

Lecture Notes on Complex Analysis

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Instruction to Student/Tutor: If any part of this note appears difficult, a student may avoid that topic in the first-reading. We prefer to keep such advanced topics for the students preparing for competitive exams like JAM, JEST, NET, etc.

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1 Course Overview

1.1 Course Structure

• Unit 1:

Complex Analysis: Brief Revision of Complex Numbers and their Graphical Representation. Euler's formula, De Moivre's theorem, Roots of Complex Numbers. Functions of Complex Variables. Analyticity and Cauchy-Riemann Conditions. Examples of analytic functions.

• Unit 2:

Singular functions: poles and branch points, order of singularity, branch cuts. Integration of a function of a complex variable. Cauchy Inequality. Cauchy Integral formula. Simply and multiply connected region. Laurent and Taylor expansion.

• Unit 3:

Residues at simple pole, Residue at a pole of order greater than unity, Residue at infinity, Cauchy Residue Theorem, Application in solving Definite Integrals.

2 Complex Number & its properties

2.1 Some examples of different types of numbers

- Natural Number: $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4...\}$
- Whole Number: $\mathbb{W} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4...\}$, i.e., $\mathbb{W} = \{0, \mathbb{N}\}$
- Integers: $\mathbb{Z} = \{\cdots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 \dots\}$, i.e., $\mathbb{Z} = \{-\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{W}\}$
- Rational Number $(\mathbb{Q} = \frac{p}{q} \text{ with } p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0)$: $\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{6}{7}, \frac{2}{3}, 2.25, \pi \dots, \mathbb{Z} \}$
- Irrational Number $(\mathbb{Q}' \neq \frac{p}{q})$: $\mathbb{Q}' = \{\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{7}, 3\pi, \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\dots\}$
- Pure Real Number ($\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{Q} \cup \mathbb{Q}'$): $\mathbb{R} = \{1, 2.5, 3/2, \sqrt{2}, 4.07, \pi, e, 7e \dots \}$
- Complex Number: $\mathbb{C} = \{3 + 4i, -3 + 4i, -3 4i, 3 4i\}$

2.2 Complex Numbers and their Properties

The complex number (z) and its conjugate (\bar{z}) is defined as,

$$z = a + ib$$

$$\bar{z} = a - ib,$$
(2.1)

where

$$i = \sqrt{-1} \tag{2.2}$$

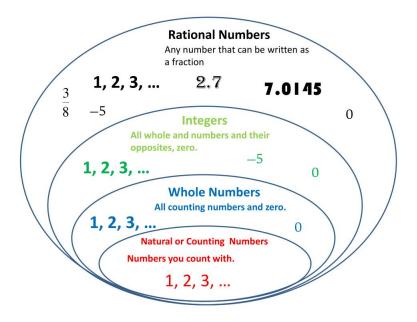
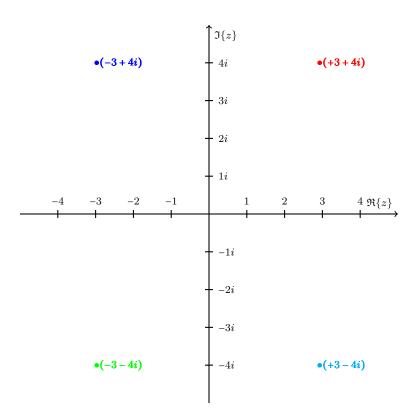


Figure 1: Set of different types of numbers: $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{W} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$ (with $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{Q} \cup \mathbb{Q}'$, Not shown)

with and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, respectively. Then it follows that,

$$a = \Re\{z\} = \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z})$$

$$b = \Im\{z\} = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \bar{z})$$
(2.3)



- The algebraic operation of complex number gives a complex number. Let $z_1 = a_1 + ib_1, z_2 = a_2 + ib_2$ $(z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C} \text{ with } \in a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{R})$
 - i) Addition:

$$z_1 + z_2 = (a_1 + ib_1) + (a_2 + ib_2)$$

= $(a_1 + a_2) + i(b_1 + b_2) \in \mathbb{Z}$ (2.4a)

- ii) Substraction:

$$z_1 - z_2 = (a_1 + ib_1) - (a_2 + ib_2)$$

= $(a_1 - a_2) - i(b_2 - b_1) \in \mathbb{Z}$ (2.4b)

- iii) Multiplication:

$$z_1 z_2 = (a_1 + ib_1)(a_2 + ib_2)$$

= $(a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2) + i(a_1 b_2 + b_1 a_2) \in \mathbb{Z}$ (2.4c)

- iv) Division:

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{a_1 + ib_1}{a_2 + ib_2}
= \frac{a_1a_2 + b_1b_2}{a_2^2 + b_2^2} - i\frac{a_1b_2 - b_1a_2}{a_2^2 + b_2^2} \in \mathbb{Z}$$
(2.4d)

- Property VII: Apart from above properties, it holds following properties:
 - i) Commutative law for addition (multiplication): $z_1 + z_2 = z_2 + z_1$ $(z_1 \cdot z_2 = z_2 \cdot z_1)$
 - ii) Associative law for addition (multiplication): $z_1 + (z_2 + z_3) = (z_1 + z_2) + z_3 (z_1 \cdot (z_2 \cdot z_3) = (z_1 \cdot z_2) \cdot z_3)$
 - iii) Distributive law for multiplication: $z_1 \cdot (z_2 + z_3) = (z_1 \cdot z_2 + z_1 \cdot z_3)$
 - iv) Existence of Additive Inverse (Multiplicative Inverse): z + (-z) = 0 ($z \cdot z^{-1} = 1$)
 - vi) Existence of Additive Identity (Multiplicative Identity): z + 0 = z ($z \cdot 1 = z$)

2.3 Polar Representation of Complex Number

• Modulus and Argument: The rectangular or cartesian form of a complex number can be also expressed in the polar (trigonometric) form shown in Fig.4:,

$$z = re^{\theta} \tag{2.5}$$

The *Modulus* and *Argument* of the complex number are given by

$$Mod(z) = |z| = r \tag{2.6a}$$

$$arg(z) = \theta = \tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x} \tag{2.6b}$$

It is important to note that by replacing $\theta \to \theta + 2\pi k$ (k = 0, 1, 2, ..., n - 1), Eq.((2.6b)) retains its value. This indicates that a complex number is indeed a multi-valued function.

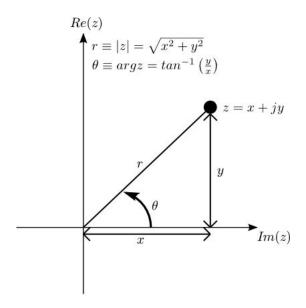


Figure 3: Polar representation of a complex number

• Property of Modulus (Triangular Inequality):

$$i) |z_{1} \cdot z_{2}| = |z_{1}| \cdot |z_{2}|$$

$$ii) |\frac{z_{1}}{z_{2}}| = \frac{|z_{1}|}{|z_{2}|}$$

$$iii) |z_{1} + z_{2}| \le |z_{1}| + |z_{2}|$$

$$iv) |z_{1} + z_{2}|^{2} \le (|z_{1}| + |z_{2}|)^{2}$$

$$v) ||z_{1}| - |z_{2}|| \le |z_{1}| + |z_{2}|$$

$$vi) |z_{1} - z_{2}| \ge ||z_{1}| - |z_{2}||$$

$$(2.7)$$

• Property of argument:

i)
$$arg(z_1z_2) = arg(z_1) + arg(z_2)$$

ii) $arg(\frac{z_1}{z_2}) = arg(z_1) - arg(z_2)$ (2.8)

2.4 *n*-th Root, *n*-th Power and logarithm of a complex number

The cartesian representation of a complex number can be also expressed in planer polar form,

$$z = re^{i\frac{\theta}{n}} \tag{2.9}$$

Below we discuss i) n-th root, ii) Power and iii) logarithm of a complex number:

• *n*-th root of a complex number:

The n-th root of a complex number is given by,

$$z^{\frac{1}{n}} = r^{\frac{1}{n}} e^{i\frac{\theta}{n}} \quad \forall n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

$$= r^{\frac{1}{n}} e^{\frac{\Theta + 2\pi k}{n}}, \quad \forall k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm n - 1$$

$$= r^{\frac{1}{n}} \left(\cos\frac{\Theta \pm 2\pi k}{n} + i\sin\frac{\Theta + 2\pi k}{n}\right)$$

$$= r^{\frac{1}{n}} \left(\cos\frac{Arg(z) \pm 2\pi k}{n} + i\sin\frac{Arg(z) + 2\pi k}{n}\right)$$

$$= r^{\frac{1}{n}} \left(\cos\frac{arg(z)}{n} + i\sin\frac{arg(z)}{n}\right)$$
(2.13)

Thus we note that the the complex number is a multi-valued function because of different values of $\{k, n\}$.

