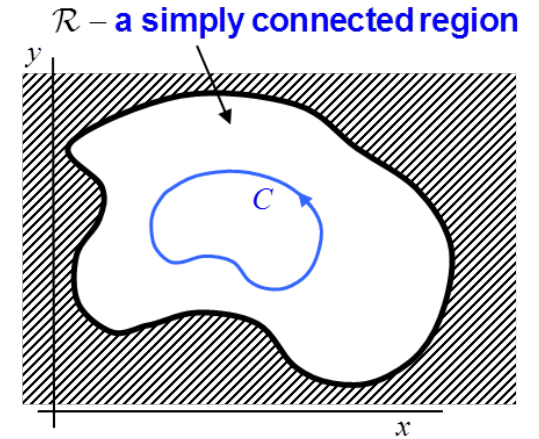


# ECE 6382

Fall 2023

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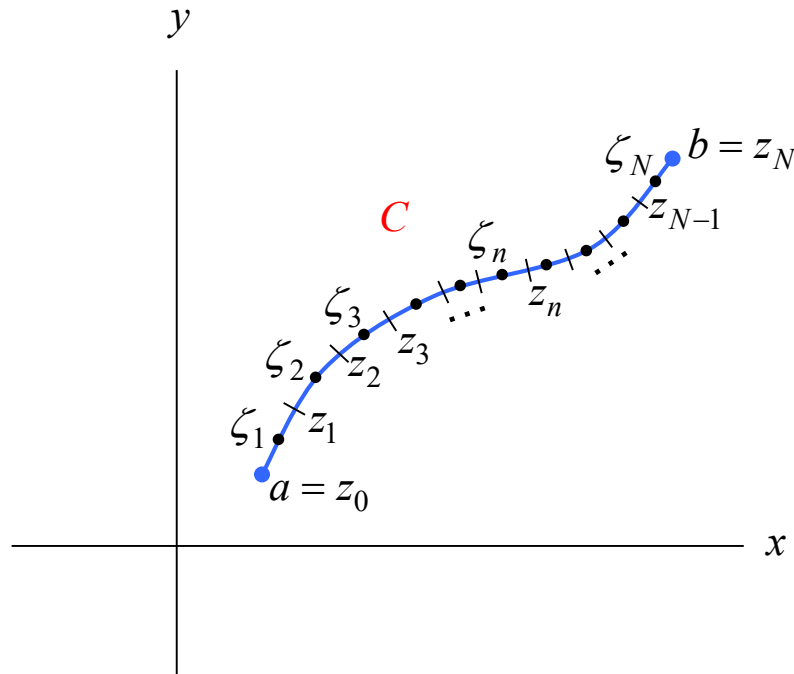


## Notes 3

# Integration in the Complex Plane

Notes are adapted from D. R. Wilton, Dept. of ECE

# Defining Line Integrals in the Complex Plane



$$I \equiv \int_C f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(z) dz$$

- Define  $\zeta_n$  on  $C$  between  $z_{n-1}$  and  $z_n$

- Consider the sums

$$I_N = \sum_{n=1}^N f(\zeta_n) \overbrace{(z_n - z_{n-1})}^{\Delta z_n}$$

- Let the number of subdivisions  $N \rightarrow \infty$  such that  $\Delta z_n = (z_n - z_{n-1}) \rightarrow 0$  and define

$$I \equiv \int_a^b f(z) dz = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} I_N$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N f(\zeta_n) \overbrace{(z_n - z_{n-1})}^{\Delta z_n}$$

(The result is independent of the details of the path subdivision, for reasonably well-behaved functions.)

# Equivalence Between Complex and Real Line Integrals

Denote

$$I \equiv \int_a^b f(z) dz = \int_a^b [u(x, y) + iv(x, y)](dx + idy)$$

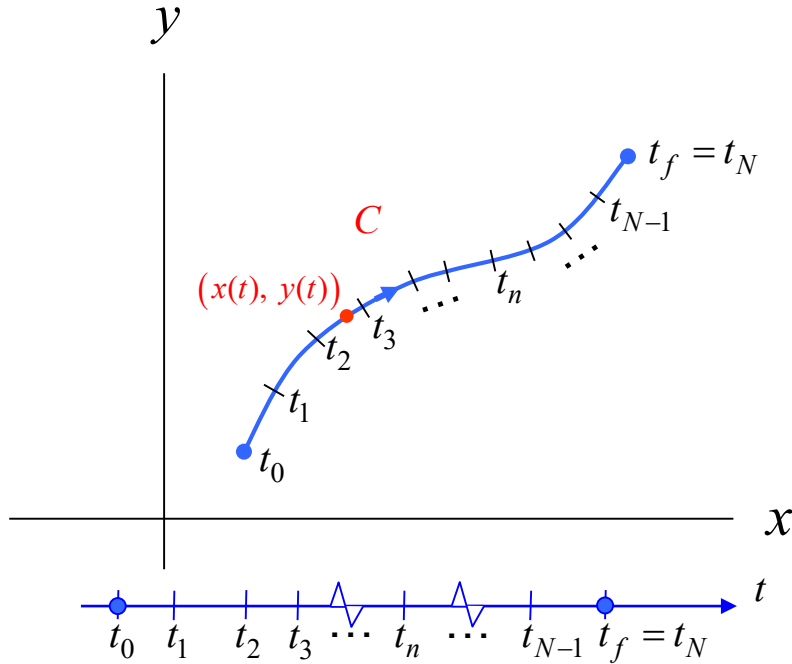
$$= \int_{a=(x_0, y_0)}^{b=(x_N, y_N)} u(x, y) dx - v(x, y) dy + i \int_{a=(x_0, y_0)}^{b=(x_N, y_N)} v(x, y) dx + u(x, y) dy$$

$$= \int_C u dx - v dy + i \int_C v dx + u dy$$

$$I = \int_C u dx - v dy + i \int_C v dx + u dy$$

The complex line integral is equivalent to two real line integrals on  $C$ .

