

**II YEAR-III SEMESTER  
COURSE CODE: 7MMA3C1**

**CORE COURSE-IX-COMPLEX ANALYSIS**

**Unit I**

Concept of analytic function – Elementary theory of power series – Conformability – Linear transformations.

**Unit II**

Complex integration – Cauchy integral formula.

**Unit III**

Local properties of analytic functions.

**Unit IV**

Calculus of residues.

**Unit V**

Power series expansions – canonical products – Jensen's formula.

**Text Book**

Lars V. Ahlfors, Complex Analysis, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, McGraw Hill International Book Company, 1979.

Chapter II	:	(Sections 1, 2)
Chapter III	:	(Sections 2, 3)
Chapter IV	:	(Sections 1, 2, 3, & 5)
Chapter V	:	(Sections 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.3).

**Books for Supplementary Reading and Reference:**

1. S.Ponnusamy, Foundations of Complex Analysis, Narosa Publication House, New Delhi, 2004.
2. John B.Conway, Functions of One Complex Variable, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Springer-Verlag, International Student Edition, Narosa Publishing Company.



# UNIT - I

- \* Concept of analytic function
- \* Elementary theory of power series
- \* Conformability.
- \* Linear transformations.

# Unit - I

## Lucas theorem

Statement:

If all zeros of a polynomial  $p(z)$  lie in a half plane. Then all <sup>roots</sup> zeros of the derivatives  $p'(z)$  lie in the same half plane.

proof:-

Let  $P(z) = (z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \dots (z - \alpha_n)$   
where  $\alpha_i$  are not necessarily distinct.

The hypothesis implies that

$$\operatorname{Im} \left[ \frac{\alpha_i - a}{b} \right] < 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n$$

If  $z$  is not in the half plane in ~~the~~ which  $\alpha_j$ 's lie. Then

We have,  $\operatorname{Im} \left( \frac{z - a}{b} \right) \geq 0$  for any such  $z$ .

$$P'(z) = (z - \alpha_2)(z - \alpha_3) \dots (z - \alpha_n) + (z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_3) \dots (z - \alpha_n) + \dots + (z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \dots (z - \alpha_{n-1})$$

$$\frac{P'(z)}{P(z)} = \frac{1}{z - \alpha_1} + \frac{1}{z - \alpha_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{z - \alpha_n} \\ = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{z - \alpha_i} \text{ and hence}$$

$$\operatorname{Im} \left( \frac{z - \alpha_i}{b} \right) = \operatorname{Im} \left( \frac{z - a}{b} \right) = \operatorname{Im} \left( \frac{\alpha_i - a}{b} \right) < 0$$

But the imaginary parts of reciprocal numbers have opposite sign and at conclude the  $\operatorname{Im} \left( \frac{b}{z - \alpha_i} \right) < 0$  ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ )

Hence  $\operatorname{Im} \left( b \frac{P'(z)}{P(z)} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{Im} \left( \frac{b}{z - \alpha_i} \right) < 0$   
and hence  $P'(z) \neq 0$

We have proved that,

If  $z$  is not in the same half plane as  $\alpha$ 's

Then  $P'(z) \neq 0$

Thus all the zeroes of  $P'(z)$  lie in the same half plane

Hence proved.

Corollary:-

The smallest convex polygon that contains all the zeroes of  $P(z)$  also contains all the roots zeroes of  $P'(z)$ .

Abel theorem:

For every power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  there exists a number  $R$ ,  $0 \leq R \leq \infty$  called the radius of convergence is the following properties:

i) The series converges absolutely for every  $z$  with  $|z| < R$ . If  $0 \leq \rho < R$ , the converges is uniform for  $|z| \leq \rho$

ii) If  $|z| > R$ , the terms of a series are unbounded and series is consequently divergence.

iii) If  $|z| < R$ . Thus the sum of the series is analytic function. The derivative can be obtain by termwise differentiation and the derive series has the same radius of convergence.

Proof:-

Let  $R$  be a radius of convergence

$$\frac{1}{R} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$$

i) If  $|z| < R$

We can find  $\rho : |z| < \rho < R$

Then  $\frac{1}{\rho} > \frac{1}{R}$  by defn of supremum  
there exists an ~~no~~ <sup>such that</sup>  $n_0$  ~~of~~  $|a_n|^{1/n} < \frac{1}{\rho}$

$$\Rightarrow |a_n| < \frac{1}{\rho^n} \text{ for } n \geq n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_n z^n| < \frac{z^n}{\rho^n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum |a_n z^n| < \sum \left(\frac{z}{\rho}\right)^n$$

which is the geometric series

$\therefore \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  has a convergent geometric series  
and is consequently convergent.

$\therefore \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  is absolutely convergent.

Next to prove: uniform convergence.

$$|z| < \rho < R$$

We choose  $\rho'$  with  $\rho < \rho' < R$

The series  $\sum a_n z^n$  is bounded.

$$\sum |a_n z^n| \leq \sum |a_n (\rho')^n| \leq K \text{ --- (1)}$$

$$\leq \sum \left| a_n (\rho')^n \frac{z^n}{(\rho')^n} \right|$$

$$= \sum |a_n (\rho')^n| \left| \left(\frac{z}{\rho'}\right)^n \right|$$

$$= \sum |a_n (\rho')^n| \left| \left(\frac{z}{\rho'}\right)^n \right|$$

$$= \sum |K| \left| \frac{z}{\rho'} \right|^n$$

$$= |K| \sum \frac{|z|^n}{|\rho'|^n}$$

$$\leq |K| \leq \frac{p^n}{p^n}$$

$$= |K| \leq \left(\frac{p}{p'}\right)^n$$

By Weierstrass M-test  $\sum a_n z^n$  is uniformly convergent.

ii) If  $|z| > R$

We choose  $p$  so that  $R < p < |z|$ .

Since  $\frac{1}{p} < \frac{1}{R}$  for large  $n$  there exists

$$|a_n|^{1/n} > \frac{1}{p}$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_n| > \frac{1}{p^n}$$

Thus  $\sum |a_n z^n| > \sum \left(\frac{|z|}{p}\right)^n$  for infinitely many  $n$ .

$\sum a_n z^n$  is unbounded and hence it is divergence.

iii) Let  $\sqrt[n]{n} = 1 + s_n$ ,  $s_n > 0$

$$n = (1 + s_n)^n > 1 + \frac{1}{2}(n(n-1))s_n^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{n(n-1)}{2} s_n^2 < n-1$$

$$\Rightarrow n s_n^2 < 1(2)$$

$$\Rightarrow s_n^2 < \frac{2}{n} \text{ and hence } s_n \rightarrow 0$$

for  $|z| < R$

$$\text{Let } f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n = S_n(z) + R_n(z)$$

$$\text{where } S_n(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_{n-1} z^{n-1}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{n-1} a_n z^n$$

$$R_n(z) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k z^k$$

$$\text{and also } S_n'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{n-1} a_n n z^{n-1}$$

$$\text{Also, } f_1(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n z^{n-1}$$

$$f_1(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n'(z)$$

We have to show that  $f'(z) = f_1(z)$   
consider the identity,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f_1(z_0) &= \frac{S_n(z) + R_n(z) - R_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} - \left[ f_1(z_0) + S_n'(z_0) - S_n'(z_0) \right] \\ &= \left[ \frac{S_n(z) - S_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} - S_n'(z_0) \right] + \\ &\quad \left[ S_n'(z_0) - f_1(z_0) \right] + \\ &\quad \left[ \frac{R_n(z) - R_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} \right] \quad \text{--- ①} \\ \frac{R_n(z) - R_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} &= \frac{\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k z^k - \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k z_0^k}{z - z_0} \\ &= \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{a_k (z^k - z_0^k)}{z - z_0} \\ &= \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{z} (z^k - z_0^k) \left( 1 - \frac{z_0}{z} \right)^{k-1} \\ &= \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k (z^{k-1} - z_0^k z^{-1}) \left[ 1 + \frac{z_0}{z} + \frac{z_0^2}{z^2} + \dots + \left( \frac{z_0}{z} \right)^{k-1} + \left( \frac{z_0}{z} \right)^k + \left( \frac{z_0}{z} \right)^{k+1} + \dots \right] \end{aligned}$$

where  $z \neq z_0$  and  $|z|, |z_0| < \rho < R$   
(In paper)

Let  $R_1$  be the series of convergences  
of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n z^{n-1}$

$$\frac{1}{R_1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|n a_n|}$$

from (\*)  $n\sqrt[n]{n} = 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{1}{R_1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|n a_n|}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup n\sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$$

$$= \frac{1}{R}$$

Hence the radius of convergence is same

Differentiable curve:

A curve  $\gamma$  is said to be differentiable if  $z'(t)$  exists and is continuous.

Regular or smooth curve:

A curve is said to be regular or smooth if  $z'(t) \neq 0$

pointwise differentiable curve: (piecewise)

A curve  $c$  is given by  $z = z(t)$  is said to be piecewise differentiable if it is differentiable except a finite number of points and at any point where  $z(t)$  is not differentiable it has a left derivative and right derivative.

conformal:

Let  $f$  be a continuous function define in the region  $D$ . Let  $z_0 \in D$ . Let  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  be two regular curve passing through  $z_0$  and lying in  $D$ .

Let  $c_1'$  and  $c_2'$  be the image of  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  respectively under  $f'$  if the angle between  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  is equal to the angle between  $c_1'$  and  $c_2'$  both in magnitude and direction. Then  $f$  is said to be conformal at  $z_0$ .

## Isogonal:

If the angle is preserved only in magnitude and direction is reversed. Then the mapping is said to be isogonal or indirectly conformal.

Abel limit thm /  $\Pi$  part of Abel's thm

Statement:

If  $\sum_0^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $f(z) = \sum_0^{\infty} a_n z^n$  tends to  $f[1]$  as  $z$  approaches 1 in such a way that  $\frac{1-z}{1-|z|}$  remains bounded.

proof:-

We may assume that  $\sum_0^{\infty} a_n = 0$  for this can be attained by adding a constant to  $a_0$ .

We write,

$s_n = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n$  and we make of identity

$$\begin{aligned} s_n(z) &= a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_n z^n \\ &= s_0 + (s_1 - s_0)z + \dots + (s_n - s_{n-1})z^n \end{aligned}$$

where  $n=0$  in  $s_n \Rightarrow s_0 = a_0$

$n=1$  in  $s_n \Rightarrow s_1 = a_0 + a_1$

$$\Rightarrow s_1 = s_0 + a_1$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1 = (s_1 - s_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow a_2 = (s_2 - s_1)$$

Similarly  $n=n-1$  in  $s_n \Rightarrow$

$$s_{n-1} = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1}$$

$$s_{n-1} = s_{n-2} + a_{n-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{n-1} = (s_{n-1} - s_{n-2})$$

$n=n$  in  $s_n \Rightarrow s_n = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n$

$$s_n = s_{n-1} + a_n$$

$$a_n = (s_n - s_{n-1})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow S_n(z) &= s_0 + (s_1 - s_0)z + \dots + (s_n - s_{n-1})z^n \\ &= s_0(1-z) + s_1(z-z^2) + \dots + \\ &\quad s_{n-1}(z^{n-1} - z^n) + s_n z^n \\ &= s_0(1-z) + s_1 z(1-z) + s_2 z^2(1-z) + \\ &\quad \dots + s_{n-1} z^{n-1}(1-z) + s_n z^n \end{aligned}$$

$$S_n(z) = (1-z) [s_0 + s_1 z + s_2 z^2 + \dots + s_{n-1} z^{n-1}]$$

$$S_n(z) = (1-z) [s_0 + s_1 z + s_2 z^2 + \dots + s_{n-1} z^{n-1} + s_n z^n]$$

But  $s_n z^n \rightarrow 0$  we obtain the representation

$$|f(z)| = |(1-z) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} s_n z^n|$$

$$\leq |1-z| \left[ \left| \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} s_n z^n \right| + \left| \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} s_n z^n \right| \right]$$

$$\leq |1-z| \left| \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} s_n z^n \right| + |1-z| \left| \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} s_n z^n \right|$$

$$< |1-z| \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} |s_n z^n| + |1-z| \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} |s_n z^n|$$

$$< |1-z| \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} |s_n z^n| + |1-z| \leq \frac{|z|^m}{|1-z|}$$

$$\left[ \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} |z|^n = |z|^m + |z|^{m+1} + \dots \right]$$

$$= |z|^m [1 + |z| + |z|^2 + \dots]$$

$$= |z|^m \left[ \frac{1}{1-|z|} \right]$$

$$\therefore |f(z)| \leq |1-z| \sum_{n=0}^{m-1} |s_n z^n| + k\varepsilon$$

The 1<sup>st</sup> term on the right is arbitrary small by choosing  $z$  sufficient close by 1.

We conclude that  $f(z) \rightarrow 0$  as  $z \rightarrow 1$

pb1001

Find the radius of convergence of the following power series

i)  $\sum \frac{1}{n^n} z^n$

ii)  $\sum \frac{z^n}{n!}$

soln: The given series is  $\sum \frac{1}{n^n} z^n$

Here  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^n}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{W.K.T, } \frac{1}{R} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{|n^n|} \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{n} \right) = \frac{1}{\infty} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{R} = 0 \Rightarrow R = \infty$$

ii) The given power series  $\sum \frac{z^n}{n!}$

Here  $a_n = \frac{1}{n!}$  and  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{(n+1)!}$

W.K.T,

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

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{n!} \times \frac{(n+1)n!}{1} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1)$$

$$R = \infty$$

pb1m: 2

Find the fixed point of the following linear transformation

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

(ii)  $w = \frac{2z}{3z-1}$

(iii)  $w = \frac{3z-4}{z-1}$

soln:

(i) given  $w = \frac{z}{2z-1}$

put  $w = z$

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

$$2z^2 - z - z = 0 \Rightarrow 2z = 0 \text{ (or) } (z-1) = 0$$

$$2z^2 - 2z = 0 \Rightarrow 2z(z-1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z = 0 \text{ (or) } z = 1$$

$\therefore z=0, 1$  are fixed point

(ii) Given  $w = \frac{2z}{3z-1}$

put  $w=z$

$$z = \frac{2z}{3z-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 3z^2 - z - 2z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 3z^2 - 3z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 3z(z-1) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} 3z &= 0 & z-1 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow z &= 0 & z &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

$z=0, 1$  are fixed points

iii) Given  $w = \frac{3z-4}{z-1}$

put  $w=z$

$$z = \frac{3z-4}{z-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow z^2 - z - 3z + 4 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z^2 - 4z + 4 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (z-2)(z-2) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow z = 2, 2$$

$z=2, 2$  are fixed point

5) Find the linear transformation which carries  $(0, 1, -i)$  and  $(1, -1, 0)$

Soln:-

Given  $z_1=0, z_2=i, z_3=-i$

$w_1=1, w_2=-i, w_3=0$

$$\frac{(w-w_2)(w_1-w_3)}{(w-w_3)(w_1-w_2)} = \frac{(z-z_2)(z_1-z_3)}{(z-z_3)(z_1-z_2)}$$

$$\frac{(w+1)(1-0)}{(w-0)(1+i)} = \frac{(z-i)(0+i)}{(z+i)(0-i)}$$

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

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

$$-(z+i)(w+1) = (z-i)2w$$

$$-wz - iw - z - i = 2zw - 2iw$$

$$-wz - 2zw - wi - z - i + 2iw = 0$$

$$-3zw + wi - z - i = 0$$

$$w(-3z+i) - (z+i) = 0$$

$$w(-3z+i) = z+i$$

$$w = \frac{z+i}{-3z+i}$$

✓ Find the linear transformation which carries  $(2, 0, 2)$  into  $(0, i, -i)$ .

soln:-

$$\text{Given } z_1 = -2, z_2 = 0, z_3 = 2$$

$$w_1 = 0, w_2 = i, w_3 = -i$$

$$\frac{(w-w_2)(w-w_3)}{(w-w_3)(w-w_1)} = \frac{(z-z_2)(z-z_3)}{(z-z_3)(z-z_1)}$$

$$\frac{(w-i)(0+i)}{(w+i)(0-i)} = \frac{(z-0)(-2-2)}{(z-2)(-2-0)}$$

$$\frac{(w-i)i}{(w+i)(-i)} = \frac{-4z}{-2(z-2)}$$

$$\frac{(w-i)}{-(w+i)} = \frac{2z}{z-2}$$

$$(w-i)(z-2) = -2z(w+i)$$

$$wz - 2w - iz + 2i = -2zw - 2iz$$

$$wz + 2w - iz + 2i + 2wz + 2iz = 0$$

$$3wz + iz - 2w + 2i = 0$$

$$w(3z-2) = -iz - 2i$$

$$w = \frac{-i(z+2)}{3z-2}$$

Find a linear transformation which carries  $(2, i, -2)$  into  $(1, i, -1)$

Soln:-

Given  $z_1 = 2, z_2 = i, z_3 = -2$

$w_1 = 1, w_2 = i, w_3 = -1$

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

$$\frac{(w-i)(2)}{(w+1)(1-i)} = \frac{(z-i)(4)}{(z+2)(2-i)}$$

$$(z+2)(2-i)(w-i) = 2(z-i)(w+1)(1-i)$$

$$(2z - iz + 4 - 2i)(w-i) =$$

$$2(zw + z - iw - i)(1-i)$$

$$2zw - izw + 4w - 2iw - 2iz + (-1)z - 4i + (-1)2 =$$

$$2zw + 2z - 2iw - 2i - 2izw - 2iz + (-2)w + (-2)$$

$$2zw + 4w - 2iw - 2iz - z - 4i - 2 - 2zw - 2z + 2iw +$$

$$2i + 2iz + 2w + 2 + iwz = 0$$

$$6w - 3z - 2i + iwz = 0$$

$$w(6 + iz) = 3z + 2i$$

$$w = \frac{3z + 2i}{6 + iz}$$

Linear transformation

A linear transformation is  $w = S(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$  with  $ad-bc \neq 0$  has an inverse  $z = S^{-1}(w)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dw-b}{-cw+a}$$

Linear fractional transformation (or) Bilinear transformation (or) Mobius transformation

A transformation of the form  $w = \frac{az+b}{cw+d}$ ,  $ad-bc \neq 0$  where  $a, b, c, d$  are complex numbers called a linear transformation



cross ratio:

The cross ratio  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is the image of  $z$  under the linear transformation which carries  $(z_2, z_3, z_4)$  into  $(1, 0, \infty)$

Given four points  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  taken in order the ratio

$\frac{(z_1 - z_3)(z_2 - z_4)}{(z_1 - z_4)(z_2 - z_3)}$  is called the cross ratio of the points.

Fixed points:

A point which are invariant under a transformation are called fixed point (or) constant point (or) invariant point are of the transformation.

The fixed point of the transformation  $w = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$  is given by  $z = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$  (or)  $(z^2 + dz - az - b) = 0$ .

pblm: 1

$T_1 z = \frac{z+2}{z+3}$ ,  $T_2 z = \frac{z}{z+1}$ . find  $T_1^{-1}(z)$ ,  $T_1 T_2(z)$ ,  $T_2 T_1(z)$ ,  $T_1^{-1} T_2(z)$ ,  $T_1^{-1} T_1(z)$

soln:-

Given  $T_1 z = \frac{z+2}{z+3}$

Let  $T_1 z = \frac{z+2}{z+3} = w$  (say)

$\Rightarrow (z+3)w = z+2$

$wz + 3w = z + 2$

$wz + 3w - z - 2 = 0$

$z(w-1) + 3w - 2 = 0$

$z = \frac{2-3w}{w-1}$

i)  $T_1^{-1}(w) = \frac{2-3w}{w-1}$

ii)  $T_1 T_2(z) = T_1(T_2(z)) = T_1\left(\frac{z}{z+1}\right) = \frac{\left(\frac{z}{z+1}\right) + 2}{\left(\frac{z}{z+1}\right) + 3}$

$$= \left( \frac{z+2z+2}{z+1} \right) / \left( \frac{z+3z+3}{z+1} \right)$$

$$= \frac{z+2z+2}{z+3z+3}$$

$$\therefore T_1 T_2(z) = \frac{3z+2}{4z+3}$$

$$\text{iii) } T_2 T_1(z) = T_2(T_1(z))$$

$$= T_2 \left( \frac{z+2}{z+3} \right)$$

$$= \left( \frac{z+2}{z+3} \right) / \left( \left( \frac{z+2}{z+3} \right) + 1 \right)$$

$$= \frac{\frac{z+2}{z+3}}{\frac{2z+5}{z+3}}$$

$$= \frac{z+2}{z+3} \times \frac{z+3}{2z+5}$$

$$T_2 T_1(z) = \frac{z+2}{2z+5}$$

$$\text{iv) } T_1^{-1} T_2(z) = T_1^{-1} \left( \frac{z}{z+1} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2 - 3 \left( \frac{z}{z+1} \right)}{\left( \frac{z}{z+1} \right) - 1}$$

$$= \frac{2 - \frac{3z}{z+1}}{\frac{z-z-1}{z+1}}$$

$$= \frac{2z+2-3z}{z+1} \times \frac{z+1}{-1}$$

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

$$T_1^{-1} T_2(z) = z-2$$

$$\text{v) } T_1^{-1} T_1(z) = T_1^{-1} \left( \frac{z+2}{z+3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2 - 3 \left( \frac{z+2}{z+3} \right)}{\frac{z+2}{z+3} - 1}$$

$$\frac{z+2}{z+3} - 1$$

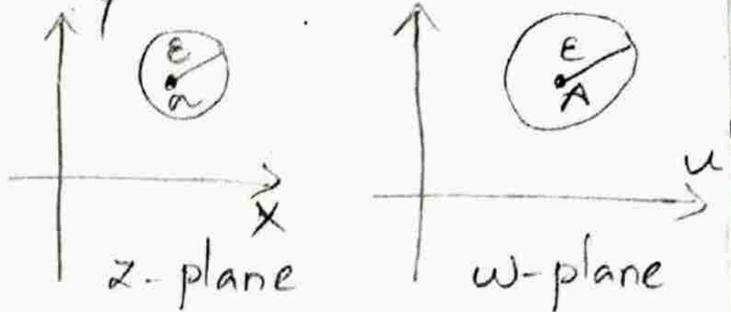
$$= \frac{2 - \left( \frac{3z+6}{z+3} \right)}{z+2 - z - 3}$$

$$= \frac{-z}{-1}$$

$$= \frac{2z+6-3z-6}{z+3} \times \frac{z+3}{-1}$$

$$= \frac{-z}{-1}$$

$$T_1^{-1} T_1(z) = z$$



## Limits and continuity

The function  $f(x)$  is said to have the limit  $A$ . As  $x$  tends to  $a$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A$  iff the following is true

for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a number

$\delta > 0$  with the property that  $|f(x) - A| < \epsilon$  for all values of  $x$  such that  $|x - a| < \delta$  and  $x \neq a$ .

Example:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} = 4$$

Soln:

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$$

$$= \frac{(x+2)(x-2)}{x-2} = x+2$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x+2$$

$$= 2+2$$

$$= 4$$

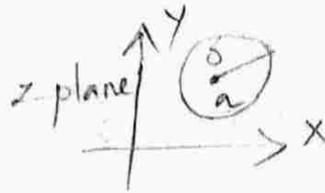
## properties of limits

$$i) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A$$

$$ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \operatorname{Re} f(x) = \operatorname{Re} A$$

$$iii) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \operatorname{Im} f(x) = \operatorname{Im} A.$$

## continuous:



The function  $f(x)$  is said to be continuous at 'a' if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ . Thus  $f(x)$  is continuous at  $f(a)$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$

Ex:

$f(z) = xy^2 + i(2x - y)$  is continuous type every where in the complex field.

## properties of continuous

Let  $f(x), g(x)$  is continuous

i)  $f(x) + g(x)$  is continuous.

ii)  $f(x)g(x)$  is continuous

iii)  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is continuous in  $g(x) \neq 0$

iv)  $\operatorname{Re} f(x), \operatorname{Im} f(x), |f(x)|$  are continuous.

## Differentiable:

Let  $f$  be a complex function define in a region  $D$  and let  $z \in D$ . Then  $f$  is said to be "differentiable of  $z$ ". If  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h}$  exists and its finite.

This limit is denoted by  $f'(z)$  and this is called the derivative of  $f(z)$  at  $z$ .

The function is said to be differentiable  $\mathcal{D}$  if it is differentiable at all points of  $\mathcal{D}$

Ex:

The function  $f(z) = z^2$  is differentiable everywhere

Analytic function (or) holomorphic function

A function 'f' define in a region  $\mathcal{D}$  of the complex plane is said to be analytic at a point  $a \in \mathcal{D}$  if 'f' is differentiable at every point of some neighbourhood of a.

Thus f is analytic at A if there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that f is differentiable at every point of the disc

$$\delta(a, \epsilon) = \{z \mid |z - a| < \epsilon\}$$

If f is analytic at every point of the region  $\mathcal{D}$ . Then f is said to be analytic in  $\mathcal{D}$ .

The function which is analytic at every point of complex plane is called an entire function or integral function.

Ex: Any polynomial is an entire function  $z^3 + z$  is analytic

Cauchy Riemann equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

(or)

$$u_x = v_y$$

$$u_y = -v_x$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

Laplace equation

$$\Delta^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

$$\Delta^2 v = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

## Harmonic function

A function  $u$  is satisfies Laplace eqn

$\Delta u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$  is said to be harmonic function.

Ex:  $u = x^2 - y^2$

soln:-

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2x, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -2y$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 2, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = -2$$

$$\Delta u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 2 - 2 = 0$$

Hence  $u = x^2 - y^2$  is harmonic.