• Relation between 'Principal Argument' and 'argument' of the complex number:

From above we obtain the argument and its relation with Principal Argument defined by,

$$\theta = \Theta \pm 2\pi k \quad i.e.,$$

$$arg(z) = Arg(z) \pm 2\pi k$$
(2.10)

Here, arg(z) is measured from the positive direction of x-axis and therefore have the range: $0 \le arg(z) \le 2\pi$, while Arg(z) is measured from the minimum distance from the positive direction of x-axis and hence the range: $-\pi \le Arg(z) \le \pi$. Figure illustrated below the key difference of argument and Argument.

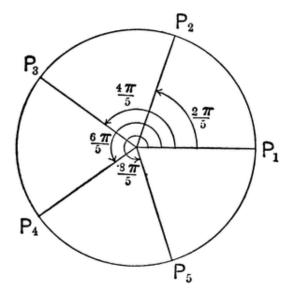


Figure 4: Representation of arg(z) which lies between $0 \le arg(z) \le 2\pi$

• Primitive of the complex number:

The Primitive of a complex number is the n-th root defined on a unit circle i.e., $z^n=1$ with r=1

Quadrant	Sign of x & y	Arg(z)
I	x, y>0	$\tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x}$
II	x<0, y>0	$\pi - \tan^{-1} \left \frac{y}{x} \right $
III	x, y < 0	$-\pi + \tan^{-1} \left \frac{y}{x} \right $
IV	x>0, y<0	$-\tan^{-1}\left \frac{y}{x}\right $

Figure 5: Table of Arg(z) which lies between $0 \le Arg(z) \le \pi$

and $\theta = 2\pi$. Thus we have,

$$z^{n} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow z = e^{i\frac{2\pi}{n}}$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \cos\frac{2\pi}{n} + i\sin\frac{2\pi}{n},$$
(2.11)

Thus it follows that for $n=1,2,3,\ldots$, we have $z^1=1,\ z^2=-1,\ z^3=-\frac{1}{2}+i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ etc. This establishes that a complex function is a muti-valued function.

• *n*-th power of the complex number:

From above, the *n*-th power of the complex number is given by,

$$z^{n} = r^{n} e^{n\theta},$$

$$= r^{n} (\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta) \quad 0 \neq \theta \neq 2\pi$$
(2.12)

where the De Moivre's theorem ¹ is used. Thus in planer polar coordinate, we have

$$\cos \theta = \Re\{z\} = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{z})$$

$$\sin \theta = \Im\{z\} = \frac{1}{2i}(1 - \frac{1}{z})$$
(2.13)

2.5 Logarithm of a Complex Number:

• Principal Value of Logarithm:

The Principal Value of Logarithm log(z) is given by,

$$z = re^{i\theta}$$

$$\Rightarrow a + ib = |z|e^{i\theta}$$

$$\Rightarrow log(a + ib) = log |z| + i\theta$$

$$= log[\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}] + i tan^{-1} \frac{x}{y}$$

$$= log[Mod(z)] + iarg(z)$$

$$= log[Mod(z)] + iArg(z) + 2\pi ik \quad (0 \le arg(z) \le 2\pi)$$
(2.14)

For example, De Moivre's theorem gives: i) $Arg(i) = \frac{\pi}{2}$, ii) $Arg(-i) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$, ii) $Arg(-1) = \pi$ etc.

• Generalized Value of Logarithm

The Generalized Value of Logarithm (Log(z) is defined by n = 0 in Eq.(2.16),

$$a + ib = re^{i\theta}$$

$$\Rightarrow Log(a + ib) = Log[Mod(z)] + i\Theta \quad \text{where} \quad k = 0$$

$$= Log[Mod(z)] + iArg(z) - \pi \le Arg(z) \le \pi$$
(2.15)

From (2.13) and (2.14) it follows that Log|z| = log|z|, then the Principal and Generalized values of logarithm are related by,

$$log(z) = Log(z) + i2\pi n \quad \forall \quad n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$
 (2.16)

• Properties of logarithm of a complex number:

$$i) \log(z_1 z_2) = \log z_1 + \log z_2$$
 (2.17a)

$$ii)\log(\frac{z_1}{z_2}) = \log z_1 - \log z_2$$
 (2.17b)

$$iii) \log z_1 \log z_2 \neq Log z_1 Log z_2 \tag{2.17c}$$

• Complex Number Primer: Some properties of complex numbers

3 Differential Calculus on a Complex Plane

3.1 Analytic Function - Cauchy-Riemann (CR) relation

Consider the following mapping from z-plane to w-plane, i.e., w = f(z), A complex function defined on a

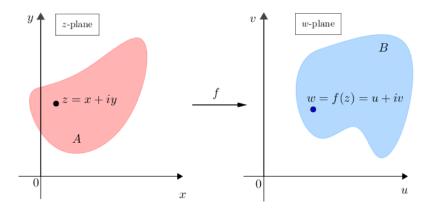


Figure 6: : Mapping of a complex function

complex plane (w-plane) is said to be analytic if it is differentiable, i.e.,

$$w' = \frac{\partial f(z)}{\partial z},$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta z \to \infty} \frac{f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)}{\Delta z}.$$
(3.1)

Now recalling that,

$$f(z) = \Delta u + i\Delta v,$$

$$\Delta f = \Delta u + i\Delta v,$$

$$z = x + iy,$$

$$\Delta z = \Delta x + i\Delta y,$$
(3.2)

Eq.(??) can be written as as

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

$$= \lim_{\Delta x \to 0, \Delta y \to 0} \frac{\Delta u(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - \Delta u(x, y) - i(\Delta v(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y - \Delta v(x, y))}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} \tag{3.3}$$

Now the limiting value can be achieved in two possible routes: Firstly, if we approaching along real axis (X-axis), i.e.,

Route I: $\Delta x \rightarrow 0, \Delta y = 0$

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

$$= \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{(\Delta u(x + \Delta x, y - \Delta u(x, y))}{\Delta x} + i \lim_{\Delta x \to \infty} \frac{(\Delta v(x + \Delta x, y - \Delta v(x, y)))}{\Delta x}$$

$$= \frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v(x, y)}{\partial x}$$
(3.4)

Or otherwise, i.e., if we move along the imaginary axis (Y-axis):

Route II: For $\Delta x = 0, \Delta y \to 0$, proceeding in the similar manner we obtain,

$$\frac{\partial f(z)}{\partial z} = -i\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial y} + i\frac{\partial v(x,y)}{\partial y}$$
(3.5)

Comparing the real and imaginary part of Eqs.(3.4) and (3.5), we obtain well known Cauchy-Riemann (CR) relation,

$$\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v(x,y)}{\partial y}
\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v(x,y)}{\partial x}.$$
(3.6)

which gives sufficient condition of analyticity of a function $f(z) \in \mathbb{C}$. The above two relation can be combined to write as,

$$\frac{\partial f(z,\bar{z})}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0 = \frac{\partial f(z,\bar{z})}{\partial z}.$$
 (3.7)

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} &= \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} &= \frac{\partial x}{\partial \bar{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial \bar{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \end{split}$$

²Using the fact that, $x = \frac{1}{2}(z + \overline{z})$ and $y = \frac{1}{2i}(z - i\overline{z})$,

In the plane polar coordinate, by noting the fact that, $x = r \cos \theta$ and $x = r \sin \theta$ and the chain rules, $\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}$ and $\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta}$, the C-R relation can be expressed as,

$$\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v(x,y)}{\partial \theta}$$

$$\frac{\partial v(x,y)}{\partial r} = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial \theta}.$$
(3.8)

Furthermore, from Eq.(??) it follows that any complex function $\phi(x,y)$ (= u(x,y)+iv(x,y)) which satisfies the second order Laplace equation, i.e.,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi(x,y)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi(x,y)}{\partial y^2} = 0, \tag{3.9}$$

which is called *Harmonic function*. In complex notation it can be equivalently written as

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi(z, \bar{z})}{\partial z \partial \bar{z}} = 0. \tag{3.10}$$

Finally we mention that if a function f(z) in a domain \mathfrak{D} is said to be a holomorphic function if it is analytic in that domain.

