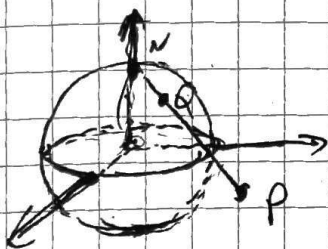


PROJECT

# Point at Infinity

We can add the point  $\infty$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ :  $\Sigma = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  is the extended complex plane.  $\Sigma$  can be regarded as a sphere.

Consider  $S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}$



$$z = x + iy$$

$$x_1 = \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}, \quad x_2 = \frac{2y}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}, \quad x_3 = \frac{x^2 + y^2 - 1}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$$

$N$  is the point  $(0, 0, 1)$ . The whole complex plane maps to  $S^2 - \{N\}$ . We could make the point  $\infty$  correspond to the point  $N$ , setting up a correspondence between  $S^2$  and  $\Sigma$ . Use the topology on  $S^2$  induced from  $\mathbb{R}^3$  to setup a topology on  $\Sigma$ .

Note that the ~~neighborhood~~ neighborhood of  $\infty$  could be brought to the neighborhood of  $0$  by the conformal map  $w = \frac{1}{z}$ .

For ~~example~~ example  $f(z) = z^n$  goes to  $g(w) = \frac{1}{w^n}$ , essentially a pole near origin.

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Now let us take on rational functions and their behavior at  $\infty$ .

Def  $f$  is rational function if  $f = \frac{p}{q}$  where  $p$  and  $q$  are polynomials.

If  $p(z)$  has degree  $m$  and  $q(z)$ , degree  $n$

- (i) if  $m > n$ ,  $f$  has a zero of order  $n-m$  at infinity
- (ii) "  $n = m$ ,  $f$  is analytic at  $+\infty$
- (iii) "  $n < m$ ,  $f$  has pole of order  $m-n$  at infinity

Essentially

$$\frac{z^m (a_m + a_{m-1}/z + \dots)}{z^n (b_n + b_{n-1}/z + \dots)}$$

goes to

$$\omega^{n-m} \left[ \frac{a_m}{b_n} + \frac{a_m}{b_n} \left( \frac{a_{m-1}}{a_m} - \frac{b_{n-1}}{b_n} \right) \omega + O(\omega^2) \right]$$

with  $z = \frac{1}{\omega}$

Def: A function  $f$  is meromorphic in a region  $R$  if the function is analytic in  $R-A$  where  $A$  is a finite set and each point in  $A$  is pole of  $f$ .

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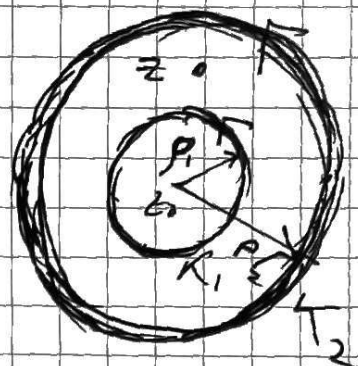
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# Laurent Series

Consider  $f$  which is analytic in an annulus  
 $R = \{z \mid \rho_1 < |z - z_0| < \rho_2\}$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left\{ \oint_{K_2} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi - \oint_{K_1} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi \right\}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{K_2} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{K_2} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z_0) \left(1 - \frac{z - z_0}{\xi - z_0}\right)} d\xi \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{K_2} \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z_0)^{n+1}} d\xi$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{K_1} \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi - z} d\xi &= -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{K_1} \frac{f(\xi)}{z - \xi} d\xi = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{K_1} \frac{f(\xi)}{z - z_0 \left(1 - \frac{\xi - z_0}{z - z_0}\right)} d\xi \\ &= -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z - z_0)^{-n-1} \end{aligned}$$

With  $b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{K_1} f(\xi) (\xi - z_0)^n d\xi$

$$So \quad f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[ a_n (z - z_0)^n + b_n (z - z_0)^{-n-1} \right]$$

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This series is absolutely convergent. If  $|f(\xi)| \leq M_2$  on  $K_2$  and  $|f(\xi)| \leq M_1$  on  $K_1$ , then  $|a_n| \leq \frac{M_2}{\rho_2^{n+1}}$  and  $|b_n| \leq M_1 \rho_1^{n+1}$