## Conjugate harmonic function

If two harmonic function  $u$  and  $v$  satisfies CR-equations  $u_x = v_y$  and  $v_y = -v_x$ . Then  $v$  is said to be harmonic conjugate of  $u$ .

Prblm:

verify CR-eqns for the function

- i)  $z^2$  ii)  $e^z$  iii)  $z^3$  iv)  $\operatorname{Re} z$  v)  $e^x(\cos y - i \sin y)$

soln:

i) Let  $z = x + iy$

$$w = f(z) = z^2 = (x + iy)^2 \\ = x^2 - y^2 + 2ixy$$

Equating Re and Im parts

$$u = x^2 - y^2$$

$$v = 2xy$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2x$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 2y$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -2y$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 2x$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$f(z) = z^2$  satisfies CR-equations.

$$\text{ii) } w = f(z) = e^z = e^{x+iy} = e^x \cdot e^{iy} \\ = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y)$$

Equating real and Im parts

$$u = e^x \cos y \quad v = e^x \sin y$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = e^x \cos y \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = e^x \sin y$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -e^x \sin y \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = e^x \cos y$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$w = e^z = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y)$  satisfies the CR equations.

$$\text{iii) } w = f(z) = z^3 = (x+iy)^3$$

$$= x^3 - iy^3 + 3x^2iy - 3xy^2$$

Equating real and Im parts

$$u = x^3 - 3xy^2 \quad v = 3x^2y - y^3$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 3x^2 - 3y^2 \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 6xy$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -6xy \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 3x^2 - 3y^2$$

$\therefore f(z) = z^3$  satisfies  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$

$$\text{iv) } w = \operatorname{Re} z$$

$$\text{Let } z = x + iy$$

$$\text{Now, } u = x \quad v = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 1 \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0 \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0$$

Re  $z$  not satisfy the CR eqns.

$$v) w = f(z) = e^x (\cos y - i \sin y)$$

By parts of Re and Im

$$u = e^x \cos y \quad v = -e^x \sin y$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = e^x \cos y \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -e^x \sin y$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -e^x \sin y \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = -e^x \cos y$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \neq \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \neq -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

Hence  $f(z) = e^x (\cos y - i \sin y)$  does not satisfy CR eqns.

P.T a harmonic function  $u$  satisfies the formal differential eqn  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z \partial \bar{z}} = 0$ .

Soln:-

Given  $u$  is harmonic

ie)  $u$  satisfy Laplace eqn

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

$$\text{Now, } x = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$$

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2}i$$

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial \bar{z}} = -\frac{1}{2}i$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial \bar{z}} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial \bar{z}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \left(-\frac{1}{2}i\right) \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial z}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \left(\frac{1}{2}i\right) \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z \partial \bar{z}} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial \bar{z}} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \right) \\
&\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z \partial x} + i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z \partial y} \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + i \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \right] \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\frac{1}{2} i) \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \right. \\
&\quad \left. i \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) + i \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\frac{1}{2} i) \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \left[ \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} - i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} + i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right] \\
\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z \partial \bar{z}} &= 0
\end{aligned}$$

Hence proved.

Necessary and sufficient condition for the function  $f(z)$  to be analytic.

Necessary condition:

Let  $w = f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  be differentiable at any point  $z = x + iy$  of its domain  $D$ . Then the partial derivatives  $u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y$  exists and satisfy the CR eqn  $u_x = v_y$  and  $u_y = -v_x$ .

proof:-

Let  $f(z) = u + iv$  be analytic at any point  $z$  of the domain  $D$ .

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z + \Delta z) - f(z)}{\Delta z} \text{ exists}$$

and is unique.

If  $z = x + iy$ ,  $\Delta z = \Delta x + i\Delta y$  as  $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$   $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  also tends to zero

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\substack{\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \\ \Delta y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) + iv(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y) - iv(x, y)}{\Delta x + i\Delta y}$$

$$= \lim_{\substack{\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \\ \Delta y \rightarrow 0}} \left[ \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y)}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} + \frac{iv(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - iv(x, y)}{\Delta x + i\Delta y} \right]$$

①

Now, let us take possible path in which  $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ .

Case (i):

$\Delta z \rightarrow 0$  along the real axis such that  $\Delta z = \Delta x$

$\Delta y = 0$  and allow  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$

we get

$$f'(z) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y) - u(x, y)}{\Delta x} + \frac{iv(x+\Delta x, y) - iv(x, y)}{\Delta x} \right]$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y) - u(x, y)}{\Delta x} \right] + i$$

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{v(x+\Delta x, y) - v(x, y)}{\Delta x} \right]$$

$$f'(z) = u_x + iv_x \quad \text{--- ②}$$

Since  $f'(z)$  exists the above limit exists which means that  $u_x$  and  $v_x$  exists.

Case (ii):

$\Delta z \rightarrow 0$  along the imaginary axis such that  $\Delta z = i\Delta y$ ,  $\Delta x = 0$  and allow

$\Delta y \rightarrow 0$

from ① we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(z) &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{u(x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y)}{i\Delta y} + \right. \\
 &\quad \left. i \frac{v(x, y+\Delta y) - v(x, y)}{i\Delta y} \right] \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{u(x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y)}{i\Delta y} \right] + \\
 &\quad \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{v(x, y+\Delta y) - v(x, y)}{i\Delta y} \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{i} u_y + v_y \\
 &= -iu_y + v_y
 \end{aligned}$$

$$f'(z) = v_y - iu_y \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Since  $f'(z)$  exists the above limit exists which means  $u_y$  and  $v_y$  exists.

Since the limit should be unique and hence eqn (2) and (3) should be equal.

$$u_x + iv_x = v_y - iu_y$$

Equating real and Im parts

$$u_x = v_y \quad \text{and} \quad u_y = -v_x$$

These eqn are called CR-eqns.

Sufficient condition:

The function  $w = f(z) = u + iv$  is analytic in a domain  $D$ . If (i)  $u, v$  are differentiable in  $D$  and  $u_x = v_y$  and

$$u_y = -v_x$$

(ii) The partial derivatives  $u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y$  are all continuous in  $D$ .

proof:

$$\text{Let } w = u + iv \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\Delta w = \Delta u + i\Delta v \quad \text{--- (*)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \Delta u &= u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y) \\ &= \{u(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y+\Delta y)\} + \\ &\quad \{u(x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y)\} \quad \text{--- (2)} \end{aligned}$$

using mean value thm in (2) we get

$$\Delta u = \Delta x u_x(x+\theta_1 \Delta x, y+\Delta y) + \Delta y u_y(x, y+\theta_2 \Delta y) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

where  $0 < \theta_1 < 1$ ,  $0 < \theta_2 < 1$

Since  $u_x$  is given to be continuous

$$|u_x(x+\theta_1 \Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u_x(x, y)|$$

||ly, since  $u_y$  is continuous

$$|u_y(x, y+\theta_2 \Delta y) - u_y(x, y)| < \eta$$

Let us choose  $\epsilon_1 < \epsilon$  and  $\eta_1 < \eta$

$$u_x(x+\theta_1 \Delta x, y+\Delta y) - u_x(x, y) = \epsilon_1$$

$$u_x(x+\theta_1 \Delta x, y+\Delta y) = \epsilon_1 + u_x(x, y)$$

$$\text{||ly } u_y(x, y+\theta_2 \Delta y) = \eta_1 + u_y(x, y)$$

sub in (3)

$$\Delta u = \Delta x (u_x(x, y) + \epsilon_1) + \Delta y (u_y(x, y) + \eta_1)$$

L (4)

In the same way, we get,

$$\Delta v = \Delta x (u_x(x, y) + \epsilon_2) + \Delta y (u_y(x, y) + \eta_2)$$

L (5)

putting these values in (\*)

$$\Delta w = [(u_x + \epsilon_1) \Delta x + (u_y + \eta_1) \Delta y] + i$$

$$[(v_x + \epsilon_2) \Delta x + (v_y + \eta_2) \Delta y]$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= [u_x \Delta x + u_y \Delta y + \epsilon_1 \Delta x + \eta_1 \Delta y + i v_x \Delta x + \\ &\quad \epsilon_2 \Delta x + i \Delta y v_y + i \eta_2 \Delta y] \end{aligned}$$

$$= (u_x + iv_x) \Delta x + (u_y + iv_y) \Delta y + (\varepsilon_1 + i\varepsilon_2) \Delta x + (\eta_1 + i\eta_2) \Delta y$$

$$= (u_x + iv_x) \Delta x + (u_y + iv_y) \Delta y + \varepsilon_0 \Delta x + \eta_0 \Delta y$$

using  $u_x = v_y$  and  $u_y = -v_x$  and

$$\varepsilon_0 = \varepsilon_1 + i\varepsilon_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_0 = \eta_1 + i\eta_2$$

$$\Delta w = (u_x + iv_x) \Delta x + (-v_x + iu_x) \Delta y + \varepsilon_0 \Delta x + \eta_0 \Delta y$$

$$= (u_x + iv_x) \Delta x + (i^2 v_x + iu_x) \Delta y + \varepsilon_0 \Delta x + \eta_0 \Delta y$$

$$= (u_x + iv_x) \Delta x + i(u_x + iv_x) \Delta y + \varepsilon_0 \Delta x + \eta_0 \Delta y$$

$$= (u_x + iv_x) (\Delta x + i \Delta y) + \varepsilon_0 \Delta x + \eta_0 \Delta y$$

Divide by  $\Delta z = \Delta x + i \Delta y$

$$\frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} = (u_x + iv_x) + \frac{\varepsilon_0 \Delta x + \eta_0 \Delta y}{\Delta x + i \Delta y}$$

$$\lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta z} = (u_x + iv_x) + \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{\varepsilon_0 \Delta x + \eta_0 \Delta y}{\Delta x + i \Delta y} \right)$$

as  $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\Delta y \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\varepsilon_0 \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\eta_0 \rightarrow 0$

$$\frac{dw}{dz} = u_x + iv_x$$

$$\text{ie) } f'(z) = u_x + iv_x$$

Since  $u_x, v_x$  exists and are unique.

$f'(z)$  exists

Hence  $f(z)$  is analytic at an arbitrary point  $z$ .

$\therefore f(z)$  is analytic in the region.

Polynomial

A polynomial is one complex variable is an expression of the form  $p(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots + a_n z^n$  where  $a_i$ 's are complex number for  $1 \leq i \leq n$

Note:

The identity  $z$  is not constant analytic function in the whole plane in derivative. Generally the function  $z^n$  is analytic in the whole plane with derivative  $nz^{n-1}$ .

Since the sums and products of analytic functions are again analytic.

The polynomial  $p(z)$  is analytic in the whole plane. derivatives  ~~$a_1 + 2a_2z + \dots + na_nz^{n-1}$~~   
 $a_1 + 2a_2z + \dots + na_nz^{n-1}$ .

### Rational function

A rational function is a function of the form  $R(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ , where  $P(z)$  and  $Q(z)$  are two polynomials having no common factors.

Note:-

The order of a rational function is the common number of zeros and poles.

The rational function of order 1 is called the linear fractional transformation.

Prblm: 1

If  $Q$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$  with distinct roots  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$  and if  $P$  is a polynomial of degree  $< n$ . Show that

$$\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{P(\alpha_k)}{Q'(\alpha_k)(z - \alpha_k)}$$

Soln:-

Let  $Q(z) = c(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \dots (z - \alpha_n)$  with  $c \neq 0$

$$\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \frac{P(z)}{c(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \dots (z - \alpha_n)}$$

$$c \cdot \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{A_i}{z - \alpha_i} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

when the right side represents the partial fraction expansion of  $c \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$

$$c \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n A_j \prod_{i \neq j} (z - \alpha_i)}{Q(z) / c}$$

$$P(z) = \sum_{j=1}^n A_j \prod_{i \neq j} (z - \alpha_i)$$

$$\text{Hence } P(\alpha_k) = A_k \prod_{i \neq k} (\alpha_k - \alpha_i)$$

$$A_k = \frac{P(\alpha_k)}{\prod_{i \neq k} (\alpha_k - \alpha_i)} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{Now, } Q'(z) = c \prod_{i \neq j} (z - \alpha_i)$$

$$Q'(\alpha_k) = c \prod_{i \neq k} (\alpha_k - \alpha_i) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Sub (3) in (2)

$$A_k = c \frac{P(\alpha_k)}{Q'(\alpha_k)}$$

$$\text{From (1), } c \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^n c \frac{P(\alpha_k)}{Q'(\alpha_k)(z - \alpha_k)}$$

$$\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{P(\alpha_k)}{Q'(\alpha_k)(z - \alpha_k)}$$

Hence proved.

### Convergence sequence

The sequence  $\{a_n\}^{\infty}$  has the limit  $A$  if to every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exist an  $n_0$  such that  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$  for  $n \geq n_0$ .

A sequence with a finite limit is said to be convergence, an any sequence which does not convergent is divergent.

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$  the sequence is

said to be diverge to infinity.  
Cauchy sequence or fundamental sequence

A sequence will be called fundamental or a Cauchy sequence if it satisfies the following condition.

Given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an  $n_0$  such that  $|a_n - a_m| < \epsilon$ , whenever  $n \geq n_0$  and  $m, n \geq n_0$ .

Thm:

A sequence is convergent iff it is a Cauchy sequence.

Proof: Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a convergent sequence and converging to  $A$ .

i.e)  $\{a_n\} \rightarrow A$ .

For given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $n_0$  such that  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon/2 \quad \forall n \geq n_0$ .

To prove,  $\{a_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence

Let  $n, m \geq n_0$ .

Now, consider  $|a_n - a_m| = |a_n - A + A - a_m|$

$$\leq |a_n - A| + |A - a_m|$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$

$$= \epsilon$$

$\therefore |a_n - a_m| < \epsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq n_0$ .

The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence.  
conversely,

let the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  be a real Cauchy sequence.

For given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exist  $n_0$  such that  $|x_n - x_m| < \epsilon$

$$\Rightarrow |x_n| < |x_m| + \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0$$

Now,  $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup x_n$ .

$a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf x_n$   
Let it be both finite.

Suppose  $A \neq a$ .

Choose  $2\varepsilon = A - a$

By defn, we have  $x_n < a + \varepsilon$  and  
 $x_m < A - \varepsilon$ .

Now consider,

$$\begin{aligned} |A - a| &= |A - x_m + x_m - x_n + x_n - a| \\ &\leq |A - x_m| + |x_m - x_n| + |x_n - a| \\ &< \varepsilon + \varepsilon + \varepsilon \\ &< 3\varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

$|A - a| < 3\varepsilon$  which is contradiction.

$\therefore A = a$

ie)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf x_n$

$\therefore \{x_n\}$  is a convergent sequence.  
Hence proved.

Necessary and sufficient condition for  
 $\sum a_n$  to be convergent.

The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges iff  
for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exist  $n_0$  such that  
 $|a_n + a_{n+1} + \dots + a_{n+p}| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0, p \geq 0$ .

Absolute convergent

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is said to be  
absolutely convergent if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  is  
convergent.

Uniform convergent

The sequence  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges  
uniformly to  $f(x)$  on the set  $E$  is so

every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exist an  $n_0$  such that  
 $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0$  and all  $x \in E$ .

Thm:  
The limit function of a uniformly convergent sequence of continuous function of itself continuous.

Proof: Suppose that the function  $f_n(x)$  are continuous and uniformly converges to 'a' of set  $E$ .

For any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exist an  $n_0$  such that  
 $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon/3 \quad \forall x \in E \quad \text{--- (1)}$

Let  $x_0$  be a point on  $E$ .

Since  $f_n(x)$  is a continuous at  $x_0$  there exist  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f_n(x_0)| < \varepsilon/3 \quad \text{--- (2)} \quad \forall x \in E$$

with  $|x - x_0| < \delta$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(x_0)| &= |f(x) - f_n(x) + f_n(x) - f_n(x_0) + f_n(x_0) - f(x_0)| \\ &\leq |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f_n(x) - f_n(x_0)| + |f_n(x_0) - f(x_0)| \\ &< \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 \\ &< \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon$$

Hence  $f(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .

Cauchy necessary and sufficient condition for the function to be uniform converges

The sequence  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges uniformly on  $E \iff$  for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there

exist an  $n_0$  such that  $|f_m(x) - f_n(x)| < \epsilon \forall m, n \geq n_0$  and all  $x$  in  $E$ .

Thm:

An analytic function in a region  $\Omega$  whose derivative vanishes identically must reduce to a constant. This says prove if either real part imaginary part, the modulus and the argument is constant function.

Proof:- part - I

Let  $f(z) = u + iv$

The vanishing of a derivatives are

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0$$

$u, v$  are constant in any line segment in  $\Omega$  which is parallel to one of its co-ordinate axis.

W.K.T, two points in a region can be joined within the region by a polygon whose sides are parallel to a axis

$\therefore u + iv$  is a constant

$\therefore f(z)$  is constant.

part - II

The imaginary part (or) the real part are constant.

Suppose the real part  $u$  is constant.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0 ; \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

But  $f$  is analytic

$\therefore u, v$  satisfy CR-equations

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} ; \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0 \quad \& \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow v$  is constant

$\Rightarrow u+iv$  is constant

$\therefore f(z)$  is constant.

If the imaginary part  $v$  is constant then as in the above procedure  $u$  is constant.

$u+iv$  is constant

$\therefore f(z)$  is constant.

part-III

Suppose the modulus is constant then  $|f(z)| = \sqrt{u^2+v^2}$  is constant also  $u^2+v^2$  is constant.

case i) If  $u^2+v^2=0$

$$\Rightarrow u^2=0 \quad \& \quad v^2=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u=0 \quad \& \quad v=0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z)=u+iv \Rightarrow 0+io=0$$

i.e)  $f(z)=0$  is constant

$f(z)$  is constant.

case ii) If  $u^2+v^2 \neq 0$

$$\Rightarrow u^2+v^2=k \quad (k \neq 0) \rightarrow (*)$$

$$2u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + 2v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow u \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$u \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \left( -\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Diff (\*) w.r. to 'y'

$$2u \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + 2v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$u \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0 \Rightarrow u \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cdot v = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Solve  $\textcircled{1}$  &  $\textcircled{2}$

$\textcircled{1} \times$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad uv \Rightarrow uv \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - v^2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$uv \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + u^2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\hline -u^2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - v^2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} (-u^2 - v^2) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

∴  $u = \text{constant}$

$$\text{iii}^{\text{ly}} \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0 \Rightarrow v \text{ is constant}$$

$u + iv$  is constant

∴  $f(z)$  is constant

part - iv

$$\arg f(z) = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{v}{u} \right) = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{v}{u} = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{v}{u} = k \quad (k \text{ is constant})$$

$$\Rightarrow v = uk$$

$$v_x = k u_x \quad \& \quad v_y = k u_y$$

Eliminating  $k$  from the above eqns

$$\frac{v_x}{u_x} = \frac{v_y}{u_y} \Rightarrow v_x u_y = u_x v_y$$

$$\Rightarrow u_y (u_y) = u_x (-u_x)$$

$$u_y^2 + u_x^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow u_x = 0 \text{ and } u_y = 0$$

∴  $u$  is constant.

$$\text{iii}^{\text{ly}} \quad v \text{ is constant} \Rightarrow u + iv \text{ is constant}$$

∴  $f(z)$  is constant.

Thm:

Prove that the convergent sequence is bounded.

Proof:-

Let  $\{p_n\}$  is convergence sequence is

convergent to  $P$

$$\text{ie) } P_n \rightarrow P$$

there is an integer  $N \exists: n > N$ .

$$d(P_n, P) < \epsilon$$

choose  $\epsilon = \max \{ 1, d(P_1, P), d(P_2, P), \dots, d(P_N, P) \}$

then,  $d(P_n, P) < \epsilon$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

Hence  $\{P_n\}$  is bounded

Thm:

The linear transformation  $S$  which maps 3 distinct points  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  into  $1, 0, \infty$  in this order is unique.

proof:-

Given  $S$  is a linear transformation which carries  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  into  $1, 0, \infty$

$$S(z_2) = 1, \quad S(z_3) = 0, \quad S(z_4) = \infty$$

Suppose  $T$  be a linear transformation which also maps the points  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  into  $1, 0, \infty$  in this order

$$T(z_2) = 1 \quad T(z_3) = 0 \quad T(z_4) = \infty$$

consider a transformation  $ST^{-1}$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} ST^{-1}(1) &= ST^{-1}T(z_2) = S(z_2) = 1 \\ ST^{-1}(0) &= ST^{-1}T(z_3) = S(z_3) = 0 \\ ST^{-1}(\infty) &= ST^{-1}T(z_4) = S(z_4) = \infty \end{aligned} \right\} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$\text{Let } ST^{-1}(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

$$ST^{-1}(1) = \frac{a+b}{c+d}$$

$$c+d = a+b \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

$$ST^{-1}(0) = b/d \Rightarrow 0 = b/d$$

$$\Rightarrow b = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

$$ST^{-1}(z) = \frac{z(a + b/z)}{z(c + d/z)} = \frac{a + b/z}{c + d/z}$$

$$ST^{-1}(\infty) = a/c \Rightarrow \infty = a/c \Rightarrow c=0 \rightarrow \textcircled{5}$$

Sub  $\textcircled{4}$  and  $\textcircled{5}$  in  $\textcircled{3}$

$$d=a \Rightarrow ST^{-1}(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$$

$$= \frac{dz+0}{0+d}$$

$$ST^{-1}(z) = \frac{dz}{d} = z$$

$$S(z) = T(z)$$

$$S = T$$

Hence  $S$  is a unique transformation which carries  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  into  $1, 0, \infty$  in this order.

Thm:

If  $z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4$  are distinct points in the extended plane on  $T$  be any linear transformation then

$$(Tz_1, Tz_2, Tz_3, Tz_4) = (z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$$

proof:-

Let consider  $S(z_1) = (z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$

$$S(z_2) = 1, S(z_3) = 0, S(z_4) = \infty$$

Let  $T$  be a linear transformation which maps  $z_2, z_3, z_4$  into  $1, 0, \infty$  in order

$$T(z_2) = 1, T(z_3) = 0, T(z_4) = \infty$$

consider, a linear transformation,  $ST^{-1}$

$$ST^{-1}T(z_2) = S(z_2) = 1$$

$$ST^{-1}T(z_3) = S(z_3) = 0$$

$$ST^{-1}T(z_4) = S(z_4) = \infty$$

$ST^{-1}$  is a linear transformation which maps  $T_{z_2}, T_{z_3}, T_{z_4}$  into  $1, 0, \infty$

$$(T_{z_1}, T_{z_2}, T_{z_3}, T_{z_4}) = ST^{-1}T(z_1) = S(z_1) \\ = (z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$$

$$\therefore (T_{z_1}, T_{z_2}, T_{z_3}, T_{z_4}) = (z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$$

Hence proved.

Thm: A linear transformation carries circle into circles.

proof:-

Let  $z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4$  be the points on the circle  $c$ .

We know that, let  $z_1$  be any arbitrary point on  $c$ .

"The cross ratio  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is real iff the four points lie on the circle or on a straight line"  $\rightarrow$  ①

By ①  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is real.

We know that, "previous thm"  $\rightarrow$  ②

By ①  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is real.

By ②  $(T_{z_1}, T_{z_2}, T_{z_3}, T_{z_4}) = (z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$

The R.H.S value is real

$\therefore (T_{z_1}, T_{z_2}, T_{z_3}, T_{z_4})$  is also real.

The image of  $z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4$  are lie on a common circle.

Thm  $\sim$  The cross ratio  $(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is real iff the four points lie on the circle (or) concyclic (or) on a straight line.

proof:- This is evident by elementary geometry for we obtain,

$$\arg(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4) = \arg\left(\frac{z_1 - z_3}{z_1 - z_4}\right) - \arg\left(\frac{z_2 - z_3}{z_2 - z_4}\right)$$

and if the points lie on a circle, this difference of angle is either 0 (or)  $\pm\pi$  depending on the relative location  $\rightarrow \textcircled{1}$

$$(1) \arg(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4) = \arg\left(\frac{z_1 - z_3}{z_1 - z_4}\right) / \arg\left(\frac{z_2 - z_3}{z_2 - z_4}\right)$$

$\Rightarrow \arg(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is real

Now, we need only show that the image of the real axis under any linear transformation is either a circle (or) a straight line.

$Tz_1 = (z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4)$  is real on the image of the real axis under the transformation  $T^{-1}$ .