4 Series and sequence in a Complex Plane

4.1 Series and its convergence

A series is an infinite sum of complex number of definite order in a given domain \mathfrak{D} . For example,

$$S(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n + \dots$$

= 1 + z + z² + z³ + \dots + zⁿ (4.1)

In more general footing, it can be written as,

$$S(z) = a_1(z) + a_2(z) + \dots + a_n(z) + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(z)$$
(4.2)

The convergence of a monotonically decreasing series requires $a_{n+1}(z) < a_n(z)$ for which,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n(z) = 0 \tag{4.3}$$

and there exists an upper bound M such that $|a_n(z)| < M$. The necessary and sufficient condition for convergence defined as

$$|a_m(z) - a_n(z)| < \epsilon \quad \text{for} \quad m, n \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 (4.4)

There exists several tests for the convergence of a complex series:

Ratio Test:

The *Ratio Test* is a very popular test by which the convergence of a complex series can be tested very conclusively. To do that we define,

$$\left|\frac{z_m}{z_n}\right| = R,\tag{4.5}$$

- If R > 1, the series id said to *Divergent*.
- If R < 1, the series id said to Convergent.
- If R = 1, no consequence can be drawn.

This condition is often referred as $Cauchy\ Convergence\ Condition$. Apart from that there exists other tests like, Root Test, Raabe Test, Weierstrass M-test etc.

4.2 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

If a function f(z) is analytic on $|z-z_0| < R$, then the complex Taylor series is defined as,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (z - z_0)^n a_n \quad \left(wherea_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(z)}{n!} \right)$$

$$= f(z_0) + (z - z_0)f'(z_0) + (z - z_0)^2 \frac{f''(z_0)}{2!} + \dots + (z - z_0)^n \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!}$$
(4.6)

If the series is defined at z = 0, i.e., $f(z_0) = f(0)$ in every term, then it is called complex Maclaurin Series.

4.3 Laurent Series

If a function w = f(z) is analytic for all $R_1 \le |z - z_0| \le R_2$, then

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{-k}}{(z - z_0)^k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k (z - z_0)^k.$$
(4.7)

The singular part $\{a_{-k}\}$ of the series is called *Principal part*, while remaining one is called *Analytic Part*. The coefficients of the series is given by

$$a_{-k} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma_1} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{k+1}} \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, 2, \dots n$$
 (4.8a)

$$b_k = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma_2} dz f(z) (z - z_0)^k \quad \text{for} \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots n$$
 (4.8b)

A *Meromorphic Function* is a function which is analytic everywhere in the complex plane except at a finite number of poles, while an *entire function* is analytic throughout the entire complex plane.

5 Integral Calculus on a Complex Plane

5.1 Jordan and Non-Jordan Curve

The Contour Integration of a complex function w = f(z) is a one dimensional line integral carried out along a fixed path having definite orientation. Broadly speaking the curves can be classified into two categories:

- Closed Contour: A Closed Contour is a curve which is parameterized as $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $b \le t \le a$ and t(a) = t(b). A closed curve is said to be a Simple Contour if it has different value inside and outside. Simple Closed Contour is also referred as Jordan curve.
- Open Contour: A *Open Contour* is a curve which is parameterized as $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $b \le t \le a$ and $t(a) \ne t(b)$.

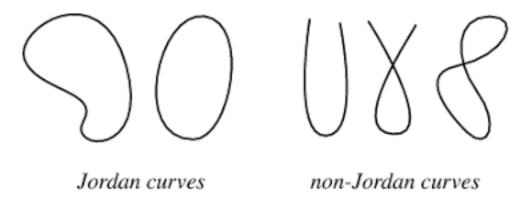


Figure 7: Jordan and Non-Jardon curves

The Jordan Curves may be either Simply Connected Curve or Multiply Connected Curve shown below:

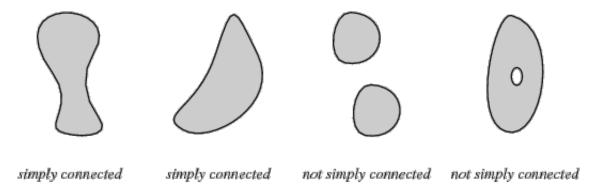


Figure 8: Simply Connected and Non-Simply (Multiply) Connected Curve

5.2 Various curves and their representations

Different types of Jodan (Simple) curves:

a) Circle with centre at origin (z = 0): $z(t) := re^{it}$ with $[t \in [0, 2\pi]]$.

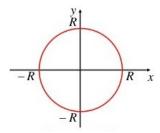


Figure 9: Circle with centre at z = 0 with radius R

b) Circle with centre at shifted origin $(z = z_0)$: $z(t) := z_0 r e^{it}$ with $[t \in [0, 2\pi]]$.

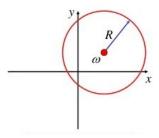


Figure 10: Circle with centre at z = 0 with radius R

c) Semi-circle with centre at origin (z = 0): $\gamma(t) := re^{it}$ with $([t \in [0, \pi])$.

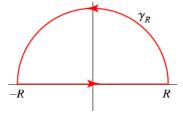


Figure 11: Half-circle with centre at $z = z_0$

d) Circle with centre at origin (z = 0): $\gamma(t) := re^{it/2}$ with $([t \in [0, 2\pi])$ with branch cut $(0, \infty]$.

5.3 Zeros, Singularity, Branch Point and Branch Cut

A complex function f(z) by construction is a multi-valued function. If such a function is not analytic (i.e., not differentiable) at any point (or multiple number of points), but blows to infinity, then the point is said to be the $Singular\ Point$ and the function is called $Singular\ Function$.

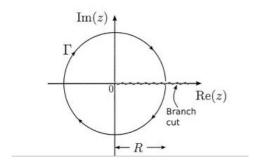


Figure 12: Circle with centre at $z = z_0$ with branch cut along positive x axis

- Zero and Order of a Function: A function f(z) is said to have a Zero value if it vanishes at any point (or points). Furthermore, if the derivative of the function is not equal to zero at a given order (say, $f^{(n)} \neq 0$), it is called order of zero of that function. Example: The function $f(z) = \frac{z-2}{7} \sin \frac{1}{z-1}$ vanishes at z = 2 and $z = 1 + \frac{1}{n\pi}$ with $n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ So it has multiple number of zeros.
- Regular Point: A function f(z) is said to have an Regular Point if the function is analytic at that point. Example: $f(z) = x^7$
- Isolated Singularity: A function f(z) is said to have an Isolated Singularity (also called Singular Point), if there exists a point $z = z_0$ such that $z_0 \epsilon \le z_0 \le z_0 + \epsilon$ where ϵ be a small real number. Example: The function $f(z) = 1/(z z_0)$ has a isolated singularity a $z = z_0$
- Non-isolated Singularity: A function f(z) is said to have Non-isolated Singularity if any function nearby of it within range $|z z_0| < \epsilon$ is also singular. Example: f(z) = L(z)
- Removable Singularity: If the limit of a function exists at a point and the function has a finite value at that point, then the point is said to be Removal Singularity. Example: $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z}$ has removal singularity at $z = z_0$.
- Simple Pole: The type of singularity is called Simple Pole which has order 0, if $\lim_{z\to z_0} f(z)(z-z_0)^n$ has a non-zero and finite value. Example: The function $f(z) = 1/(z-z_0)$ has simple pole (pole of order n=0) at $z=z_0$.
- Pole of order n: The type of singularity at any point $z = z_0$ is a pole of order n, if $\lim_{z\to z_0} f(z)(z-z_0)^n$ has a non-zero and finite value. Example: The function $f(z) = 1/(z-z_0)^4$ has pole of order n = 4 at $z = z_0$.
- Meromorphic Function: A Meromorphic function is analytic everywhere in the complex plane except at a finite number of distinct poles.

