1, z=\pm i$

$\text{res}_{z=1} f(z) = \frac{d}{dz} \left. \frac{1}{(z^2+1)(z-1)^2} \right|_{z=1}$

$= -\frac{2z}{(z^2+1)^2} \Big|_{z=1} = -\frac{1}{2}$

**this is precisely our answer which we obtained using the Laurent expansion.**



good time to write down a simplified version of our general formula for a simple pole. Indeed, we see that since  $n=1$ , this formula doesn't require any derivatives at all. So let's write this down. The residual of  $f(z)$  at its arbitrary simple pole  $z=a$  is simply given by the expression:  $f(z)$  times  $z-a$  when  $z$  is tending to  $a$ . And now let's apply this formula here. So we take our function  $f(z)$  and multiply it by  $z-a$ . But before we do this let's expand the denominator:  $z$  squared plus  $1 = z^2 + 1$  plus  $z$  minus  $1$ . And again, as before we have this cancellation:  $z-1$  in the denominator and nominator. And setting  $z$  equals to  $i$  we obtain the final expression for the residual: it's  $\frac{1}{(i-1)^2 2i} = \frac{1}{4}$ . Then  $z-i$  minus  $1$  squared is simply minus  $2i$  and we obtain  $\frac{1}{4}$ . And as you remember this is precisely our answer which we obtained using the Laurent expansion.

And finally the third example:  $f(z)$  is equal to  $1/z^2 + 1/y^3$ . We see that this function has third order poles at points  $z=1, -1$ . So let's find the residue of this function say at point  $z=1$ .

Again, we employ our formula and this time it will require the second order differentiation.

So we have one over two factorial, which is one half, the second derivative of  $1/y^2 + 1/y^3$  multiplied by  $(z-1)^2$ . And as usual it's desirable to expand the function in the denominator and let's do this. So we obtain  $2/y^3 - 3/z^4$  times  $(z-1)^2$ . So  $z$  cubed is cancelled and we are left with the second derivative of  $1/y^3$ . And this derivative is simply  $12/z^5$  and then we set  $z=1$  and obtain the result  $6/25$  which is minus three sixteenths of  $1$ . So now you probably noticed that the main advantage of this formula is that it works so quick.

And as a final remark let's obtain an alternative formula for first order pole. It's also very

8:35 / 12:46

Speed 1.0x HD

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 6

## Integration with residues

$\text{res } f(z) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} f(z)(z-a)^n \Big|_{z=a}$

Simple pole:  $\text{res } f(z) = f(z)(z-a) \Big|_{z=a}$

3.  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z^2+1)^3}$   
 $z = \pm i$  (III order)

$\text{res } f(z) = \frac{1}{2!} \frac{d^2}{dz^2} \frac{1}{(z^2+1)^3} (z-i)^3 \Big|_{z=i}$

$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dz^2} \frac{(z-i)^3}{(z-i)^3 (z+i)^3} \Big|_{z=i}$

and obtain the result: 6 over  $(2i)^5$  which is minus three sixteenths of I. So now you



It's precisely our answer which we obtained using the Laurent expansion.

And finally the third example: f(z) is equal to  $1/(z^2+1)^{1/5}$ . We see that this function has third order poles at points  $z = \pm i$ . So let's find the residue of this function say at point  $z = i$ .

Again, we employ our formula and this time it will require the second order differentiation.

So we have one over two factorial, which is one half, the second derivative of  $1/(z^2+1)^{1/5}$  multiplied by  $(z-i)^3$ . And as usual it's desirable to expand the function in the denominator and let's do this. So we obtain  $(z-i)^3 / (z-i)^3$  times  $(z+i)^3$ . So  $z-i$  is canceled and we are left with the second derivative of 1 over  $(z+i)^5$ .

And this derivative is simply 12 over  $(i)^{16}$  and then we set z=i and obtain the result: 6 over  $(2i)^5$  which is minus three sixteenths of I. So now you

probably noticed that the main advantage of this formula is that it works so quick.