The values of  $w = T^{-1}(z)$  for real  $z$  satisfy the eqn.

$$Tw = T\bar{w}$$

$$\frac{aw+b}{cw+d} = \overline{\left(\frac{aw+b}{cw+d}\right)} = \frac{\bar{a}\bar{w}+\bar{b}}{\bar{c}\bar{w}+\bar{d}}$$

$$(aw+b)(\bar{c}\bar{w}+\bar{d}) = (\bar{a}\bar{w}+\bar{b})(cw+d)$$

$$\Rightarrow a\bar{w}\bar{c} + b\bar{c}\bar{w} + a\bar{d}w + b\bar{d} = \bar{a}\bar{w}cw + \bar{a}\bar{w}d + Bcw + \bar{b}d$$

$$\Rightarrow a\bar{c}w\bar{w} + a\bar{d}w + b\bar{c}\bar{w} + b\bar{d} - \bar{a}c\bar{w}\bar{w} - \bar{a}d\bar{w} - Bcw - \bar{b}d = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c)w\bar{w} + (a\bar{d} - \bar{b}c)w + (b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d)\bar{w} + (b\bar{d} - \bar{b}d) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

put  $a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c = 0$  in  $\textcircled{2}$

$$(a\bar{d} - \bar{b}c)w + (b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d)\bar{w} + (b\bar{d} - \bar{b}d) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\alpha}w + \alpha\bar{w} + \beta = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

where  $\beta$  is purely imaginary and  $\bar{\alpha} = a\bar{d} - \bar{b}c$  and  $\alpha = b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d$  and  $\beta = b\bar{d} - \bar{b}d$

Equating  $\textcircled{4}$  is the standard form of straight line

Take,  $a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c \neq 0$

$$\div a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c \quad \textcircled{2} \Rightarrow w\bar{w} + \left[ \frac{a\bar{d} - \bar{b}c}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right]w + \left[ \frac{b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right]\bar{w} + \left[ \frac{b\bar{d} - \bar{b}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right] = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{5}$$

$$\Rightarrow w\bar{w} + \bar{b}w + b\bar{w} + c = 0$$

which is the general eqn of the circle with centre  $-b$  and radius  $\sqrt{b\bar{b} - c}$ .

$$\bar{b} = \frac{a\bar{d} - \bar{b}c}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}; \quad b = \frac{b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}; \quad c = \frac{b\bar{d} - \bar{b}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}$$

$$\text{centre } (-b) = -\left( \frac{b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right) = \frac{\bar{a}d - b\bar{c}}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}$$

$$\text{radius} = \sqrt{b\bar{b} - c}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left( \frac{b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right) \left( \frac{a\bar{d} - \bar{b}c}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right) - \left( \frac{b\bar{d} - \bar{b}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{ab\bar{c}d - b\bar{b}c\bar{c} - a\bar{a}d\bar{d} + \bar{a}\bar{b}dc}{a\bar{a}\bar{c}\bar{c} - a\bar{a}c\bar{c} - a\bar{a}c\bar{c} + \bar{a}\bar{a}cc} - \frac{b\bar{d} - \bar{b}d}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{ab\bar{c}d - b\bar{b}c\bar{c} - a\bar{a}d\bar{d} + \bar{a}\bar{b}cd - [ab\bar{c}d - a\bar{b}c\bar{d} - \bar{a}b\bar{c}d + \bar{a}\bar{b}cd]}{(a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c)^2}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{-b\bar{b}c\bar{c} - a\bar{a}d\bar{d} + a\bar{b}\bar{c}d + \bar{a}bc\bar{d}}{(a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c)^2}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{b\bar{c}(ad-bc) + \bar{a}d(bc-ad)}{(a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c)^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{b\bar{c}(ad-bc) - \bar{a}d(bc-ad)}}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{(b\bar{c} - \bar{a}d)(ad-bc)}}{(a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c)}$$

$$\text{Radius} = \frac{\sqrt{(ad-bc)(ad-bc)}}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} = \frac{\sqrt{(ad-bc)^2}}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}$$

$$= \frac{ad-bc}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}$$

Eqn (5) is a circle with centre

$$\frac{\bar{a}d - b\bar{c}}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \text{ and radius } \frac{ad-bc}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c}$$

$$\left| w + \frac{\bar{a}d - b\bar{c}}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right| = \left| \frac{ad-bc}{a\bar{c} - \bar{a}c} \right|$$

which is the eqn of the circle

Hence proved.

### Conformality

Arcs and closed curves:-

The equation of an arc  $\gamma$  in the plane is given in parametric form  $x = x(t)$  and  $y = y(t)$  where  $t$  runs through an interval  $\alpha \leq t \leq \beta$  and  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  are continuous functions.

Simple curve (or) Jordan curve

An arc is simple (or) Jordan arc if  $z(t_1) = z(t_2)$  only for  $t_1 = t_2$  i.e) the function  $\gamma$  is 1-1.

closed curve:

An arc is a closed curve if the end points coincide that is  $z(\alpha) = z(\beta)$

Find the linear fractional transformation which carries  $|z|=1$  and  $|z-\frac{1}{4}|=\frac{1}{4}$  onto concentric circle what is the ratio of the radii in the image plane.

Let  $T$  map these circles onto circles with centre 'a' and radii  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ .

Since 0 and  $\infty$  are symmetric with respect to both the image circles their pre-images say  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  must be symmetric with respect to both these given circles

$$\text{Thus } \bar{\alpha}\beta = 1 \text{ and } (\bar{\alpha} - \frac{1}{4})(\beta - \frac{1}{4}) = \frac{1}{16}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\alpha}\beta - \frac{1}{4}\beta - \bar{\alpha}\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{16} = 0$$

$$(\bar{\alpha}\beta = 1) \Rightarrow \bar{\alpha}\beta - \frac{1}{4}(\bar{\alpha} + \beta) = 0$$

$$(\bar{\alpha} + \beta) \left(-\frac{1}{4}\right) + 1 = 0$$

$$-\frac{1}{4}(\bar{\alpha} + \beta) = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\alpha} + \beta = 4 \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\alpha} - \beta = \sqrt{(\bar{\alpha} + \beta)^2 - 4\bar{\alpha}\beta}$$

$$= \sqrt{4^2 - 4(1)} = \sqrt{16 - 4} = \sqrt{12}$$

$$\therefore \bar{\alpha} - \beta = \sqrt{12} = \pm 2\sqrt{3} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

From  $\textcircled{1}$  &  $\textcircled{2}$

$$\bar{\alpha} + \beta = 4$$

$$\bar{\alpha} - \beta = \pm 2\sqrt{3}$$

$$\underline{2\bar{\alpha} = 4 \pm 2\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\bar{\alpha} = 2 + \sqrt{3}$$

$$\bar{\alpha} + \beta = 4$$

$$\bar{\alpha} - \beta = \pm 2\sqrt{3}$$

$$\frac{\quad}{2\beta = 4 \pm 2\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\beta = 2 \pm \sqrt{3}$$

Hence  $T$  takes  $2 + \sqrt{3}$  to  $a$  and  $2 - \sqrt{3}$  to  $\infty$  (or)  $2 + \sqrt{3}$  to  $\infty$  and  $2 - \sqrt{3}$  to  $a$ .

One such linear fractional transformation is

$$Tz = \frac{z - (2 \pm \sqrt{3})}{z - (2 \pm \sqrt{3})} + a$$

Choose  $1$  on the unit circle and  $1/2$  on the circle centre  $1/4$  and radius  $1/4$ .

Then  $T(1)$  is on the first concentric circle and  $T(1/2)$  is on the other concentric circle.

Hence the ratio of the radii of the image circles  $\frac{R_1}{R_2}$  is given by

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \left| \frac{T(1) - a}{T(1/2) - a} \right| = 2 - \sqrt{3}$$

Taking  $\alpha = 2 + \sqrt{3}$  and  $\beta = 2 - \sqrt{3}$

The other assumption  $\alpha = 2 - \sqrt{3}$  and  $\beta = 2 + \sqrt{3}$  gives  $R_1/R_2 = 2 + \sqrt{3}$ .

Defn: symmetric

The point  $z$  and  $z^*$  are said to be symmetric with respect to the circle through  $z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4$  iff  $(z^*, z_1, z_2, z_3) = \overline{(z, z_1, z_2, z_3)}$

## Unit - II

- \* Complex integration
- \* Cauchy integral formula

## Unit - II

### Line Integrals

Defn:

Let  $c$  be a piecewise differentiable curve given by the equation  $z = z(t)$  where  $a \leq t \leq b$ . Let  $f(z)$  be a continuous complex valued function defined in a region containing the curve  $c$ .

The line integral of  $f(z)$  over  $c$  as

$$\int_c f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(z(t)) z'(t) dt$$

### Problem 1

Evaluate  $\int_c f(z) dz$  where  $f(z) = y - x - i3x^2$  and  $c$  is the line segment from  $z=0$  to  $z=1+i$

Soln:-

The equation of the line segment  $c$  joining  $z=0$  to  $z=1+i$  is given by  $y = z$

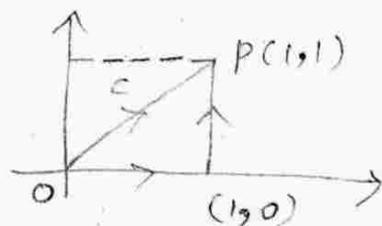
ie) The equation of  $op$  is  $y = x$

$\therefore$  The parametric equation of  $c$  can be taken as  $x = t$  and  $y = t$  where  $0 \leq t \leq 1$

$$z(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$$

$$z(t) = t + it$$

$$z'(t) = 1 + i$$



$$\text{Now, } f(z(t)) = t - t - i3t^2 = -i3t^2$$

$$\int_c f(z) dz = \int_0^1 f(z(t)) z'(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 -i3t^2 (1+i) dt$$

$$= -3i(1+i) \left[ \frac{t^3}{3} \right]_0^1$$

$$= -3i(1+i) \left[ \frac{1}{3} \right]$$

$$= -3i(1+i) \left[ \frac{1}{3} \right] = -i(1+i)$$

$$= -i - i^2 = -i + 1 = 1 - i$$

$$\int_c f(z) dz = 1 - i$$

problem: 2

Find the value of the line integral

$$\int |z-1| dz$$

$$|z|=1$$

soln:-

$$z = re^{i\theta} \Rightarrow r=1$$

$$\text{let } z = e^{i\theta}$$

$$dz = ie^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$|dz| = |ie^{i\theta} d\theta| \Rightarrow |i| |e^{i\theta}| d\theta$$

$$= 1 \cdot 1 \cdot d\theta \Rightarrow d\theta$$

$$\text{since } |i|=1 \text{ and } |e^{i\theta}|=1$$

$$\text{Now, } z-1 = e^{i\theta} - 1$$

$$= \cos\theta + i\sin\theta - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos\theta - 1 + i\sin\theta$$

$$|z-1| = |\cos\theta - 1 + i\sin\theta|$$

$$= \sqrt{(\cos\theta - 1)^2 + \sin^2\theta}$$

$$= \sqrt{\cos^2\theta + 1 - 2\cos\theta + \sin^2\theta}$$

$$= \sqrt{2 - 2\cos\theta}$$

$$= \sqrt{2(1 - \cos\theta)}$$

$$= \sqrt{2 \cdot 2 \sin^2\theta/2}$$

$$= \sqrt{2^2 \sin^2\theta/2}$$

$$|z-1| = 2 \sin \theta/2$$

$$\int_{|z|=1} |z-1| dz = \int_0^{2\pi} 2 \sin \theta/2 d\theta$$

$$= 2 \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{-\cos \theta/2}{1/2} d\theta$$

$$|x+iy| = \sqrt{x^2+y^2}$$

$$i = 0 + i$$

$$\Rightarrow |i| = \sqrt{0^2+1^2} = 1$$

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

$$|e^{i\theta}| = \sqrt{\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta} = \sqrt{1} = 1$$

General parametric form of circle

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

$$|z|=1 \Rightarrow |z-0|=1$$

$$a=0; r=1$$

$$\Rightarrow z = e^{i\theta} = e^{i\theta} - e^{i\theta}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 2 \times 2 \left[ -\left(\cos \frac{2\pi}{2} - \cos 0/2\right) \right] \\
 &= 4 \left[ -(\cos \pi - \cos 0) \right] \\
 &= 4 \left[ -(-1) - 1 \right] \Rightarrow \int_{|z|=1} |z-1| dz = 8
 \end{aligned}$$

Line integral as a function of arcs

The line integral is of the form  $\int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy$  as a function of the arcs where  $p$  and  $q$  defined as continuous in the region  $\Omega$

If  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  have the same initial points and end points then,

$$\int_{\gamma_1} p dx + q dy = \int_{\gamma_2} p dx + q dy$$

Rectifiable arcs:

The length of the arc can also be defined as the least upper bound of all sums

$$|z(t_1) - z(t_0)| + |z(t_2) - z(t_1)| + \dots + |z(t_n) - z(t_{n-1})|$$

where  $a = t_0 < t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n = b$

If this least upper bound is finite we say that the arc is rectifiable.

U. & Thm:

Necessary and sufficient condition under which the line integral depends only the end points.

Statement:

The line integral  $\int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy$  defined in  $\Omega$  depends only on the end points of  $\gamma$  iff there exists function  $U(x, y)$  in

$\Omega$  with partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = p$  ;  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = q$ .

proof:-

Given that there exists a function  $v(x, y)$  in  $\Omega$  such that,  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = p$  and  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = q$

To prove,

The line integral  $\int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy$  depends only on the end points of  $\gamma$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy &= \int_{\gamma} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy \\ &= \int_a^b \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} x'(t) dt + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} y'(t) dt \right) \\ &= \int_a^b \frac{d}{dt} U(x(t), y(t)) dt \\ &= \int_a^b d U(x(t), y(t)) \\ &= U[x(t), y(t)]_a^b\end{aligned}$$

$$\int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy = U[x(b), y(b)] - U[x(a), y(a)]$$

Hence the values of the integral depends on the end points

conversely,

$\int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy$  depends on the end point of  $\gamma$ .



Let us fix a point  $(x_0, y_0)$  in  $\Omega$  and join it to  $(x, y)$  by a polygon  $\gamma$  containing three line segment parallel to x-axis.

Let us define  $v(x, y) = \int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy$

Since the line integral depends only on the end points of  $\gamma$ .

clearly  $v(x, y)$  is well defined in the last segment  $y$  is fixed ( $dy=0$ ) and  $x$  above various

ie)  $u(x, y) = \int^x p dx + q(y) + C$   
 where the lower limit is immaterial and  $C$  consist of this values of the integral from  $(x_0, y_0)$  to  $(x, y)$  along the polynomial path.

$$u(x, y) = \int^x p dx + C$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = p$$

similarly by choosing the last segment parallel to  $y$ -axis

$$v(x, y) = \int^y q dy + C$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = q$$

Cauchy's theorem for a rectangle  
 If the function  $f(z)$  is analytic on the rectangle  $R$ . Then  $\int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = 0$

proof:-

Let us denote  $\eta(R) = \int_{\partial R} f(z) dz$  divide the given rectangle into four complement rectangle  $R^{(1)}, R^{(2)}, R^{(3)}, R^{(4)}$

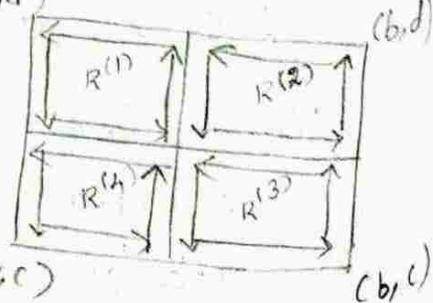
$$\text{ie) } \int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = \int_{\partial R^{(1)}} f(z) dz + \int_{\partial R^{(2)}} f(z) dz$$

$$+ \int_{\partial R^{(3)}} f(z) dz + \int_{\partial R^{(4)}} f(z) dz$$

$$\text{ie) } \eta(R) = \eta(R^{(1)}) + \eta(R^{(2)}) + \eta(R^{(3)}) + \eta(R^{(4)})$$

For the integral over the common sides cancel each other.

$$|\eta(R)| = |\eta(R^{(1)}) + \eta(R^{(2)}) + \eta(R^{(3)}) + \eta(R^{(4)})|$$



$$\Rightarrow |\eta(R)| \leq |\eta(R^{(1)})| + |\eta(R^{(2)})| + |\eta(R^{(3)})| + |\eta(R^{(4)})|$$

There is at least one rectangle  $R^k$ ;  $k=1,2,3,4,\dots$  must satisfies the condition

$$|\eta(R)| \leq 4 |\eta(R^k)|$$

$$|\eta(R^k)| \geq \frac{1}{4} |\eta(R)|$$

If there is more than one rectangle  $R^k$  choose some order to selection one rectangle as  $R_1$

$$\text{Then } |\eta(R_1)| \geq \frac{1}{4} |\eta(R)|$$

Repeat the process, we have a sequence of rectangle  $R \supset R_1 \supset R_2 \supset \dots \supset R_n \supset \dots$  with the property,

$$|\eta(R_n)| \geq \frac{1}{4} |\eta(R_{n-1})|$$

$$|\eta(R_n)| \geq \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{4} |\eta(R_{n-2})|$$

$$|\eta(R_n)| \geq \frac{1}{4^2} |\eta(R_{n-2})|$$

$$\vdots$$

$$|\eta(R_n)| \geq \frac{1}{4^n} |\eta(R)| \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

The rectangle  $R_n$  converges to a point  $z^* \in R$ .

$R_n$  is contained in the neighbourhood  $|z - z^*| < \delta$  for  $n$  is sufficient large

We can choose  $\delta$  sufficiently so small that,

i)  $f(z)$  is defined and analytic in  $|z - z^*| < \delta$

ii) Given  $\epsilon > 0$  we can choose  $\delta$  so that,

$$\left| \frac{f(z) - f(z^*)}{z - z^*} - f'(z^*) \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow |f(z) - f(z^*) - (z - z^*) f'(z^*)| < \varepsilon |z - z^*|$$

We can assume that  $\delta$  satisfies both condition and that  $R_n$  is contained in  $|z - z^*| < \delta$  ↳ ②

(We make now the observation that

$$\int_{\partial R_n} dz = 0, \quad \int_{\partial R_n} z dz = 0)$$

$$\text{Now, } |\eta(R_n)| = \int_{\partial R_n} |f(z) - f(z^*) - (z - z^*) f'(z^*)| |dz|$$

From ②

$$|\eta(R_n)| \leq \int_{\partial R_n} \varepsilon |z - z^*| |dz|$$

$z \in R_n, |z - z^*| < d_n$ , where  $d_n$  is the diagonal of  $R_n$

$$\int_{\partial R_n} |dz| = \text{perimeter of } R_n = l_n \text{ (say)}$$

$$\therefore |\eta(R_n)| \leq \varepsilon d_n l_n$$

$d, l$  are diagonal and perimeter of the original rectangle  $R$ .

$$d_n = \frac{1}{2^n} d \quad \& \quad l_n = \frac{1}{2^n} l$$

$$|\eta(R_n)| \leq \varepsilon \frac{1}{4^n} d l$$

compare with ①

$$|\eta(R_n)| \geq \frac{1}{4^n} |\eta(R)|$$

$$|\eta(R)| \leq 4^n |\eta(R_n)|$$

$$\leq 4^n \varepsilon \frac{1}{4^n} d l = \varepsilon d l$$

$$|\eta(R)| \leq \varepsilon d l$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary  $\eta(R) = 0$

Hence  $\int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = 0$  proved

Thm: Let  $f(z)$  be analytic on the set  $R'$  obtained from a rectangle  $R$  by omitting a finite number of interior points  $\zeta_j$  if it is true that  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \zeta_j} (z - \zeta_j) f(z) = 0$  then  $\int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = 0$ .

proof:

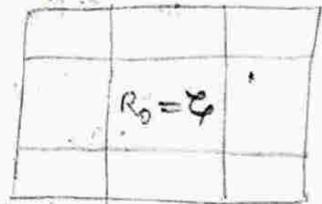
It is sufficient to consider a single exceptional point  $\zeta$  for evidently  $R$  can be divided into smaller rectangles which contains at most one  $\zeta_j$ .

We divide  $R$  into  $n$  rectangles since  $f$  is analytic in  $R$  except at  $\zeta$ .

$f$  is analytic in  $R_1, R_2, \dots$

By Cauchy's rectangle theorem,

$$\int_{\partial R_i} f(z) dz = 0 \quad \forall i=1, 2, \dots, n$$



$$\therefore \int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = \int_{\partial R_0} f(z) dz + \int_{\partial R_i} f(z) dz \quad \text{Here } i=1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$= \int_{\partial R_0} f(z) dz + 0$$

$$\therefore \int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = \int_{\partial R_0} f(z) dz \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

By hypothesis,

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \zeta} (z - \zeta) f(z) = 0$$

If  $\epsilon > 0$  we can choose the rectangle  $R_0$  so small that,

$$|f(z)| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{|z - \zeta|}$$

From  $\textcircled{1}$

$$\left| \int_{\partial R} f(z) dz \right| = \left| \int_{\partial R_0} f(z) dz \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{\partial R_0} |f(z)| |dz|$$

$$\leq \int_{\partial R_0} \frac{\epsilon}{|z-\zeta|} |dz|$$

We consider  $R_0$  as a square with centre  $\zeta$  and side  $a_0$

$$\text{We have } |z-\zeta| \geq a/2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{|z-\zeta|} \leq 2/a$$

$$\therefore \left| \int_{\partial R} f(z) dz \right| \leq \frac{2\epsilon}{a} \int_{\partial R_0} |dz| = \frac{2\epsilon}{a} \times 4a = 8\epsilon$$

$\therefore \epsilon$  is arbitrary

$$\int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = 0 //$$

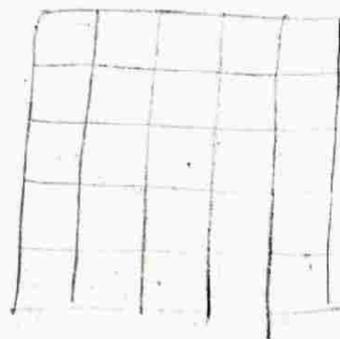
If the rectangle  $R$  has more than one exceptional point

ie) The finite number of exceptional points

We divide the rectangle  $R$  in such a way that

Each sub-rectangle contains at most one exceptional point.

By Cauchy's thm on a rectangle the line integrals over through subrectangle without exceptional points are zero.



By the 1<sup>st</sup> case the <sup>line</sup> integral over the other subrectangle with exactly one exceptional point are also zero

$$\therefore \int_{\partial R} f(z) dz = 0$$

Hence proved.

## Cauchy's theorem in a disk

If  $f(z)$  is analytic in an open disk (or circular disk)  $\Delta$  then  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$  for every closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Delta$ .

proof: let us consider a function,

$$F(z) = \int_{\sigma} f(z) dz$$

where  $\sigma$  consists of the horizontal line segment from  $(x_0, y_0)$  to  $(x, y_0)$  followed by the vertical line segment from  $(x, y_0)$  to  $(x, y)$

$$F(z) = \int_{\sigma} f(z) dz$$

$$F(z) = \int_{OA} f(z) dz + \int_{AB} f(z) dz$$

$$= \int_{OA} f(z) (dx + i dy) + \int_{AB} f(z) (dx + i dy)$$

[Here  $O$  is the centre of the disk  $B$  be on the disk]

$$= \int_{OA} f(z) dx + i \int_{OA} f(z) dy + \int_{AB} f(z) dx + i \int_{AB} f(z) dy$$

[on  $OA$   $y$  is fixed  $dy=0$ ; on  $AB$   $x$  is fixed  $dx=0$ ]

$$\therefore F(z) = \int_{OA} f(z) dx + 0 + 0 + i \int_{AB} f(z) dy$$

$$F(z) = \phi(x) + i \int_{y_0}^y f(z) dy$$

diff with respect to  $y$ ,  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = i f(z)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = f(z)$$

$$\Rightarrow -i \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = f(z) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Let  $\sigma'$  denote the curve consisting of the vertical line segment from  $(x_0, y_0)$  to  $(x_0, y)$  followed by the horizontal line segment from  $(x_0, y)$  to  $(x, y)$

$$F(z) = \int_{\sigma'} f(z) dz$$

$$= \int_{OC} f(z) dz + \int_{CB} f(z) dz$$

$$= \int_{OC} f(z)(dx + i dy) + \int_{CB} f(z)(dx + i dy)$$

$$= \int_{OC} f(x) dx + i \int_{OC} f(z) dy + \int_{CB} f(z) dx + i \int_{CB} f(z) dy$$

[on OC  $x$  is fixed  $dx=0$ ; on CB  $y$  is fixed  $dy=0$ ]

$$F(z) = 0 + i \int_{OC} f(z) dy + \int_{CB} f(z) dx + 0$$

$$= i \int_{OC} f(z) dy + \int_{CB} f(z) dx$$

$$f(z) = i \phi(y) + \int_{\alpha}^x f(z) dx$$

Diff w.r. to  $x$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f(z) \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$

From  $\textcircled{1}$  &  $\textcircled{2}$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}$$

which is the complex form of CR-eqns.

$\therefore f$  satisfies CR eqn.

Since  $f$  is analytic in  $\Delta$

$\Rightarrow f$  is differentiable at every point of  $\Delta$  and hence it is a continuous function

$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}$  &  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}$  are continuous

$\therefore F$  is analytic in  $\Delta$

Thus  $f(z)$  is the derivative of an analytic function  $F(z)$

We know that,

"The integral  $\int f(z) dz$  depends only on the end points of  $\gamma$  if  $f$  is the derivative of an analytic function in  $\Delta$ "

By the thm,  
 $\int f(z) dz$  depends only on the end points of  $\gamma$

We know that  
 "The <sup>line</sup> integral depends only on the end points  
 iff the integral is exact differential"

$$\therefore \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \text{ is exact differential}$$

$$\therefore \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0, \text{ where } \gamma \text{ is the closed ins}$$

Thm:  
 ~ The integral  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$  with continuous  
 function  $f$  depends only on the end points  
 of  $\gamma \Leftrightarrow$  the  $f$  is derivative of an  
 analytic function in  $\Omega$ .

proof:  
 - Suppose that line integral  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$   
 depends only on the end points of  $\gamma$ .

$$\text{let } z = x + iy$$

$$dz = dx + i dy$$

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} f(z) (dx + i dy)$$

$$= \int_{\gamma} f(z) dx + i \int_{\gamma} f(z) dy$$

This is a line integral depends only on the  
 end points of  $\gamma$  then there exists a  
 function  $F(z)$  in  $\Omega$  with the partial  
 derivatives.

$$\frac{\partial F(z)}{\partial x} = f(z) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$\frac{\partial F(z)}{\partial y} = i f(z) = -i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(z) = f(z) \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

$$\text{From } \textcircled{1} \text{ \& } \textcircled{2} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial F(z)}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial F(z)}{\partial y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}$$

$F(z)$  satisfies CR eqn.  
 Since  $f(z)$  is continuous

$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  &  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  are continuous

$F$  is an analytic function

$f$  is derivative of an analytic function

$F$  in  $\Omega$

conversely is similar.

