

Recall: the residue of f (analytic in $\overline{D^*(p, \varepsilon)}$) at p is $\text{Res}_p(f) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{S^1(p, \varepsilon)} f(z) dz$.
 = coefft of $(z-p)^{-1}$ in Laurent series of f near p (= $\lim_{z \rightarrow p} (z-p)f(z)$ if simple pole)

Residue Theorem: $\left\| \begin{array}{l} \overline{D} \text{ compact domain with piecewise smooth boundary } \gamma = \partial D, P \subset \text{int}(D) \text{ finite set,} \\ f \text{ analytic on } U \supset \overline{D} - P, \text{ then } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{p \in P} \text{Res}_p(f). \end{array} \right.$

We now explore how to use this to evaluate various kinds of definite integrals.

Example 1: $\int_0^{2\pi} R(\sin \theta, \cos \theta) d\theta$ (or $R(e^{i\theta})$) where R is a rational function (w/o. poles on S^1).

e.g. let's calculate $\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a + \cos \theta}$, where $a > 1$.

Set $z = e^{i\theta}$ to turn this into a path integral on S^1 : then $d\theta = \frac{1}{i} d \log z = \frac{dz}{iz}$
 and $\cos \theta = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} \Rightarrow \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a + \cos \theta} = \int_{S^1} \frac{dz/z}{\frac{i}{2}(z + 2a + \bar{z}^{-1})} = -2i \int_{S^1} \frac{dz}{z^2 + 2az + 1}$

The poles are at $p_{\pm} = -a \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 1}$; of these, only $p_+ = -a + \sqrt{a^2 - 1}$ is inside the unit circle. How do we calculate the residue?

$\rightarrow$ partial fractions: $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z - p_+)(z - p_-)} = \frac{1}{p_+ - p_-} \left(\frac{1}{z - p_+} - \frac{1}{z - p_-} \right)$, so $\text{Res}_{p_+}(f) = \frac{1}{p_+ - p_-} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{a^2 - 1}}$

$\rightarrow$ since this is a simple pole: $\text{Res}_{p_+}(f) = \lim_{z \rightarrow p_+} (z - p_+)f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow p_+} \frac{(z - p_+)}{(z - p_+)(z - p_-)} = \frac{1}{p_+ - p_-} = \text{same.}$

Hence $\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a + \cos \theta} = -2i \int_{S^1} f(z) dz = 4\pi \text{Res}_{p_+}(f) = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{a^2 - 1}}$.

Example 2: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ where f is a rational function $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$

(assume Q has no real roots, and $\deg Q \geq \deg P + 2$, so the integral converges).

The trick here is to recall $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R f(x) dx$; and complete the segment $[-R, R]$ to a closed curve in $\mathbb{C}$ by adding a semicircle of radius R in the upper half plane:
 $\int_{-R}^R f(x) dx + \int_{C_R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{\substack{\text{Im } p > 0 \\ \text{and } |p| < R}} \text{Res}_p(f).$

Now, since $f = \frac{P}{Q}$ with $\deg Q \geq \deg P + 2$, $|f(z)| \leq \frac{C}{|z|^2}$, so $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{C_R} f(z) dz = 0$.

Hence: taking $R \rightarrow \infty$, we get $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 2\pi i \sum_{\text{Im}(p) > 0} \text{Res}_p(f).$

We can use $\lim_{z \rightarrow p} (z-p)f(z)$ to find $\text{Res}_p(f)$ if all poles are simple, else partial (2)

fractions. (Of course, the method of partial fractions already allowed us to integrate f !)

Ex: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2+1} = 2\pi i \text{Res}_i\left(\frac{1}{z^2+1}\right) = \pi$ (which we already knew using arctan)

using $\text{Res}_{z=i}\left(\frac{1}{z^2+1}\right) = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{z-i}{z^2+1} = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{1}{z+i} = \frac{1}{2i}$.

Example 3: mixed rational & exponential functions (now we get to something new!)

Assume $f(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ is a rational function as before (no real poles, $\deg Q \geq \deg P + 2$).

Then we can use the same method as above to calculate $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) e^{iz} dz$ by considering a large disc in the upper half plane.

The key point is that $|e^{iz}| = e^{-\text{Im}(z)} \leq 1$ in the upper half plane, so the path-integral along the semicircle still goes $\rightarrow 0$.