Example: f(z) = 1/(z-1)(z+2), which has a poles at n = 1 and z = -2.

- Essential Singularity: A singular point $z = z_0$ for which $f(z)(z z_0)^n$ is not differentiable for any integer n > 0 is called Essential Singularity. Other than removable, pole and branch point is known as essential singularity.
- Branch Point and Branch Cut: A Branch Point is a point at $z = z_0$ about which the function f(z) changes its value after each complete rotation (i.e., $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$). The set of branch points constitutes

a barrier (along which the analytic function is discontinuous) is called *Branch Cut*. The function on the *Branch Cut* is non-analytic which has to be avoided by drawing suitable contour avoiding this cut.

Example: $f(z) = \sqrt{z}$ has single Branch point about which the function changes its sign as, $f(z) = \{+1, -1\}$.

Example: $f(z) = \sqrt[3]{z}$ has single Branch point about which the function changes its sign, $f(z) = \{+1, e^{2\pi i/3}, e^{-2\pi i/3}\}$.

Example: f(z) = ln(z) has infinite number of branch points z = 0 and $z = \infty$ (i.e., range $(\infty, 1]$) forming a branch cut.

Example: $f(z) = \sqrt{z-1}\sqrt{z-1}$ has branch cuts between z = -1 and z = +1 (i.e., range [-1,1]) forming a branch cut.

(Advanced Topic: Riemann Surface)

6 Contour Integration

6.1 Cauchy-Goursat Theorem

• The integration over a complex function f(z) parameterized by z(t) along the path γ within range $a \le t \le b$ is given by,

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

$$= \int_{a}^{b} f(z)dz$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} f(z)z'(t)dt$$
(6.1)

In the limit $a \to b$, the path of integration is a closed path, i.e., $\gamma \to \Gamma$. Then it can be shown,

$$\oint_{\Gamma} f(z)dz = 0 \tag{6.2}$$

Proof:

$$\oint_{\Gamma} f(z)dz = \oint_{\Gamma} f(z(t))z'(t)dt$$

$$= \oint_{\Gamma} [u(z(t)) + iv[z(t)]][x'(t) + iy'[t]]dt$$

$$= \oint_{\Gamma} [u(z(t))x'(t) - iv[z(t)]y'[t]]dt + i \oint_{\Gamma} [v(z(t))x'(t) + u[z(t)]y'[t]]dt$$

$$= \oint_{\Gamma} [ux'(t) - vy']dt + i \int_{a}^{b} [vx' + uy']dt$$

$$= \oint_{\Gamma} [udx(t) - vdy] + i \oint_{\Gamma} [vdx + udy]$$

$$= \iint_{\partial S} dxdy \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right) + i \iint_{\partial S} dxdy \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)$$

$$= 0, \tag{6.3}$$

where in the last step Cauchy-Riemann condition is used. We are now in position to define *Cauchy-Goursat Theorem*:

Let f(z) be a continuous, complex-valued function in the complex plane. Suppose that

$$\oint_{\Gamma} f(z)dz = 0, \tag{6.4}$$

for all closed Jordan curves Γ , then it follows that f(z) is analytic and there is no isolated singularity (or simply connected region) within that domain. Equivalently, for a simply Connected curve $\oint_{\Gamma} f(z)dz = 0$, while for multiply connected region $\oint_{\Gamma} f(z)dz \neq 0$.

• Properties of Contour Integral:

If f(z) and g(z) are two complex functions are in the same domain D, then

i)
$$\oint_{\Gamma} dz [f(z) + g(z)] = \oint_{\Gamma} dz f(z) + \oint_{\Gamma} dz g(z)$$

- ii) If Γ_1 and Γ_2 are two closed curve joined end-to-end to create resulting curve Γ , than $\oint_{\Gamma_1} dz f(z) = \oint_{\Gamma_1} dz f(z) + \oint_{\Gamma_2} dz f(z)$
- iii) If a curve $-\Gamma$ is drawn by tracing out a curve C with a opposite orientation, then $\oint_{-\Gamma} dz f(z) = -\oint_{\Gamma} dz f(z)$.

6.2 Cauchy's Integral Formula

Let f(z) be analytic on a simple closed contour Γ and suppose that f(z) is also analytic everywhere on its interior. If the point z_0 is enclosed by the contour Γ , then

$$\oint_{\Gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)} = 2\pi i f(z_0) \tag{6.5}$$

Proof:

To prove Cauchy's Integral Formula we shall redraw the path of integration in the following way, where we have split the contour γ into two parts, namely, γ_0 (moving anticlockwise) and γ_0 (moving

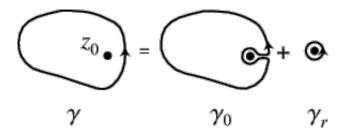


Figure 13: Integration along the path Γ is amounts to the sum of integration along γ_0 and γ_r

clockwise) shown in Fig.15.

$$\oint_{\gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)} = \oint_{\gamma_0} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)} + \oint_{\gamma_r} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)} \tag{6.6}$$

Since the first integration γ_0 of right hand side does not enclose any pole (i.e., analytic), therefore it vanishes and Eq.(7.2) becomes,

$$\oint_{\gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)} = \oint_{\gamma_r} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)} \tag{6.7}$$

The pole at $z = z_0$ appearing in the infinitesimally small circle γ_r can be removed by substituting $z = z_0 + re^{i\theta}$ (and $dz = ire^{i\theta}d\theta$) and this integral becomes,

$$\oint_{\gamma_r} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)} = \oint_{\gamma_r} dz f(z_0 + re^{i\theta}) id\theta$$
(6.8)

In the limit $r \to 0$, i.e., when the circle γ_r becomes infinitesimally small, then

$$\oint_{\gamma_r} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)} = \oint_{\gamma_r} f(z_0) i d\theta$$

$$= i f(z_0) \oint_{\gamma_r} d\theta$$

$$= 2\pi i f(z_0) \tag{6.9}$$

Thus plucking back Eq.((6.9)) into Eq.((6.7)) we obtain,

$$\oint_{\gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)} = 2\pi i f(z_0)$$
(6.10)

which is the precise statement of Cauchy's Integral Formula. Often Cauchy's theorem is written as,

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)}$$
 (6.11)

NOTE: Cauchy's Integral Formula is used to evaluate the integrals for which the poles are inside the contour.

6.3 Inequalities Associated with Cauchy's Integral Theorem

(i) Cauchy Inequality:

Let M be a positive integer such that $|f(z)| \le M$ inside the region $|z-a| \le f(z)$, the

$$|f^{(n)}(a)| \le \frac{Mn!}{r^n} \tag{6.12}$$

This relation is known as Cauchy Inequality.