Thm:

Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in the region  $\Delta$  obtained by omitting a finite number of points  $\zeta_j$  from an open disk  $\Delta$  if  $f(z)$  satisfies the condition  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \zeta_j} (z - \zeta_j) f(z) = 0 \forall j$  then  $\int f(z) dz$  holds for any closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Delta$ .

proof:-

Let us consider the exceptional points  $\zeta$  which does not lie on the line  $x = x_0$

Let  $A(x_0, y_0)$  be a centre of disk and  $F(x, y)$  be any point on the disk.

Let us consider  $F(z) = \int_{ABCOE} f(z) dz$

Here the line segment  $AB$  &  $OE$  are the vertical line segment and  $BO$  is the horizontal line segment and  $F(z)$  is independent of the middle segment.

Since the last line segment is vertical  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = i f(z) \Rightarrow -i \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = f(z) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$

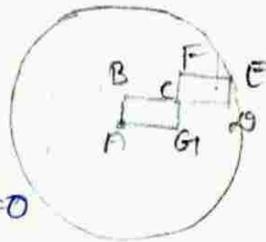
Now, join  $A$  and  $E$  be the polygon  $AGCFE$  as shown in figure.

This polygon are constructed such as

manner that the point  $z$  is an interior point of one of the rectangles.

By thm, we have

$$\int_{AGCBA} f(z) dz = 0 \quad \& \quad \int_{CDEFC} f(z) dz = 0$$



Now,  $\int_{AGCBA} f(z) dz = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{AGC} f(z) dz + \int_{CBA} f(z) dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{AGC} f(z) dz - \int_{ABC} f(z) dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{AGC} f(z) dz = \int_{ABC} f(z) dz$$

$$\parallel \int_{CDEFC} f(z) dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{CDE} f(z) dz + \int_{EFC} f(z) dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{CDE} f(z) dz - \int_{CFE} f(z) dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{CDE} f(z) dz = \int_{CFE} f(z) dz$$

$$f(z) = \int_{ABCDE} f(z) dz = \int_{ABC} f(z) dz + \int_{CDE} f(z) dz$$

$$= \int_{AGC} f(z) dz + \int_{CFE} f(z) dz$$

$$= \int_{AGCFE} f(z) dz$$

Since the last segment FE is horizontal

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f(z) \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

From ① & ②  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$

$\therefore f$  satisfies CR-eqn

$f(z)$  is analytic in  $\Delta$  with derivative  $f'(z)$

$\therefore f(z)dz$  is an exact differential eqn

$\therefore \int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = 0$  for any closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Delta$ .

Lemma:

If the piecewise differential closed curve  $\gamma$  does not pass through the point  $a$  then the value of the integral  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a}$  is a multiple of  $2\pi i$

proof:-

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a} &= \int_{\gamma} d(\log(z-a)) \\ &= \int_{\gamma} d \log |z-a| + \int_{\gamma} i d(\arg |z-a|) \end{aligned}$$

when  $z$  describes the closed curve  $\log |z-a|$  return to its initial value and  $\arg(z-a)$  increases (or) decreases by a multiple of  $2\pi$ .

consider the equations of  $\gamma$  is  $z=z(t)$ ,  $\alpha \leq t \leq \beta$ ,

let us consider the function

$$h(t) = \int_{\alpha}^t \frac{z(t)}{z(t)-a} dt \rightarrow \text{①}$$

Equation ① is defined and continuous on the  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

diff ① w.r. to " $t$ "

$$h'(t) = \frac{z'(t)}{z(t)-a}, \text{ whenever } z'(t) \text{ is continuous}$$

Now, the derivative of  $e^{-h(t)}(z(t)-a)$  is

$$= e^{-h(t)}(-h'(t))(z(t)-a) + e^{-h(t)}z'(t)$$

$$= -e^{-h(t)}\frac{z'(t)}{z(t)-a}(z(t)-a) + e^{-h(t)}z'(t)$$

$$= -e^{-h(t)}z'(t) + e^{-h(t)}z'(t) = 0$$

$\therefore d(e^{-h(t)}(z(t)-a)) = 0$

Integrate,

$$e^{-h(t)}(z(t)-a) = (z(\alpha)-a) \text{ [constant]}$$

$$\therefore \frac{z(t)-a}{z(\alpha)-a} = e^{h(t)}$$

$$\therefore e^{h(t)} = \frac{z(t)-a}{z(\alpha)-a}$$

Since  $z(\alpha) = z(\beta)$

$$e^{h(\beta)} = \frac{z(\beta)-a}{z(\beta)-a} = 1$$

$$\therefore e^{h(\beta)} = 1 \Rightarrow h(\beta) \text{ must be multiple of } 2\pi i$$

Thus,  $\int \frac{dz}{z-a}$  is a multiple of  $2\pi i$

Hence proved.

Defn: Index point

The index of the point with respect to the curve  $\gamma$  is defined by the equation,

$\eta(\gamma, a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a}$  the index is also called the winding number of  $\gamma$  with respect to  $a$ .

~~Res~~  
Result :-

If  $\gamma$  lies inside of a circle then  $\eta(\gamma, a) = 0$   $\forall$  points  $a$  outside of the same circle.

Thm:

The index  $\eta(\gamma, a)$  is constant in each of the regions determine by  $\gamma$  and 0 in the unbounded region.

proof:-  
Let  $a$  and  $b$  be any two points in same region determine by  $\gamma$  can be join by polygon which does not meet  $\gamma$ .

To prove :  $\eta(\gamma, a) = \eta(\gamma, b)$

outside of the segment the function  $\frac{(z-a)}{(z-b)}$  is never real and  $\leq 0$ .

The principal branch of  $\log\left(\frac{z-a}{z-b}\right)$  is analytic in the complement of the segment

Its derivative is equal to  $\frac{1}{z-a} - \frac{1}{z-b}$

If  $\gamma$  does not meet the segment we have,

$$\int_{\gamma} \left( \frac{1}{z-a} - \frac{1}{z-b} \right) dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-a} dz - \int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z-b} dz = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a} - \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-b} = 0$$

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a} = \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta(\gamma, a) = \eta(\gamma, b)$$

If  $|a|$  is sufficiently large,  $\gamma$  is contained in a disk  $|z| < \rho < |a|$

By the result,  $\eta(\gamma, a) = 0$

$\therefore \eta(\gamma, a) = 0$  is unbounded region.

Cauchy's integral formula (or) Cauchy's representation

Formula:-

Suppose that  $f(z)$  is analytic in an open disc  $\Delta$  and let  $\gamma$  be a closed curve in  $\Delta$  for any point  $a$  not on  $\gamma$ .

$\eta(\gamma, a) f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz$  where  $\eta(\gamma, a)$  is the index of 'a' with respect to  $\gamma$ .

Proof:- Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in an open disk  $\Delta$ .

consider, the closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Delta$  and let a point  $a$  which does not lie on  $\gamma$

Suppose  $a$  is not in  $\Delta$

then the result is obvious.

Let  $a \in \Delta$

consider the function  $F(z) = \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z-a}$

This function is analytic for  $z \neq a$  and not

analytic for  $z=a$ .

$F(z)$  satisfies the condition

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{z \rightarrow a} F(z)(z-a) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z-a} (z-a) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) - f(a) \\ &= f(a) - f(a) = 0\end{aligned}$$

By thm,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z-a} dz &= 0 \\ &= \int_{\gamma} \left( \frac{f(z)}{z-a} - \frac{f(a)}{z-a} \right) dz = 0 \\ &= \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(a)}{z-a} dz \\ \Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz &= f(a) \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}\end{aligned}$$

We know that,

$$\begin{aligned}\eta(\gamma, a) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a} \\ \Rightarrow 2\pi i \eta(\gamma, a) &= \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-a} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}\end{aligned}$$

Sub

$\textcircled{2}$

in  $\textcircled{1}$

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = f(a) 2\pi i \eta(\gamma, a)$$

$$\eta(\gamma, a) f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz$$

If  $\eta(\gamma, a) = 1$

$$\text{Then, } f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz$$

This is known as "Cauchy integral" formula.

pb/m: 1 compute  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^z}{z} dz$  where  $\gamma$  lies on  $|z|=1$

soln:-

We know that

Cauchy's integral formula

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = 2\pi i f(a) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Given  $f(z) = e^z$  and  $a=0$

The point 0 lies inside  $|z|=1$

$$\therefore \int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^z}{z} dz = 2\pi i f(0) \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} \because 2\pi i f(a) \\ 2\pi i e^a \\ 2\pi i e^0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$= 2\pi i (e^0)$$

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^z}{z} dz = 2\pi i$$

pb/m: 2

compute  $\int_{|z|=1} e^z z^{-n} dz$

soln:-

Given  $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^z}{z^n} dz$  Here  $f(z) = e^z$ ,  $a=0$

The point  $a=0$  lies inside  $|z|=1$

We know that,  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z) dz}{(z-a)^{n+1}} = \frac{2\pi i}{n!} f^{(n)}(a)$

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^z}{z^n} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(0) \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Here  $f(z) = e^z$ ,  $f'(z) = e^z$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $f^{(n-1)}(z) = e^z$ ,  $f^{(n)}(z) = e^z$

$$f^{(n-1)}(z) = e^z \Rightarrow f^{(n-1)}(0) = e^0 = 1$$

① becomes

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^z}{z^n} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{(n-1)!} \times 1 = \frac{2\pi i}{(n-1)!}$$

pbm:  $\int_{|z|=2} \frac{z dz}{z^2-1}$

soln:-

Given  $f(z) = z$

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

Using partial fraction

$$\frac{1}{(z+1)(z-1)} = \frac{A}{z+1} + \frac{B}{z-1}$$

$$1 = A(z-1) + B(z+1)$$

$$z=1 \Rightarrow 1 = 2B, B = 1/2$$

$$z=-1 \Rightarrow 1 = -2A, A = -1/2$$

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

The point  $z_0 = 1, -1$  lies inside the curve  
By Cauchy integral formula,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \frac{z}{z^2-1} dz &= \frac{1}{2} \int \left( \frac{z}{z-1} - \frac{z}{z+1} \right) dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2} [2\pi i f(1) - 2\pi i f(-1)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (4\pi i) = 2\pi i \end{aligned}$$

2)  $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{z^3}{(2z+i)^3} dz$

soln:- Given  $f(z) = z^3, f'(z) = 3z^2, f''(z) = 6z$   
By Cauchy integral test,

$$\begin{aligned} f^n(z_0) &= \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz \\ \int_{|z|=1} \frac{z^3}{2^3(z+i/2)^3} dz &= \frac{1}{2^3} \frac{2\pi i}{n!} f^n(z_0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^3} \frac{2\pi i}{2!} f''(z_0) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{\pi i}{8} \times f^2(-i/2)$$

$$= \frac{\pi i}{8} \times 6(-i/2) = \frac{3\pi i}{8}$$

$$3) \int_{|z|=2} \frac{e^z}{(z+1)^4} dz$$

soln:- let  $f(z) = e^{2z}$ ,  $f'(z) = 2e^{2z}$ ,  $f''(z) = 4e^{2z}$

$$f'''(z) = 8e^{2z}$$

$$f'''(-1) = 8e^{-2}$$

-1 lies inside the circle.

By Cauchy integral

$$f^n(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

$$\int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{n!} f^n(z_0)$$

$$\int_{|z|=2} \frac{e^{2z}}{(z+1)^4} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{3!} f'''(-1)$$

$$= \frac{2\pi i}{3!} \times 8e^{-2}$$

$$= \frac{8}{3} \times \frac{\pi i}{e^2}$$

(4) compute  $\int_{|z|=p} \frac{|dz|}{|z-a|^2}$  under the condition

$|a| \neq p$  [make use the eqn  $z\bar{z} = p^2$  and  $|dz| = -ip \frac{dz}{z}$ ]

soln:-  $|z|=p$ ,  $z = pe^{it}$ ;  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

$$dz = pie^{it} dt$$

$$|dz| = |pie^{it} dt| \Rightarrow p|ie^{it}| dt \Rightarrow p(1) dt$$

$$|dz| = p dt \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$dz = p i e^{it} dt \Rightarrow \frac{dz}{i p e^{it}} = dt \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

sub ② in ①

$$\Rightarrow |dz| = p \left( -i \frac{dz}{z} \right) \Rightarrow -ip \frac{dz}{z}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{|z-a|^2} = \frac{1}{(z-a)(\bar{z}-\bar{a})}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(z-a)(\bar{z}-\bar{a})}$$

$$\int_{|z|=p} \frac{|dz|}{|z-a|^2} = \int_{|z|=p} \frac{-ip dz}{z(z-a)(\bar{z}-\bar{a})}$$

$$= ip \int_{|z|=p} \frac{dz}{z(z-a)(\bar{z}-\bar{a})}$$

[∵  $|z|^2 = p^2$ ]

$$= -ip \int_{|z|=p} \frac{dz}{(z-a)(|z|^2 - z\bar{a})}$$

$$= -ip \int_{|z|=p} \frac{\left( \frac{1}{p^2 - z\bar{a}} \right) dz}{z-a}$$

Here  $f(z) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{p^2 - z\bar{a}}$

By using Cauchy integral formula,

$$\int_{|z|=p} \frac{|dz|}{|z-a|^2} = -ip \frac{2\pi i f(a)}{1}$$

$$= -ip \cdot 2\pi i \cdot \frac{1}{p^2 - |a|^2}$$

$$\int_{|z|=p} \frac{|dz|}{|z-a|^2} = \frac{2\pi p}{p^2 - |a|^2}$$

Morera's thm:

If  $f(z)$  is defined and continuous in a region  $\Omega$  and if  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0 \forall$  closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Omega$  then  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$ .

proof:

- Given  $f(z)$  is continuous in  $\Omega$  and

$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$  for all closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Omega$   
we know that

"The integral  $\int f(z) dz$  continuous depends only on the end points of  $\gamma \Leftrightarrow f$  is the derivative of an analytic function in  $\Omega$ "  $\rightarrow$  ①

We know that

"The line integral depends only on the end points iff the integral is exact differential"  $\rightarrow$  ②

Given  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$

ie) The given integral is exact

By ② the integral depends on the end points

By ①  $f(z)$  is derivatives of an analytic function  $F(z)$

ie)  $F'(z) = f(z)$

We know that

"The derivative of an analytic function is

again analytic

$\therefore f(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$   
hence proved.

~~(\*) Rouville's thm:-~~

2) compute  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z^2+1}$  where  $\gamma$  lies on  $|z|=2$   
soln:-

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

$$1 = A(z-i) + B(z+i)$$

$$\text{put } z=i, \quad 1 = 2Bi \quad \Rightarrow B = \frac{1}{2i}$$

$$z=-i, \quad 1 = -2iA \quad \Rightarrow A = -\frac{1}{2i}$$

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

$$= -\frac{1}{2i} \left[ \frac{1}{z+i} - \frac{1}{z-i} \right]$$

$$\int_{|z|=2} \frac{dz}{z^2+1} = -\frac{1}{2i} \int_{|z|=2} \left[ \frac{1}{z+i} - \frac{1}{z-i} \right] dz$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2i} \left[ \int_{|z|=2} \frac{1}{z+i} dz - \int_{|z|=2} \frac{1}{z-i} dz \right]$$

The point  $i$  and  $-i$  are lies inside the circle  $|z|=2$

$$\int_{|z|=2} \frac{dz}{z^2+1} = -\frac{1}{2i} [2\pi i f(-i) - 2\pi i f(i)]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2i} [2\pi i (1) - 2\pi i (1)]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2i} (0) \quad \text{[}\because \text{By Cauchy's integral formula]} \\ = 0.$$

3) Evaluate  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^z}{z^2+4} dz$  where  $\gamma$  is positively oriented circle  $|z-i|=2$ .

Soln:-

$$\frac{1}{z^2+4} = \frac{A}{z-2i} + \frac{B}{z+2i}$$

$$1 = A(z+2i) + B(z-2i)$$

$$\text{put } z = -2i \Rightarrow B(-2i-2i) = 1$$

$$B = \frac{1}{-4i} \Rightarrow B = \frac{1}{4i}$$

$$\text{put } z = 2i \Rightarrow 1 = 4iA \Rightarrow A = \frac{1}{4i}$$

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

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

$$\int_{|z-i|=2} \frac{e^z}{z^2+4} dz = \frac{1}{4i} \left[ \int_{|z-i|=2} \frac{1}{z-2i} dz - \int_{|z-i|=2} \frac{1}{z+2i} dz \right]$$

The points  $2i$  and  $-2i$  are lies inside and outside of the circle  $|z-i|=2$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{|z-i|=2} \frac{e^z}{z^2+4} dz &= \frac{1}{4i} [2\pi i f(2i) - 0] \\ &= \frac{1}{4i} (2\pi i e^{2i}) \\ &= \pi/2 e^{2i} \end{aligned}$$

Cauchy's higher derivative formula

$$f_n(a) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz$$

Prob. 1 Evaluate  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{2z}}{(z+1)^3} dz$  where  $\gamma$  is  $|z|=2$ .

Soln:

Given  $f(z) = e^{2z}$

$a = -1$  and  $-1$  lies inside  $|z|=2$

N.K.T  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{n!} f^{(n)}(a)$

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{2z}}{(z+1)^3} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{2!} f''(-1) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Here  $f(z) = e^{2z}$

$$f'(z) = e^{2z} \cdot 2 = 2e^{2z}$$

$$f''(z) = 4e^{2z}$$

$$f''(-1) = 4e^{-2}$$

(1) becomes,  $\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{2z}}{(z+1)^3} dz = \frac{2\pi i}{2} \times 4e^{-2}$   
 $= 4\pi i e^{-2}$

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{2z}}{(z+1)^3} dz = \frac{4\pi i}{e^2}$$

Liouville's thm

A function which is analytic and bounded in the whole plane must reduce to a constant.

proof:

Let  $f(z)$  is bounded and analytic in the whole plane.

Since  $f(z)$  is bounded.

There exists a real number  $M$  such that  $|f(z)| \leq M \quad \forall z$ .

Let  $z_0$  be any complex number and

repeated

$r > 0$  be any real number.

By Cauchy's inequality, we have

$$|f'(z_0)| \leq \frac{M}{r}$$

$$\frac{M n!}{r^n} \quad n=1$$

Taking the limit as  $r \rightarrow \infty$

$$|f'(z_0)| = 0$$

$$f'(z_0) = 0$$

Since  $z_0$  is arbitrary

$$f'(z) = 0 \quad \forall z$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = \text{constant}$$

$f(z)$  is a constant function.

Fundamental theorem of Algebra

✶

Every polynomial of degree  $> 0$  has at least one zero (root)

Proof:-

Let  $p(z)$  be the polynomial of degree  $> 0$

Suppose  $p(z)$  has no zero.

Then  $p(z) \neq 0 \quad \forall z$ .

$p(z)$  is the entire function in the whole plane.

$p(z)$  is analytic in the whole plane.

$\frac{1}{p(z)}$  is analytic in the whole plane.

As  $z \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $p(z) \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{1}{p(z)} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } z \rightarrow \infty$$

$\frac{1}{p(z)}$  is the bounded function.

$\frac{1}{p(z)}$  is analytic and bounded

[by Liouville's thm]

$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{p(z)}$  is constant

$p(z)$  is constant function.

$p(z)$  is a polynomial of degree zero which is a contradiction to  $p(z)$  is a polynomial of deg  $> 0$ .

$\therefore p(z)$  has at least one zero

Hence proved.

Cauchy's inequality (or) Estimate

Let  $f(z)$  be analytic inside on the circle with centre  $z_0$  and radius  $r$ . Let  $M$  denote the maximum of  $|f(z)|$  on  $C$ .

then  $|f^n(z_0)| \leq \frac{n! M}{r^n}$ .

proof:-

W.K.T, the higher derivatives of Cauchy integral formula is

$$f^n(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

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

$$\leq \frac{n!}{2\pi} \int_C \frac{|f(z)|}{|z-z_0|^{n+1}} |dz|$$

Given  $|f(z)| \leq M$  and  $|z-z_0| \leq r$

$$|f^n(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!}{2\pi} \int_C \frac{M}{r^{n+1}} |dz|$$

$$= \frac{n!}{2\pi} \left( \frac{M}{r^{n+1}} \right) \int_C |dz|$$

$$= \frac{n!}{2\pi} \frac{M}{r^{n+1}} 2\pi r$$

$$|f^n(z_0)| \leq \frac{n! M}{r^n}$$

Hence proved

10m  
 (37) Then suppose that  $\phi(\zeta)$  is continuous on the arc  $\gamma$  & the function  $F_n(z) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^n} d\zeta$  is analytic in each of the regions determine by  $\gamma$  and its derivative is  $F_n'(z) = nF_{n+1}(z)$ .

proof:- First we have to prove

$F_1(z)$  is continuous

Let  $z_0$  be a point not in  $\gamma$ .

Let us choose a neighbourhood  $|\zeta-z| < \delta$ ,  $|z-z_0| < \delta$ .

Now, restrict the point  $z$  to smaller that  $|z-z_0| < \delta/2$  for all  $\zeta \in \gamma$ ,  $|\zeta-z| > \delta/2$

$$\text{Now, } F_1(z) - F_1(z_0) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d\zeta - \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta)}{\zeta-z_0} d\zeta$$

$$= \int_{\gamma} \left( \frac{1}{\zeta-z} - \frac{1}{\zeta-z_0} \right) \phi(\zeta) d\zeta$$

$$= \int_{\gamma} \frac{\zeta-z_0 - \zeta+z}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)} \phi(\zeta) d\zeta$$

$$= \int_{\gamma} \frac{z-z_0}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)} \phi(\zeta) d\zeta$$

$$F_1(z) - F_1(z_0) = (z-z_0) \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)} d\zeta \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$|F_1(z) - F_1(z_0)| \leq |z-z_0| \int_{\gamma} \frac{|\phi(\zeta)| |d\zeta|}{|\zeta-z| |\zeta-z_0|}$$

$$< |z-z_0| \cdot \frac{2}{\delta} \cdot \frac{1}{\delta} \int_{\gamma} |\phi(\zeta)| |d\zeta|$$

If  $|\phi(\zeta)| \leq M$  and  $\int_{\gamma} |d\zeta| = l$  (length of the arc)

$$\therefore |F_1(z) - F_1(z_0)| \leq \frac{2M\delta}{\delta^2} |z - z_0|$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} |F_1(z) - F_1(z_0)| \leq \frac{2M\delta}{\delta^2} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} |z - z_0|$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} |F_1(z) - F_1(z_0)| = 0$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} F_1(z) = F_1(z_0)$$

$\therefore F_1(z)$  is continuous at  $z_0$

$\Rightarrow F_1(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0$ .

From ① 
$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{F_1(z) - F_1(z_0)}{z - z_0} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta - z)(\zeta - z_0)}$$

$$F_1'(z_0) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta - z_0)(\zeta - z_0)}$$

$$= \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta - z_0)^2}$$

$$F_1'(z_0) = F_2(z_0) \text{ i.e. } F_1'(z) = F_2(z)$$

Hence the theorem is true for  $n=1$ .

Let us assume that the theorem is true for  $n-1$ .

i.e.  $F_{n-1}(z)$  is analytic and  $F_{n-1}(z) = (n-1)F_n(z)$

We shall prove that the theorem is true for  $n$ .

$F_n(z)$  is analytic and  $F_n'(z) = nF_{n+1}(z)$

Now,

$$\frac{1}{\zeta - z} - \frac{1}{\zeta - z_0} = \frac{\zeta - z_0 - \zeta + z}{(\zeta - z)(\zeta - z_0)} = \frac{z - z_0}{(\zeta - z)(\zeta - z_0)} \rightarrow \text{②}$$

Let us consider

$$\left[ \frac{1}{(\zeta - z)^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{(\zeta - z_0)^{n-1}} \right] \left[ \frac{1}{\zeta - z} - \frac{1}{\zeta - z_0} \right] = \left[ \frac{1}{(\zeta - z)^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{(\zeta - z_0)^{n-1}} \right] \left[ \frac{z - z_0}{(\zeta - z)(\zeta - z_0)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)^n} - \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)(\zeta-z)^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)^n}$$

$$= (z-z_0) \left[ \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)(\zeta-z)^n} + \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)^n} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)^n} - \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)^n} = \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)(\zeta-z)^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)^{n-1}} + (z-z_0) \left[ \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)(\zeta-z_0)^n} + \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)^n} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)(\zeta-z)^{n-1}} + \frac{z-z_0}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)} + \left[ \frac{z-z_0}{(\zeta-z)(\zeta-z_0)^n} - \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)^{n-1}(\zeta-z)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)^{n-1}(\zeta-z_0)} + \frac{z-z_0}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)} + \left[ \frac{z-z_0-\zeta+z_0}{(\zeta-z_0)^n(\zeta-z)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)^{n-1}(\zeta-z_0)} + \frac{z-z_0}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)} + \frac{z-\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^n(\zeta-z)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)^{n-1}(\zeta-z_0)} + \frac{z-z_0}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)} - \frac{(\zeta-z)}{(\zeta-z_0)^n(\zeta-z)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\zeta-z)^{n-1}(\zeta-z_0)} + \frac{z-z_0}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)} - \frac{1}{(\zeta-z_0)^n}$$

Multiplying by  $\phi(\zeta)$  and integrate with respect to  $\zeta$  on  $\gamma$ .