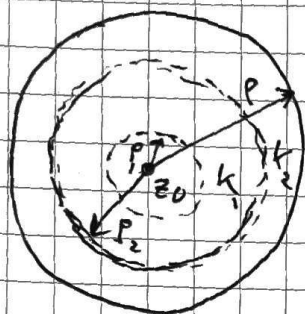
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Now consider  $f$  defined on a disc of radius  $\rho$  centered around  $z_0$ ,  $D(z_0, \rho)$ , except at the point  $z_0$ . So the region  $R$  is  $D(z_0, \rho) - \{z_0\}$  where the function  $f$  is analytic, with possibly an isolated singularity at  $z_0$ .



We could set up  $0 < \rho_1 < \rho_2 < \rho$  and in the region where  $\rho_1 < |z - z_0| < \rho_2$ , we can use the Laurent series.

Note that  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  expressions do not change, in this case, if  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  are changed with the inequalities  $0 < \rho_1 < \rho_2 < \rho$  satisfied.

So we can bring  $\rho_2$  as close to  $\rho$  as possible and  $\rho_1$  as close to zero as possible and show that the expression of Laurent series is valid in all of  $D(z_0, \rho) - \{z_0\}$ .

We will often call  $b_n = a_{-n-1}$

Then 
$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n$$

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

The coefficient  $a_{-1}$  is called the residue of  $f$  at  $z_0$ .  
 We will use the notation  $\text{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) = a_{-1}$ .

Note that  $\oint_C f(z) dz$  with a contour around  $z_0$  is given by  $2\pi i a_{-1}$ , the so-called Cauchy residue theorem.

The function  $R$  with  $R(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^n$  is called the regular part of  $f$ .

Def: The function  $S$ , with  $S(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{-n}}{(z-z_0)^n}$ , is called the singular part of  $f$ .

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## Comments on Weierstrass Factorization Theorem and Mittag-Leffler Theorem

Weierstrass factorization theorem is concerned with entire function with zeros written in terms of an entire function without zeros and the zeros and their multiplicities.

Weierstrass factorization theorem: If  $F$  is an entire function with zeros  $\{z_k\}$  with  $z_k \neq 0$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $F(0) \neq 0$ , then there is ~~an~~ an entire function  $h$ , with no zeros in the complex plane, so that

$$F(z) = h(z) \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ \left(1 - \frac{z}{z_k}\right) e^{\gamma_k(z)} \right]$$

with  $\gamma_k$ 's being polynomials of the form

$$\gamma_k(z) = 1 \quad (m_k = 0)$$

$$= \left(\frac{z}{z_k}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{z}{z_k}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{m_k} \left(\frac{z}{z_k}\right)^{m_k} \quad \text{for } m_k \neq 0$$

with  $\{m_k\}$  being a sequence of non negative integers.

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Example: 
$$\frac{\sin z}{z} = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{z^2}{n^2 \pi^2}\right)$$

The Mittag-Leffler theorem provides a representation of meromorphic functions in ~~the complex plane~~ a region  $R$  with  $A$  being the set of poles  $\{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_m\}$ . Around each pole  $z_k$  we could look at a Laurent series and look at the singular part 
$$S_k(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{p_k} \frac{a_{k,n}}{(z-z_k)^n}$$
. Note that  $p_k$  is the order of the pole.

Mittag-Leffler theorem: For  $z \in R - A$

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=1}^m S_k(z) + Q(z)$$

where  $Q$  is a function analytic in  $R$ .

For infinitely many poles  $\{z_k\}$  with  $A$  not having any limit point in  $R$ ,

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (S_k(z) - \sigma_k(z)) + E(z)$$

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where  $\sigma_k(z)$  are polynomials so that the series converges and  $E$  is an entire function.