# Review of Line Integral Evaluation



□ A line integral written as  $\int_C u(x, y) dx - v(x, y) dy$  is really a shorthand for

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_f} \left( u \frac{dx}{dt} - v \frac{dy}{dt} \right) dt$$

where  $t$  is some parameterization of  $C$ :

$$C : x = x(t), y = y(t), \quad t_0 \leq t \leq t_f$$

◇ Example : parameterizations of the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$

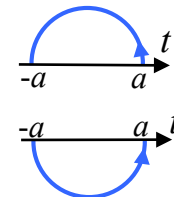
1)  $x = a \cos t, y = a \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t (= \theta) \leq 2\pi$

2)  $x = t, y = \sqrt{a^2 - t^2}, \quad t_0 = a, \quad t_f = -a,$

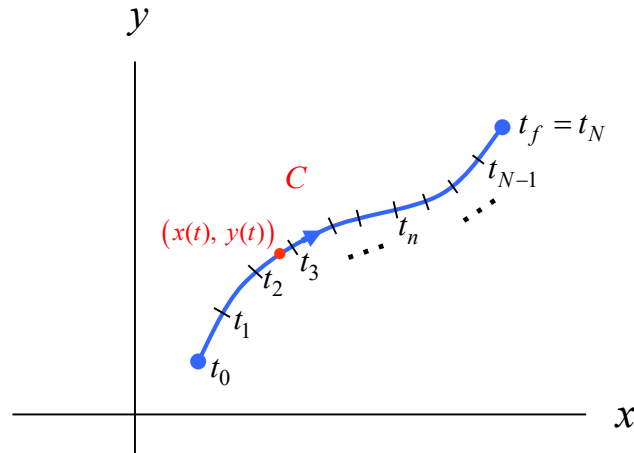
and

$x = t, y = -\sqrt{a^2 - t^2}, \quad t_0 = -a, \quad t_f = a,$

The path  $C$  goes counterclockwise around the circle.



# Review of Line Integral Evaluation (cont.)



- While it may be possible to parameterize  $C$  using  $x$  or  $y$  as the independent parameter, it must be remembered that the other variable ( $y$  or  $x$ ) is in general always a *function* of that parameter!

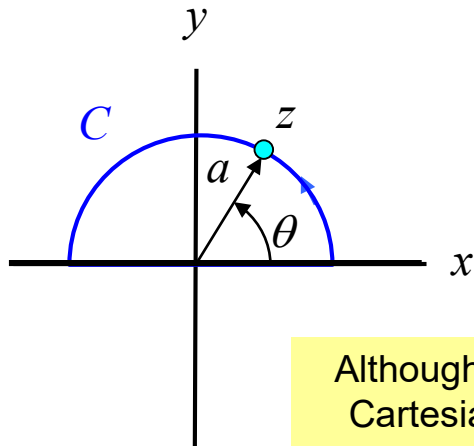
Illustration:  $\int_C u(x, y) dx - v(x, y) dy$

The red color denotes functional dependence.

$$= \int_{x_0}^{x_f} \left[ u(x, y(x)) - v(x, y(x)) \frac{dy}{dx} \right] dx \quad (\text{if } x \text{ is the independent parameter})$$

$$= \int_{y_0}^{y_f} \left[ u(x(y), y) \frac{dx}{dy} - v(x(y), y) \right] dy \quad (\text{if } y \text{ is the independent parameter})$$

# Line Integral Example



◇ Evaluate  $I = \int_C \frac{1}{z} dz$  : where

$$C : x = a \cos \theta, y = a \sin \theta, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$$

Although it is easier to use polar coordinates (see the next example), we use Cartesian coordinates to illustrate the previous Cartesian line integral form.

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{x+iy} = \frac{1}{x+iy} \left( \frac{x-iy}{x-iy} \right) = \left( \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} \right) + i \left( \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2} \right) = \left( \frac{x}{a^2} \right) + i \left( \frac{-y}{a^2} \right)$$

Hence

$$u(z) = \frac{x}{a^2}$$

$$v(z) = \frac{-y}{a^2}$$

$$I = \int_C u dx - v dy + i \int_C v dx + u dy$$

$$= \int_C (u + iv) dx + \int_C (-v + iu) dy$$

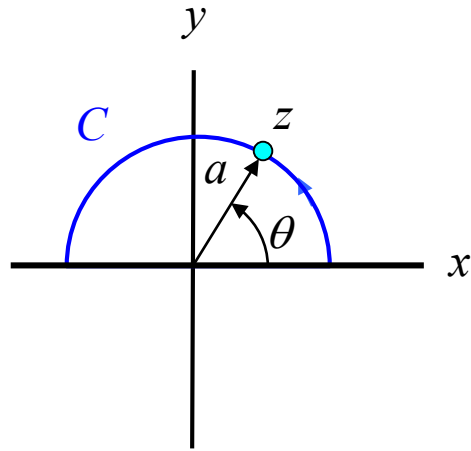
$$= I_1 + I_2$$

The red color denotes functional dependence.

$$I_1 = \int_a^{-a} \left[ \frac{x}{a^2} + i \left( \frac{-y(x)}{a^2} \right) \right] dx$$

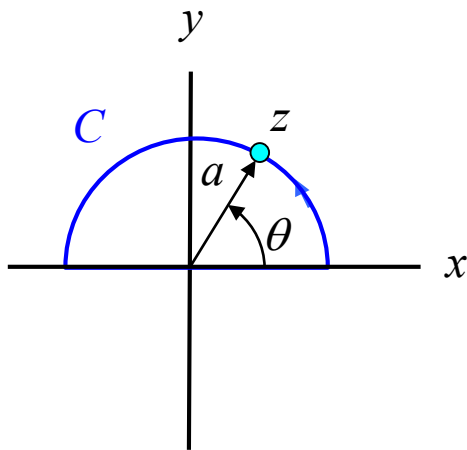
$$I_2 = \int_0^0 \left[ \frac{y}{a^2} + i \left( \frac{x(y)}{a^2} \right) \right] dy$$