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^n} d\zeta - \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z_0)^n} d\zeta = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z)^{n-1}(\zeta-z_0)} + (z-z_0) \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)} - \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z)^n} - \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^n} = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z)^{n-1}(\zeta-z_0)}$$

$$- \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^n} + (z-z_0) \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)}$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} F_n(z) - F_n(z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^n} - \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^n} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$+ \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^{n+1}}$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} F_n(z) - F_n(z_0) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} F_n(z) = F_n(z_0)$$

$F_n(z)$  is continuous.

$\therefore F_n(z)$  is analytic

claim:  $F_n'(z) = n F_{n+1}(z)$

Let us define,

$$g_{n-1}(z) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z)^{n-1}(\zeta-z_0)}$$

$$\text{Now, } \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{g_{n-1}(z) - g_{n-1}(z_0)}{z - z_0} = g_{n-1}'(z_0)$$

$$\left[ \text{Since, } g_n(z_0) = \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^n(\zeta-z_0)} \right] = (n-1) g_n(z_0)$$

$$= (n-1) \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z_0)^{n+1}}$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{g_{n-1}(z) - g_{n-1}(z_0)}{z - z_0} = (n-1) F_{n+1}(z_0) \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

From (3),

$$F_n(z) - F_n(z_0) = g_{n-1}(z) - g_{n-1}(z_0) + (z-z_0) \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta-z)^n(\zeta-z_0)}$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{F_n(z) - F_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{g_{n-1}(z) - g_{n-1}(z_0)}{z - z_0} + \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \int \frac{\phi(\xi) d\xi}{(\xi - z)^n (\xi - z_0)}$$

$$F_n'(z_0) = (n-1) F_{n+1}(z_0) + F_{n+1}(z_0)$$

By using eqn (4)

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow F_n'(z_0) &= n F_{n+1}(z_0) - F_{n+1}(z_0) + F_{n+1}(z_0) \\ &= n F_{n+1}(z_0) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore F_n'(z_0) = n F_{n+1}(z_0)$$

Hence proved.

## Unit - III

\* Local properties of analytic functions

## Unit-III

Local properties of analytic function

Singular point:

A point 'a' is said to be a singular point or singularity of a function  $f(z)$  if  $f(z)$  is not analytic at 'a' and  $f(z)$  is analytic at some point of every disk  $|z-a| < r$ .

Eg:

consider the function  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-i)}$ , 0 and  $i$  are singular points for  $f(z)$ .

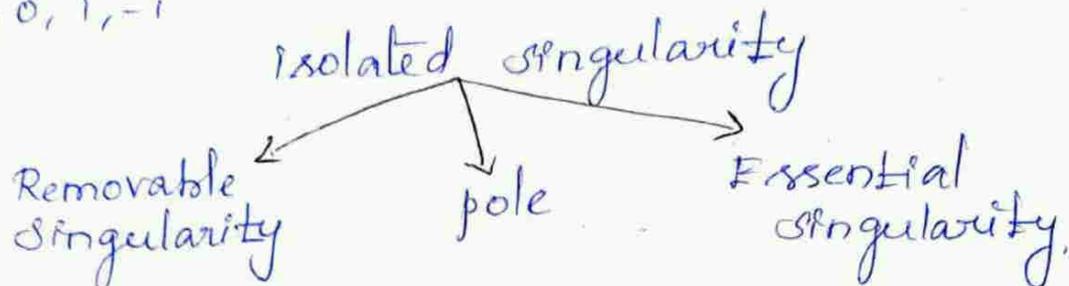
Isolated singularity:

A point 'a' is called an isolated singularity for  $f(z)$  if,  $f(z)$  is not analytic at  $z=a$  and there exist  $r > 0$  such that  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $0 < |z-a| < r$ .

ie) The neighbourhood  $|z-a| < r$  contains no singularity of  $f(z)$  except "a".

Eg:  $f(z) = \frac{z+1}{z^2(z^2+1)}$  has three isolated singularities

$$z = 0, 1, -1$$



Thm:

Suppose that  $f(z)$  is analytic in the region  $\Omega$  obtain by omitting a point 'a' from a region  $\Omega$ . A necessary and sufficient condition that there exist an analytic function in  $\Omega$  which coincides with  $f(z)$  in  $\Omega'$  is that  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)f(z) = 0$  the extended function is uniquely determined.

proof:-

The necessity and uniqueness are trivial. Since the extended function must be continuous at a.

To prove:

The sufficiency.

We draw a circle 'c' about 'a' so that c an inside and contained in  $\Omega$ .

By Cauchy's integral formula

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta - z)} \quad \text{for all } z \neq a$$

inside of c.

But the integral on the right hand numbers represents an analytic function of  $z$  through out of inside of  $C$ .

consequently,  
the function which is equal to  $f(z)$  for  $z \neq a$ ,

and which has the value

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta) d\zeta}{(\zeta - a)} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

where we denote the extended function by  $f(z)$  and the value (1) by  $f(a)$

We apply this result to the function,

$$f(z) = \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Equation (2) is not define for  $z = a$ .

But it satisfies the condition

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a) f(z) = 0$$

The limit of  $f(z)$  as  $z \rightarrow a$  is  $f'(a)$

Hence there exists an analytic function which is equal to  $F(z)$  for  $z \neq a$  and equal to  $f'(z)$  for  $z = a$ .

10m Taylor's thm

(\*)

If  $f(z)$  is analytic in a region  $\Omega$  containing in 'a' it is possible to write

$$f(z) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (z-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (z-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(a)}{(n-1)!} (z-a)^{n-1} + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (z-a)^n$$

where  $f_n(a)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$ .

proof:- consider the function  $F(z) = \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z-a}$

It is analytic at  $z \neq a$  and for  $z = a$ .

It is not analytic but it satisfies

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a) f'(z) = 0$$

$F$  can be re-define in such a way that it becomes analytic at  $z = a$ .

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} F(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z-a} = f'(a)$$

$$f_1(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z-a} & \forall z \neq a \\ f'(a) & \text{at } z = a \end{cases} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$f_1(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$

$$f_2(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_1(z) - f_1(a)}{z-a} & \forall z \neq a \\ f_1'(a) & \text{at } z = a \end{cases} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$f_2(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$

proceeding like this we get,

$$f_n(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_{n-1}(z) - f_{n-1}(a)}{z-a} & \forall z \neq a \\ f_{n-1}'(a) & \text{at } z = a \end{cases}$$

which is analytic in  $\Omega$

For  $z \neq a$

From the defn of function.

$$f(z) = f(a) + (z-a) f_1(z) \quad [\text{by (1)}]$$

$$= f(a) + (z-a) [f_1(a) + (z-a) f_2(z)] \quad [\text{by (2)}]$$

$$= f(a) + (z-a) f_1(a) + (z-a)^2 [f_2(a) + (z-a) f_3(z)]$$

$$= f(a) + (z-a) f_1(a) + (z-a)^2 f_2(a) + (z-a)^3 f_3(z)$$

preceding like this we get

$$f(z) = f(a) + (z-a)f_1(a) + (z-a)^2 f_2(a) + \dots + (z-a)^{n-1} f_{n-1}(a) + (z-a)^n f_n(a) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

diff w.r to  $z$ , we get

$$f'(z) = f_1(a) + 2(z-a)f_2(a) + 3(z-a)^2 f_3(a) + \dots$$

$$f'(a) = f_1(a) + 0 + 0$$

$$f'(a) = f_1(a)$$

$$\text{iii}^{\text{ly}}, f''(z) = 2f_2(a) + 6(z-a)f_3(a) + \dots$$

$$f''(a) = 2f_2(a)$$

$$f''(a) = 2! f_2(a)$$

iii<sup>ly</sup>

$$f'''(z) = 6f_3(a) \\ = 3! f_3(a)$$

$$\text{In general } f^n(a) = n! f_n(a)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_n(a) = \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} \quad \forall n$$

sub these values in (3),

$$f(z) = f(a) + (z-a) \frac{f'(a)}{1!} + (z-a)^2 \frac{f''(a)}{2!} \\ + \dots + (z-a)^{n-1} \frac{f^{(n-1)}(a)}{(n-1)!} + (z-a)^n \frac{f^n(a)}{n!}$$

Hence proved.

### ⊗ Meromorphic function

Prove that the poles of meromorphic function are isolated.

A function  $f(z)$  which is analytic in a region  $\Omega$ , except for poles is said to be meromorphic in  $\Omega$ .

More precisely, to every  $a \in \Omega$ , there shall exist a neighbourhood,  $|z-a| < \delta$  contained in  $\Omega$  such that either  $f(z)$  is analytic in the whole neighbourhood or else  $f(z)$  is analytic for  $0 < |z-a| < \delta$  and the isolated singularity is a pole.

By the defn the poles of meromorphic function are isolated.

Ex:

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

Here 0 and 1 are poles of order 1 and 2 respectively.

The function  $f(z)$  is analytic except the poles 0 and 1.

$\therefore f(z)$  is meromorphic function.

Thm: Weierstrass thm

An analytic function comes arbitrarily closed to any complex value in every neighbourhood of an essential singularity.

proof:-

Let  $f$  be analytic except at  $a$ , where  $a$  is an essential singularity for  $f$ .

Suppose the theorem is not true.

i.e) there exists a complex number  $A$  and  $\delta$  such that  $f(z)$  is not closed to  $A$  in a neighbourhood of  $a$ .

i.e)  $|f(z) - A| > \delta$  for any  $\alpha < 0$

We have,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} |z-a|^\alpha |f(z) - A| = \infty$

Here  $a$  is not an essential singularity of  $f(z) \rightarrow A$ .

choose  $\beta > 0$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} |z-a|^\beta |f(z)-A| = 0$$

$$\text{since } \lim_{z \rightarrow a} |z-a|^\beta |f(z)| = 0$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} |z-a|^\beta |A| = 0$$

$\therefore a$  is not an essential singularity of  $f(z)$  which is contradiction.

$\therefore f$  is arbitrary close to any complex number in every neighbourhood of  $A$ .

⊗ problem

Show that the function  $e^z$ ,  $\sin z$ ,  $\cos z$  have essential singularity at  $\infty$ .

soln:-

Let  $f(z) = e^z$ ,  $f(1/z) = e^{1/z}$  which is analytic except at  $z=0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(1/z) = e^{1/z} &= 1 + \frac{1/z}{1!} + \frac{(1/z)^2}{2!} + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{z \cdot 1!} + \frac{1}{z^2 \cdot 2!} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

where the principal part of contains infinitely many terms.

$z=0$  is an essential singularity for  $f(1/z)$

$z=\infty$  is an essential singularity for  $f(z) = e^z$ .

## Local mapping theorem

Let  $z_j$  be the zeros of the function  $f(z)$  which is analytic in a disk  $\Delta$  and does not vanish identically, each zero being counted as many times as its order indicates, for every closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Delta$  which does not pass through a zero  $\sum_j^n \eta(\gamma, z_j) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz$  where the sum has only a finite number of terms not equal to zero.

proof:

case (i)

Let  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n$  be the finite numbers of zeroes in  $\Delta$ .

Then  $f(z) = [(z-z_1)(z-z_2)\dots(z-z_n)\phi(z)]$  where  $\phi(z)$  is analytic and not equal to zero in  $\Delta$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\log f(z) &= \log [(z-z_1)(z-z_2)\dots(z-z_n)\phi(z)] \\ &= \log(z-z_1) + \log(z-z_2) + \dots + \log(z-z_n) \\ &\quad + \log \phi(z)\end{aligned}$$

$$\log f(z) = \sum_{j=1}^n \log(z-z_j) + \log \phi(z)$$

Diff w.r. to  $z$ ,

$$\frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{z-z_j} + \frac{\phi'(z)}{\phi(z)}$$

multiply both sides by  $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$  and integrating over any closed curve  $\gamma$  in  $\Delta$  that does not pass through any of  $z_j$ 's,

we get,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{z-z_j} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi'(z)}{\phi(z)} dz$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^n \eta(\gamma, z_j) + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi'(z)}{\phi(z)} dz \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$\therefore \phi(z)$  is analytic in  $\Delta$ .

$\phi'(z)$  is also analytic in  $\Delta$ .

$\therefore \frac{\phi'(z)}{\phi(z)}$  is analytic in  $\Delta$

By Cauchy's theorem is an open disc

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{\phi'(z)}{\phi(z)} dz = 0$$

The above eqn becomes

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{j=1}^n \eta(\gamma, z_j) \quad //$$

case (ii)

Suppose that  $f$  has infinitely many zeroes in  $\Delta$ , choose a concentric disk  $\Delta'$ .

So that,

$\Delta'$  contains the closed curve  $\gamma$ .

If  $\Delta'$  encloses infinitely many zeroes of  $f$ .

Then the infinite set of zeroes have a limit point in  $\Delta'$ .

which is impossible.

$\Delta'$  have only finite number of zero of  $f$ .

Let  $\alpha_j'$  denote the zero's of  $f$  in  $\Delta'$  and let  $\alpha_j$  denote the zero's outside  $\Delta'$ . Since  $\gamma$  lies inside  $\Delta'$  and  $\alpha_j$ 's outside  $\Delta'$

$$\eta(\gamma, \alpha_j) = 0 \quad \forall j$$

since  $\Delta'$  encloses only a finite number as zero's of  $f$ .

By case (i)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz &= \sum_j \eta(\gamma, \alpha_j') \\ &= \sum_j \eta(\gamma, \alpha_j') + \sum_j \eta(\gamma, \alpha_j) \\ &= \sum_j \eta(\gamma, \alpha_j') \text{ which} \\ &\quad \text{has only finite} \\ &\quad \text{no of non-zero terms} \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_j \eta(\gamma, \alpha_j') = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz$$

⊗ ~~Local mapping theorem~~ or local correspond thm

Suppose that  $f(z)$  is analytic at a point  $z_0$  and  $f(z_0) = w_0$  and that  $f(z) - w_0$  has a zero of order  $n$  at  $z_0$ .

If  $\varepsilon > 0$  is sufficiently small there exists a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $a$  with  $|a - w_0| < \delta$ . The equation  $f(z) = a$  has exact  $n$  roots in the disk  $|z - z_0| < \varepsilon$ .

proof:- choose  $\varepsilon > 0$  sufficiently small such that  $f$  is differentiable in  $|z - z_0| < \varepsilon$

And  $z_0$  is the only zero as  $f(z) = w_0$  in this neighbourhood.

Let  $\gamma$  denote the boundary of this neighbourhood.

ie)  $\gamma$  denotes  $|z - z_0| = \varepsilon$ .

Let  $\Gamma$  be the image of  $\gamma$  under  $f$ . Since  $z_0$  is an interior point of  $\gamma$  whose image is  $w_0$  under  $f$ .

$$w_0 \in \Gamma^c$$

Since  $\Gamma$  is closed its complement  $\Gamma^c$  is open.

There exists a neighbourhood  $|w - w_0| < \delta$  contained in  $\Gamma^c$ .

$$\text{ie) } |w - w_0| < \delta \subseteq \Gamma^c$$

ie) The neighbourhood  $|w - w_0| < \delta$  does not intersect  $\Gamma$ .

Also  $f(z)$  takes the value  $w_0$  in this neighbourhood  $n$  times.

By corollary,

$f(z)$  takes every value in  $|w - w_0| < \delta$ ,  $n$  times.

ie) The equation  $f(z) = a$  has  $n$  roots in  $|z - z_0| < \varepsilon$  for every  $a$  such that  $|a - w_0| < \delta$ .

Note:

$a$  and  $b$  are in same region  
determined by  $\Gamma$ .

w.k.t,  $\eta(\Gamma, a) = \eta(\Gamma, b)$  and

hence  $\sum_j \eta(\gamma, z_j(a)) = \sum_j \eta(\gamma, z_j(b))$

If  $\gamma$  is a circle  $f(z)$  takes a  
value  $a$  and  $b$  equally many times  
inside of  $\gamma$ .

Corollary: 1

A non-constant analytic function  
maps open sets onto open sets.

Proof:-

Let  $f(z)$  be analytic function in  $\Delta$ .

To prove,

By the local correspondence thm,

For case  $n=1$

There is 1-1 correspondence between  
disk  $|w-w_0| < \delta$  and the open  
subset  $\Delta$  of  $|z-z_0| < \epsilon$ .

w.k.t, "Inverse function of  $f(z)$  is  
constant and  $f$  is constant iff  
converse image of open sets is open".

The open set in the  $z$ -plane  
corresponds to open set in  $w$ -plane.

Hence  $f$  maps open sets onto  
open sets.

## Maximum principle or maximum modulus theorem

i) If  $f(z)$  is analytic and non-constant in a region  $\Omega$ , then its absolute value  $|f(z)|$  has no maximum in  $\Omega$ .

ii) If  $f(z)$  is defined and constant on a closed and bounded set  $E$  and analytic on the interior of  $E$ , then the max of  $|f(z)|$  on  $E$  is assumed on the boundary of  $E$ .

proof:-

i) Let  $w_0$  be a value taken by  $f$  in  $\Omega$ . Since  $\Omega$  is open and  $f$  is a non-constant analytic function.

$\therefore f(\Omega)$  is open.

Also  $w_0 \in f(\Omega)$ , there exist a neighbourhood  $|w - w_0| < \delta$  which is fully contained in  $f(\Omega)$ .

In this neighbourhood there are points  $w$  such that  $|w| > |w_0|$ .

$\therefore |w_0|$  is not the maximum of  $|f(z)|$ .

$\therefore |f(z)|$  has no maximum in  $\Omega$ .

ii) Since  $f$  is analytic on the closed and bounded set  $E$  which is compact.

$|f(z)|$  has max of  $E$ .

Suppose that it is assumed at  $z_0$

If  $z_0$  is on the boundary then there is nothing to prove.

If  $z_0$  is interior point

Then  $|f(z_0)| = \max |f(z)|$

Since  $z_0$  is an interior point of  $E$  there exists a neighbourhood  $|z - z_0| < \epsilon \in E$ .

In this neighbourhood  $f$  is an analytic function and  $|f(z_0)|$  is the max of  $|f(z)|$ .

which is contradiction to (i)

$\therefore$  maximum of  $|f(z)|$  is obtained only at the boundary of  $F$ .

 Schwartz lemma

If  $f(z)$  is analytic for  $|z| < 1$  and satisfy the condition  $|z| < 1$ ,  $f(0) = 0$  then  $|f(z)| \leq |z|$  and  $|f'(0)| \leq 1$ .

If  $|f(z)| = |z|$  for some  $z \neq 0$  (or) if  $|f'(0)| = 1$ . Then  $f(z) = cz$  with a constant  $c$  of absolute value 1.

proof: consider the function

$$f_1(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(z)}{z} & \forall z \neq 0 \text{ on the circle } |z| = r \\ f'(0) & \text{at } z = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Then } |f_1(z)| = \left| \frac{f(z)}{z} \right| = \frac{|f(z)|}{|z|} \leq \frac{1}{r}$$

$$\text{As } r \rightarrow 1, |f_1(z)| \leq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{f(z)}{z} \right| \leq 1 \Rightarrow \frac{|f(z)|}{|z|} \leq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |f(z)| \leq |z|$$

$$\Rightarrow |f'(z)| \leq |1| = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |f'(z)| \leq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |f'(0)| \leq 1$$

Suppose the equality holds at a single point. Then  $|f_1(z)|$  attains its maximum and hence  $f_1(z)$  must reduce to a constant

$$\therefore f_1(z) = c$$

$$\text{ie) } \frac{f(z)}{z} = c$$

$$f(z) = cz \Rightarrow c = \frac{f(z)}{z}$$

$$|c| = \left| \frac{f(z)}{z} \right| = \frac{|f(z)|}{|z|}$$

$f(z) = cz$  with constant  $c$  of

absolute value 1.

Line integral problem

$$1). \text{ P.T } \int_c \frac{dz}{(z-a)^n} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \neq 1 \text{ where } c \\ & \text{is the circle with} \\ 2\pi i & \text{if } n=1 \end{cases}$$

is the circle with center  $a$  and radius  $r$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Soln:-

The parametric equation of the circle  $c$  is given by  $z-a = re^{it}$ ,

$$0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$$

$$\therefore z'(t) = ire^{it}$$

$$\text{Now, } \int_c \frac{dz}{(z-a)^n} = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{ire^{it}}{(re^{it})^n} dt$$

$$= \frac{i}{r^{n-1}} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(1-n)t} dt$$

$$= \frac{i}{r^{n-1}} \left[ \frac{e^{i(1-n)t}}{i(1-n)} \right]_0^{2\pi} \text{ provided } n \neq 1$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1-n)r^{n-1}} [e^{i(1-n)2\pi} - 1]$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1-n)r^{n-1}} (1-1)$$

$$= 0$$

$$\text{If } n=1, \int_C \frac{dz}{z-a} = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{ire^{it}}{re^{it}} dt$$

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

$$= 2\pi i.$$

Hence the result.

2) Evaluate  $\int_C \bar{z} dz$  from  $z=0$  to  $z=4+2i$  along the curve  $C$  consists of the line segment from  $z=0$  to  $z=2i$  followed by the line segment from  $z=2i$  to  $z=4+2i$ .

Soln:- Let  $C_1$  denote the line segment joins  $0$  to  $2i$  and  $C_2$  denote the line segment joins  $2i$  to  $4+2i$ .

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

Now, the parametric eqn of  $C_1$  is given by  $x(t)=0$  and  $y(t)=t$  where  $0 \leq t \leq 2$ .

$$\text{Hence } z(t) = x(t) + iy(t) = it$$

$$\text{so that } z'(t) = i$$

$$\text{Hence } \int_C \bar{z} dz = \int_0^2 (-it) i dt$$

$$= \int_0^2 t dt$$

$$= \left[ \frac{t^2}{2} \right]_0^2$$

$$= 4/2$$

$$= 2$$

Now the parametric eqn of  $c_2$  is given by  $x(t) = t$  and  $y(t) = 2$  where  $0 \leq t \leq 4$ .

Hence  $z(t) = t + 2i$  and

$$z'(t) = 1$$

$$\int_{c_2} \bar{z} dz = \int_0^4 (t - 2i) dt$$

$$= \left[ \frac{t^2}{2} - 2it \right]_0^4$$

$$= \frac{16}{2} - 2i(4)$$

$$= 8 - 8i$$

$$\int_c \bar{z} dz = \int_{c_1} \bar{z} dz + \int_{c_2} \bar{z} dz$$

$$= 2 + 8 - 8i$$

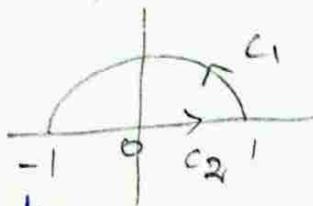
$$= 10 - 8i$$

3) Evaluate  $\int_c |z| \bar{z} dz$  where  $c$  is the closed curve consisting of the upper semicircle  $|z| = 1$  and the segment

$$-1 \leq x \leq 1.$$

Soln:

$$\text{Let } f(z) = |z| \bar{z}$$



$$\int_c f(z) dz = \int_{c_1} f(z) dz + \int_{c_2} f(z) dz$$

where  $c_1$  is the upper semicircle

$|z| = 1$  and  $c_2$  is the line segment  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$

The parametric eqn of  $c_1$  is given by  $z = e^{it}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$

Hence  $z'(t) = ie^{it}$   $\because |z|=1, \bar{z} = e^{-it}$   
 $dz = ie^{it} dt$

$$\int_{c_1} f(z) dz = \int_0^{\pi} e^{-it} ie^{it} dt$$

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

$$= \pi i$$

The parametric eqn of  $c_2$  is given by  $y=0, x=t$  where  $-1 \leq t \leq 1$ .

Hence  $z(t) = t$  and  $z'(t) = 1$

Also  $|z(t)| = \begin{cases} -t & \text{if } -1 \leq t \leq 0 \\ t & \text{if } 0 < t \leq 1 \end{cases}$

Hence  $\int_{c_2} |z| \bar{z} dz = \int_{-1}^0 -t \cdot t dt + \int_0^1 t \cdot t dt$

$$= \left[ \frac{-t^3}{3} \right]_{-1}^0 + \left[ \frac{t^3}{3} \right]_0^1$$

$$= -1/3 + 1/3$$

$$= 0$$

Hence

$$\int_c |z| \bar{z} dz = \int_{c_1} |z| \bar{z} dz + \int_{c_2} |z| \bar{z} dz$$

$$= \pi i$$

4) prove  $\int_c \bar{z}^2 dz = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c \text{ is the unit circle } |z|=1 \\ 4\pi i & \text{if } c \text{ is the circle } |z-1|=1 \end{cases}$

Soln:-

Let  $c$  be the unit circle  $|z|=1$ .

The parametric eqn of  $c$  is given by  $z(t) = e^{it}$  where  $0 < t \leq 2\pi$ .

Hence  $z'(t) = ie^{it}$  and

$$[\bar{z}(t)]^2 = e^{-2it} \quad [z = e^{it}$$

$$\therefore \int_c \bar{z}^2 dz = \int_0^{2\pi} [\bar{z}(t)]^2 z'(t) dt$$

$$= i \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-2it} dt$$

$$= - [e^{-2it}]_0^{2\pi}$$

$$= 0$$

$$\bar{z} = e^{-it}$$

$$(\bar{z})^2 = (e^{-it})^2$$

$$= e^{-2it}$$

Now let  $c$  be the circle  $|z-1|=1$ .