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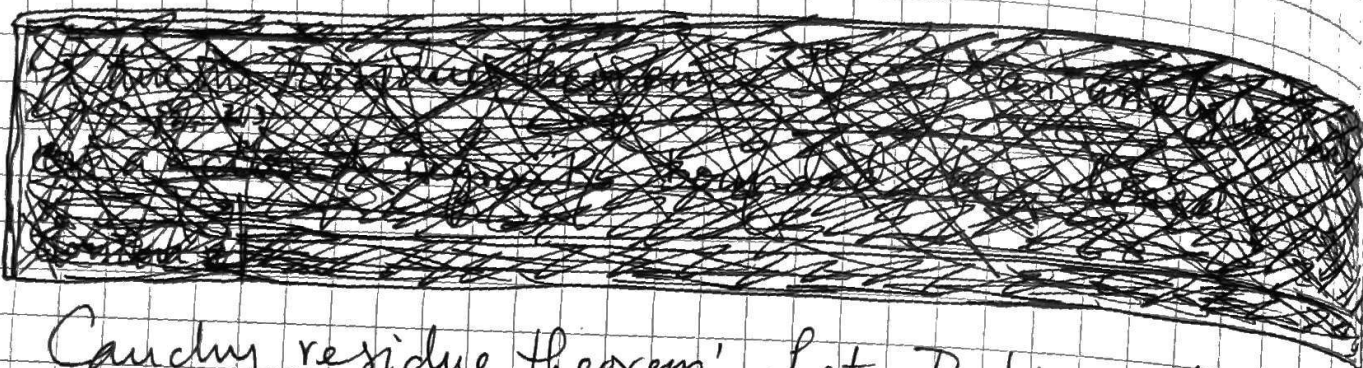
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[These two theorems are related: consider  $f(z) = \frac{F'(z)}{F(z)}$ ]

# Calculus of Residues



Cauchy residue theorem: Let  $R$  be a closed simply connected region bounded by a closed contour  $C$ . Let  $f$  be function analytic in  $R - \{z_1, \dots, z_N\}$ , with  $z_k$  being interior points of  $R$  for  $k=1, \dots, N$ . With anticlockwise orientation being chosen on  $C$ ,

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^N \text{Res}_{z=z_k} f(z)$$

Informal Proof:



$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 0$$

$$C = C_1 + \dots + C_N$$

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \sum_{k=1}^N \oint_{C_k} f(z) dz$$

$C_k$  is a small loop around  $z_k$

$$\oint_{C_k} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \text{Res}_{z=z_k} f(z)$$

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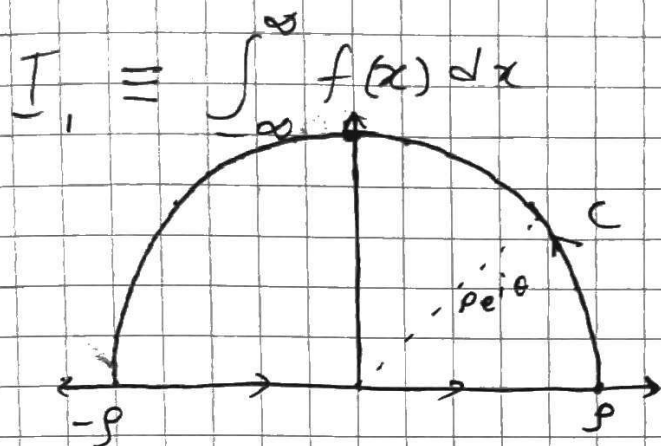
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Using Cauchy residue theorem for doing real integral



If  $zf(z) \rightarrow 0$  as  $z \rightarrow \infty$  in the upper half plane then we can add an arc  $\{z | z = pe^{i\theta}, \theta \in [0, \pi]\}$  to the interval  $\{x+i0 | x \in [-p, p]\}$ . As  $p \rightarrow \infty$  the integral on the real line goes to  $I$ , and the integral on the arc goes to zero.

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^n \text{Res}_{z=z_k} f(z)$$

Where  $z_k$  are the isolated singularities in the upper half plane.