# Line Integral Example (cont.)



$$\begin{aligned} I_1 &= \int_a^{-a} \left[ \frac{x}{a^2} + i \left( \frac{-y(x)}{a^2} \right) \right] dx \\ &= \int_a^{-a} \left[ \frac{x}{a^2} + i \left( \frac{-1}{a^2} \right) \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \right] dx \\ &= 0 + i \left( \frac{-1}{a^2} \right) \int_a^{-a} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx \\ &= i \left( \frac{-1}{a^2} \right) \left[ \frac{x\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}{2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) \right]_a^{-a} \\ &= i \left( \frac{-1}{\cancel{a^2}} \right) \left[ \frac{\cancel{a^2}}{2} \left( -\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{2} \right) \right] \\ &= i \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

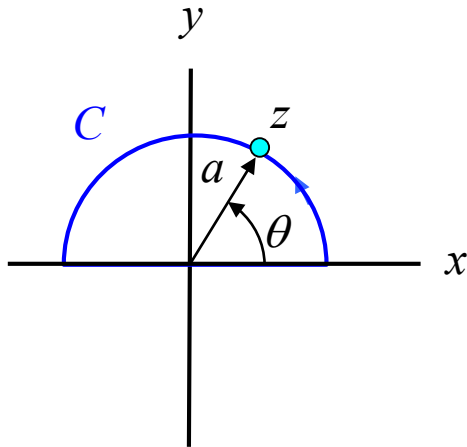
# Line Integral Example (cont.)



$$\begin{aligned}
 I_2 &= \int_0^0 \left[ \frac{y}{a^2} + i \left( \frac{x(y)}{a^2} \right) \right] dy \\
 &= 0 + \frac{i}{a^2} \int_0^0 x(y) dy \\
 &= \underbrace{\frac{i}{a^2} \int_0^a \sqrt{a^2 - y^2} dy}_{0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2} + \underbrace{\frac{i}{a^2} \int_a^0 \left( -\sqrt{a^2 - y^2} \right) dy}_{\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq \pi} \\
 &= 2 \frac{i}{a^2} \int_0^a \sqrt{a^2 - y^2} dy \\
 &= 2 \frac{i}{a^2} \left[ \frac{y\sqrt{a^2 - y^2}}{2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{y}{a} \right) \right]_0^a \\
 &= \cancel{2} \frac{i}{\cancel{a^2}} \left[ \frac{\cancel{a^2}}{\cancel{2}} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{a}{a} \right) \right] \\
 &= i \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$



# Line Integral Example (cont.)



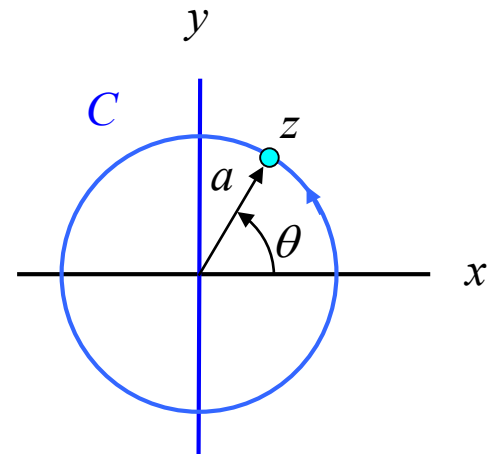
$$I = I_1 + I_2 = i\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + i\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

Hence

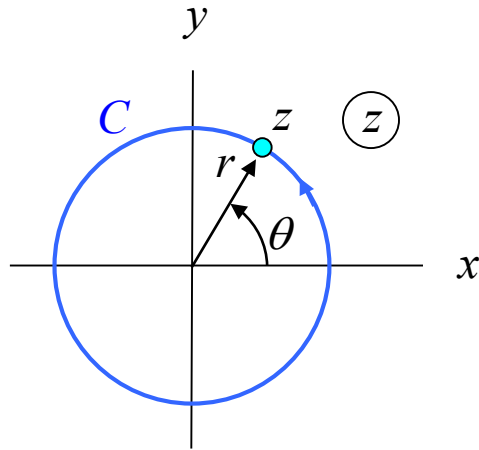
$$I = i\pi$$

**Note:** By symmetry (compare  $z$  and  $-z$ , and compare  $dz$ ), we also have:

$$\oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i$$



# Line Integral Example



◇ Evaluate  $\oint_C z^n dz$  : where

$$C : x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$$

$$\Rightarrow z = r \cos \theta + i r \sin \theta = r e^{i\theta},$$

$$\Rightarrow dz = r i e^{i\theta} d\theta,$$

$$\Rightarrow \oint_C z^n dz = \int_0^{2\pi} (r e^{i\theta})^n r i e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$= i r^{n+1} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i\theta(n+1)} d\theta = i r^{n+1} \left. \frac{e^{i\theta(n+1)}}{i(n+1)} \right|_0^{2\pi} \quad (n \neq -1)$$

$$= r^{n+1} \frac{e^{i2\pi(n+1)} - 1}{(n+1)} = \begin{cases} 0, & n \neq -1 \\ 2\pi i, & n = -1 \end{cases}$$

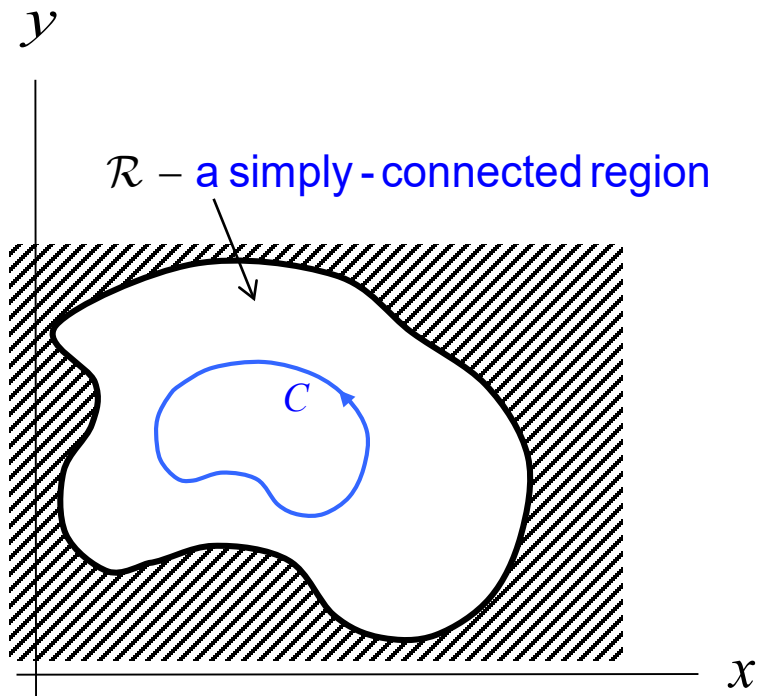
This is a useful result, and it is used to prove the “residue theorem”.