And as a final remark let's obtain an alternative formula for first order poles. It's also very suitable and is used quite often. So suppose our function has a first order pole that means that the function can always be represented as a ratio of two functions. The function in the numerator doesn't have the root at this pole while the function in the denominator has a first order root, like this: f(z) is represented as h(z) over g(z) where h(z) is non-zero while g(z) is zero and the zero is of the first order. Now let's write down the leading Taylor expansions for both of these functions in the vicinity of point z=a. For h(z) function the leading term will be simply h(a) while for g(z) function it will be g'(a)(z-a). And now look at this formula. It's just the leading term of its Laurent expansion near the first order pole z=a, so this way this prefactor h(a) over g'(a) contains

## general\_formula\_for\_the\_residue\_4

integrating\_with\_residuals\_1\_1

Complex Analysis, week 3, Part 7

## Integration with residues

$I = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\varphi}{5 - 3\sin \varphi}$

$z = e^{i\varphi}$

$dz = e^{i\varphi} id\varphi, \quad d\varphi = \frac{dz}{iz}$

$\sin \varphi = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \frac{1}{z})$

$I = \oint f(z) dz, \quad f(z) = -\frac{2}{3z^2 - 10iz - 3}$

$z = 3i, \quad z = \frac{i}{3}$

$f(z) = \frac{h(z)}{g(z)}, \quad \text{res } f(z) = \frac{h(z_0)}{g'(z_0)}$

**equal to  $2\pi i$  times  $1$  over  $4i$  which gives  $\pi/2$ . And that completes our calculation.**

$y$

$x$

$i/3$

$1$

$h(z) = -2, \quad g(z) = 3z^2 - 10iz - 3$

$\text{res}_{z=i/3} f(z) = \frac{-2}{6z-10i} \Big|_{z=i/3} = \frac{1}{4i}$

$I = 2\pi i \frac{1}{4i} = \frac{\pi}{2}$

**YouTube**

Wolfram Alpha

MISIS

Complex plane diagram showing a unit circle centered at the origin, with points  $i/3$  and  $1$  marked on the axes. The function  $h(z) = -2$  and  $g(z) = 3z^2 - 10iz - 3$  are given, along with the residue calculation and the result  $I = \pi/2$ .

regional issue is simply a unit disk. And now let's find the poles of our function which are simply the zeros of our denominator. In denominator we have a quadratic polynomial and its roots are  $z=3i$  and  $z=\frac{i}{3}$ . These are first two roots and that means they are simple poles of our function.

And that means that to compute the residuals of the function it's enough to use a shortcut formula which we discussed in one of our previous lectures. Namely, if a function can be represented as a ratio of two functions  $h$  and  $g$  then the residue of our function at a simple pole is equal to  $h(z_0) / g'(z_0)$ , here our  $h$  function is minus  $2$ , while our  $g$  function is this second order polynomial. This way the residual of our function and point  $z=i/3$  is equal to  $2$  divided by the derivative of our polynomial at a point  $i/3$ .

Take as poles  $z=3i$  and we obtain  $1$  over  $4i$  and as a result our integral is simply equal to  $2\pi i$  times  $1$  over  $4i$  which gives  $\pi/2$ . And that completes our calculation.

Now let's start with the next example. And this time our integration domain is spanning from minus infinity plus infinity of function  $dx$  over  $x$  to the power of  $4$  plus  $1$ , in principle, you can solve this integral using elementary tools of real calculus. But the computation is tedious and a little bit cumbersome. So let's see how things works in the realm of complex analysis.

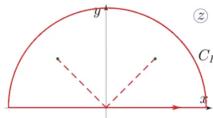
And in complex analysis things work only for closed contour integrals. So we need to close some closure of this contour. And whenever we deal with infinite domain of integration the most often are used closure either upper or lower semiarc. In this case let's opt for upper semicircle. Now let's promote our integrand function into a complex plane  $f(z) = 1$  over  $z$  to the power of  $4$  plus  $1$ , and study this closed contour integral  $\int_C f(z) dz$ , which naturally consists of our initial integral plus the integral along their upper semicircle. And the reason we introduced the upper semicircle is that