Proof:

To prove this let us recall that Cauchy's Integral Formula can be written as,

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)}$$
 (6.13)

Taking derivative with respect to z_0 , we obtain,

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{d}{dz} \left[\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^2}$$
(6.14)

Iterating the differentiation again we find,

$$f''(z_0) = \frac{2}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^3}$$
 (6.15)

Proceeding this way, finally taking the n-th derivative we obtain,

$$f^{(n)}(z) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{(n+1)}} \quad \text{for} \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots n$$
 (6.16)

Thus the function f(z) is analytic indicating that it exists along with its derivative exists inside the contour Γ . Now if we take $|z - z_0| = r$ the right hand side of Eq.((6.16)) becomes,

$$\left| \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \frac{f_{max}(z)}{r^{(n+1)}} \oint_{\Gamma} dz \right| = \frac{n!}{2\pi} \frac{M}{r^{(n+1)}} 2\pi r = \frac{Mn!}{r^n}$$
 (6.17)

where, $f_{max} = M$. Thus from Eqs.(6.16) and (6.17) we obtain,

$$\left| f^{(n)}(z) \right| \le \frac{Mn!}{r^n} \tag{6.18}$$

$$\left| f^{(n)}(z) \right| = \left| \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} dz \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{(n+1)}} \right|$$

³ Finally to prove the inequality we substitute $z - z_0 = re^{i\theta}$ in Eq.((6.16)).

(ii) Theorem: ML Inequality:

If f(z) = u(x,y) + iv(x,y) is a continuous variable on a contour C, then

$$\left| \oint_C f(z)dz \right| \le ML,\tag{6.19}$$

where L is the length of contour, M is the upper bound for the modulus of the function |f(z)|, i.e., $|f(z)| \le M$ for all C. Proof:

$$L.H.S. = \left| \oint_C f(z)dz \right|$$

$$= \left| \int_a^b f[z(t)]dz \right|$$

$$= \left| \int_a^b f[z(t)] \frac{dz(t)}{dt}dt \right|$$
(6.20)

Since $|\oint_C dz f(z)| \le \oint_C dz |f(z)|$, therefore we have,

$$\left| \int_{a}^{b} f[z(t)] \frac{dz(t)}{dt} dt \right| \leq \int_{a}^{b} \left| f[z(t)] \frac{dz(t)}{dt} \right| dt$$

$$\equiv \int_{a}^{b} \left| f[z(t)] \right| \times \left| \frac{dz(t)}{dt} \right| dt$$

$$\equiv \int_{a}^{b} M \times \left| \frac{dz(t)}{dt} \right| dt \quad \because \left| f[z(t)] \right| = \left| f_{max}[z] \right| = M$$

$$\equiv M \times \oint_{C} \left| dz \right| \quad \because \left| z_{max} \right| = L$$

$$\equiv ML \tag{6.21}$$

Thus from Eqs.(6.21) and (6.22), we have

$$\left| \oint_C f[z] dz \right| \le ML \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
 (6.22)

6.4 Cauchy's Residue Theorem

If f(z) is a analytic function inside a simple closed curve C except the finite number of singular points z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n inside C, then

$$\oint_{\Gamma} f(z)dz = 2\pi i \sum_{i} R_{i}$$
(6.23)

where $\sum_{i} R$ be the summation of the residues of f(z) at the poles z_i within C. *Proof*:

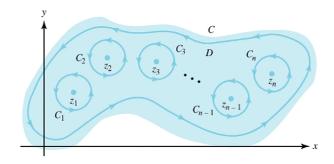


Figure 14: Multiple poles $\{C_i\}$ inside a contour C

Let C_{-i} (i = 1, 2, ...n) be the set of circles around the poles at centres $z = z_i$ within the closed contour C as shown in Fig.10. The using the theorem ⁴

$$\oint_C f(z)dz = \oint_{C_1} f(z)dz + \oint_{C_2} f(z)dz + \oint_{C_3} f(z)dz + \dots$$
(6.24)

Then recalling that,

$$\oint_{C_1} f(z)dz = 2i\pi Res[f, z_1],$$

$$\oint_{C_1} f(z)dz = 2i\pi Res[f, z_2],$$

$$\oint_{C_2} f(z)dz = 2i\pi Res[f, z_3],$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\oint_{C_2} f(z)dz = 2i\pi Res[f, z_n],$$
(6.25)

Plucking back Eq.((6.24)) into Eq.((6.25)) we obtain,

$$\oint_{\Gamma} f(z)dz = 2\pi i (Res[f, z_1] + Res[f, z_2] + \dots + Res[f, z_n])$$

$$= 2i\pi \sum_{i=1}^{n} Res[f, z_i] \tag{6.26}$$

NOTE: Cauchy's Residue Theorem is used to evaluate the integrals for which the poles are outside the contour.

$$\oint_C f(z)dz = \oint_{C_1} f(z)dz + \oint_{C_2} f(z)dz + \oint_{C_3} f(z)dz + \dots + \oint_{C_n} f(z)dz$$

⁴Let f(z) be analytic in a region bounded by the non-overlapping simple closed curves $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots, C_n$ inside the closed contour C as shown in Fig.10, then,

6.5 Evaluation of Residue

Let f(z) is a holomorphic function in domain D with its Analytic (or Regular) and Principal (or Singular) parts with poles $z = z_0$ shown in figure. Then the Laurent series having pole at $z = z_0$ is given by,

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{-k}}{(z - z_0)^k} + \sum_{p=0}^{\infty} a_p (z - z_0)^p$$

$$= \dots + \frac{a_{-3}}{(z - z_0)^3} + \frac{a_{-2}}{(z - z_0)^2} + \frac{a_{-1}}{z - z_0} + a_0 + (z - z_0)^1 a_1 + (z - z_0)^2 a_2 + \dots$$

$$= \phi_P(z) + \frac{a_{-1}}{z - z_0} + \phi_A(z)$$
(6.27)

where $\phi_P(z)$ and $\phi_A(z)$ be the *Principal part* and *Analytic Part*, respectively with residue a_{-1} which is to be evaluated for different order of n.

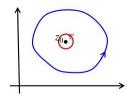


Figure 15: Simple Pole at $z = z_0$ inside the contour C

Case I: Evaluation of Simple Pole (Pole of order n = 0):

To find the residue in this case, we consider the series,

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-1}}{z - z_{0}} + a_{0} + (z - z_{0})^{1} a_{1} + (z - z_{0})^{2} a_{2} + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow (z - z_{0}) f(x) = a_{-1} + (z - z_{0})^{1} a_{0} + (z - z_{0})^{2} a_{1} + (z - z_{0})^{3} a_{1} + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{z \to z_{0}} (z - z_{0}) f(x) = \lim_{z \to z_{0}} \left[a_{-1} + (z - z_{0}) a_{0} + (z - z_{0})^{2} a_{1} + (z - z_{0})^{3} a_{1} + \dots \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{z \to z_{0}} (z - z_{0}) f(x)$$

$$= a_{-1}$$

$$\equiv Res[f; z_{0}], \tag{6.28}$$

where we note that the second and successive terms vanish in the limit $z \to z_0$. Thus if f(z) has a Simple Pole (Pole of order n = 0), then the residue is given by,

$$Res[f; z_0] = (z - z_0)f(z).$$
 (6.29)

Case II: Evaluation of Pole of order n = 1:

Taking $k = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$ we have,

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-2}}{(z - z_0)^2} + \frac{a_{-1}}{z - z_0} + a_0 + (z - z_0)^1 a_1 + (z - z_0)^2 a_2 \dots$$

$$(z - z_0)^2 f(z) = a_{-2} + (z - z_0)^1 a_{-1} + (z - z_0)^2 a_0 + (z - z_0)^3 a_1 + (z - z_0)^4 a_2 \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dz} (z - z_0)^2 f(z) = a_{-1} + 2(z - z_0) a_0 + 3(z - z_0)^2 a_2 \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{d}{dz} (z - z_0)^2 f(z) = \lim_{z \to z_0} \left[a_{-1} + 2(z - z_0) a_0 + 3(z - z_0)^2 a_2 \dots \right]$$

$$= a_{-1}$$

$$= Res[f; z_0]$$

$$(6.30)$$

Thus if f(z) has a pole of order 2, then the residue is given by,

$$Res[f; z_0] = \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{d}{dz} [(z - z_0)^2 f(z)]$$
(6.31)