**Note:** For  $n = -1$ , we can use the result on slide 9 (or just evaluate the integral in  $\theta$  directly).

# Cauchy's Theorem

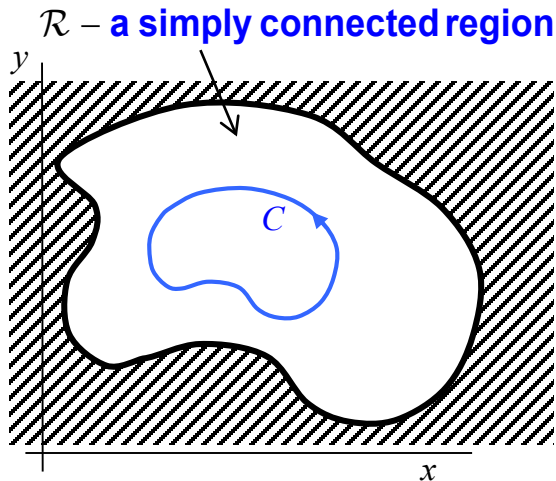
**Cauchy's theorem:**

If  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $\mathcal{R}$  then  $\oint_C f(z) dz = 0$



A "simply-connected" region means that there are no "holes" in the region. (Any closed path can be shrunk down to zero size.)

# Proof of Cauchy's Theorem



□ First, note that (from slide 3) if  $f(z) = w = u + iv$ , then

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \oint_C u dx - v dy + i \oint_C v dx + u dy ;$$

then use Stokes's theorem (see below).

- Construct 2D vectors  $\underline{A} = u\hat{x} - v\hat{y}$ ,  $\underline{B} = v\hat{x} + u\hat{y}$ ,  $d\underline{r} = dx\hat{x} + dy\hat{y}$  in the  $xy$  – plane and write the integral above as

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \oint_C \underline{A} \cdot d\underline{r} + i \oint_C \underline{B} \cdot d\underline{r} \stackrel{\text{Stokes's Theorem}}{=} \int_{\text{interior of } C} (\nabla \times \underline{A}) \cdot \hat{z} dS + i \int_{\text{interior of } C} (\nabla \times \underline{B}) \cdot \hat{z} dS, \text{ but}$$

$$\hat{z} \cdot (\nabla \times \underline{A}) = \hat{z} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} \hat{x} & \hat{y} & \hat{z} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ u & -v & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \stackrel{\text{C.R. cond's}}{=} 0, \quad \hat{z} \cdot (\nabla \times \underline{B}) = \hat{z} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} \hat{x} & \hat{y} & \hat{z} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ v & u & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \stackrel{\text{C.R. cond's}}{=} 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\oint_C f(z) dz = 0}$$

# Proof of Cauchy's Theorem (cont.)

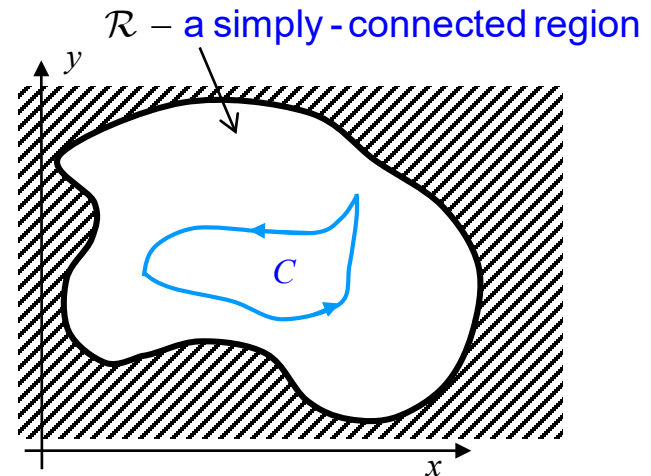
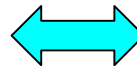
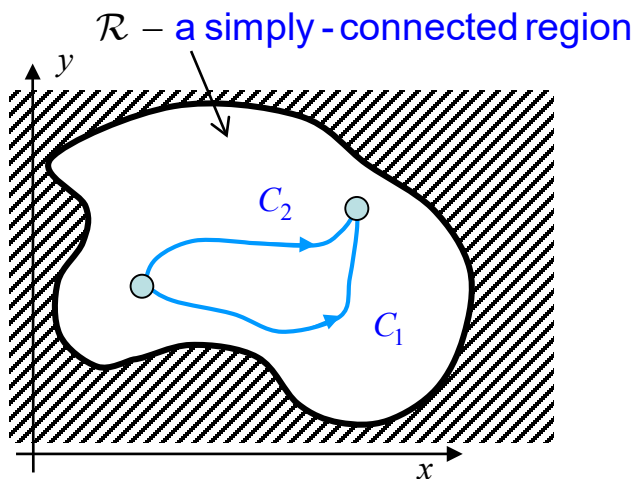
## Some comments:

- The proof using Stokes's theorem requires that  $u(x, y), v(x, y)$  have continuous first derivatives and that  $C$  be smooth.
- The Goursat proof removes these restrictions; hence the theorem is often called the *Cauchy - Goursat theorem*.

# Cauchy's Theorem and Path Independence

$$f(z) \text{ is analytic} \Rightarrow \oint_C f(z) dz = 0$$

- This implies that the line integral between any two points is *independent of the path*, as long as the function is analytic in the region enclosed by the paths.