## integrating\_with\_residuals\_1\_2

Complex Analysis, week 3, Part 7

### Integration with residues

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



$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^4 + 1}$$

$$\oint f$$

$$z^4 + 1 = 0 \quad z_n = e^{i\pi/4 + i\pi n/2}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$z_1 = e^{i\pi/4}, \quad z_2 = e^{3i\pi/4}$$

$$h(z) = 1, \quad g(z) = z^4 + 1$$

$$\text{res } f(z) = \frac{1}{4z^3}$$

which is pi times sin(pi/4) which yields pi/sqrt(2).  
And that completes our first practice. In



$$\begin{aligned} \text{res}_{\exp(i\pi/4)} f(z) &= \frac{1}{4e^{3i\pi/4}} & \text{res}_{\exp(3i\pi/4)} f(z) &= \frac{1}{4e^{9i\pi/4}} \\ &\downarrow & &\downarrow \\ I &= 2\pi i \left( -\frac{1}{4}e^{i\pi/4} + \frac{1}{4}e^{-i\pi/4} \right) = 2\pi i \left( -\frac{2i\sin(\frac{\pi}{4})}{4} \right) = \pi i \sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$



8:04 / 8:19

## integrating\_with\_residuals\_2\_1

Complex Analysis, week 3, Part 8

### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x-ia} \rightarrow \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R \frac{dx}{x-ia}$$

$$\text{res } f(z) = 1 \quad \oint = 2\pi i \rightarrow I = \pi i, \quad a > 0.$$

$$\oint = 0, \rightarrow I = -\pi i, \quad a < 0$$

$$I = I(a) = \pi i \text{sign } a$$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z-ia}$$

$$f(z) \rightarrow \frac{1}{z}, \quad z \rightarrow \infty$$

$$z = Re^{i\varphi}, \quad dz = Re^{i\varphi}id\varphi, \quad \frac{dz}{z} = id\varphi$$

$$\int_{C_R} = \int_0^\pi id\varphi = i\pi \quad \oint = I + i\pi$$

containing only regular functions you can unleash the whole power of complex analysis in your work.



a month ago my message to you is stay alert in considering this integral. Well the continuation is all material relevant because if it is positive then we have precisely one pole inside our contour and the residual at this point is equal to one. So our closed contour integral in this case is equal to plus pi times i. And our original integral is reduced to minus pi times i. Therefore, our answer for this integral can be expressed by a so-called sign function and we obtain plus pi times sign(a).

So you see here is a nice integral representation of a sign function, and it's very useful in applications because a sign function is aggressively non-analytic. So when you encounter it you can't use complex analysis, but once you substitute it with an integral containing only regular functions you can unleash the whole power of complex analysis in your work.

## Jordans\_lemma\_1

Complex Analysis, Week 3, Part 9

### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\lambda x} g(x) dx$$

$$g(z) \rightarrow 0, \quad |z| \rightarrow \infty$$

Instead:  $g(z) \rightarrow 0, \quad |z| \rightarrow \infty$

Jordan's lemma

$$\text{semicircle for negative lambdas. We will formulate and prove it for the upper semicircle case.}$$



theorem to be practical.  
the integrals along those arcs need to vanish. Naively as we would expect from our previous video this would require the function  $g(z)$  to decay at  $z$  tending to infinity faster than  $1/z$ .

But in reality, this condition can be relaxed and substituted with condition  
of  $g(z)$  simply tending to zero as the modulus of  $z$  tends to infinity.

In fact, the condition is slightly more subtle, but we'll return to this in a minute.

This relaxation is possible due to the presence of the exponential function in our integrand.

Indeed the exponential function is responsible for positive numbers if we go upward in the complex semiplane or negative lambdas if we move downward in the complex semiplane. So the precise statement is known as Jordan's lemma. It is formulated for two types of integrals:

the integral along the upper semi-circle with positive lambdas, and the integral along lower

semicircle for negative lambdas. We will formulate and prove it for the upper semicircle case.

The statement for a lower semicircle is completely symmetric and the proof will be

your homework exercise. And the formulation is as follows:

suppose we have an integral

along the upper semi-circle of radius  $r$  tending to plus infinity and the integrand is of the form

$e^{-\lambda r} \lambda r g(z) dz$ . Now if lambda is positive and the function  $g(z)$  tends to zero uniformly with

respect to its argument as  $r$  tends to infinity, then the whole integral tends to zero.

First of all, I need to clarify what the uniform convergence of  $g(z)$  really means. And in

this context it's equivalent to the following statement. We say that the function tends to

zero uniformly with respect to its argument as the radius of the arc tends to infinity.

Now let's prove the theorem. We need to build an estimate for our integral.