Case III: Evaluation of Pole of order n = 2:

For $k = -3, -2, 0, 1, 2, \dots$, proceeding in similar way,

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-3}}{(z - z_0)^3} + \frac{a_{-2}}{(z - z_0)^2} + \frac{a_{-1}}{z - z_0} + a_0 + (z - z_0)^1 a_1 + (z - z_0)^2 a_2 + \dots$$

$$(z - z_0)^3 f(z) = a_{-3} + (z - z_0) a_{-2} + (z - z_0)^2 a_{-1} + (z - z_0)^3 a_0 + (z - z_0)^4 a_1 + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dz} (z - z_0)^3 f(z) = a_{-2} + 2(z - z_0) a_{-1} + 3(z - z_0)^2 a_0 + 4(z - z_0)^3 a_1 + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2}{dz^2} (z - z_0)^3 f(z) = 2a_{-1} + 6(z - z_0) a_0 + 12(z - z_0)^2 a_1 + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2}{dz^2} (z - z_0)^3 f(z) = 2a_{-1}$$

$$= Res[f; z_0]$$

$$(6.32)$$

Thus, if f(z) has a pole of order 3, then the residue is given by,

$$Res[f; z_0] = \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dz^2} [(z - z_0)^3 f(z)]$$
(6.33)

Thus, by the method of iteration, the **residue of a pole of arbitrary** n-th order can be given by most general formula,

$$Res[f; z_0] = \lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \frac{d^{k-1}}{dz^{k-1}} [(z - z_0)^k f(x)]$$
(6.34)

6.6 Jordan Lemma

This lemma can be used to calculate the improper complex integrals having poles in the upper half of the semi-circle. The *Jordan Lemma* for a complex valued function f(z) states that,

$$\lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{C_1} f(z)e^{mz} = 0 \tag{6.35}$$

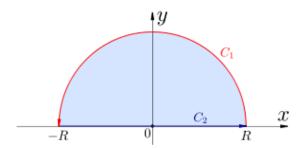


Figure 16: Poles in the upper-half of semicircle

with m > 0 and $|f(z)| \to 0$ and $R \to \infty$. This theorem can also be applied as,

$$\lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{C_1} f(z) = 0 \tag{6.36}$$

provided that $|f(z)| \to \infty$ faster than 1/z as $R \to \infty$.

Proof: (To be added)

7 Evaluation of Contour Integrals

There exists different types of integrals with complex integrand ⁵ and below we have given some exercise to understand these complex integrals based on the theorems, inequality, lemma etc discussed in the previous section:

An integral is said to be improper integral over the range $[0, \infty)$,

$$\int_0^\infty dz f(z) = \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_0^R dz f(z)$$

provided the limit exists. Similarly we can write

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) = \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{-R}^{R} dz f(z)$$

b) Cauchy's Principal Value:

If f(x) is a real and continuous function for all x, then Cauchy's Principal Value of integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx f(x)$ is defined as

$$P.V. \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx f(x) = \lim_{R \to \infty} \int_{-R}^{R} dx f(x).$$

provided the limit exists.

c) Improper integral with trigonometric function:

Let P(x) and Q(x) be two polynomial of degree m and n, respectively where $n \ge m+1$. Show that if $Q(x) \ne 0$ for all real x. If $\alpha > 0$ and $f(z) = \frac{e^{i\alpha z} P(z)}{Q(z)} \cos z$, then,

$$P.V. \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \cos x = -2\pi \sum_{i=1}^{k} Im(Res[f, z_i])$$

$$P.V. \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \sin x = 2\pi \sum_{i=1}^{k} Re(Res[f, z_i])$$

provided the limit exists with $\{z_k\}$ be the set of poles in the upper half of the plane $Im[Res[f(z), z_k]]$ and $Re[Res[f(z), z_k]]$ be the imaginary and real part of residues $Res[f(z), z_k]$, respectively.

⁵ a) Improper Integral of First kind:

7.1 Some Examples

i) Show that for a unit circle $(C: z(t) = e^{it})$,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{dz}{z} = 2\pi i \tag{7.1}$$

Proof:

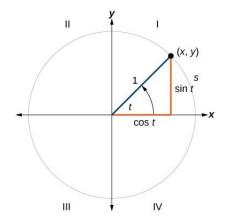


Figure 17: Circular contour of unit radius (r = |z| = 1) with centre at origin z = 0.

$$\oint_C \frac{dz}{z} = \int_0^{2\pi} dt i e^{it} e^{-it} \quad \because z = e^{it}, dz = i dt$$

$$= i \int_0^{2\pi} dt$$

$$= 2\pi i \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
(7.2)

ii) Show that:

$$\int_{-i}^{i} \frac{dz}{z} = 2\pi i \tag{7.3}$$

Proof:

$$\int_{-i}^{i} \frac{dz}{z} = \log(z) \Big|_{-i}^{i}$$

$$= \log|z| + i \arg(z) \Big|_{-i}^{i}$$

$$= (\log|i| + i \arg(i)) - (\log|-i| + i \arg(-i))$$

$$= (\log 1 + i \frac{\pi}{2}) - (\log 1 + i \frac{-3\pi}{2})$$

$$= 2\pi i \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

$$(7.4)$$

(Note: The problem can be done with parametrization $z(t) = re^{i\theta}$ with $-\pi/2 \le \theta \le \pi/2$.)

iii) Show that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} dz (z-a)^m = \begin{cases} 2\pi i & \text{for } m = -1\\ 0 & \text{for } m \neq -1, \text{integer} \end{cases}$$
 (7.5a)

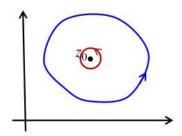


Figure 18: Circular contour of unit radius (r = |z| = 1) with shifted origin at $z = z_0$.

Proof:

By noting the fact that $z(t) = z_0 + re^{it}$, we have,

$$(z(t)-z_0)^m = r^m e^{imt}$$
, with $dz = izdt$.

Thus we obtain,

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} (z - a)^{m} = ir^{m+1} \int_{0}^{2\pi} dt e^{i(m+1)t}$$

$$= ir^{m+1} \Big[\int_{0}^{2\pi} dt \cos(m+1)t + i \int_{0}^{2\pi} dt \sin(m+1)t \Big]$$

$$= 2i\pi \quad \text{for} \quad m = -1$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{for} \quad m \neq -1 \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
(7.6)

iv) Show that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{dz}{(z-a)^n} = \begin{cases} 2\pi i & \text{for } n = -1\\ 0 & \text{for } n \neq -1, \text{integer} \end{cases}$$
 (7.7a)

Proof:

Once again by noting the fact that $z(t) = z_0 + re^{it}$, we have,

$$\frac{1}{(z(t)-z_0)^n} = r^{-n}e^{-int}, \quad \text{with} \quad dz = izdt.$$

We therefore obtain,

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{dz}{(z-a)^{n}} = ir^{1-n} \int_{0}^{2\pi} dt e^{i(1-n)t}$$

$$= ir^{1-n} \Big[\int_{0}^{2\pi} dt \cos(1-n)t + i \int_{0}^{2\pi} dt \sin(1-n)t \Big]$$

$$= 2i\pi \quad \text{for} \quad n = 1$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{for} \quad n \neq 1 \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
(7.8)

v) Show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^4 + 1} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{7.9}$$

Proof: By Cauchy theorem, this integral is the sum of the residue of the upper part of half-plane, i.e.,

$$\oint_0^{\pi} \frac{dz}{z^4 + 1} = 2\pi \sum_i Res_i[f(z), z_i]$$
 (7.10)

and we have following set of four poles, namely,

$$\{z_i\} = (-i)^4$$

$$= e^{\frac{1}{4}(i\pi + 2\pi k)}$$

$$= \{e^{i\pi/4}, e^{3\pi i/4}, e^{5\pi i/4}, e^{7\pi i/4}\}$$
(7.11)

