STAT7017 Big Data Statistics

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Lecture 4: 13 August

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Tools for Integration

Working with complex numbers and the sophisticated machinery of <u>contour integration</u> will be needed in this course.

This week we are going to look at this beautiful area of Mathematics.

These tools will be very useful for calculations of the form

$$\int f(x)dF_y(x)$$

where F_y is the MP distribution, for example.

Complex numbers and elementary functions

With $i^2 := -1$, a complex number is an expression of the form z = x + iy. We write Re(z) = x and Im(z) = y.

We can also write complex numbers in Polar form $(r, \theta), x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta, r \ge 0$.

A complex number z can be written

$$z = x + iy = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta) \tag{4.1}$$

The <u>radius</u> $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = |z|$ (aka. <u>modolus</u> of z) and the angle θ is the <u>argument</u> of z, denoted arg z.

When $z \neq 0$, we can find θ by trigonometry

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}.$$

 $\theta = \arg z$ is <u>multivalued</u> as $\tan \theta$ is a periodic function of θ with period π .

Example:
$$z = -1 + i, |z| = r = \sqrt{2}, \theta = \frac{3\pi}{4} + 2n\pi, n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

We can define the (polar) exponential.

$$\cos \theta + i \sin \theta = e^{i\theta} \implies \text{by } (4.1)z = r \cdot e^{i\theta}$$

4-2 Lecture 4: 13 August

Some beautiful formulas:

$$e^{2\pi i} = 1, e^{\pi} = -1, \dots$$

$$e^{i\theta_1}e^{i\theta_2} = e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}, (e^{i\theta})^m = e^{im\theta}, (e^{i\theta})^{1/n} = e^{i\theta/n}$$
(4.2)

The complex conjugate of z is $\bar{z} = x - iy = re^{-i\theta}$.

The usual rules apply:

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

$$z_1 z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2)$$

$$= (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1)$$
(4.3)

Notice that $z\bar{z} = \bar{z}z = (x+iy)(x-iy) = x^2 + y^2 = |z|^2$ so that

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{x_1 + iy_1}{x_2 + iy_2} = \frac{(x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 - iy_2)}{(x_2 + iy_2)(x_2 - iy_2)}
= \frac{(x_1x_2 + y_1y_2) + i(x_2y_1 - x_1y_2)}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}
= \frac{x_1x_2 + y_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} + i\frac{(x_2y_1 - x_1y_2)}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$
(4.4)

We can define same elementary functions of complex argument. The simplest is

$$f(z) = z^n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
, "Power function"

A polynomial of order n:

$$P_n(z) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j z^j = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots + a_n z^n$$
(4.5)

where a_j are complex numbers.

A rational function:

$$R(z) = \frac{P_n(z)}{Q_m(z)}, P_n(z), Q_m(z) \text{ are polynomials.}$$
(4.6)

In general, the function f(z) is complex-valued and can be written

Lecture 4: 13 August 4-3

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

Example:
$$z^2 = (x + iy)^2 = x^2 - y^2 + i2xy$$
 where $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$, $v(x, y) = 2xy$.

We can define the exponential function

$$e^z = e^{x+iy} = e^x e^{iy}$$

and it is easy to show $e^z = e^x(\cos x + i\sin y)$.

$$e^{z_1+z_2}=e^{z_1}e^{z_2}, (e^z)^n=e^{nz}, n=1,2,\dots$$

$$|e^z| = |e^z| |\cos y + i\sin y| = e^x \sqrt{\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y} = e^x$$

$$\overline{(e^z)} = e^{\bar{z}} = e^x(\cos y - i\sin y)$$

Trig functions:

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2i}$$
(4.7)

$$\tan z = \frac{\sin z}{\cos z}$$
, $\cot z = \frac{\cos z}{\sin z}$, $\sec z = \frac{1}{\cos z}$, $\csc z = \frac{1}{\sin z}$.

Hyperbolic functions:

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

Note that

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

$$\cosh iz = \cos z, \ \cos iz = \cosh z$$
(4.8)

Most of the definitions could have been introduced through the concept of power series.

The power series of f(z) around the point $z = z_0$ is

$$f(z) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{j=0}^{n} a_j (z - z_0)^j = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j (z - z_0)^j$$

where a_j, z_0 are constants.

4-4 Lecture 4: 13 August

Remember convergence only occurs within some radius, i.e., within some circle $|z - z_0| = R$

$$R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|$$

We have the power series representations:

$$e^{z} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{j}}{j!},$$

$$\sin z = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{j} z^{2j+1}}{(2j+1)!},$$

$$\cos z = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{j} z^{2j}}{(2j)!},$$

$$\sinh z = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2j+1}}{(2j+1)!},$$

$$\cosh z = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2j}}{(2j)!}.$$

Let f(z) be defined in some region R containing the neighbourhood of a point z_0 . The <u>derivative</u> of f(z) at $z=z_0$, denoted by $f'(z_0)$ or $\frac{d}{dz}f(z_0)$ is defined by

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \left(\frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z} \right).$$

provided the limit exists. Alternatively, writing $\Delta z = z - z_0$.

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}.$$

<u>Caution</u>: A continuous function is not necessarily differentiable as complex functions have a two-dimensional character.

For example, $f(z) = \bar{z}$.

$$\lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{\overline{(z_0 + \Delta z)} - \overline{z_0}}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} \frac{\overline{\Delta z}}{\Delta z} = 0$$

and a unique value for c cannot be found!

NOT DIFFERENTIABLE!

Differentiable complex functions are called <u>analytic</u>.