Example:  $I(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{iax}}{x^2+a^2} dx$ ,  $a > 0$

(Add an arc)

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When  $\alpha \geq 0$

On the upper half plane  $z = x + iy, y \geq 0$

$$\left| z \frac{e^{i\alpha z}}{z^2 + a^2} \right| = \frac{|z| e^{-\alpha y}}{|z^2 + a^2|} \leq \frac{e^{-\alpha y}}{|z|(1 - \frac{a^2}{|z|^2})}$$

for  $|z| > a$

$$\text{As } |z| \rightarrow \infty \quad \left| z \frac{e^{i\alpha z}}{z^2 + a^2} \right| \rightarrow 0.$$

$$f(z) = \frac{e^{i\alpha z}}{z^2 + a^2} = \frac{e^{i\alpha z}}{(z+ia)(z-ia)} \text{ has two singularities}$$

$$z = \pm ia \quad \text{with} \quad \text{Res}_{z=\pm ia} f(z) = \frac{e^{\mp \alpha a}}{\pm 2ia}$$

The one on upper half plane is  $\frac{e^{-\alpha a}}{2ia}$

$$\text{So } 2\pi i \text{Res}_{z=ia} f(z) = \frac{\pi}{a} e^{-\alpha a}$$

When  $\alpha < 0$ , we need to put an arc in the lower half plane

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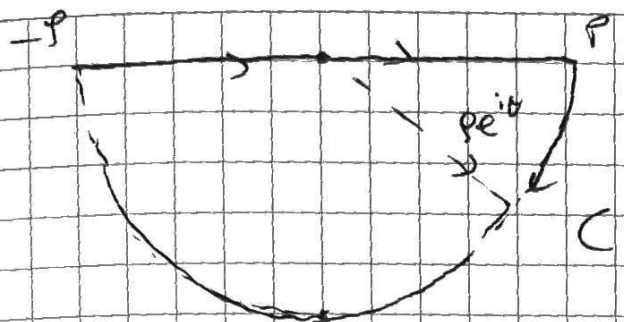
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 The arc  $\{z = pe^{i\theta} \mid \theta \in [\pi, 0]\}$ 

 Once more, the contribution of the arc vanishes when  $p \rightarrow \infty$ .

Notice that this contour is a clockwise one.

$$\text{So } \oint_C f(z) dz = -2\pi i \sum_{z=z_k} \text{Res}_{z=z_k} f(z)$$

 Where  $z_k$  is in the lower half plane

$$\text{Res}_{z=-ia} f(z) = -\frac{e^{ax}}{2ia}$$

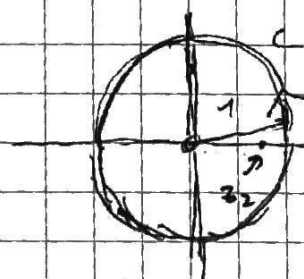
$$\text{So } \oint_C f(z) dz = \frac{\pi}{a} e^{ax}$$

$$\text{So for } a \in \mathbb{R} \quad I(a) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{iax}}{x^2 + a^2} dx = \frac{\pi e^{-a|x|}}{a}$$

Example 2)  $F(a, b) = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a - b \cos \theta}$  with  $|b| < |a|$

(find a transformation)

Try  $z = e^{i\theta}$



$$\oint_C \frac{1}{a - \frac{1}{2}b(z + \frac{1}{z})} \frac{dz}{iz} = 2i \int_C \frac{dz}{bz^2 - 2az + b}$$

Where are the singularities.  $b(z - \frac{a}{b})^2 = \frac{b^2}{b} - b \Rightarrow z_{1,2} = \frac{a}{b} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^2 - 1}$

 Note that  $z_1 z_2 = 1$ 

$$|z_1| > 1, |z_2| < 1$$

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 $2\pi i \operatorname{Res}_{z=z_2} \frac{1}{(z-z_1)(z-z_2)}$