And our first step is the usage of triangle inequality: the modulus of the integral is always

Complex Analysis, Week 3, Part 9

### Integration with residues

Jordan's lemma

$$I_R(\lambda) = \int_{C_R} e^{i\lambda z} g(z) dz \rightarrow 0$$

$$\lambda > 0, \quad g(z) \rightarrow 0, \quad R \rightarrow \infty$$

Uniform convergence of  $g(z)$ .  
(with respect to  $\arg z$ )

$$\max_{z \in C_R} |g(z)| \rightarrow 0$$

Proof

$$|I_R(\lambda)| \leq \int_0^{\pi/2} ||dz|| = \int_0^{\pi/2} |e^{i\lambda R \sin \varphi}| \cdot ||e^{-\lambda R \sin \varphi} g(R \cos \varphi)|| R d\varphi$$

$$z = Re^{i\varphi}, \quad dz = Re^{i\varphi}id\varphi$$

$$|g(z)| \leq \max_{z \in C_R} |g(z)| = M_R \rightarrow 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq 2M_R \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-\lambda R \sin \varphi} d\varphi \leq 2M_R \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-2\lambda R \varphi/\pi} d\varphi = 2M_R \frac{1-e^{-\lambda R}}{2\lambda R} \\ &\sin \varphi \geq 2\varphi/\pi, \quad \varphi \in [0, \pi/2] \\ &e^{-\lambda R \sin \varphi} \leq e^{-\lambda R 2\varphi/\pi} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{\pi M_R (1-e^{-\lambda R})}{\lambda R} \rightarrow 0 \\ &\text{higher than the corresponding line which connects the origin and the point } t \text{ and } \pi/2. \\ &\text{The equation of this line is } 2\varphi/\pi \text{ and this way we obtain a very useful inequality: } \sin \varphi \leq 2\varphi/\pi. \\ &\text{It is always greater than } 2\varphi/\pi \text{ for } \varphi \text{ belonging to the segment from } 0 \text{ to } \pi/2. \\ &\text{Now flipping the sign and exponentiating this inequality, we obtain the crucial inequality: } \\ &\text{for our problem: } e^{-\lambda} \leq \lambda \text{ and } 2\varphi/\pi \text{ and therefore we obtain the next estimate for our integral:} \\ &\text{it's less than } M_R \text{ times } \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-\lambda R 2\varphi/\pi} d\varphi. \\ &\text{And this integral is easily taken with antiderivatives, and the answer is } 1 - e^{-\lambda R}/\lambda. \\ &\text{divided by } (\lambda R)^2 \text{ and we see that large prefactor } R \text{ is compensated by the same large factor in the denominator and obtain our final estimate.} \\ &\text{And as } M_R \text{ tends to zero as } R \text{ tends to infinity the whole integral tends to zero.} \\ &\text{The same statement is true for low arc integrals but for negative lambdas.} \\ &\text{But now let's address some simple example just to see how the theorem works in practice.} \\ &\text{We'll take the following integral from minus infinity to plus infinity: } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda|x|} \alpha(x) dx. \\ &\text{for positive and negative alphas. Let us first consider the case of positive alphas. Our first step is to complete the integration contour and keeping in mind the possible usage of Jordan's lemma let's complete the integration counter with an upper semicircle.} \\ &\text{Now let's promote our integral and into a complex plane and denote it as } f(z). \\ &\text{and separately let's denote our } g(z) \text{ function as } 1/(z+\lambda). \\ &\text{Obviously, our new closed contour integral is equal to our original integral plus this semi-circular arc integral.} \\ &\text{And the integral is precisely of the form which enters the Jordan's lemma:} \\ &\text{our } g(z) \text{ function decays as } 1/z \text{ for large values of } z \text{ and obviously tends to zero independently of its argument: so this part of Jordan's lemma is satisfied.}$$

The same statement is true for low arc integrals but for negative lambdas.

10:45 / 10:01

6:27 / 10:01

### Jordans\_lemma\_3

Complex Analysis, Week 3, Part 9

#### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x+i} dx \quad \text{for } \alpha > 0 \text{ and } \alpha < 0.$$

$\alpha > 0$ .

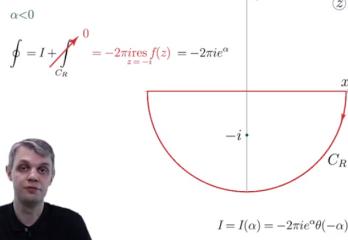
$$f(z) = \frac{e^{iz}}{z+i}$$

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{z+i}$$

$$\oint f(z) dz = I + \oint_{C_R}^0$$

$$g(z) \rightarrow \frac{1}{z} \rightarrow 0, \quad |z| \rightarrow \infty, \quad \text{for any } \arg z$$

$$I = 0, \quad \alpha > 0$$



$$I = I(\alpha) = -2\pi i e^\alpha \theta(-\alpha)$$

of Jordan's lemma. Now next we just will practice more with it and study more interesting examples.