(whereas if integrand has e^{-iz} we'd want to consider the lower half-plane instead.)

Ex: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{iz}}{1+z^2} dz = 2\pi i \text{Res}_{z=i}\left(\frac{e^{iz}}{1+z^2}\right) = 2\pi i \cdot e^{-1} \cdot \text{Res}_{z=i}\left(\frac{1}{1+z^2}\right) = \frac{2\pi i}{2ie} = \frac{\pi}{e}$.

Taking real and imaginary parts:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos x}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{e}, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{1+x^2} dx = 0 \quad (\text{this was expected, by symmetry})$$

Example 3': we can actually handle the case $\deg Q = \deg P + 1$ (still assuming $\nexists$ real poles)

Then $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) e^{iz} dz$ still converges, but not absolutely!

(example: $\int_{n\pi}^{(n+1)\pi} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx \sim (-1)^n \frac{2}{n}$ convergent series, even though not abs. convergent).

Closing the path in $\mathbb{C}$ also requires some care, to show the integrals along the portions we add do $\rightarrow 0$ as radius $\rightarrow \infty$: bounding the integrand by $C/|z|$ isn't good enough.

One popular choice = large rectangle, but semicircle is actually fine! The point is that:

• over the portion where $\text{Im}(z) > A$, $|e^{iz}| < e^{-A}$, so $\left| \int f(z) e^{iz} dz \right| \leq C e^{-A} \rightarrow 0$ as $A \rightarrow \infty$

• the portion where $\text{Im}(z) < A$ has length $\lesssim A$, and $|z| \gtrsim R$, so we have a bound by $\frac{CA}{R}$.

If we use eg. $A = \sqrt{R}$ to split things, we still get $\rightarrow 0$ as $R \rightarrow \infty$.

Eg: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{ze^{iz}}{a^2+z^2} dz = 2\pi i \text{Res}_{z=ia}\left(\frac{ze^{iz}}{a^2+z^2}\right) = 2\pi i \left(\frac{ze^{iz}}{z+ia}\right)_{z=ia} = i\pi e^{-a}$.

($a > 0$)

Taking imaginary part, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{a^2+x^2} dx = \pi e^{-a}$.

How about... $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$? (G.H. Hardy's note in the Mathematical Gazette, 1909, (3) scores various methods (!)).

→ this one again converges, though not absolutely.

→ $\frac{\sin z}{z} = 1 - \frac{z^2}{3!} + \frac{z^4}{5!} - \dots$ is analytic in the whole plane, so... what residues ??

→ $\frac{\sin z}{z} = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2iz}$ → ∞ both in upper & lower half plane, so how do we use our trick of closing to a half-disc?

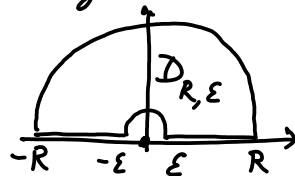
→ however... $\frac{\sin x}{x} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \sin x}{a^2 + x^2}$, and in fact after a painful discussion of

the convergence as $a \rightarrow 0$ and interchange of limits, one can check $a \rightarrow 0$ is legitimate.

But it is more instructive to see how we can adjust the previous argument to handle $a=0$.

→ the actual issue: for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $\frac{\sin x}{x} = \text{Im}\left(\frac{e^{ix}}{x}\right)$, but $\frac{e^{iz}}{z}$ has a pole at 0, on the path of integration. And in fact, $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x} dx$ is divergent at 0.

Solution: modify the contour of integration to avoid 0, to carve out a small half-disc from our large semidisc or rectangle.



Observe:

- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \lim_{\substack{R \rightarrow \infty \\ \epsilon \rightarrow 0}} \int_{[-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \lim_{\substack{R \rightarrow \infty \\ \epsilon \rightarrow 0}} \text{Im} \int_{[-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz$
- $\int_{\partial D_{R,\epsilon}} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = 0$ by Cauchy (no poles in $D_{R,\epsilon}$)
- the integral on the semicircle of radius R tends to 0 as $R \rightarrow \infty$ as before
 $\left(\left| \frac{e^{iz}}{z} \right| = \frac{e^{-\text{Im} z}}{R} \Rightarrow \text{consider separately regions } \text{Im}(z) < A \text{ and } > A \text{ for } 1 \ll A \ll R \right)$
- on the semicircle of radius ϵ : $\text{Res}_0\left(\frac{e^{iz}}{z}\right) = 1$, so we can write
 $\frac{e^{iz}}{z} = \frac{1}{z} + g(z)$ where $g(z)$ is analytic near 0 ($g(z) = \frac{e^{iz} - 1}{z}$).