The parametric eqn of  $c$  is given by

$$z(t) = 1 + e^{it} \quad \text{where } 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$$

Hence  $z'(t) = ie^{it}$

$$\int_c \bar{z}^2 dz = \int_0^{2\pi} (1 + e^{-it})^2 ie^{it} dt$$

$$= i \int_0^{2\pi} (e^{it} + e^{-it} + 2) dt$$

$$= i \left[ \frac{e^{it}}{i} - \frac{e^{-it}}{i} + 2t \right]_0^{2\pi}$$

$$= [e^{it} - e^{-it} + 2it]_0^{2\pi}$$

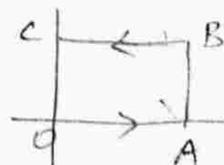
$$= 4\pi i$$

5) S.T  $\int_c |z|^2 dz = -1+i$  where  $c$  is the square with vertices  $O(0,0)$ ,  $A(1,0)$ ,  $B(1,1)$  and  $C(0,1)$

soln:

$$c = c_1 + c_2 + c_3 + c_4$$

where  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  and  $c_4$  are the line segments  $OA, OB, BC$  and  $CO$  as shown



The parametric equation of  $c_1$  is given by  $x=t$  and  $y=0$  where  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

Hence  $z(t) = t$  and  $z'(t) = 1$

$$\therefore \int_{c_1} |z|^2 dz = \int_0^1 t^2 dt = 1/3$$

The parametric equation of  $c_2$  is given by  $y=t$  and  $x=1$  where  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

Hence  $z(t) = 1+it$

$$z'(t) = i$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{c_2} |z|^2 dz &= \int_0^1 |1+it|^2 dz \\ &= i \int_0^1 (1+t^2) dt \\ &= i \left[ t + \frac{t^3}{3} \right]_0^1 \\ &= \frac{4i}{3} \end{aligned}$$

The parametric eqn of  $c_3$  is given by  $y=1$  and  $x=1-t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

Hence  $z(t) = (1-t) + i$

$$z'(t) = -1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \int_{c_3} |z|^2 dz &= \int_0^1 [(1-t)^2 + 1] (-1) dt \\ &= - \int_0^1 (t^2 - 2t + 2) dt \\ &= - \left( \frac{t^3}{3} - 2 \frac{t^2}{2} + 2t \right)_0^1 \\ &= - \left( \frac{1}{3} - 2 \frac{1}{2} + 2 \right) \\ &= - \left( \frac{1}{3} + 1 \right) \\ &= - \frac{4}{3} \end{aligned}$$

The parametric eqn of  $C_4$  is given by  
 $x=0, y=1-t, 0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

Hence  $z(t) = i(1-t)$  and

$$z'(t) = -i$$

$$\int_{C_4} |z|^2 dz = \int_0^1 (1-t)^2 (-i) dt$$

$$= -i \int_0^1 \frac{(1-t)^3}{3} dt$$

$$\Rightarrow -i \left[ 0 - \frac{1}{3} \right]$$

$$= -i/3$$

$$\text{Hence } \int_C f(z) dz = \frac{1}{3} + 4i/3 - 4/3 - i/3$$

$$= -1 + i$$

6) Evaluate  $\int_C \frac{z+2}{z} dz$  where  $C$  is the  
semi circle  $z = 2e^{i\theta}$  where  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ .

Soln:-

$$\text{Here } z'(0) = 2ie^{i\theta}$$

$$\text{So that } dz = 2ie^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$\int_C \frac{z+2}{z} dz = \int_0^\pi \left( \frac{2e^{i\theta} + 2}{2e^{i\theta}} \right) (2e^{i\theta} d\theta)$$

$$= 2i \int_0^\pi (1 + e^{i\theta}) d\theta$$

$$= 2i \left[ \theta + \frac{e^{i\theta}}{i} \right]_0^\pi$$

$$= 2i \left[ (\pi - 1/i) - (1/i) \right]$$

$$= 2i \left[ \pi - 2/i \right]$$

$$= 2i \left( \frac{\pi i - 2}{i} \right)$$

$$= -4 + 2\pi i$$

7) Evaluate the integral  $\int_C (x^2 - iy^2) dz$  where  $C$  is the parabola  $y = 2x^2$  from  $(1, 2)$  to  $(2, 8)$ .

Soln:-

$$\text{Let } f(z) = x^2 - iy^2$$

The parametric eqn of  $C$  is given by  $x = t$  and  $y = 2t^2$  where  $1 \leq t \leq 2$ .

$$z(t) = x(t) + iy(t) = t + i2t^2$$

$$z'(t) = 1 + 4it$$

$$\int_C (x^2 - iy^2) dz = \int_1^2 (t^2 - 4it^4)(1 + 4it) dt$$

$$= \int_1^2 [(t^2 + 16t^5) + i(4t^3 - 4t^4)] dt$$

$$= \left[ \left( \frac{t^3}{3} + \frac{16t^6}{6} \right) + i \left( t^4 - \frac{4t^5}{5} \right) \right]_1^2$$

$$= \frac{8}{3} + \frac{1024}{6} + i \left( 16 - \frac{128}{5} \right)$$

$$- \frac{1}{3} - \frac{16}{6} - i \left( 1 - \frac{4}{5} \right)$$

$$= \frac{7}{3} + \frac{1008}{6} + i \left( 16 - \frac{128}{5} - 1 + \frac{4}{5} \right)$$

$$= \frac{7}{3} + \frac{1008}{6} + i \left( 15 - \frac{124}{5} \right)$$

$$= \frac{7}{3} + 168 + i \left( \frac{75 - 124}{5} \right)$$

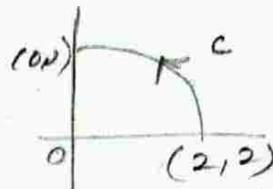
$$= \frac{7 + 504}{3} + i \left( \frac{-49}{5} \right)$$

$$\int_C (x^2 - iy^2) dz = \frac{511}{3} - i \frac{49}{5}$$

8) Let  $c$  be the arc of circle  $|z|=2$  from  $z=2$  to  $z=2i$  that lies in the first quadrant without actually evaluating the integral show that  $\left| \int_c \frac{dz}{z^2+1} \right| \leq \frac{\pi}{3}$

soln:-

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



Since  $c$  is the circular arc of radius 2 lying in the first quadrant the length  $l$  of  $c$  is given by  $l = \frac{1}{4} (2\pi \times 2) = \pi$

Also on  $c$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |z^2+1| &= |z^2 - (-1)| \\ &\geq |z^2| - |-1| \\ &= |z|^2 - 1 = 3 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $|z^2+1| \geq 3$

$$\therefore \left| \frac{1}{z^2+1} \right| \leq \frac{1}{3}$$

Hence by thm 6.2,  $\left| \int_c f(z) dz \right| = ml$  where  $m = \max \{ |f(z)| \mid z \in c \}$  and  $l$  is the length of  $c$

$$\left| \int_c \frac{dz}{z^2+1} \right| \leq \frac{\pi}{3}$$

9) Without evaluating the integral show that  $\left| \int_c \frac{dz}{z^4} \right| \leq 4\sqrt{2}$  where  $c$  is the line segment from  $z=i$  to  $z=1$ .

soln:-

$c$  is the line segment joins  $(0, 1)$  to  $(1, 0)$  and its length is obviously  $\sqrt{2}$ .

As  $z$  varies on  $c$ , the minimum

value of  $|z|$  is the  $\perp^r$  distance from the origin to the line segment  $c$ .

Thus on  $c$ ,  $|z| \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ .

So that  $|z|^4 \geq \frac{1}{4} \Rightarrow \left| \frac{1}{z^4} \right| \leq 4$ .

By thm 6.2,

$$\left| \int_c \frac{dz}{z^4} \right| \leq 4\sqrt{2}$$

pole:

Let  $a$  be an isolated singularity of  $f(z)$  the point  $a$  is called a pole. If the principal part of  $f(z)$  at  $z=a$  has finite number of terms. If the principal part of  $f(z)$  at  $z=a$  is given by

$$\frac{b_1}{z-a} + \frac{b_2}{(z-a)^2} + \dots + \frac{b_r}{(z-a)^r} \text{ where } b_r \neq 0 \text{ we}$$

say that  $a$  is a pole of order  $r$  for  $f(z)$

If  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) = \infty$  the point  $a$  is said to be a pole of  $f(z)$  and we set  $f(a) = \infty$

Ex:

- consider  $f(z) = e^z/z$

$$e^z/z = \frac{1}{z} \left( 1 + \frac{z}{1!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{z} + 1 + \frac{z}{2!} + \frac{z^2}{3!} + \dots$$

here the principal part of  $f(z)$  at  $z=0$  has a single term  $\frac{1}{z}$ .

Hence  $z=0$  is a simple pole of  $f(z)$ .

## Essential singularity

Let  $a$  be an isolated singularity of  $f(z)$ . The point ' $a$ ' is called an essential singularity of  $f(z)$  at  $z=a$  if the principal part of  $f(z)$  at  $z=a$  has an infinite number of terms.

$$e^z = 1 + \frac{z}{1!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots$$

Eg:

consider  $f(z) = e^{1/z}$

Here  $z=0$  is an isolated singularity for  $f(z)$ .

$$e^{1/z} = 1 + \frac{1/z}{1!} + \frac{1/z^2}{2!} + \dots$$

$\therefore$  Here the principal part of  $f(z)$  at  $z=0$  has infinite number of terms.

## Removable singularity

Let ' $a$ ' be an isolated singularity for  $f(z)$ . Then ' $a$ ' is called a removable singularity if the principal part of  $f(z)$  at  $z=a$  has no terms.

Ex:

$$\text{Let } f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z}$$

$0$  is an isolated singular point for  $f(z)$

$$\frac{\sin z}{z} = \frac{1}{z} (z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \dots)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{z^2}{3!} + \frac{z^4}{5!} - \dots$$

Here the principal part of  $f(z)$  at  $z=0$  has no terms.

Hence  $z=0$  is a removable singularity.

## Unit - IV

\* Calculus of residues

## Unit-IV

### Calculus of residues

Residues:

Let  $a$  be an isolated singularity for  $f(z)$ . Then the residue of  $f(z)$  at  $a$  is defined to be coefficient of  $\frac{1}{z-a}$  in the expansion of  $f(z)$  about  $a$  and is denoted by  $\text{Res}\{f(z), a\}$ .

Q. 1 Eg:

Find residue?

consider  $f(z) = \frac{e^z}{z^2}$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{e^z}{z^2} &= \frac{1}{z^2} \left( 1 + \frac{z}{1!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{z}{3!} + \frac{z^2}{4!} + \dots\end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f(z)$  has a double pole at  $z=0$

$\therefore \text{Res}\{f(z), 0\} = \text{coefficient of } \frac{1}{z} = 1$

### calculation of residues

i) If  $z=a$  is a pole of order one of  $f(z)$

then  $\text{Res}_{z=a} f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)f(z)$ .

ii) If  $f(z)$  is of the form  $\frac{h(z)}{g(z)}$  where

$z=a$  is a simple pole  $h(a) \neq 0, g(a) = 0$

then  $\text{Res}_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) = \frac{h(a)}{g'(a)}, g'(a) \neq 0, g(a) = 0$ .

iii) If  $f(z)$  has a pole of order  $m$

then,  $\text{Res}_{z=a} f(z) = \frac{g^{m-1}(a)}{(m-1)!}$

1) Find the residue of the function  $f(z) = \frac{z}{z^2+1}$

Soln:-

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

$$z^2+1=0$$

$$z^2=-1$$

$$z = \pm i$$

$z = i, -i$  are poles

W.K.T

$$\text{Res}_{z=a} f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a) f(z)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Res}_{z=i} f(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \frac{z}{z^2+1} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \frac{z}{(z+i)(z-i)} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{z}{z+i} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{i}{i+i}$$

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

$$\text{Res}_{z=i} f(z) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Res}_{z=-i} f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow -i} (z+i) \frac{z}{(z+i)(z-i)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow -i} \frac{z}{z-i}$$

$$= \frac{-i}{-i-i}$$

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

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

2) Find the residue of the function  $f(z) = \tan z$  at  $z = \pi/2$

Soln:-

$$f(z) = \tan z = \frac{\sin z}{\cos z} = \frac{h(z)}{g(z)}$$

$z = \pi/2$  is a simple pole.

W.K.T

$$\text{Res}_{z=a} f(z) = \frac{h(a)}{g'(a)}$$

$$h(z) = \sin z$$

$$h(\pi/2) = \sin \pi/2$$

$$g(z) = \cos z$$

$$g'(z) = -\sin z \Rightarrow g'(\pi/2) = -\sin \pi/2$$

$$\text{Res}_{z=\pi/2} f(z) = \frac{h(\pi/2)}{g'(\pi/2)}$$

$$= \frac{\sin \pi/2}{-\sin \pi/2} = -1$$

$$3) f(z) = \frac{1}{(z+1)^3}$$

soln:-

$z = -1$  is a pole of order three

$$\text{Res}_{z=-1} f(z) = \frac{1}{(3-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow -1} \left[ (z+1)^3 \frac{1}{(z+1)^3} \right] \cdot \frac{d^2}{dz^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2!} \lim_{z \rightarrow -1} \frac{d^2}{dz^2} (1)$$

$$= 0$$

$$4) f(z) = \frac{z+1}{z^2(z-2)}$$

soln:-

$z = 0$  (pole of order 2) and

$z = 2$  (pole of order 1)

$$\text{Res}_{z=0} f(z) = \frac{1}{(2-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} \left[ \frac{z^2(z+1)}{z^2(z-2)} \right]_{z=0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1!} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{(z-2)(1) - (z+1)(1)}{(z-2)^2} \right]_{z=0}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{z-2-z-1}{(z-2)^2} \right]_{z=0}$$

$$= -3/4$$

$$\text{Res}_{z=2} f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} (z-2) \frac{(z+1)}{z^2(z-2)} = 3/4$$

Thm: 4.1 Residue thm (or) Cauchy's residues thm.

Let  $f(z)$  be analytic except for isolated singularities  $a_j$  in a region  $\Omega$  then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_j n(\gamma, a_j) \operatorname{Res}_{z=a_j} f(z) \text{ for any cycle}$$

$\gamma$  which is homologous to zero in  $\Omega$  and does not pass through any of the points  $a_j$

proof:-

case (i)

Let  $f(z)$  has finitely many singularity points  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$

Let  $\Omega$  be the region obtained by omitting  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ .

For each  $a_j \exists$  a  $\delta_j > 0$

$\exists$ : the connected region  $0 < |z - a_j| < \delta_j$  is contained in  $\Omega'$ .

Draw a circle  $c_j$  about  $a_j$  of radius  $< \delta_j$  and

Let  $P_j = \int_{c_j} f(z) dz$  — (1) be the corresponding period of  $f(z)$ .

The particular function  $\frac{1}{z - a_j}$  has the period  $2\pi i$ , we set  $R_j = P_j / 2\pi i$

The combination  $f(z) = \frac{R_j}{z - a_j}$  has a vanishing period.

Let  $\gamma$  be a cycle in  $\Omega'$  which is homologous to zero with respect to  $\Omega$  then  $\gamma$  satisfy the homology.

$$\gamma \sim \sum_j n(\gamma, a_j) c_j \text{ — (2) with respect to } \Omega'$$

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n n(\gamma, a_j) \int_{\gamma_j} f(z) dz \text{ by } \textcircled{2}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n n(\gamma, a_j) \cdot P_j \text{ by } \textcircled{1}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{j=1}^n n(\gamma, a_j) \cdot P_j$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{j=1}^n n(\gamma, a_j) \cdot R_j \cdot 2\pi i$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n n(\gamma, a_j) R_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n n(\gamma, a_j) \operatorname{Res}_{z=a_j} f(z)$$

case (ii) :-

suppose  $f(z)$  has infinitely many singularity point  $a_j$ .

consider set  $S = \{a \in \mathbb{C}, n(\gamma, a) = 0\}$  is open and contains all points outside of a large circle

Its component  $S^c$  is closed and bounded

$\therefore S^c$  is compact

and it cannot contain more than a finite number of isolated points  $a_j$ .

$\Rightarrow n(\gamma, a_j) \neq 0$  only for finite number of singular point.

By above case,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^n n(\gamma, a_j) \operatorname{Res}_{z=a_j} f(z)$$

1) Evaluate  $\int_c \frac{2z^2+z}{z^2-1} dz$  where  $c$  is the circle

i)  $c: |z-1| = 1$

ii)  $c: |z|=2$ .

Soln:-

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

Here the poles are  $z=1, z=-1$

w.k.t  $R = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a) f(z)$

$$R_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1) \frac{2z^2+z}{(z+1)(z-1)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{2z^2+z}{z+1}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{2+1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$$

where  $R_1$  is the residue of the function at  $z=1$ .

since 1 is the only lying within the circle  $|z-1|=1$

By Residue thm,

$$\int_c f(z) dz = 2\pi i (R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_n)$$

$$\int_c \frac{2z^2+z}{z^2-1} dz = 2\pi i (R_1) \quad (z=-1 \text{ is exterior, so do not find } R_2)$$
$$= 2\pi i \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$$
$$= 3\pi i$$

ii) Both the poles  $z=1, z=-1$  are lie within the circle  $|z|=2$ ,

$$R_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1) \frac{2z^2+z}{(z+1)(z-1)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{2z^2+z}{z+1}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$R_2 = \lim_{z \rightarrow -1} (z - (-1)) \frac{2z^2 + z}{(z+1)(z-1)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow -1} \frac{2z^2 + z}{z-1}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{2(-1)^2 + (-1)}{(-1) - 1} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

By residue thm,

$$\int_c \frac{2z^2 + z}{z^2 - 1} dz = 2\pi i (R_1 + R_2)$$

$$= 2\pi i \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

$$= 2\pi i$$

2) Evaluate  $\int_c \frac{dz}{z^3(z-1)}$   $c$  is the circle  $|z|=2$

soln:-

Given  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z^3(z-1)}$

The poles are  $z=0, z=1$

The residue at  $z=0$  (here  $z=0$  is a pole of order 3)

$$R_1 = \frac{1}{2!} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d^2}{dz^2} \left( z^3 \cdot \frac{1}{z^3(z-1)} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} \left( \frac{d}{dz} \left( \frac{1}{z-1} \right) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} \left( \frac{-1}{(z-1)^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} 2 \cdot \frac{1}{(z-1)^3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (2 \cdot (-1))$$

$$R_1 = -1$$

The residue at  $z=1$

$$R_2(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1) \frac{1}{z^3(z-1)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \left( \frac{1}{z^3} \right)$$

$$R_2(z) = 1$$

$$\int \frac{dz}{z^3(z-1)} = 2\pi i (R_1 + R_2)$$

$$= 2\pi i (1+1)$$

$$= 0$$

Thm: 4.2 Argument principle.

If  $f(z)$  is meromorphic in  $\Omega$  with the zero  $a_j$  and the poles  $b_k$  then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_j n(\gamma, a_j) - \sum_k n(\gamma, b_k)$$

for every cycle  $\gamma$  which is homologous to zero in  $\Omega$  and does not pass through any of the zero or poles.

proof:

Given  $f(z) \neq 0$  in region  $\Omega$  with zeros  $a_j$ , poles  $b_k$  with no other singularities in  $\Omega$ .

Let  $g(z)$  be analytic in  $\Omega$ ,  $\gamma$  be a homologous to zero in  $\Omega$  not passing through  $a_j$ 's and  $b_k$ 's

$$\text{To prove: } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} g(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_j n(\gamma, a_j) g(a_j) - \sum_k n(\gamma, b_k) g(b_k)$$

If  $a_j$  is zero of order  $h$  for  $f$  then in a neighbourhood of  $a_j$   $\rightarrow \textcircled{2}$

$$f(z) = (z - a_j)^h f_1(z)$$

where  $f_1(z)$  is analytic and  $f_1(a_j) \neq 0$ .

It follows from the continuity of  $f_1(z)$  at  $a_j$ .

Then there is a neighbourhood of  $a_j$  in which  $f_1(z) \neq 0$ .

Thus in the neighbourhood  $\frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} = \frac{h}{z-a_j} + \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}$

Using Taylor's expansion for  $g(z)$  at  $z=a_j$

$$g(z) = g(a_j) + g'(a_j)(z-a_j) + \dots$$

and hence the Laurent expansion for  $g(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}$  the coefficient of  $\frac{1}{z-a_j}$

which is nothing but

$\text{Res}_{z=a_j} \left[ g(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} \right]$  is precisely  $h = -g(a_j)$

Thus  $g(z) = \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}$  has a pole at  $z=a_j$  with residue  $hg(a_j)$ .

Similarly at a pole  $z=b_k$  of order  $k$  for  $f(z)$

$g(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}$  also has a pole with residue  $kg(b_k)$ .

By using the residue thm,

$$\text{we get } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} g(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_j \eta(r, a_j) g(a_j) - \sum_k \eta(r, b_k) g(b_k)$$

where the terms on the right hand side are to be repeated as many times as the order indicates

The above proof is called generalised argument thm.

Take  $g(z) = 1$

we get the argument principle

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_j \eta(r, a_j) - \sum_k \eta(r, b_k)$$

If  $c$  is a unit circle about the origin show that  $\int_c \frac{e^{-z}}{z^2} dz = -2\pi i$

soln:- Given,  $f(z) = \frac{e^{-z}}{z^2}$

The pole is zero '0',  $z=0$

The residue at  $z=0$  is

$$R = \frac{1}{1!} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} \left( z^2 \cdot \frac{e^{-z}}{z^2} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} e^{-z}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} e^{-z} (-1)$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} (-e^z)$$

$$R = -1$$

$$\int_c \frac{e^{-z}}{z^2} dz = 2\pi i(R) = -2\pi i$$

Thm: 4.3 Rouché's thm

Let  $\gamma$  be homologous to zero in  $\Omega$  and such that  $n(\gamma, z)$  is either 0 (or) 1 for any point  $z$  not on  $\gamma$  suppose that  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  are analytic in  $\Omega$  and satisfy the inequality  $|f(z) - g(z)| < |f(z)|$  on  $\gamma$ . Then  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  have the same number of zeroes enclosed by  $\gamma$ .

proof:-

Let  $\gamma$  be homologous to zero in  $\Omega$

Let  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  be two analytic function in  $\Omega$  and it satisfies the condition

$$|f(z) - g(z)| < |f(z)| \text{ on } \gamma$$

To prove:

$f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  have the same number of

Zeros enclosed by  $\gamma$ .

From the hypothesis  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  do not vanish on  $\gamma$ .

From the given inequality

$$|f(z) - g(z)| < |f(z)|$$

$$\Rightarrow |g(z) - f(z)| < |f(z)|$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{g(z)}{f(z)} - 1 \right| < 1$$

$$\text{Let } h(z) = \frac{g(z)}{f(z)}$$

Let  $\Gamma$  be the image of  $\gamma$  under the map  $f(z)$ .

$$|h(z) - 1| < 1 \quad \forall z \text{ on } \gamma$$

$\Rightarrow \Gamma$  lies in the open disk with centre 1 and radius 1 and does not wind around zero.

$$n(\Gamma, 0) = 0$$

$$\text{ie) } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{dw}{w} = 0$$

$$\text{ie) } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = 0$$

By argument principle (Number of zeroes of  $f(z)$  inside  $\gamma$ ) - (Number of poles of  $f(z)$  inside  $\gamma$ ) = 0

$\Rightarrow$  (No. of zeroes of  $g(z)$  inside  $\gamma$ ) - (No. of poles of  $g(z)$  inside  $\gamma$ ) = 0

ie) (No. of zeroes of  $g(z)$  inside  $\gamma$ ) = (No. of poles of  $f(z)$ )

$\therefore f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  have the same number of zeroes enclosed by  $\gamma$ .

chain and cycles:

i) Let  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n$  be arcs. A formal sum  $\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \dots + \gamma_n = \gamma$  is called a chain.

ii) If  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n$  are all closed curves then  $\gamma$  is called a cycle.

Defn:

A cycle  $\gamma$  is said to bound the region  $\Omega$  iff  $n(\gamma, a)$  is defined and equal to 1 for all points  $a \in \Omega$  and either undefined or equal to zero for all points  $a$  not in  $\Omega$ .

Type I Define integrals of the type  $\int_0^{2\pi} F(\cos\theta, \sin\theta) d\theta$  where  $F(\cos\theta, \sin\theta)$  is a real function of  $\cos\theta$  and  $\sin\theta$ .

In such of problems

we take the circle  $|z|=1$  and  $z=e^{i\theta}$

$$\cos\theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(z + 1/z),$$

$$\sin\theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2i} = \frac{1}{2i}(z - 1/z).$$

$$1) \text{ S.T } \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+a\sin\theta} = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{1-a^2}} \quad (-1 < a < 1)$$

Soln: Let  $z=e^{i\theta}$  be any point on the unit circle  $|z|=1$  denoted by

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

$$dz = ie^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow d\theta = \frac{dz}{ie^{i\theta}} = \frac{dz}{iz}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 + a \sin \theta &= 1 + a \left\{ \frac{1}{2i} \left( z - \frac{1}{z} \right) \right\} \\
 &= 1 + a \left( \frac{z^2 - 1}{2iz} \right) \\
 &= \frac{2zi + az^2 - a}{2zi}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1 + a \sin \theta} = \int_{|z|=1} \frac{2zi}{2zi + az^2 - a} \cdot \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$= 2 \int_C \frac{dz}{az^2 + 2iz - a}$$

$$= \frac{2}{a} \int_C \frac{dz}{z^2 + \frac{2i}{a}z - 1}$$

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

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1 + a \sin \theta} = \frac{2}{a} \int_C f(z) dz \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are given by

$$z^2 + \frac{2i}{a}z - 1 = 0$$

$$z = \frac{\left(-\frac{2i}{a}\right) \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{2i}{a}\right)^2 - 4(1)(-1)}}{2(1)}$$

$$= \frac{-\frac{2i}{a} \pm \sqrt{\frac{4i^2}{a^2} + 4}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-\frac{2i}{a} \pm \frac{2i}{a} \sqrt{(1 + a^2/i^2)}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{\left(-2i/a\right) \pm \frac{2i}{a} \sqrt{1 - a^2}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{-i/a \pm i/a \sqrt{1 - a^2}}{1}$$

$$= \frac{-i \pm i \sqrt{1 - a^2}}{a}$$

$$z = \frac{-i + i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a}, \quad \frac{-i - i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are

$$\frac{-i + i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a}, \quad \frac{-i - i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a}$$

$$\text{Let } \alpha = \frac{-i + i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a} \text{ and } \beta = \frac{-i - i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a}$$

since  $|\beta| > 1$ ,  $|\alpha| < 1$

$z = \alpha$  is the only simple poles has inside the circle  $|z| = 1$ .