And now we may use Residue theorem; namely, the closed contour integral is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of our function inside this contour. But in this particular case our

contour is passed in negative direction, because as we move along it the region inside stays to our right. And that is why the closed contour integral is equal to actually minus  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of our function inside. So always pay attention to the orientation of your contour!

So we obtain  $-2\pi i$  times the residue of our function  $f(z)$  at point  $z = -i$  and the residue of the function is trivially evaluated and we obtain  $-2\pi i$  times  $e^{-\alpha}$ .

$e^{-\alpha}$ . And this way we completed the computation of our integral.

This answer can be expressed by unit step function, namely,  $-2\pi i$  times  $e^{-\alpha} \Theta(-\alpha)$ .

where theta is a unit step function. So we are done with our first example of the usage

of Jordan's lemma. Now next we just will practice more with it and study more interesting examples.

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 10

#### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos x}{x^2 + a^2} dx, \quad a > 0$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x^2 + a^2} dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-ix}}{x^2 + a^2} dx$$

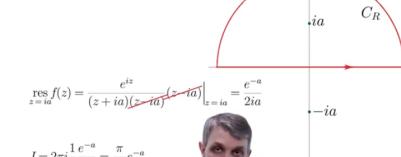
$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x^2 + a^2} (-dx) = \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{e^{ix}}{x^2 + a^2} dx$$

$$I = 2\pi i \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{-a}}{2ia} = \frac{\pi}{2a} e^{-a}$$

$$f(z) = \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2 + a^2}, \quad \lambda = 1, \quad g(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + a^2} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\oint f(z) dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} + \oint_{C_R}^0$$

$z = \pm ia$



be able to close the contour with upper or lower semi-circles. Our next video will be dedicated to

integrand has two simple poles at points  $z = \pm ia$ . Only one of them is inside our contour, namely  $z = -ia$ , so let's compute the residue of our function at that point.

We decompose our denominator into  $(z+ia)(z-ia)$ , so we multiplied by  $z - ia$  and make a cancellation. And in the end we set  $z$  equals to  $ia$  so we obtain  $\langle e^i \rangle a$  over 2.

$i$  is a residue of the function. And finally we have an answer for our integral, it's equal to 2.

plus times 1/a, which comes as a prefactor in front of our integral times our residual

to obtain  $\pi i$  by 2a times  $e^{-a}$ .

Basically, we have two steps here: first we need to decompose our metric function cosine of

size in such a way that the integral contains only single exponential, and second we need to

stretch the contour so it goes from minus infinity to plus infinity.

Only under this condition we'll

be able to close the contour with upper or lower semi-circles. Our next video will be dedicated to

a more interesting example where we'll introduce the concept of principal value integration.

### Jordons\_lemma\_example\_2\_1

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 11

#### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos ax - \cos bx}{x^2} dx \quad I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos ax - \cos bx}{x^2} dx \Big|_{x=0} = (b-a) \frac{\pi}{2}$$

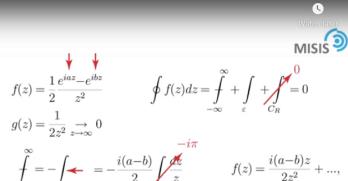
$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{iax} - e^{ibx}}{x^2} dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{iax} - e^{ibx}}{x^2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{iax} - e^{ibx}}{x^2} dx$$

$$\text{Principal value integration}$$

$$\epsilon, \epsilon$$

$$\text{C}_R$$

$$\text{So we may set epsilon equal to 0 and recover our original integral and that completes our example.}$$



$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^{iaz} - e^{ibz}}{z^2}$$

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{2z^2} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} = - \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} = - \frac{i(a-b)}{2} \oint_{C_R}^0$$

$$f(z) = \frac{i(a-b)z}{2z^2} + \dots, \quad z \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{So we may set epsilon equal to 0 and recover our original integral and that completes our example.}$$

$$\text{In our next video we'll consider slightly more interesting example principle value integration.}$$

$$\text{Principal value integration}$$

$$\epsilon, \epsilon$$

$$\text{C}_R$$

$$\text{So we may set epsilon equal to 0 and recover our original integral and that completes our example.}$$

### principle\_value\_integration\_1

this expression is meaningless, because the integration contour passes right through the first order pole of the integrand. But on the other hand,

the integrand is an odd function of  $x$  and the integration domain is symmetric, so there is a temptation to prescribe a zero value to this expression.