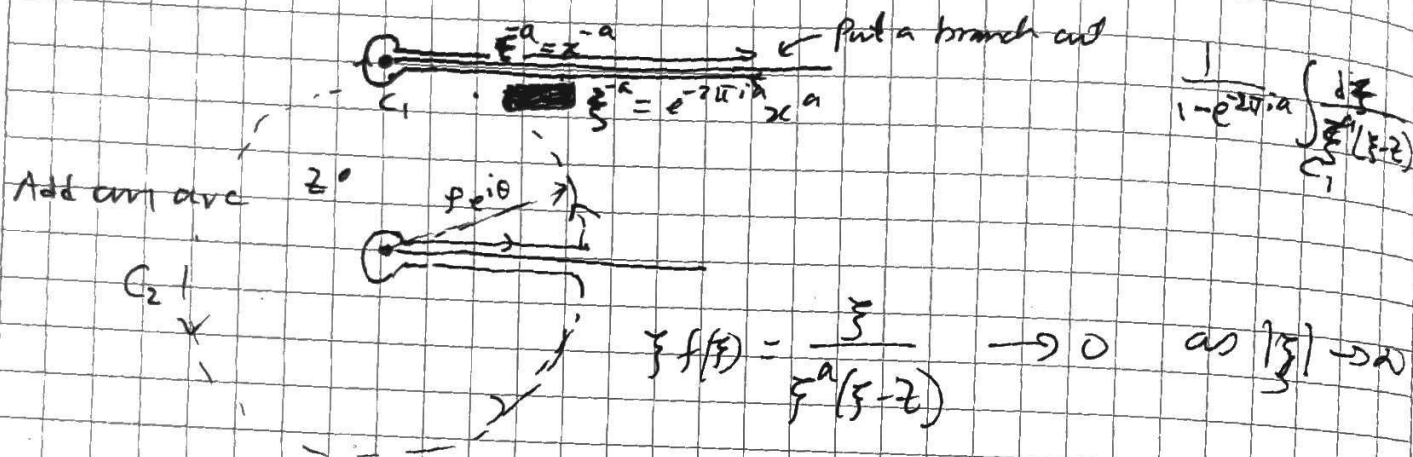
$$F(a, b) = 2i \oint \frac{dz}{b(z-z_1)(z-z_2)} = \frac{2i}{b} \frac{2\pi i}{z_2-z_1} = \frac{-4\pi}{b(-2\sqrt{a^2-b^2})}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{a^2-b^2}}$$

Example 3)  
(Deal with a branch cut)

$$I(a) = \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x^a(x-z)}$$

$$0 < |a| < 1$$



$$\text{Let } C = C_1 + C_2$$

$$F(a, b) = \lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \oint_C \frac{1}{1-e^{-2\pi i a}} \frac{dz}{z^a(z-z)}$$

Where is the singularity? At  $z = z$

$$F(a, b) = \frac{1}{1-e^{-2\pi i a}} \frac{2\pi i}{za} = \frac{\pi}{\sin \pi a} (-z)^{-a}$$

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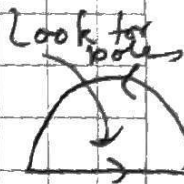
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Example 4)

(Invent an integrand)

$$I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^3}$$

For  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^{2m}}$  could be ~~rewritten~~ rewritten as  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^{2m}} = \oint_C \frac{dz}{1+z^{2m}}$

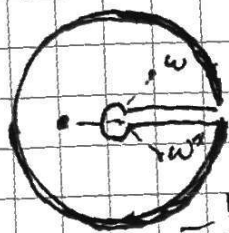


Cannot do this here!

Use the branch cut trick with  $\ln z$  (think of it as  $a \rightarrow 0$  limit)

$$\frac{\ln z = \ln x}{\ln z = \ln x + 2\pi i}$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^3} = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{\ln z}{1+z^3} dz$$

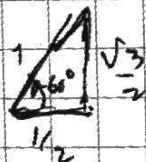


Poles at  $z = (-1)^{1/3} = -1, w = e^{i\pi/3}, w^* = e^{-i\pi/3} = e^{5\pi i/3}$   
 $\ln(-1) = \pi i$      $\ln w = \frac{i\pi}{3}$      $\ln w^* = \frac{5\pi i}{3}$

$$-\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{\ln z}{(z+1)(z-w)(z-w^*)} dz = -\frac{2\pi i}{2\pi i} \left[ \frac{\ln(-1)}{(-1-w)(-1-w^*)} + \frac{\ln w}{(w+1)(w-w^*)} + \frac{\ln w^*}{(w^*+1)(w^*-w)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{i\pi}{3} \left\{ \frac{5}{(w-w^*)(w+1)} - \frac{3}{(w+1)(w^*+1)} - \frac{1}{(w-w^*)(w+1)} \right\}$$