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

Residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z = \alpha$  is

$$R = \lim_{z \rightarrow \alpha} (z-\alpha)f(z)$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow \alpha} (z-\alpha) \frac{1}{(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)}$$

$$R = \lim_{z \rightarrow \alpha} \frac{1}{z-\beta}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{\alpha-\beta}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{-i + i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a}\right) - \left(\frac{-i - i\sqrt{1-a^2}}{a}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{a}{-i + i\sqrt{1-a^2} + i + i\sqrt{1-a^2}}$$

$$R = \frac{a}{2i\sqrt{1-a^2}}$$

By Cauchy's Residue theorem,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i (\text{sum of the residue})$$

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times R$$

$$= 2\pi i \times \frac{a}{2i\sqrt{1-a^2}}$$

$$= \frac{a\pi}{\sqrt{1-a^2}} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

sub (2) in (1)

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+a\sin\theta} = \frac{2}{a} \int_C f(z) dz$$

$$= \frac{2}{a} \times \frac{a\pi}{\sqrt{1-a^2}}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{1-a^2}}$$

2) Evaluate  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+\sin^2\theta}$

soln:-

$$\text{Let } I = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+\sin^2\theta}$$

$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+\left(\frac{1-\cos 2\theta}{2}\right)}$$

$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{2d\theta}{2+1-\cos 2\theta}$$

$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{2d\theta}{3-\cos 2\theta}$$

$$= 2 \int_0^{\pi} \frac{2d\theta}{3-\cos 2\theta}$$

$$= 4 \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{3-\cos 2\theta}$$

Let  $2\theta = \phi$  when  $\theta=0 \Rightarrow \phi=0$

$2d\theta = d\phi$  when  $\theta=\pi \Rightarrow \phi=2\pi$

$$\Rightarrow d\theta = \frac{d\phi}{2}$$

$$I = 4 \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\frac{d\phi}{2}}{3-\cos\phi}$$

$$I = \frac{4}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\phi}{3 - \cos\phi}$$

Let  $z = e^{i\phi}$  be any point on the unit circle.

$|z| = 1$  denoted by  $C$

$$\cos\phi = \frac{1}{2} \left( z + \frac{1}{z} \right)$$

$$3 - \cos\phi = 3 - \frac{1}{2} \left( z + \frac{1}{z} \right)$$

$$= 3 - \left( \frac{z^2 + 1}{2z} \right)$$

$$= \frac{6z - z^2 - 1}{2z}$$

Now  $z = e^{i\phi}$

$$dz = ie^{i\phi} d\phi$$

$$d\phi = \frac{dz}{ie^{i\phi}} = \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$I = 2 \int_C \frac{2z}{6z - z^2 - 1} \cdot \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$= 2 \int_C \frac{2}{-z^2 + 6z - 1} \cdot \frac{dz}{i}$$

$$= \frac{4}{-i} \int_C \frac{dz}{z^2 - 6z + 1} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$= \frac{-4}{i} \int_C f(z) dz \quad \text{where } f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 - 6z + 1}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are given by

$$z^2 - 6z + 1 = 0$$

$$z = \frac{6 \pm \sqrt{36 - 4}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{6 \pm \sqrt{32}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{6 \pm 4\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$z = 3 \pm 2\sqrt{2}$$

$\therefore$  The poles of  $f(z)$  are  $3 + 2\sqrt{2}$ ,  $3 - 2\sqrt{2}$

$$\text{Let } \alpha = 3+2\sqrt{2}, \quad \beta = 3-2\sqrt{2}$$

since  $|\alpha| > 1$  and  $|\beta| < 1$

$z = \beta$  is the only simple pole lies inside

$$\text{Now, } f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)}$$

Residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z = \beta$  is

$$R = \lim_{z \rightarrow \beta} (z-\beta) f(z)$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow \beta} (z-\beta) \frac{1}{(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha}$$

$$= \frac{1}{[(3-2\sqrt{2}) - (3+2\sqrt{2})]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3-2\sqrt{2}-3-2\sqrt{2}}$$

$$R = \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{2}}$$

By Cauchy Residue thm,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times \text{sum of the residues}$$
$$= 2\pi i \times \frac{1}{-4\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\int_C f(z) dz = \frac{-\pi i}{2\sqrt{2}} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

sub (2) in (1)

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+\sin^2\theta} = \frac{-4}{i} \int_C f(z) dz$$

$$= \frac{-4}{i} \times \frac{-\pi i}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

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

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{1+\sin^2\theta} = \sqrt{2}\pi$$

3) Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{17-8\cos\theta}$

soln:-

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{17-8\cos\theta} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Let  $z = e^{i\theta}$  be any point on the unit circle  $|z|=1$ .

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

$$dz = ie^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$d\theta = \frac{dz}{ie^{i\theta}} = \frac{dz}{iz}$$

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

$$17-8\cos\theta = 17-8 \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( z + \frac{1}{z} \right) \right)$$

$$= 17-4 \left( z + \frac{1}{z} \right)$$

$$= 17 - \left( \frac{4z^2+4}{z} \right)$$

$$= \frac{17z - 4z^2 - 4}{z}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{17-8\cos\theta} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{|z|=1} \frac{z}{17z - 4z^2 - 4} \cdot \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_{|z|=1} \left( \frac{1}{i} \right) \left( \frac{dz}{17z - 4z^2 - 4} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8i} \int \frac{dz}{z^2 - \frac{17}{4}z + 1}$$

$$\text{Let } f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 - \frac{17}{4}z + 1}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are given by

$$z^2 - \frac{17}{4}z + 1$$

$$z = \frac{+\frac{17}{4} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{17}{4}\right)^2 - 4}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{+\frac{17}{4} \pm \sqrt{\frac{289}{16} - 4}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{+(17/4) \pm \sqrt{225/16}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{17/4 \pm 15/4}{2}$$

$$= \frac{17 \pm 15}{8}$$

$$z = \frac{17+15}{8}, \quad \frac{17-15}{8}$$

$$z = 4, \quad 1/4$$

Since  $|\alpha| > 1$ ,  $|\beta| < 1$

$z = \beta$  is the only simple pole lies inside.

Now,  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)}$

Residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z = \beta$  is,

$$R = \lim_{z \rightarrow \beta} (z-\beta) \frac{1}{(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow \beta} \frac{1}{(z-\alpha)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\frac{1}{4} - 4)}$$

$$= -4/15$$

By Cauchy's residue theorem,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times \text{sum of the residues}$$

$$= 2\pi i \times -4/15$$

$$= -\frac{8\pi i}{15} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

sub (2) in (1)

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{17-8\cos\theta} = -\frac{1}{8i} \int_C f(z) dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{17-8\cos\theta} = -\frac{1}{8i} \times \frac{-8\pi i}{15}$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{15}$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{17-8\cos\theta} = \frac{2\pi}{15}$$

Type-II  
 Integrals of the form  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$  where  $p(x), q(x)$  are polynomials and  $\deg q(x) > 1 + \deg p(x)$  and number of poles lies on the real axis.

1) Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2+1}$

Soln:-

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

poles of  $f(z)$  are given by

$$z^2+1=0$$

$$z^2 = -1$$

$$z = \pm i$$

The poles are  $z = i, -i$ .

choose the contour  $c$  consists of the interval  $[-r, r]$  on the real axis and the semicircle  $c$  with centre  $c$  and radius  $r$  that lies in the upper half plane.

$$\int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{c_1} f(z) dz = \int_c f(z) dz \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

The pole  $z = i$  lies inside  $c$ .

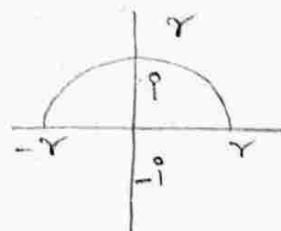
The residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z = i$

$$R = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) f(z)$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \frac{1}{(z-i)(z+i)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{1}{z+i}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{2i}$$



By Cauchy residue theorem

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times R \\ = 2\pi i \times \frac{1}{2i} = \pi$$

From ①  $\int_C f(z) dz = \int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz$

$$\int_{C_1} f(z) dz = 0 \text{ as } r \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\int_C f(z) dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

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

$$= 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \pi/2$$

2) Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2+a^2)^2}$

Soln:- let  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z^2+a^2)^2}$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are

$$(z^2+a^2)^2 = 0 \Rightarrow z^2+a^2 = 0$$

$$z^2 = -a^2$$

$$z = \pm ai$$

$z = ia, -ia$  are double poles

Choose the contour  $C$  consists of the interval  $[-r, r]$  on the real axis and the semicircle  $C_1$  with centre  $0$  and the radius  $r$  that lies in the upper half plane.

$$\int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz \rightarrow \text{①}$$

The pole  $z = ai$  lies inside  $C$   $z = ai$  is a double pole Res of  $f(z)$  at  $z = ai$  is

$$R = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} [(z-a)^m f(z)]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 R = \operatorname{Res}_{z=ai} f(z) &= \frac{1}{1!} \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} \frac{d}{dz} \left[ (z-ai)^2 \frac{1}{(z^2+a^2)^2} \right] \\
 &= \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} \frac{d}{dz} \left[ (z-ai)^2 \frac{1}{((z-ai)(z+ai))^2} \right] \\
 &= \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} \frac{d}{dz} \left[ \frac{1}{(z+ai)^2} \right] \\
 &= \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} \left[ \frac{-2}{(z+ai)^3} \right] = \frac{-2}{(ai+ai)^3}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$R = \frac{-2}{(2ai)^3} = \frac{-2}{8i^3 a^3} = \frac{-1}{4ia^3}$$

By Cauchy's residue thm,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \oint f(z) dz &= 2\pi i R \\
 &= 2\pi i \times \frac{1}{4ia^3} \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{2a^3} \quad \text{--- (2)}
 \end{aligned}$$

① becomes

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz$$

as  $r \rightarrow \infty$   $\int_{C_1} f(z) dz = 0$

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \int_{-r}^r f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2+a^2)^2} = \frac{\pi}{2a^3}$$

$$2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2+a^2)^2} = \frac{\pi}{2a^3}$$

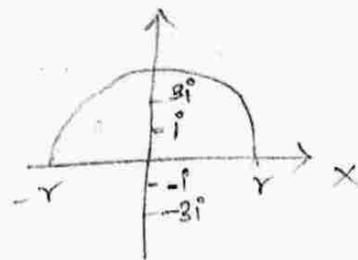
$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2+a^2)^2} = \frac{\pi}{4a^3}$$

3) Evaluate:  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2-x+2}{x^4+10x^2+9} dx$ .

soln:-

Let  $f(z) = \frac{z^2-z+2}{z^4+10z^2+9}$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are  $z^4+10z^2+9$



$$\Rightarrow (z^2+9)(z^2+1)=0$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \pm 3i, z = \pm i$$

$z = 3i, -3i, i, -i$  are simple poles.

Choose the contour consists of the interval  $[-r, r]$  on the real axis and the semicircle with centre 0 and radius  $r$  that lies in the upper half plane.

$$\int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz \quad \text{--- ①}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  lying within  $C$  are  $i, 3i$  and both of them are simple poles.

Res of  $f(z)$  at  $z=i$  is

$$R_1 = \frac{h(i)}{k(i)}$$

$$h(z) = z^2 - z + 2$$

$$h(i) = i^2 - i + 2 = 1 - i$$

$$R_1 = \frac{1-i}{16i}$$

$$k(z) = z^4 + 10z^2 + 9$$

$$k'(z) = 4z^3 + 20z$$

$$k'(i) = 4i^3 + 20i = 16i$$

The Residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z=3i$

$$R_2 = \frac{h(3i)}{k'(3i)}$$

$$h(z) = z^2 - z + 2$$

$$h(3i) = (3i)^2 - 3i + 2 = 9i^2 - 3i + 2 = -3i - 7$$

$$k(z) = z^4 + 10z^2 + 9$$

$$k'(z) = 4z^3 + 20z$$

$$k'(3i) = 4(3i)^3 + 20(3i) = -108i + 60i = -48i$$

$$R_2 = \frac{-3i-7}{-48i} = \frac{3i+7}{48i}$$

By Cauchy's residue thm,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times \text{sum of the residue} \\ = 2\pi i [R_1 + R_2]$$

$$= 2\pi i \left[ \frac{1-i}{16i} + \frac{7+3i}{48i} \right]$$

$$= 2\pi i \left[ \frac{3-3i+7+3i}{48i} \right]$$

$$= 2\pi i \times \frac{10}{48i}$$

$$= \frac{5\pi}{12}$$

From ①

$$\int_{-r}^r \frac{x^2 - x + 2}{x^4 + 10x^2 + 9} dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz = \frac{5\pi}{12}$$

as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\int_{C_1} f(z) dz = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-r}^r \frac{x^2 - x + 2}{x^4 + 10x^2 + 9} dx = \frac{5\pi}{12}$$

4) Evaluate  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^4 + 5x^2 + 6} dx$ .

soln:-

Let  $f(z) = \frac{z^2}{z^4 + 5z^2 + 6}$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are

$$z^4 + 5z^2 + 6 = 0$$

$$(z^2 + 3)(z^2 + 2) = 0$$

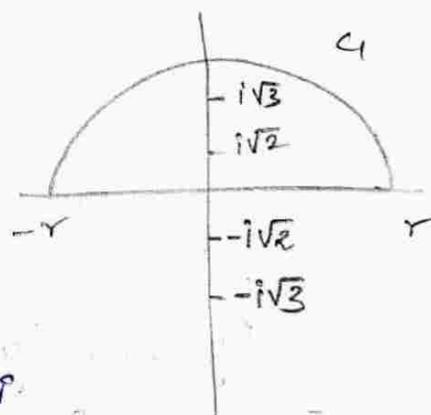
$$z = \pm\sqrt{3}i, z = \pm\sqrt{2}i$$

$z = \sqrt{3}i, -i\sqrt{3}, i\sqrt{2}, -i\sqrt{2}$  are simple poles of  $f(z)$ .

choose the contour consists of the interval  $[-r, r]$  on the real axis and the semi circle with centre 0 and radius  $r$  that lies in the upper half plane.

$$\int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz \quad \text{--- ①}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  lying within  $C$  are  $i\sqrt{3}$  and  $i\sqrt{2}$  and both of them are simple poles.



Res of  $f(z)$  at  $z = i\sqrt{3}$  is

$$R_1 = \frac{h(i\sqrt{3})}{k'(i\sqrt{3})}$$

$$h(z) = z^2$$

$$h(i\sqrt{3}) = -3$$

$$k(z) = z^4 + 5z^2 + 6$$

$$k'(z) = 4z^3 + 10z$$

$$\begin{aligned}k'(i\sqrt{3}) &= 4(i\sqrt{3})^3 + 10(i\sqrt{3}) \\ &= -12\sqrt{3}i + 10\sqrt{3}i \\ &= -2\sqrt{3}i.\end{aligned}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{-3}{-2\sqrt{3}i} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2i}$$

Res of  $f(z)$  at  $z = i\sqrt{2}$

$$R_2 = \frac{h(i\sqrt{2})}{k'(i\sqrt{2})}$$

$$h(z) = z^2$$

$$h(i\sqrt{2}) = -2$$

$$k'(z) = 4z^3 + 10z$$

$$\begin{aligned}k'(i\sqrt{2}) &= 4(i\sqrt{2})^3 + 10(i\sqrt{2}) \\ &= -8\sqrt{2}i + 10\sqrt{2}i \\ &= 2\sqrt{2}i.\end{aligned}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{-2}{2\sqrt{2}i} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}i}$$

By Cauchy's Residue thm,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times \text{Sum of the residue}$$

$$= 2\pi i (R_1 + R_2)$$

$$= 2\pi i \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2i} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}i} \right)$$

$$= 2\pi i \left( \frac{\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2}}{2i} \right)$$

$$= \pi (\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2})$$

From ①

$$\int_{-r}^r \frac{x^2}{x^4 + 5x^2 + 6} dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz = \pi (\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2})$$

$$\text{As } r \rightarrow \infty \int_{C_1} f(z) dz = 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^4 + 5x^2 + 6} dx = \pi (\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2})$$

$$2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^4 + 5x^2 + 6} dx = \pi (\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2})$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^4 + 5x^2 + 6} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} (\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2})$$

Type III:

The integral of the form

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \sin x dx \quad (\text{or}) \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \cos x dx$$

where  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are real polynomial and  $q(x)$  has no zeroes on the real axis

1) Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx}{a^2 + x^2} dx$

soln:-

consider  $f(z) = \frac{e^{imz}}{a^2 + z^2}$

choose the contour  $c$  consisting of the interval  $[-r, r]$  on the real axis and the semi-circle  $c_1$  with centre  $0$  and radius  $r$  that lies in that upper half plane.

$$\int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{c_1} f(z) dz = \int_c f(z) dz \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are

$$a^2 + z^2 = 0$$

$$z^2 = -a^2 \Rightarrow z = \pm ai$$

$z = ai$  is the only simple poles inside  $c$ .

Residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z = ai$

$$\begin{aligned} R = \text{Res}_{z=ai} f(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} (z - ai) f(z) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} (z - ai) \times \frac{e^{imz}}{a^2 + z^2} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} (z - ai) \frac{e^{imz}}{(z + ia)(z - ia)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \lim_{z \rightarrow ai} \frac{e^{imz}}{(z+ia)} \\
 &= \frac{e^{imia}}{ai+ai} \\
 &= \frac{e^{-ma}}{2ia}
 \end{aligned}$$

By Cauchy residue thm,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_C f(z) dz &= 2\pi i \times \text{sum of the residues} \\
 &= 2\pi i \times R \\
 &= 2\pi i \times \frac{e^{-ma}}{2ia} = \frac{\pi e^{-ma}}{a} \quad \text{--- (2)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Using (2) in (1)

$$\frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ma} = \int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{C_1} f(z) dz$$

as  $r \rightarrow \infty$   $\int_{C_1} f(z) dz = 0$

$$\frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ma} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$\frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ma} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{imx}}{a^2+x^2} dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx + i \sin mx}{a^2+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ma}$$

Equating the real part

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx}{a^2+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ma}$$

$$\& \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx}{a^2+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2a} e^{-ma}$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx}{a^2+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2a} e^{-ma}$$

2) Evaluate  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos 3x}{1+x^2} dx$ .

Soln:-

consider  $f(z) = \frac{e^{imz}}{a^2+z^2}$

Choose the contour  $C$  consisting of the

interval  $[-r, r]$  on the real axis and the semicircle  $c_1$  with centre  $0$  and radius  $r$  that lies in that upper half plane

$$\int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{c_1} f(z) dz = \int_c f(z) dz \quad \text{--- ①}$$

The poles of  $f(z)$  are

$$1+z^2=0$$

$$z = \pm i$$

$z=i$  is the only simple pole inside  $c$   
Residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z=i$

$$\begin{aligned} R = \text{Res}_{z=i} f(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) f(z) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \frac{e^{3z}}{1+z^2} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \frac{e^{3z}}{(z+i)(z-i)} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{e^{3z}}{z+i} \\ &= \frac{e^{3i}}{i+i} \\ &= \frac{e^{-3}}{2i} \end{aligned}$$

By Cauchy residue thm,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_c f(z) dz &= 2\pi i \times \text{sum of the residue} \\ &= 2\pi i \times R \\ &= 2\pi i \times \frac{e^{-3}}{2i} \\ &= \pi e^{-3} \quad \text{--- ②} \end{aligned}$$

Using ② in ①

$$\frac{\pi}{a} e^{-ma} = \int_{-r}^r f(x) dx + \int_{c_1} f(z) dz$$

as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\int_{c_1} f(z) dz = 0$

$$\pi e^{-3} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{i3x}}{1+x^2} dx = \pi e^{-3}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos 3x + i \sin 3x}{1+x^2} dx = \pi e^{-3}$$

Equating the real part

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\cos 3x}{1+x^2} dx = \pi e^{-3}$$

Q.1) How many roots of the eqn  $z^4 - 6z + 3 = 0$  have their modulus between 1 and 2.  
soln:-

Given that

$$\text{The eqn } z^4 - 6z + 3 = 0$$

$$1 \leq z \leq 2$$

Here  $z=1$  and  $z=2$

$$|f(z) + g(z)| = z^4 - 6z + 3$$

$$z=1$$

$$z=2$$

$$f(z) = -6z$$

$$f(z) = 6z$$

$$g(z) = z^4 + 3$$

$$g(z) = -6z + 3$$

By Rouchy thm

$$|f(z)| > |g(z)|$$

$$z=1$$

$$|f(z)| = |-6z| = 6 \cdot 1 = 6 > 1$$

$$|g(z)| = z^4 + 3 = 4 < 6 > 4$$

The number of zeros

$$= 4 - 1 = 3$$

$$z=2$$

$$|f(z)| = |z^4| = |2|^4 = 16 > 4$$

$$|g(z)| = |-6z + 3| = 15 > 1$$

The number of zeros

$$4 - 1 = 3$$

$\therefore$  The number of zeros = 3

Q.2 Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2+a^2} dx$ , by the method of residues

Soln:-

Given that,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2+a^2} dx$$

$$f(z) = \frac{z e^{iz}}{z^2+a^2} dz$$

$$\text{poles } z^2+a^2=0$$

$$z^2 = -a^2$$

$$z = \pm ia$$

$$R = \text{Res}_{z=ia} f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow ia} (z-ia) \frac{z e^{iz}}{(z+ia)(z-ia)}$$

$$= \frac{a i e^{i(ai)}}{ai+ai}$$

$$= \frac{a i e^{-a}}{2ai}$$

$$R = \frac{e^{-a}}{2}$$

$$\text{Residues} \Rightarrow \int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i (R)$$

$$= 2\pi i \times \frac{e^{-a}}{2}$$

$$\int_C f(z) dz = \pi i e^{-a}$$

$$\text{Here, } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_C f(z) dz$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x e^{ix}}{x^2+a^2} dx = \pi i e^{-a}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x [\cos x + i \sin x]}{x^2+a^2} dx = \pi i e^{-a}$$

$$2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2+a^2} dx = \pi e^{-a}$$

$$\text{Hence } \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2+a^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} e^{-a}$$

3) Evaluate find the residue of  $f(z) = \frac{1}{2z+3}$

soln:-  
poles  $f(z) = \frac{1}{2z+3}$

$$2z+3=0 \Rightarrow 2z=-3$$

$$z = -3/2$$

Residue at  $z = -3/2$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow -3/2} (z + 3/2) \frac{1}{2(z + 3/2)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow -3/2} \frac{1}{2}$$

4) Find the residue  $\frac{z}{z^2-1} = \frac{z}{(z+1)(z-1)}$

soln:-  
poles  $z^2-1=0$

$$z^2=1 = \pm 1$$

Residue at  $z = -1 \Rightarrow \lim_{z \rightarrow -1} (z+1) \cdot \frac{z}{(z+1)(z-1)} = \frac{1}{2}$

Residue at  $z = 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1) \cdot \frac{z}{(z+1)(z-1)} = \frac{1}{2}$

5) Find the residue of  $f(z) = \frac{z^2}{(z-1)^2(z+2)}$  at  $z = -2$

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

Residue at  $z = -2$ ;  $R_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow -2} (z+2) \frac{z^2}{(z-1)^2(z+2)}$

$$R_1 = \frac{(-2)^2}{(-2-1)^2} = \frac{4}{9}$$

Residue at  $z = 1$ ,  $R_2 = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{d}{dk} (z-1)^2 \frac{z^2}{(z-1)(z+2)}$

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

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \left( \frac{2z^2 + 4z - z^2}{(z+2)^2} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{z^2 + 4z}{(z+2)^2}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{1+4}{3^2} = \frac{5}{9}$$

$$\text{Total residue} = R_1 + R_2 = \left(\frac{4}{9} + \frac{5}{9}\right) 2\pi i$$

$$= \frac{9}{9} 2\pi i$$

$$\text{Total residue} = 2\pi i$$

## Unit - V

- \* power series expansion
- \* Canonical products
- \* Jensen's formula

## Unit - V

Weierstrass theorem:

100m

Suppose that  $f_n(z)$  is analytic in the region  $\Omega_n$ , and that the sequence  $\{f_n(z)\}$  converges to a limit function  $f(z)$  in a region  $\Omega$ , uniformly on every compact subset of  $\Omega$ . Then  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$ .

Moreover  $f_n'(z)$  converges uniformly to  $f'(z)$  on every compact subset of  $\Omega$ .

proof:

The analyticity of  $f(z)$  follows most easily by use of Morera's theorem, "if  $f(z)$  is defined and continuous in  $\Omega$  and if  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$   $\forall$  closed curve in  $\Omega$  then  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$ ."