If f and g have derivatives:

Lecture 4: 13 August 4-5

$$(f+g)' = f' + g', (fg)' = f'g + g'f$$

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = (f'g - fg')/g^2(g \neq 0)$$
(4.9)

If f'(g(z)) and g'(z) exist, then

$$[f(g(z))]' = f'(g(z))g'(z)$$

Since $\frac{(z+\Delta z)^n-z^n}{\Delta z}=nz^{n-1}+a_1z^{n-2}\Delta z+a_2z^{n-3}(\Delta z)^2+\cdots+(\Delta z)^n\to nz^{n-1}$ as $\Delta z\to 0$, where a_j are binomial coefficients of $(a+b)^n$.

We have $\frac{d}{dz}(z^n) = nz^{n-1}$.

If follows(formally) that

$$\frac{d}{dz}\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}a_nz^n\right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}na_nz^{n-1} \text{ inside radius of convergence}$$

Writing f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y),

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \left(\frac{u(x + \Delta x, y) - u(x, y)}{\Delta x} + i \frac{v(x + \Delta x, y) - v(x, y)}{\Delta x} \right)$$

$$= u_x(x, y) + i v_x(x, y)$$

$$u_x := \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, v_x := \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \left(\frac{u(x, y + \Delta y) - u(x, y)}{i \Delta y} + i \frac{v(x, y + \Delta y) - v(x, y)}{i \Delta y} \right)$$

$$= -i u_y(x, y) + v_y(x, y)$$

$$(4.10)$$

Hence, equating these two expressions we have the Cauchy-Riemann equations:

$$u_x = v_y, v_x = -u_y$$

that are necessarily satisfied if f(z) is differentiable.

Theorem 4.1 The function f(z) = u(x,y) + iv(x,y) is differentiable at a point z = x + iy of a region in the complex plane if and only if u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y are continuous and satisfy the Cauchy Riemann equations.

We shall now look at how to evaluate integrals of complex-valued functions along curves in the complex plane.

First, consider the case of the complex-valued function f of the real variable t, on the interval $a \le t \le b$.

$$f(t) = u(t) + iv(t)$$

4-6 Lecture 4: 13 August

We say that f is integrable if u&v are integrable, then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt = \int_{a}^{b} u(t)dt + i \int_{a}^{b} v(t)dt.$$

Usual rules apply:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{a}^{t} f(t)dt = f(t) \ text"fundamental theorem of calculus"$$

and if f'(t) is continuous, $\int_a^b f'(t)dt = f(b) - f(a)$.

Integration along a curve

A curve in $\mathbb C$ can be described by the parametrization

$$z(t) = x(t) + iy(t), a \le t \le b.$$

A curve c is called <u>simple</u> if it does not intersect itself. It is called <u>differentiable</u> curve if z'(t) = x'(t) + iy'(t) is non-null.

A piecewise differentiable curve (or path) is obtained by joining a finite number of differentiable curves.

Let C be a path, we call it <u>closed</u> if z(a) = z(b).

A closed path is also called a <u>contour</u>.

Example: The unit circle in \mathbb{C} is a contour and is parametrized by $z(t) = e^{it}, 0 \le t \le 2\pi$.

The <u>contour integral</u> of a piecewise continuous function on a <u>smooth contour</u> (i.e. differentiable) is defined to be

$$\int_C f(z)dz := \int_a^b f(z(t))z'(t)dt.$$

Note that $dz \approx z'(t)dt$.

Usual properties apply:

$$\int_C [\alpha f(z) + \beta y g(z)] dz = \alpha \int_C f(z) dz + \beta \int_C g(z) dz.$$

If we traverse the contour in the opposite direction (i.e. form t = b to t = a) then this is denoted -C and

$$\int_{-C} f(z)dz = -\int_{C} f(z)dz.$$

And if $C = C_1 \cup C_2 \cup C_3 \cup \cdots \cup C_n$, then

Lecture 4: 13 August 4-7

$$\int_C f = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{C_j} f.$$

From the fundamental theorem of calculus we get:

Theorem 4.2 Suppose F(z) is an analytic function such that f(z) = F'(z) is continuous in a domain \mathcal{D} . Then for the contour C lying in \mathcal{D} with endpoints z_1 and z_2

$$\int_C f(z)dz = F(z_2) - F(z_1).$$

Proof:

$$\int_{C} f(z)dz = \int_{C} F'(z)dz = \int_{a}^{b} F'(z(t))z'(t)dt
= \int_{a}^{b} \frac{d}{dt} [F(z(t))]dt = F(z(b)) - F(z(a)) = F(z_{2}) - F(z_{1}).$$
(4.11)
$$\text{Note:} z(a) = z_{1}, z(b) = z_{2}.$$

Q: What happens if C is a <u>closed contour</u>?

$$\oint_C f(z)dz = \int_C F'(z)dz = 0$$

" ϕ " denotes integration along a closed contour C.

Notice that this holds for any closed contour C. So this integral is independent of the path.

Theorem 4.3 Let f(z) be analytic interior to and on a simple closed contour C. Then at any interior point z

$$f(Z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi.$$

This is the Cauchy integral formula.

"The function f is completely determined by the points $z \in C$ "

Further, we can also say something about all the derivatives of f.

Theorem 4.4 If f(z) is analytic interior to and on a simple closed contour C, then all the derivatives $f^{(k)}(z), k = 1, 2, \ldots$ exist in the domain \mathcal{D} interior to C and

$$f^{(k)}(z) = \frac{k!}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{k+1}} d\xi.$$