Since g is bounded, $\int_{C_\epsilon} g(z) dz \rightarrow 0$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, whereas $\int_{C_\epsilon} \frac{1}{z} dz = i\pi$

Combining: $\partial D_{R,\epsilon} = ([-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]) + C_R - C_\epsilon$ (half of our usual $2\pi i$!).

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\substack{\epsilon \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty}} \int_{[-R, -\epsilon] \cup [\epsilon, R]} \frac{e^{iz}}{z} dz = i\pi \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \pi.$$

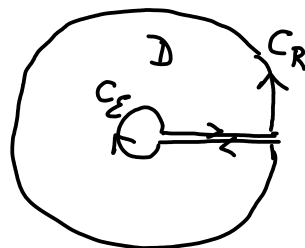
* One more class of examples: non-integer powers of z .

Consider for example, $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx$ for $0 < \alpha < 1$. ($\Rightarrow$ converges at ∞).

If $\alpha = \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$ we can evaluate by substitution $x = u^q$ to get a rational function (but still not much fun). But here's a more general approach. (4)

Difficulty: $\frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2}$ isn't a single-valued analytic function $\Rightarrow$ how to use residues?

Trick: do something similar to our last example, use a "keyhole" region of integration: $\varepsilon \leq |z| \leq R$, with a slit along real positive axis.



With a better behaved integrand, the two portions along $[\varepsilon, R]$ would cancel out! But here they don't; we can define $\frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2}$ as an analytic function over $\text{int}(D)$, but its values on either side of the real axis don't match!

Explicitly: we take $z^\alpha = e^{\alpha \log z}$ to be the branch with $\text{Im}(\log z) \in (0, 2\pi)$. Going around the origin, $\log x \rightarrow \log x + 2\pi i$, so x^α gets multiplied by $e^{2\pi i \alpha}$.

$$\text{So } \int_{\partial D} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz = \int_{\varepsilon}^R \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx + \int_{C_R} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz - \int_{\varepsilon}^R \frac{e^{2\pi i \alpha} x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx - \int_{C_\varepsilon} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz$$

$$\int_{C_R} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty \quad \left(\left| \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} \right| \leq \frac{C}{R^{2-\alpha}}, \text{ length} = 2\pi R, \text{ and } 2-\alpha > 1 \right).$$

$$\int_{C_\varepsilon} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \quad (\text{integrand and length} \rightarrow 0).$$

$$\text{So: } \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\partial D} \frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} dz = (1 - e^{2\pi i \alpha}) \int_0^\infty \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx.$$

While the residue formula equates this with $2\pi i \left(\text{Res}_{z=i} \left(\frac{z^\alpha}{1+z^2} \right) + \text{Res}_{z=-i} \right)$

$$\text{at } z=i: \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{z^\alpha(z-i)}{z^2+1} = \left(\frac{z^\alpha}{z+i} \right) \Big|_{z=i} = \frac{1}{2i} e^{\alpha \log(i)} = \frac{1}{2i} e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}\alpha}$$

$$\text{at } z=-i: \text{ similarly get } -\frac{1}{2i} e^{3i\frac{\pi}{2}\alpha}.$$

$$\text{Hence: } \int_0^\infty \frac{x^\alpha}{1+x^2} dx = \pi \frac{e^{i\pi\alpha/2} - e^{3i\pi\alpha/2}}{1 - e^{2\pi i \alpha}} = \frac{\pi \sin(\frac{\pi\alpha}{2})}{\sin(\pi\alpha)} = \frac{\pi}{2 \cos(\pi\alpha/2)}.$$

Our next topic is infinite sum & product expansions (Ahlfors ch. 5.1-5.2)

We've seen: if f is analytic in the annulus $\{R_1 < |z| < R_2\}$ then it has a Laurent series expansion $f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n z^n$, which may or may not have finite negative part.

But... often there are better representations. Eg., for rational functions, we may factor into products of deg 1 terms to evidence the zeros & poles, or express as sum of $\frac{1}{(z-a_i)^k}$ (partial fractions). We'll learn how to do analogues of this for general meromorphic functions.