The residue corresponding to $z_0 = e^{\pi/4}$ is,

$$Res[f(z), e^{i\pi/4}] = \lim_{z \to e^{i\pi/4}} (z - e^{i\pi/4}) \frac{1}{(z - e^{i\pi/4})(z - e^{3i\pi/4})(z - e^{5i\pi/4})(z - e^{7i\pi/4})}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4}(-1)^{i/4}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4}e^{\pi/4}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4}(\cos \pi/4 + i\sin \pi/4)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}}(1 + i)$$
(7.12)

Similarly,

$$Res[f(z), e^{3i\pi/4}] = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}}(1-i)$$
 (7.13a)

$$Res[f(z), e^{5i\pi/4}] = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}}(1+i)$$
 (7.13b)

$$Res[f(z), e^{7i\pi/4}] = -\frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}}(1-i)$$
 (7.13c)

Out of 4 poles, third and fourth poles are outsides of the upper-half of the domain D (i.e., $0 \le \theta \le \pi$) and therefore are outside the contour. Thus the required integral becomes

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

$$= \int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{dz}{z^4 + 1}$$

$$= 2\pi i \left(-\frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} (1 - i) + \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} (1 - i) \right)$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
(7.14)

vi) Show that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{dz}{(z-i)} = 2\pi i. \tag{7.15}$$

Proof:

Here the function f(z) has a Simple Pole (i.e., Pole of order zero) at z = i and the corresponding residue is given by,

$$Res[f,i] = 2\pi i(z-i) \cdot \frac{1}{z-i}$$
$$= 2\pi i$$

Thus we obtain

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{dz}{(z-i)} = 2\pi i \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
 (7.16)

vii) Find the residues from the following complex integral

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{z^3}{(z-1)^4(z-2)(z-3)} \tag{7.17}$$

Answer:

The above function has one pole of order n = 4 at z = -1 and two simple poles at $z_0 = 2, 3$, respectively. The residue corresponding to pole of 4-th order is calculated using formula:

$$Res[f,4] = \lim_{z \to 4} \frac{1}{(4-1)!} \frac{d^{4-1}}{dz^{4-1}} \left[(z-1)^4 \frac{1}{(z-1)^4 (z-2)(z-3)} \right]$$
$$= \frac{101}{16}, \tag{7.18}$$

where L'Hospital's Rule is used. On the other hand, the two simple poles are given by,

$$Res[f,2] = \lim_{z \to 2} \left[(z-2) \frac{1}{(z-1)^4 (z-2)(z-3)} \right],$$

= -8, (7.19a)

$$Res[f,3] = \lim_{z \to 2} \left[(z-3) \frac{1}{(z-1)^4 (z-1)(z-3)} \right]$$
$$= \frac{27}{8}, \tag{7.19b}$$

respectively.

viii) Evaluate the following integral with pole of order n = 4

$$\int_0^\pi \frac{dz}{(z-i)^4}.$$
 (7.20)

Answer: The integral has four poles, namely,

$$\{z_i\} = (i)^4$$

$$= e^{\frac{1}{4}(i\pi + 2\pi k)}$$

$$= \{e^{i\pi/4}, e^{3\pi i/4}, e^{5\pi i/4}, e^{7\pi i/4}\} \quad : \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

$$(7.21)$$

Out of them two poles $z_1 = e^{i\pi/4}$ and $z_2 = e^{i3\pi/4}$ within range $[0, \pi]$ (i.e., upper half of quadrants), therefore corresponding residues are:

$$Res[f, e^{i\pi/4}] = \lim_{z \to e^{i\pi/4}} \frac{1}{(4-1)!} \frac{d^{4-1}}{dz^{4-1}} \left[(e^{i\pi/4} - i)^4 \frac{1}{(z-i)^4} \right]$$
$$= -\frac{3}{2} (-1)^{1/4}$$
$$= -\frac{3}{2\sqrt{2}} (1+i) \tag{7.22}$$

$$Res[f, e^{3i\pi/4}] = \lim_{z \to e^{3i\pi/4}} \frac{1}{(4-1)!} \frac{d^4}{dz^4} \left[(z - e^{3i\pi/4})^4 \frac{1}{(z - e^{3i\pi/4})^4} \right]$$
$$= -\frac{3}{2} (-1)^{3/4}$$
$$= \frac{3}{2\sqrt{2}} (1-i)$$
(7.23)

Plucking back Eqs.(7.22) and (7.23) we find,

$$\int_0^{\pi} \frac{dz}{(z-i)^4} = 2\pi i \left(-\frac{3}{2\sqrt{2}} (1+i) + \frac{3}{2\sqrt{2}} (1-i) \right)$$
$$= 3\sqrt{2}\pi \tag{7.24}$$

ix) Show that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{z}{(z-1)(z+1)^2} = \pi i \tag{7.25}$$

Proof: For simple pole at n = 1,

$$Res[f, z_0 = 1] = \lim_{z \to 1} (z - 1) \left[\frac{z}{(z - 1)(z + 1)^2} \right] = \frac{1}{4}$$
 (7.26)

and for pole at n = -1 of order k = 2,

$$Res[f, z_0 = -1] = \lim_{z \to -1} \frac{1}{(2-1)!} \frac{d}{dz} \left[\frac{z}{(z-1)(z+1)^2} \right] = \frac{1}{4}$$
 (7.27)

$$\therefore \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{z}{(z-1)(z+1)^2} = 2\pi i (1/4 + 1/4)$$

$$= \pi i \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
(7.28)

6

6

Consider the evaluation of a general form of the integral involving trigonometric functions:

$$\int_0^{2\pi} F(\cos\theta, \sin\theta)$$

x) Show that:

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1 + 8\cos^2\theta} = \frac{\pi}{3}$$
 (7.29)

Proof:

To obtain this integral we first consider the following complex integral:

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+3\cos^{2}\theta} = \oint_{C} \frac{1}{1+2(2+z+z^{-2})^{2}} \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$= \oint_{C} dz \frac{z}{(2z^{4}+5z^{2}+2)}$$

$$= \oint_{C} dz \frac{z}{(2z^{2}+1)(z^{2}+2)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \oint_{C} dz \frac{z}{(z+i/\sqrt{2})(z-i/\sqrt{2})(z+\sqrt{2}i)(z-\sqrt{2}i)}$$
(7.30)

Out of four poles, only two simple poles at $z_1 = i/\sqrt{2}$ and $z_2 = -i/\sqrt{2}$ are inside the unit radius and therefore the integral by CRT is given by,

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} dz \frac{z}{(2z^{4} + 5z^{2} + 2)} = 2\pi i \left(\frac{z}{2z^{4} + 5z^{2} + 2}; \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{z}{(2z^{4} + 5z^{2} + 2)}; -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$= 2\pi i \left(\frac{1}{8z^{2} + 10} \bigg|_{z=i/\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{8z^{2} + 10} \bigg|_{z=i/\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

$$(7.31)$$

where in the last step the L' Hospital's Rule is used. Q.E.D

xi) Show that (Integral with Branch Cut)

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{\log x}{x^2 + 1} = 0 \tag{7.32}$$

Proof:

$$\oint_{C} \frac{\log z dz}{z^{2} + 1} = \int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{\log z}{z^{2} + 1} + \int_{C_{R}} dz f(z) + \int_{-R}^{-r} dz \frac{(\log z + i\pi)}{z^{2} + 1} + \int_{C_{r}} dz f(z)$$

$$= 2\pi i \sum_{i} Res[f, z_{i}] \tag{7.33}$$

Taking a unit circle $z = e^{i\theta}$ and $d\theta = \frac{dz}{iz}$, it can be written as

$$\int_0^{2\pi} F(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) = \oint_C dz f(z) \quad \because \quad \cos z = \frac{1}{2} (z + z^{-1}), \sin z = \frac{1}{2i} (z - z^{-1})$$

where $f(z) = \frac{1}{2i}F(\frac{1}{2}(z+\bar{z}), \frac{1}{2i}(z-\bar{z}))$, respectively. Now if the function is analytic except at $z=z_k$ within the contour C, then using residue theorem we get,