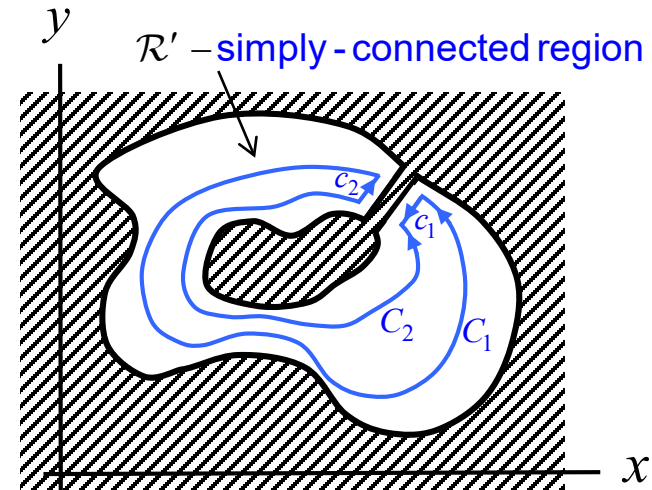
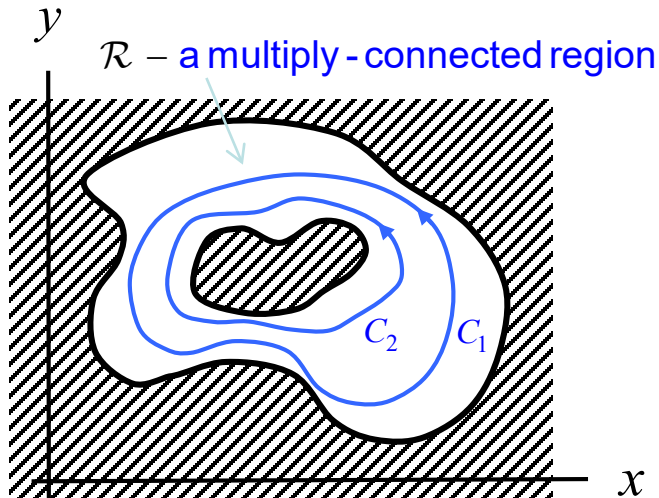


$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \int_{C_1} f(z) dz - \int_{C_2} f(z) dz = 0$$



$$\int_{C_1} f(z) dz = \int_{C_2} f(z) dz$$

# Extension of Cauchy's Theorem to Multiply-Connected Regions



- If  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $\mathcal{R}$  then  $\oint_{C_{1,2}} f(z) dz \neq 0$  in general.
- Introduce an infinitesimal - width "bridge" to make  $\mathcal{R}$  into a simply connected region  $\mathcal{R}'$

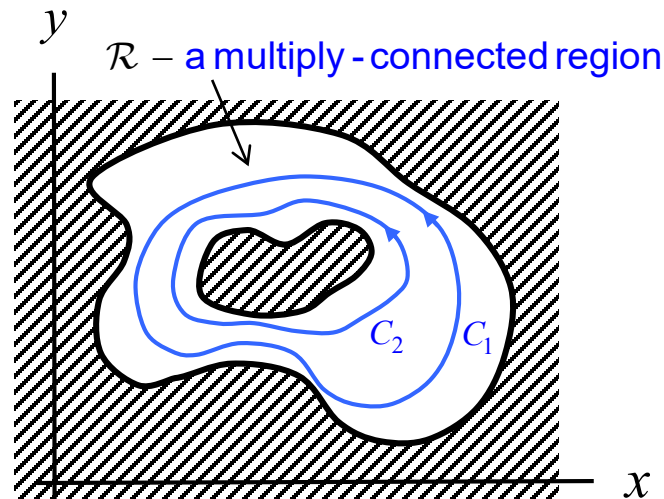
$$\oint_{C_1 - C_2 + \cancel{C_1} + \cancel{C_2}} f(z) dz = \oint_{C_1} f(z) dz - \oint_{C_2} f(z) dz = 0 \quad \text{since integrals along } c_1, c_2 \text{ are in}$$

opposite directions and thus cancel  $\Rightarrow \oint_{C_1} f(z) dz = \oint_{C_2} f(z) dz$

**Note:** The closed path integrals on  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are not usually zero!

# Extension of Cauchy's Theorem to Multiply-Connected Regions

## Summary: Result for a multiply-connected region



**Note:**  
The path cannot be shrunk down farther than the boundary of the "island".

$$\oint_{C_1} f(z) dz = \oint_{C_2} f(z) dz$$

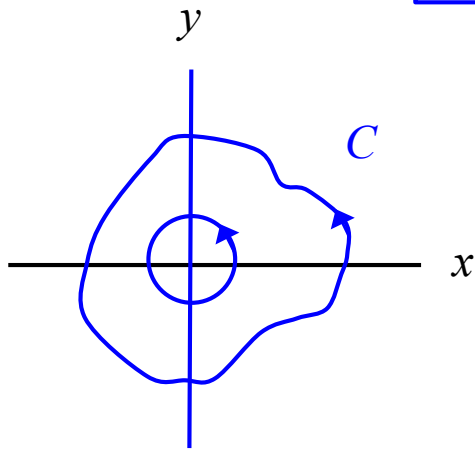


# Extension of Cauchy's Theorem to Multiply-Connected Regions (cont.)

◇ Example :