That kind of examples provoked the introduction of the so-called Cauchy's principal value of the integral. And it's introduced as follows: we simply split the contour and the singularity.

Then we insert an infinitesimal separation centered at this singularity.

value of this integral is deciphered as the sum of the integrals from  $\epsilon$  to  $1/\epsilon$  plus from  $-1/\epsilon$  to  $-\epsilon$ .

integral from  $\epsilon$  to  $1/\epsilon$  dx, where  $\epsilon$  is the radius of the calculation.

And indeed one obtains logarithm of epsilon for the first integral and logarithm of one over epsilon for the second integral.

epsilon for the second integral. Summing them up we are already obtained zero and of course setting

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Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 12

#### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dx}{x}$$

Cauchy's principal value of an integral

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{dx}{x} = \int_{-1}^{-\epsilon} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{dx}{x} \Big|_{x=-\epsilon} = \ln \epsilon + \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon} = 0$$



$$\text{So we may set epsilon equal to 0 and recover our original integral and that completes our example.}$$

$$\text{In our next video we'll consider slightly more interesting example principle value integration.}$$

$$\text{Principal value integration}$$

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$$\epsilon, \epsilon$$

## principle\_value\_integration\_2

Complex analysis, Week 3, Part 12

### Integration with residues

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ibx}}{x^2 - 1} dx, \quad b < 0$$

Simple poles:  $x = \pm 1$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} = \int_{-\infty}^{-1-\varepsilon} + \int_{-1+\varepsilon}^{1-\varepsilon} + \int_{1+\varepsilon}^{\infty}$$

$$f(z) = \frac{e^{ibz}}{z^2 - 1}$$

$$\oint f(z) dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} + \int_{\varepsilon}^{\infty} + \int_{C_R} + \int_{1+\varepsilon}^{\infty} = 0$$

$$z = -1 + \varepsilon \quad f(-1 + \varepsilon) = \frac{e^{-ib\varepsilon}}{-2\varepsilon} + \dots$$

and we obtain  $\pi i$  times  $\sin b$ . And that's it, that completes our initial discussion of the

$$\int_{\varepsilon}^{-1} = -\frac{1}{2} e^{-ib} \int_{\varepsilon}^{i\pi} \frac{i\pi}{\varepsilon} \quad \varepsilon = |\varepsilon| e^{i\varphi}, \quad \varphi \in [\pi, 2\pi]$$

$$z = 1 + \varepsilon, \quad f(1 + \varepsilon) = \frac{e^{ib}}{2\varepsilon} + \dots$$

$$I = \frac{i\pi}{2} (e^{-ib} - e^{ib}) = \pi \sin b$$

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plus the regular terms. Now the integral is equal to  $-i/2$  times  $e^{ib}$  over  $i\pi$  times the integral of  $d\phi$  over  $\varepsilon$ . This integral is computed by a standard parameterization  $\varepsilon e^{i\phi}$ , where  $\phi$  changes from  $\pi$  to  $2\pi$ . The evaluation is straightforward and we obtain  $i\pi$ , so the integral along the left semicircle is equal to  $-i\pi/2$  times  $e^{ib}$ .

Now the next integral. Again we perform Laurent expansion of our integrand in the vicinity of  $z = 1 + \varepsilon$  and  $z = 1 + i\pi$ . The integral of  $d\phi$  over  $i\pi$  times the integral of  $d\phi$  over  $\varepsilon$  equals zero. The integral along the right semicircle with the same parameterization and naturally yields the same  $i\pi$ . So the second integral is equal to  $i\pi/2$  times  $e^{ib}$ . And as a result, our principal value integral is equal to  $i\pi/2$  times  $e^{ib}$ . And as a result, our principal value integral is reduced to a sine function.

and we obtain  $\pi$  times  $\sin b$ . And that's it, that completes our initial discussion of the

Integration methods of complex analysis. And I hope to see you the next week.



5:51 / 6:03

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