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} F(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) = 2\pi i \sum_{k=0}^{n} Res[f, z_{k}]$$

$$Res[f, z_{0}, a_{-1}^{(k)}] = \lim_{z \to z_{0}} \frac{k!}{(k-1)!} \frac{d^{k}}{dz^{k}} [(z-z_{0})^{k} f(x)]$$

Now for $z^2 + 1 = 0$ we have two poles at $z = \pm i$. Out of them only z = i is inside the contour and therefore we calculate that residue only,

$$Res[f, z_0 = i] = \lim_{z \to i} (z - i) f(z)$$

$$= \lim_{z \to i} (z - i) \frac{\log z}{(z - i)(z + i)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \to i} \frac{\log z}{(z + i)}$$

$$= \frac{\log i}{2i}$$

$$= \frac{\log |i| + i \arg(i)}{2i}$$

$$= \frac{i}{2i} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$(7.34)$$

Thus we have

$$\oint_C \frac{\log z dz}{z^2 + 1} = 2\pi i \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{i\pi^2}{2} \tag{7.35}$$

Now using the inequality (ML Identity) it is easy to see, ⁷

$$\lim_{R \to \infty} \oint_{C_R} f(z) \to 0 \tag{7.36a}$$

$$\lim_{r \to 0} \oint_{C_r} f(z) \to 0 \tag{7.36b}$$

Plucking back Eq.((7.36)) into Eq.((7.33)), we obtain,

$$\left| \int_{C_R} f(z)dz \right| = \left| \int_{C_R} \frac{\log z}{z^2 + 1} dz \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \int_{C_R} \frac{\log z}{z^2 + 1} \right| dz |$$

$$\leq \int_{C_R} \frac{\left| \log z \right|}{\left| z^2 + 1 \right|} |dz|$$

$$\leq \int_{C_R} \frac{\left| \log r + i\theta \right|}{\left| r^2 e^{2i\theta} \right| - 1} |ire^{i\theta} d\theta|$$

$$\leq \frac{\left(\log R + \pi \right)}{R^2 - 1} \pi R$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{\pi R \log R}{R^2 - 1} + \frac{\pi}{R^2 - 1} \pi R \right)$$

Thus we have

$$\lim_{R \to 0} \Big| \int_{\gamma_R} f(z) dz \Big| \equiv \Big(\frac{\pi r \log r}{R^2 - 1} + \frac{\pi}{R^2 - 1} \pi R \Big) \to \infty.$$

Proceeding similar way, for the little circle γ_r of radius r < 1 we can show

$$\lim_{r \to 0} \left| \int_{C_r} f(z) dz \right| \equiv \left(\frac{\pi r \log r}{1 - r^2} + \frac{\pi}{1 - r^2} \pi r \right) \to 0$$

⁷ We note that $|\int_C f(z)dz| \le \int_C dz |f(z)|$

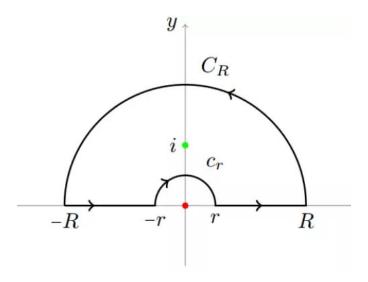


Figure 19: Circular contour bypassing the origin at $z_0 = 0$.

$$\frac{i\pi^2}{2} = \int_r^R dz \frac{\log z}{z^2 + 1} + 0 + \int_{-R}^{-r} dz \frac{(\log z + i\pi)}{z^2 + 1} + 0$$

$$= \int_0^\infty dx \frac{\log x}{x^2 + 1} + \int_{-\infty}^0 dx \frac{\log |x|}{x^2 + 1} + i\pi \int_{-\infty}^0 dx \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$$

$$= 2 \int_0^\infty dx \frac{\log x}{x^2 + 1} + i\pi \arctan x \Big|_0^\infty$$

$$= 2 \int_0^\infty dx \frac{\log x}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{i\pi^2}{2}, \tag{7.37}$$

Which readily gives,

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{\log x}{x^2 + 1} = 0 \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
 (7.38)

xii) Show that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} e^{-iky} = \frac{e^{|k|y}}{2\pi}$$
 (7.39)

Proof: To start with let us first evaluate the following integral

$$\frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz \frac{y}{z^2 + y^2} e^{-iky}
= \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \frac{y}{(z + iy)(z - iy)} e^{-iky}
= 2\pi i \sum_{i} Res[f, z_i]$$
(7.40)

Out two poles at z = -iy and z = iy, the first one is lying in the upper half of the semicircle, thus the

residue reads,

$$Res[f, i] = \lim_{z \to iy} (z - iy) \frac{y e^{ikz}}{2\pi^2 (z + iy)(z - iy)}$$
$$= \frac{e^{ky}}{4\pi^2 i}$$
(7.41a)

$$Res[f,i] = \lim_{z \to -iy} (z+iy) \frac{ye^{ikz}}{2\pi^2(z+iy)(z-iy)}$$
$$= -\frac{e^{-ky}}{4\pi^2i}$$
(7.41b)

Plucking back Eq.((7.41a)) into Eq.((7.40)) we obtain,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} e^{-iky}$$

$$= 2\pi i \left(\frac{e^{ky}}{4\pi^2 i} + \frac{e^{-ky}}{4\pi i^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{e^{ky}}{2\pi} + \frac{e^{-ky}}{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-|k|y}}{2\pi} \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
(7.42)

xiii) Prove the following integral (a > 0)

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{\cos ax}{x^2} = -\pi a \tag{7.43}$$

Proof:

We start by evaluating the contour integral shown in Fig.(20) by passing the origin at $z_0=0$,

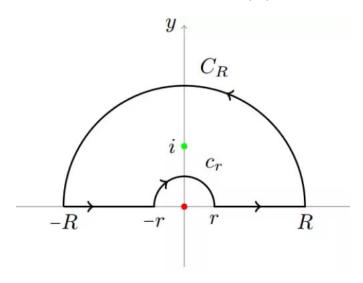


Figure 20: Circular contour by passing the origin at z_0 = 0.

$$\oint dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} = \int_{-R}^{-r} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} + \int_{-r}^{r} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} + \int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} + \int_{R}^{-R} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2}
= \int_{-R}^{-r} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} + \int_{C_r} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} + \int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} + \int_{C_R} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2}$$
(7.44)

In the above integral, from first and third terms give,

$$\int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^{2}} + \int_{-R}^{-r} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^{2}}
= \int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^{2}} + \int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{e^{-iaz}}{z^{2}}
= 2 \int_{r}^{R} \frac{dz}{z^{2}} \left(\frac{e^{iaz} + e^{-iaz}}{2}\right)
= 2 \int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{\cos az}{z^{2}}$$
(7.45)

 8 and

$$\oint dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} = 0 \quad \text{(By Cauchy Residue Theorem)}$$
(7.46a)

$$\int_{C_R} dz \frac{e^{az}}{z^2} = 0 \quad \text{(By Jordan's lemma)} \tag{7.46b}$$

$$\int_{C_r} dz \frac{e^{iaz}}{z^2} = -2i\pi Res[f; z_0 = 0] \quad \text{(By Cauchy's Residue Theorem moving counter clockwise path } C_r \text{)}$$

$$= -2i\pi (ia)$$

$$= 2\pi a \qquad (7.46c)$$

Finally plucking back Eq.(7.45) and Eq.(7.46a) into Eq.(7.44), we obtain

$$0 = 2\int_{r}^{R} dz \frac{\cos az}{z^{2}} + 2\pi a + 0 \tag{7.47}$$

and then taking the limit $R \to \infty$ and $r \to 0$ we obtain,

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{\cos ax}{x^2} = -\pi a \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$
 (7.48)

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⁸ Here we have used $Res[f; z_0 = 0] = \frac{1}{(2-1)!} \frac{d}{dz} \left[z^2 \frac{e^{ikz}}{z^2} \right] \Big|_{z_0 = 0} = ia$