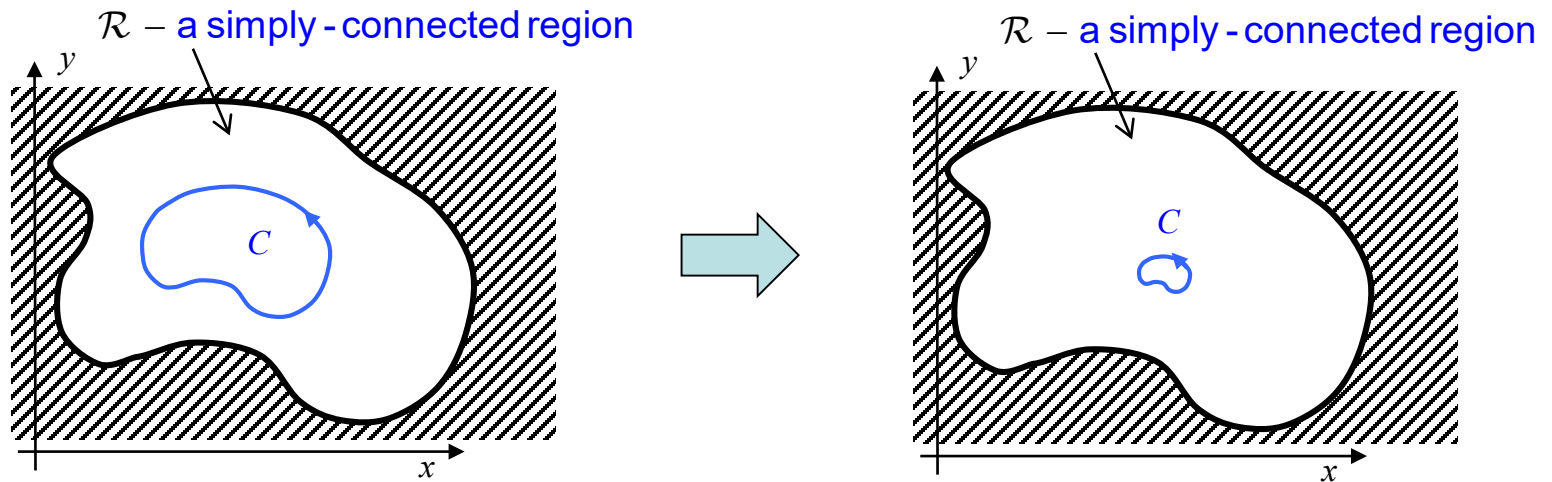
$$\oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i$$

The integral around the arbitrary closed path  $C$  must give the same result as the integral around the circle (and we already know the answer for the circle).



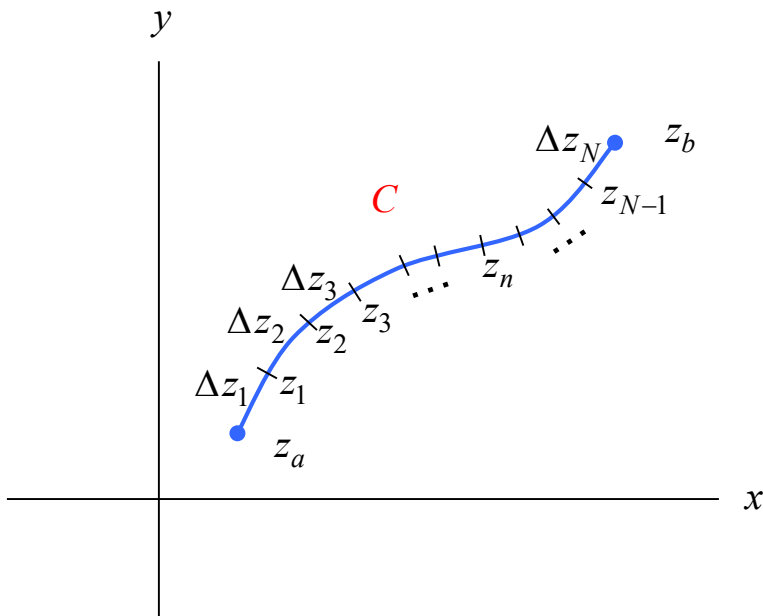
# Cauchy's Theorem, Revisited

- ❖ If a function is analytic everywhere in a simply connected region, we can shrink down the path to zero size, which verifies that the line integral around a closed path in the region must be zero (since the integrand must be continuous and hence finite in the region).



Shrink the path down.

# Fundamental Theorem of the Calculus of Complex Variables



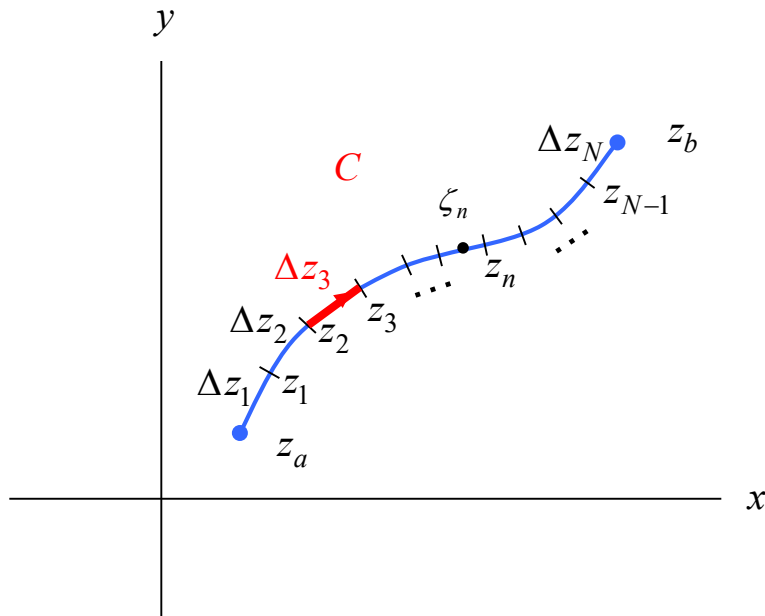
This is an extension of the same theorem in calculus (for real functions) to complex functions.

Assume that  $f$  is analytic in a region  $\mathcal{R}$  containing the path  $C$ .

Suppose we can find  $F(z)$  such that  $F'(z) = \frac{dF}{dz} = f(z)$ :

$$\Rightarrow \int_{z_a}^{z_b} f(z) dz = F(z_b) - F(z_a)$$

# Fundamental Theorem of the Calculus of Complex Variables (cont.)



## Proof

### Recall:

The integral is path independent  
if  $f(z)$  is analytic on paths from  $z_a$  to  $z_b$ .