Let  $|z-a| < r$  be a closed disk contained in  $\Omega$ .

The assumption implies that the disk lies in  $\Omega_n$ .

If  $\gamma$  is any closed curve in  $|z-a| < r$  we have,  $\int_{\gamma} f_n(z) dz = 0, \forall n \geq n_0$ .

By Cauchy's thm,

"If  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$  the  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$  for every curve  $\gamma$ ."

The uniform converges on  $\gamma$ .

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} f_n(z) dz = 0 \text{ and by}$$

Morera's thm

It follows that  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $|z-a| < r$

$\therefore f(z)$  is analytic in  $\Omega$ .

An alternative and more-explicit proof is based on the integral formula.

$f_n(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z-a|=r} \frac{f_n(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d\zeta$  where  $c$  is the circle  $|z-a|=r$  and  $n \rightarrow \infty$

By uniform converges then

$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d\zeta$  and this formula and show that  $f(z)$  is analytic in a disc.

From the formula  $f_n'(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f_n(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^2} d\zeta$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n'(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^2} d\zeta = f'(z)$$

$\therefore f'(z)$  is analytic

claim:

$\{f_n(z)\}$  converges to  $f'(z)$  uniformly on compact subset of  $\Omega$

Let  $|z-a| < \delta$  and  $\rho \leq r$  be a compact subset of  $\Omega$

$$\begin{aligned} |f_n'(z) - f'(z)| &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f_n(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^2} d\zeta - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^2} d\zeta \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f_n(\zeta) - f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)^2} d\zeta \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_c \frac{|f_n(\zeta) - f(\zeta)|}{|\zeta-z|^2} |d\zeta| = \textcircled{1} \end{aligned}$$

$$|\zeta-z| = |\zeta-a+a-z| = |\zeta-a-(z-a)|$$

$$|\zeta-z| \geq r - \rho$$

$$\frac{1}{|\zeta-z|} \leq \frac{1}{r-\rho} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{|\zeta-z|^2} \leq \frac{1}{(r-\rho)^2}$$

since  $f_n(z) \rightarrow f(z)$  uniformly given  $\epsilon > 0$

$$|f_n(z) - f(z)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0 \quad \forall z$$

① becomes

$$|f_n'(z) - f'(z)| < \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C \frac{\varepsilon}{(r-\delta)^2} |dz| \quad \forall n \geq n_0$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2\pi(r-\delta)^2} \int_C |dz|$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2\pi(r-\delta)^2} \cdot 2\pi$$

$$|f_n'(z) - f'(z)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{(r-\delta)^2}$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary

$$f_n'(z) \rightarrow f'(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ uniformly } \forall z$$

$$0 \leq |z-a| < \delta < r$$

Since every compact set can be covered by a finite number of closed disk  $0 \leq |z-a| < \delta < r$

The convergence is uniform on every compact subset of  $\Omega$ .

Hence proved.

Hurwitz theorem:

If the functions  $f_n(z)$  are analytic and  $\neq 0$  in a region  $\Omega$ , and if  $f_n(z)$  converges to  $f(z)$ , uniformly on every compact subset of  $\Omega$ , then  $f(z)$  is either identically zero or never equal to zero in  $\Omega$ .

proof:-

Suppose that  $f(z)$  is not identically zero.

W.K.T The zeroes of  $f(z)$  are isolated.

For any point  $z_0 \in \Omega$  of  $r > 0 \ni f(z)$  is defined and  $\neq 0$  for  $0 < |z-z_0| \leq r$

$|f(z)|$  has a positive minimum on the circle  $|z-z_0| = r$ , we denote by  $c$ .

By hypothesis,  $f_n(z) \rightarrow f(z)$  uniformly on a compact subset of  $\Omega$ .

$f_n(z) \rightarrow f(z)$  uniformly on the circle  $c$ .

$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{f_n(z)} \rightarrow \frac{1}{f(z)}$  uniformly on  $c$ .

By Weierstrass thm,

$f_n'(z) \rightarrow f'(z)$  uniformly on every compact subset of  $\Omega$ .

$\Rightarrow f_n'(z) \rightarrow f'(z)$  uniformly on  $c$ .

$$\frac{f_n'(z)}{f_n(z)} \rightarrow \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)}$$

$$\text{ie) } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f_n'(z)}{f_n(z)} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

But the L.H.S are zero ~~for~~ by thus given the number of roots of eqn  $f_n(z)=0$ .

$$\text{(1)} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = 0 \text{ in which } f(z_0) \neq 0$$

$z_0$  is arbitrary

$\therefore f(z)$  never equal to zero in  $\Omega$ .

Hence proved.

Taylor's series

If  $f(z)$  is analytic in the region  $\Omega$ , containing  $z_0$ , then the representation

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + \frac{f'(z_0)}{1!} (z-z_0) + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z-z_0)^n + \dots$$

is valid in the largest open disk of center  $z_0$  contained in  $\Omega$ .

Proof:

Let  $r > 0$  be such that the disk  $|z-z_0| < r$  is contained in  $\Omega$ .

Let  $0 < r_1 < r$ .

Let  $c_1$  be the circle  $|z-z_0| = r_1$ .

By Cauchy's integral formula, we have

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c_1} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)} d\zeta \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Also by theorem on higher derivatives we have

$$f^{(n)}(z) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{c_1} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)^{n+1}} d\zeta \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Now,

$$\frac{1}{\zeta - z} = \frac{1}{(\zeta - z_0) - (z - z_0)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\zeta - z_0) \left[ 1 - \frac{z - z_0}{\zeta - z_0} \right]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\zeta - z_0} \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{z - z_0}{\zeta - z_0} \right) + \left( \frac{z - z_0}{\zeta - z_0} \right)^2 + \dots + \right.$$

$$\left. \left( \frac{z - z_0}{\zeta - z_0} \right)^{n-1} + \frac{\left( \frac{z - z_0}{\zeta - z_0} \right)^n}{\left[ 1 - \left( \frac{z - z_0}{\zeta - z_0} \right) \right]} \right]$$

[Using  $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{n-1} + \frac{x^n}{1-x}$ ]

$$= \frac{1}{(\zeta - z_0)} + \frac{z - z_0}{(\zeta - z_0)^2} + \frac{(z - z_0)^2}{(\zeta - z_0)^3} + \dots + \frac{(z - z_0)^{n-1}}{(\zeta - z_0)^n}$$

$$+ \frac{(z - z_0)^n}{(\zeta - z_0)^n (\zeta - z)}$$

Now multiplying throughout by  $\frac{f(\zeta)}{2\pi i}$  integrating over  $c_1$  and using (1) & (2) we get

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

$$+ \frac{f^{(n-1)}(z_0)}{(n-1)!} (z - z_0)^{n-1} + R_n \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

where  $R_n = \frac{(z - z_0)^n}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z)(\zeta - z_0)^n} d\zeta$

Here  $\zeta$  lies on  $c_1$  and  $z$  lies in the interior of  $c_1$

so that  $|\zeta - z_0| = r_1$  and  $|z - z_0| < r_1$

$$\begin{aligned}
 |z_1 - z| &= |(z_1 - z_0) - (z - z_0)| \\
 &\geq |z_1 - z_0| - |z - z_0| \\
 &= r_1 - |z - z_0|
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{|z_1 - z|} \leq \frac{1}{r_1 - |z - z_0|}$$

Let  $M$  denote the maximum value of  $|f(z)|$  on  $C_1$ .

$$\text{Then } |R_n| \leq \frac{|z - z_0|^n}{2\pi} \frac{M(2\pi r_1)}{(r_1 - |z - z_0|) r_1^n}$$

$$= \frac{M|z - z_0|}{(r_1 - |z - z_0|)} \left( \frac{|z - z_0|}{r_1} \right)^{n-1}$$

Also,  $\left| \frac{z - z_0}{r_1} \right| < 1$ . Hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$

Taking limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in (3) we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(z) &= f(z_0) + \frac{f'(z_0)}{1!} (z - z_0) + \frac{f''(z_0)}{2!} (z - z_0)^2 \\
 &\quad + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z - z_0)^n + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence proved.

pbms:

Expand  $\cos x$  into a ~~highest order~~ Taylor's series about the point  $z = \pi/2$  and determine the radius of convergence.

soln:-

$$\text{Let } f(x) = \cos x$$

The Taylor's series

$$f(x) = f(z_0) + \frac{f'(z_0)}{1!} (x - z_0) + \frac{f''(z_0)}{2!} (x - z_0)^2 + \dots$$

about  $z = \pi/2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= f(\pi/2) + \frac{(x - \pi/2)}{1!} f'(\pi/2) + \frac{(x - \pi/2)^2}{2!} f''(\pi/2) + \\
 &\quad \frac{(x - \pi/2)^3}{3!} f'''(\pi/2) + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

$$f(z) = \cos z \Rightarrow f(\pi/2) = \cos \pi/2 = 0$$

$$f'(z) = -\sin z \Rightarrow f'(\pi/2) = -\sin \pi/2 = -1$$

$$f''(z) = -\cos z \Rightarrow f''(\pi/2) = -\cos \pi/2 = 0$$

$$f'''(z) = \sin z \Rightarrow f'''(\pi/2) = \sin \pi/2 = 1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\vdots$$

The Taylor's series for  $\cos z$  about  $z = \pi/2$  is

$$\cos z = \frac{-(z - \pi/2)}{1!} + \frac{(z - \pi/2)^3}{3!} - \frac{(z - \pi/2)^5}{5!} + \dots$$

The expansion is valid throughout the complex plane.

2) Expand  $\sin z$  into a Taylor's series about the point  $z = \pi/4$  and determine the region of convergence.

Soln: let  $f(z) = \sin z$

The Taylor's series,

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + \frac{f'(z_0)}{1!}(z - z_0) + \frac{f''(z_0)}{2!}(z - z_0)^2 + \dots$$

about  $z_0 = \pi/4$

$$f(z) = f(\pi/4) + \frac{(z - \pi/4)}{1!} f'(\pi/4) + \dots$$

$$f(z) = \sin z \Rightarrow f(\pi/4) = \sin \pi/4 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$f'(z) = \cos z \Rightarrow f'(\pi/4) = \cos \pi/4 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$f''(z) = -\sin z \Rightarrow f''(\pi/4) = -\sin \pi/4 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$f'''(z) = -\cos z \Rightarrow f'''(\pi/4) = -\cos \pi/4 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

The Taylor's series for  $\sin z$  about  $z = \pi/4$  is

$$\sin z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{(z - \pi/4)}{1!} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) - \frac{(z - \pi/4)^2}{2!} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) - \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{(z - \pi/4)}{1!} - \frac{(z - \pi/4)^2}{2!} - \frac{(z - \pi/4)^3}{3!} + \dots \right]$$

The expansion is valid for entire complex plane.

3)  $f(z) = \frac{z-1}{z+1}$  as a Taylor's series i) about the point  $z=0$  ii) about the point  $z=1$ . Determine the region of convergence in each case.

Soln:-

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

$$= (z-1)(z+1)^{-1}$$

$$= (z-1)(1-z+z^2-z^3+\dots) \text{ if } |z| < 1$$

$$= (z-z^2+z^3-\dots) - (1-z+z^2-z^3+\dots)$$

$$= -1+2z-2z^2+2z^3-\dots$$

The region of convergence is  $|z| < 1$

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

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

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

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

$$= \left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right) \left[1 - \left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right)^3 + \dots\right]$$

$$\text{if } \left|\frac{z-1}{2}\right| < 1$$

$$= \frac{z-1}{2} - \left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{z-1}{2}\right)^3 - \dots$$

The region of convergence is given by  $\left|\frac{z-1}{2}\right| < 1$  which is same as the circular.

4) Expand  $ze^{2z}$  in Taylor series about  $z=-1$  and determine the region of convergence.

Soln:-

$$\text{Let } f(z) = ze^{2z}$$

$$= ze^{2(x+1)} e^{-2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{e^2} (x+1) e^{2(x+1)} - e^{2(x+1)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{e^2} \left[ (z+1) \left\{ 1 + \frac{2(z+1)}{1!} + \frac{4(z+1)^2}{2!} + \dots \right\} - \left\{ 1 + \frac{2(z+1)}{1!} \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \frac{4(z+1)^2}{2!} + \dots \right\} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{e^2} \left[ \left\{ (z+1) + \frac{2(z+1)^2}{1!} + \frac{2^2(z+1)^3}{2!} + \dots \right\} - \left\{ 1 + \frac{2(z+1)}{1!} \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \frac{2^2(z+1)^2}{2!} + \dots \right\} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{e^2} \left( -1 + (1 - \frac{2}{1!})(z+1) + \left( \frac{2}{1!} - \frac{2^2}{2!} \right) (z+1)^2 \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \left( \frac{2^2}{2!} - \frac{2^3}{3!} \right) (z+1)^3 + \dots \right)
\end{aligned}$$

The expansion is valid throughout the complex plane.

5) Find the Taylor's series of  $\frac{z^2-1}{(z+2)(z+3)}$  i)  $|z| < 2$

ii)  $2 < |z| < 3$  iii)  $|z| < 3$

Ans. Given  $f(z) = \frac{z^2-1}{(z+2)(z+3)}$

$$\begin{array}{r}
z^2+5z+6 \overline{) z^2+8z-1} \\
\underline{z^2+5z-6} \\
-5z-7
\end{array}$$

$$f(z) = 1 - \frac{(5z+7)}{z^2+5z+6}$$

$$\frac{5z+7}{z^2+5z+6} = \frac{A}{z+2} + \frac{B}{z+3}$$

$$5z+7 = A(z+3) + B(z+2)$$

$$z = -3,$$

$$-15+7 = 0 + B(-1)$$

$$-B = -8$$

$$B = 8$$

$$z = -2,$$

$$-10+7 = A(1) + 0$$

$$A = -3$$

$$f(z) = 1 + \frac{3}{z+2} - \frac{8}{z+3}$$

$$\cdot z+2=0 \Rightarrow z=-2$$

$$z+3=0 \Rightarrow z=-3$$

singularities,

$$i) |z| < 2 \Rightarrow \frac{|z|}{2} < 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= 1 + \frac{3}{z} (1 + z/2)^{-1} - \frac{8}{3} (1 + z/3)^{-1} + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{3}{z} (1 - z/2 + z^2/2^2 - \dots) - \frac{8}{3} (1 - z/3 + z^2/3^2 - \dots) \end{aligned}$$

$$|z| < 2$$

Its necessity  $< 3$ .

Hence the expansion is valid  $|z| < 2$

$$ii) 2 < |z| < 3$$

$$2 < |z| \quad ; \quad |z| < 3$$

$$\frac{2}{|z|} < 1 \quad ; \quad \frac{|z|}{3} < 1$$

$$\left| \frac{2}{z} \right| < 1 \quad ; \quad \left| \frac{z}{3} \right| < 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= 1 + \frac{3}{z(1+z/2)} - \frac{8}{3(1+z/3)} \\ &= 1 + \frac{3}{z} (1 + z/2)^{-1} - \frac{8}{3} (1 + z/3)^{-1} \\ &= 1 + \frac{3}{z} [1 - z/2 + (z/2)^2 - (z/2)^3 + \dots] \\ &\quad - \frac{8}{3} [1 - z/3 + (z/3)^2 - (z/3)^3 + \dots] \end{aligned}$$

$$iii) |z| > 3$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{z} \right| < \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\left| \frac{3}{z} \right| < 1 \quad \frac{2}{z} < 1$$

$$f(z) = 1 + \frac{3}{(z+2)} - \frac{8}{(z+3)}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{3}{z(1+2/z)} - \frac{8}{z(1+3/z)}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{3}{z} (1 + 2/z)^{-1} - \frac{8}{z} (1 + 3/z)^{-1}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{3}{z} (1 - 2/z + (2/z)^2 - (2/z)^3 + \dots) - \frac{8}{z} (1 - 3/z + (3/z)^2 - (3/z)^3 + \dots)$$

Laurent's theorem:

Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in a region  $D$  bounded by concentric circle with  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  with centre  $a$  and radius  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  such that  $R_1 < R_2$ . Let  $z$  be any point of  $D$  then

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^{-n} \text{ where}$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)^{n+1}} d\zeta \text{ and } b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c_1} f(\zeta) (\zeta-a)^{n-1} d\zeta$$

proof:

Let  $z$  be any point in  $D$   
 Then by Cauchy's integral formula for doubly connected region, we have

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[ \int_{c_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)} d\zeta - \int_{c_1} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)} d\zeta \right] \text{--- (1)}$$

Now, consider for first part of eqn (1)  
 Now for any point  $c_1$  on  $c_2$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\zeta-z} &= \frac{1}{(\zeta-a) - (z-a)} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\zeta-a) \left[ 1 - \frac{z-a}{\zeta-a} \right]} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\zeta-a)} \left[ 1 - \frac{z-a}{\zeta-a} \right]^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

By Taylor's series

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{\zeta-a} \left[ 1 + \frac{z-a}{\zeta-a} + \left(\frac{z-a}{\zeta-a}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{z-a}{\zeta-a}\right)^{n-1} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \left(\frac{z-a}{\zeta-a}\right)^n \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{z-a}{\zeta-a}\right)} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\zeta-a} + \frac{z-a}{(\zeta-a)^2} + \frac{(z-a)^2}{(\zeta-a)^3} + \dots + \frac{(z-a)^{n-1}}{(\zeta-a)^n} \\ &\quad + \frac{(z-a)^n}{(\zeta-a)^n (\zeta-z)} \text{--- (2)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d\zeta = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)} d\zeta + \frac{z-a}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)^2} d\zeta$$

$$+ \dots + \frac{(z-a)^{n-1}}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)^n} d\zeta + \frac{(z-a)^n}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)^{n+1}} d\zeta$$

↳ (A)

Let  $a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)^{n+1}} d\zeta$

(A) becomes,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z)} d\zeta = a_2 + a_1(z-a) + a_2(z-a)^2$$

$$+ \dots + a_n(z-a)^{n-1} + R_n$$

↳ (B)

where  $R_n = \frac{(z-a)^n}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)(\zeta-z)} d\zeta$  — (C)

claim:-

$$R_n \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Let  $|z-a| = r \Rightarrow R_1 < r < R_2$  and  $|\zeta-a| = R_2$

Consider  $|\zeta-z| = |(\zeta-a) - (z-a)|$

$$\geq |\zeta-a| - |z-a|$$

$$= R_2 - r$$

$$R_n \leq \frac{r^n}{2\pi} \int_{C_2} \frac{M_1}{R_2^n (R_2 - r)} |d\zeta|$$

$M_1$  is the maximum value of  $f(\zeta)$  on  $C_0$  from (A)

$$|R_n| \leq \frac{r^n M_1}{2\pi R_2^n (R_2 - r)} \int_{C_2} |d\zeta|$$

$$= \frac{r^n M_1}{2\pi R_2^n (R_2 - r)} 2\pi R_2$$

$$= \frac{M_1 R_2}{(R_2 - r)} \left(\frac{r}{R_2}\right)^n$$

$$\frac{r}{R_2} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \left(\frac{r}{R_2}\right)^n \rightarrow 0$$

consequently  $R_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Eqn (3) becomes

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} d\zeta = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

consider the second part of eqn (1)

let  $\zeta_0$  be the point  $c_1$  where  $|\zeta_0 - a| = R_1$

consider,

$$\frac{1}{\zeta_0 - a} = \frac{1}{z - \zeta_0} = \frac{1}{(z-a) - (\zeta_0 - a)} = \frac{1}{(z-a) \left[ 1 - \frac{\zeta_0 - a}{z-a} \right]}$$

$$= \frac{\left[ 1 - \frac{\zeta_0 - a}{z-a} \right]^{-1}}{z-a}$$

$$= \frac{1}{z-a} \left[ 1 + \frac{\zeta_0 - a}{z-a} + \dots + \left( \frac{\zeta_0 - a}{z-a} \right)^{n-1} \right.$$

$$\left. + \left( \frac{\zeta_0 - a}{z-a} \right)^n \left[ \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\zeta_0 - a}{z-a}} \right] \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{z-a} + \frac{\zeta_0 - a}{(z-a)^2} + \dots + \frac{(\zeta_0 - a)^{n-1}}{(z-a)^n}$$

$$+ \frac{(\zeta_0 - a)^n}{(z-a)^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{z - \zeta_0}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} d\zeta = \frac{(z-a)^{-1}}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} f(\zeta) d\zeta + \frac{(z-a)^{-2}}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} (\zeta_0 - a) f(\zeta) d\zeta$$

$$+ \dots + \frac{(z-a)^{-n}}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{(\zeta_0 - a)^n}{(z - \zeta_0)} f(\zeta) d\zeta$$

where  $s_n = \frac{(z-a)^{-n}}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{(\zeta_0 - a)^n}{(z - \zeta_0)} f(\zeta) d\zeta$

let  $b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} (\zeta_0 - a)^{n-1} f(\zeta) d\zeta$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} d\zeta = b_1 (z-a)^{-1} + b_2 (z-a)^{-2} + \dots + b_n (z-a)^{-n} + s_n \rightarrow \text{(5)}$$

claim  $s_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

For let  $|z-a| = r$  and  $|\zeta_0 - a| = R_1$

$$|z - \zeta_0| = |(z-a) - (\zeta_0 - a)|$$

$$\geq |z-a| - |\zeta_0 - a|$$

$$= r - R_1$$

$$|S_n| \leq \frac{r^n}{2\pi} \frac{M_2 R_1^n}{r-R_1} \int_{C_1} |d\zeta|$$

$$|S_n| \leq \frac{r^n}{2\pi} \frac{M_2 R_1^n}{r-R_1} 2\pi R_1$$

$$= \frac{M_2 R_1}{r-R_1} \left(\frac{R_1}{r}\right)^n$$

$\therefore \left(\frac{R_1}{r}\right) < 1$  we have  $\left(\frac{R_1}{r}\right)^n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

consequently  $S_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Eqn (5) becomes

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d\zeta = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

Eqn (4) and (6) sub

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n$$

where  $a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-a)^{n+1}} d\zeta$  and

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} (\zeta-a)^{n-1} f(\zeta) d\zeta$$

Hence proved.

1) Find the Laurent's series expansion of  $f(z) = z^2 e^{1/z}$  about  $z=0$ .

Soln: Given that  $f(z) = z^2 e^{1/z}$

$$f(z) = z^2 \left[ 1 + \left(\frac{1}{z}\right) \frac{1}{1!} + \left(\frac{1}{z}\right)^2 \frac{1}{2!} + \dots \right]$$

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

$$= z^2 + z + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{z}{3!} + \frac{z^2}{4!} + \dots$$

2) Expand  $\frac{1}{z(z-1)}$  as Laurent's series i) about  $z=0$  in power of  $z$  and ii) about  $z=1$  in power  $z-1$ . Also it in the region of validity.

*Ans:* The only points where  $f(z)$  is not analytic are 0 and 1.

Hence  $f(z)$  can be expressed as a Laurent's series in the  $0 < z < 1$

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

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

Since  $|z| < 1$

$$f(z) = -\left[\frac{1}{z} + 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots\right]$$

This is Laurent series expansion  $f(z)$

is  $0 < |z| < 1$

ie)  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $0 < |z-1| < 1$

Hence can be expanded as a Laurent's series in power of  $z-1=0$  in the region.

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

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

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

Since  $|z-1| < 1$

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

This gives the Laurent's series expansion in  $0 < |z-1| < 1$

*Thm*  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1+a_n)$  converges iff  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \log(1+a_n)$  converges.

*proof:* Let  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \log(1+a_k)$

$$P_n = \prod_{k=1}^n \log(1+a_k) = \prod_{k=1}^n P_k$$

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \log(1+a_n)$  converges then  $s_n \rightarrow s$  for

some  $s \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$e^s$  is continuous,  $e^{s_n} \rightarrow e^s$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$e^{s_n} = e^{\sum_{k=1}^n \log(1+a_k)} = \prod_{k=1}^n e^{\log(1+a_k)}$$

$$= \prod_{k=1}^n (1+a_k) = P_n$$

$$\Rightarrow P_n \rightarrow e^{s_n} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1+a_n) \text{ is converges}$$

conversely,

Assume that  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1+a_n)$  converges

$\Rightarrow P_n \rightarrow P$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for some  $P \in \mathbb{C}$

For each  $n$  there exists  $h_n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$\log\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right) = s_n - \log P + 2\pi i h_n \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

where  $h_n$  is such that  $|\arg\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right)| < \pi$

We claim that  $h_n$  is constant after some stage

$$\text{Now, } \log\left(\frac{P_{n+1}}{P}\right) = s_{n+1} - \log P + 2\pi i h_{n+1} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

$$\textcircled{2} - \textcircled{1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \log\left(\frac{P_{n+1}}{P}\right) - \log\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right) = s_{n+1} - s_n + 2\pi i (h_{n+1} - h_n)$$

$$\log\left(\frac{P_{n+1}}{P}\right) - \log\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right) - (s_{n+1} - s_n) = 2\pi i (h_{n+1} - h_n)$$

Taking arg,

$$(h_{n+1} - h_n) 2\pi = \arg\left(\frac{P_{n+1}}{P}\right) - \arg\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right)$$

$$(h_{n+1} - h_n) 2\pi = \arg\left(\frac{P_{n+1}}{P}\right) - \arg\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right) - 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow h_{n+1} = h \quad \forall n \geq m \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$(\because P_{n+1} \rightarrow P, P_n \rightarrow P)$$

$$S_n = \log\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right) + \log P = h 2\pi i$$

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log\left(\frac{P_n}{P}\right) + \log P = h 2\pi i \\ &= \log P - h 2\pi i\end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \log(1+a_n)$  converges.