BTW  $w = e^{i\pi/3} = \cos \frac{\pi}{3} + i \sin \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{1}{2}(1+i\sqrt{3})$



$$w^* = \frac{1}{2}(1-i\sqrt{3})$$

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Comments on some ~~special~~ Functions

Gamma function:

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt \quad \text{for } \operatorname{Re} z > 0$$

On other parts of complex plane  $\Gamma$  can be defined via analytic continuation

$$\Gamma(n+1) = \int_0^{\infty} t^n e^{-t} dt = n! \quad \text{when } n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Near  $z=0$  The integral diverges near  $t=0$

$$\int_0^M \frac{t^z}{t} dt \sim \left. \frac{t^z}{z} \right|_0^M \sim \frac{M^z}{z} \sim \frac{1 + z \ln M + \dots}{z} \sim \frac{1}{z}$$

This ~~suggests~~ suggests a simple pole.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also } \Gamma'(z+1) &= \int_0^{\infty} t^z e^{-t} dt = - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{d}{dt} (t^z e^{-t}) dt \\ &\quad + z \int_0^{\infty} t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt \\ &= 0 + z \Gamma(z) \end{aligned} \quad \text{for } \operatorname{Re} z > 0$$

$$\text{So } \boxed{z \Gamma(z) = \Gamma(z+1)}$$

If we use this to continue  $\Gamma(z)$  to  $\operatorname{Re} z \leq 0$

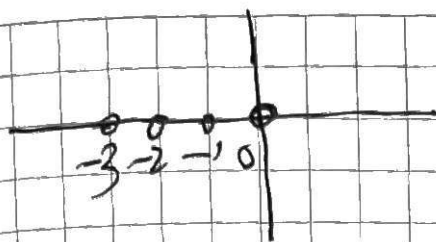
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$\Gamma(z)$  is analytic everywhere

$$\Gamma(z) = \frac{1}{z} \Gamma(z+1)$$

$$\Gamma(1) = 1$$

And  $\Gamma(z)$  is well behaved for small  $z$

$$\Gamma(z) \sim \frac{1}{z} \text{ for small } z$$

Other poles are at  $-n$ , with the residue being  $(-1)^n/n!$

Check:  $\Gamma(-1+\epsilon) = \frac{1}{-1+\epsilon} \Gamma(\epsilon) \sim -\frac{1}{\epsilon}$

$$\Gamma(-2+\epsilon) = \frac{1}{-2+\epsilon} \Gamma(1+\epsilon) \sim -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{\epsilon} \text{ etc etc}$$

Note that  $\Gamma(z) \Gamma(1-z)$  has poles on every integer. At  $n > 0$

$$\Gamma(n+\epsilon) = (n-1)! + O(\epsilon)$$

$$\Gamma(1-n+\epsilon) = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} - \frac{1}{\epsilon} + O(1)$$

For  $n \leq 0$

$$\Gamma(n+\epsilon) = \frac{(-1)^n}{(n)!} \frac{1}{\epsilon} + O(1)$$

$$\Gamma(1-n+\epsilon) = (-n)! + O(\epsilon)$$

So the pole at  $n$  has residue  $(-1)^n$ .

$f(z) = \frac{\pi}{\sin \pi z}$  has the same pole structure

Turns out that

$$\Gamma(z) \Gamma(1-z) = \frac{\pi}{\sin \pi z}$$

Beta Function:  $B(\alpha, \beta) = \int_0^1 t^{\alpha-1} (1-t)^{\beta-1} dt$  with the integral defined for  $\operatorname{Re} \alpha > 0, \operatorname{Re} \beta > 0$

In that range  $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$

We can use that to provide analytical continuation of  $B(\alpha, \beta)$  to  $\mathbb{C}^2$  except at  $\alpha, \beta$  have negative integer values.