**Choose a particular path  $C$ .**

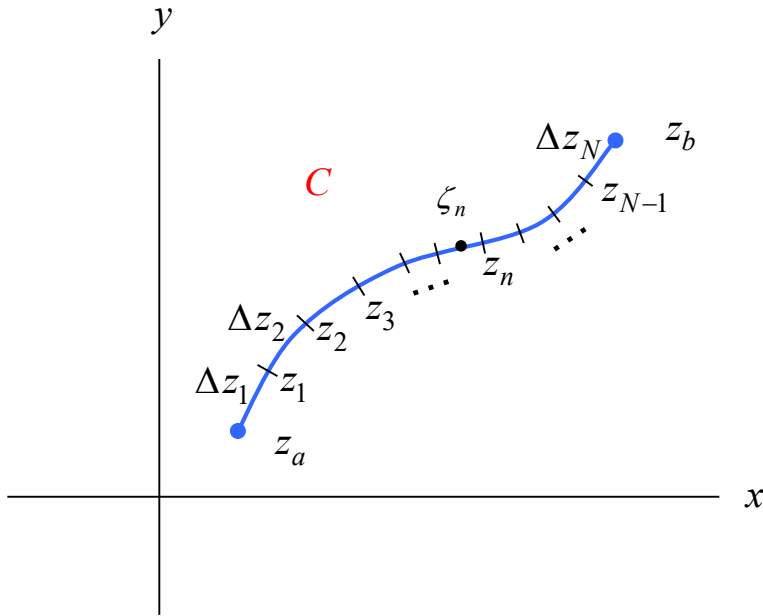
On this path:

$$\int_{z_a}^{z_b} f(z) dz \equiv \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N f(\zeta_n) \Delta z_n, \quad \Delta z_n = z_n - z_{n-1},$$

$\zeta_n$  on  $C$  between  $z_{n-1}$  and  $z_n$  (definition of line integral).

# Fundamental Theorem of the Calculus of Complex Variables (cont.)

## Proof (cont.)



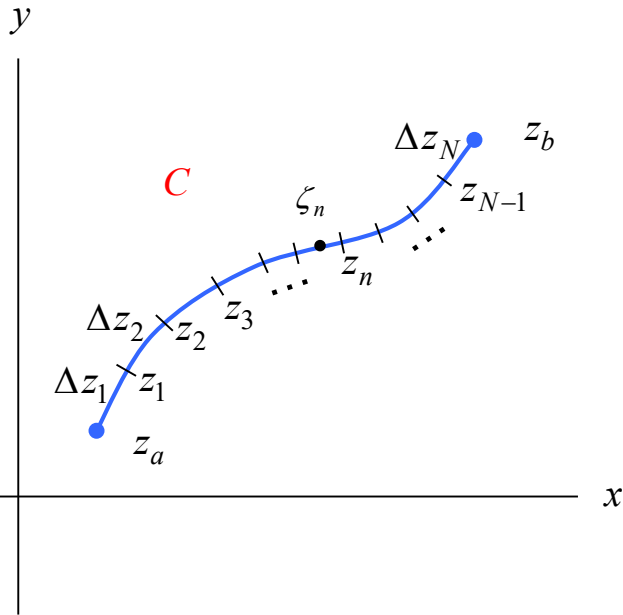
- Assume  $F'(z) = \frac{dF}{dz} = f(z)$ ;

Hence  $f(\zeta_n) = F'(\zeta_n) \approx \frac{\Delta F_n}{\Delta z_n} = \frac{F(z_n) - F(z_{n-1})}{\Delta z_n}$

**Note:** The error in this approximation is proportional to  $|\Delta z|$  (see next slide).

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \int_{z_a}^{z_b} f(z) dz &= \lim_{\Delta z_n \rightarrow 0} \sum_{n=1}^N f(\zeta_n) \Delta z_n = \lim_{\Delta z_n \rightarrow 0} \sum_{n=1}^N F'(\zeta_n) \Delta z_n = \lim_{\Delta z_n \rightarrow 0} \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\Delta F_n}{\Delta z_n} \Delta z_n \\ &= \lim_{\Delta z_n \rightarrow 0} \left[ \cancel{F(z_1)} - \cancel{F(z_a)} \right] + \left[ \cancel{F(z_2)} - \cancel{F(z_1)} \right] + \left[ \cancel{F(z_3)} - \cancel{F(z_2)} \right] + \dots - \dots \\ &\quad + \dots + \left[ \cancel{F(z_{N-1})} - \cancel{F(z_{N-2})} \right] + \left[ F(z_b) - \cancel{F(z_{N-1})} \right] \\ &= F(z_b) - F(z_a) \text{ (path independent if } f(z) \text{ is analytic on paths from } z_a \text{ to } z_b \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

# Fundamental Theorem of the Calculus of Complex Variables (cont.)



Examination of Error in Approximation:

$$F'(\zeta_n) \approx \frac{F(z_n) - F(z_{n-1})}{\Delta z_n}$$

Use Taylor series:

$$F(z_n) = F(\zeta_n) + F'(\zeta_n)(z_n - \zeta_n) + \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_n - \zeta_n)^2 + \dots$$

$$F(z_{n-1}) = F(\zeta_n) + F'(\zeta_n)(z_{n-1} - \zeta_n) + \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_{n-1} - \zeta_n)^2 + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} F(z_n) - F(z_{n-1}) &= \cancel{F(\zeta_n)} + F'(\zeta_n)(z_n - \zeta_n) + \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_n - \zeta_n)^2 + \dots \\ &\quad - \cancel{F(\zeta_n)} + F'(\zeta_n)(z_{n-1} - \zeta_n) + \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_{n-1} - \zeta_n)^2 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{F(z_n) - F(z_{n-1})}{\Delta z_n} = \frac{F'(\zeta_n)(z_n - z_{n-1})}{\Delta z_n} + \frac{1}{\Delta z_n} \left[ \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_n - \zeta_n)^2 - \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_{n-1} - \zeta_n)^2 \right] + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{F(z_n) - F(z_{n-1})}{\Delta z_n} = F'(\zeta_n) + \underbrace{\frac{1}{\Delta z_n} \left[ \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_n - \zeta_n)^2 - \frac{1}{2}F''(\zeta_n)(z_{n-1} - \zeta_n)^2 \right]}_{\propto (\Delta z_n)^2} + \dots$$

# Fundamental Theorem of the Calculus of Complex Variables (cont.)

## Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

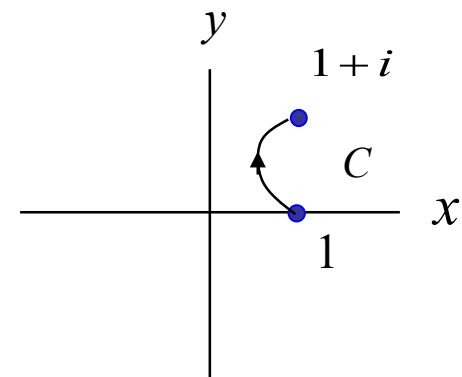
$$\int_{z_a}^{z_b} f(z) dz = F(z_b) - F(z_a)$$

- This permits us to make use of *indefinite integrals* :

$$\int z^n dz = \frac{z^{n+1}}{n+1}, \quad \int \sin z dz = -\cos z, \quad \int e^{az} dz = \frac{e^{az}}{a}, \quad \text{etc.}$$

### Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^{1+i} \sin(z) dz &= -\cos(z) \Big|_1^{1+i} = \cos(1) - \cos(1+i) \\ &= 0.540302 - (0.833730 + i(0.988898)) \\ &= -0.293428 + i(-0.988898) \end{aligned}$$



(This result is path independent since sin is analytic everywhere!)

# Fundamental Theorem of the Calculus of Complex Variables (cont.)

Consider this integral:

$$\int_{z_0}^z f(z) dz = F(z) - F(z_0) \quad \Rightarrow \quad F(z) = \int_{z_0}^z f(z) dz + F(z_0)$$

Consider two different indefinite integrals:

$$F_1(z) = \int_{z_1}^z f(\zeta) d\zeta + F_1(z_1) \quad \text{for arbitrary } z_1$$

$$F_2(z) = \int_{z_2}^z f(\zeta) d\zeta + F_2(z_2) \quad \text{for arbitrary } z_2$$

$$\Rightarrow F_2(z) - F_1(z) = \int_{z_2}^{z_1} f(\zeta) d\zeta + F_2(z_2) - F_1(z_1) = \text{constant}$$

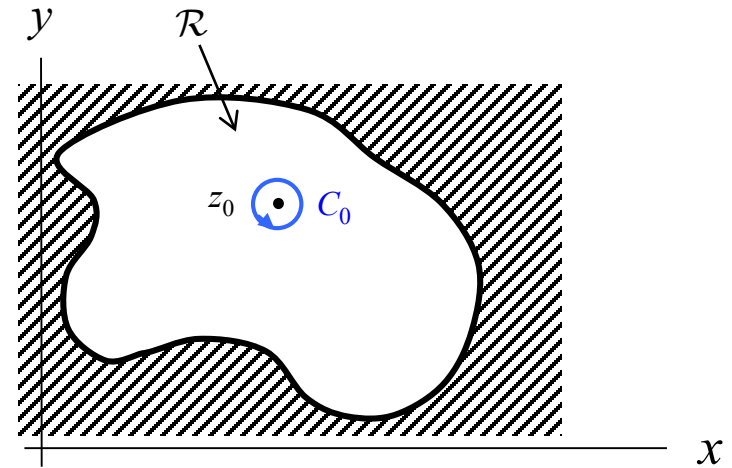
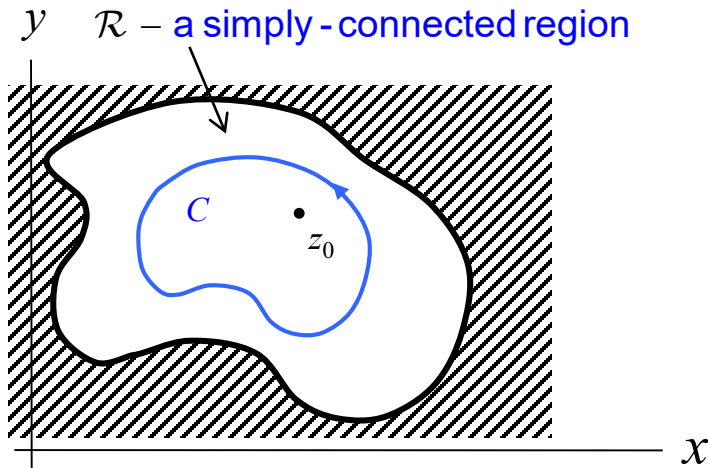
↑ This integral is some constant.



**All indefinite integrals can only differ by a (complex) constant.**



# Cauchy Integral Formula



- $f(z)$  is assumed analytic in  $\mathcal{R}$  but we multiply by a factor  $\frac{1}{(z - z_0)}$  (which is analytic except at  $z_0$ ) and consider the following integral around  $C$ :

$$I = \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)} dz$$

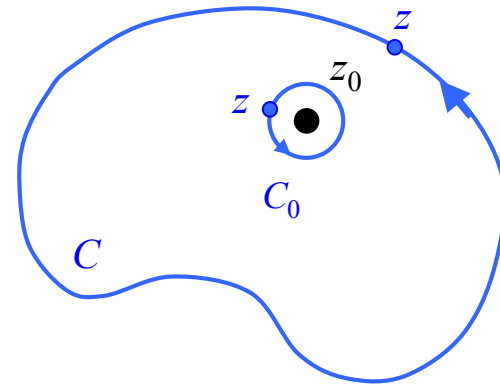
- To evaluate this, shrink that path to a small circular path  $C_0$  as shown:

$$\int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = \int_{C_0} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz$$

# Cauchy Integral Formula (cont.)

We have:

$$\int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = \int_{C_0} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz$$



- Evaluate the  $C_0$  integral on a small circular path,  $z - z_0 = re^{i\theta}$ ,  $dz = rie^{i\theta} d\theta$  :

$$\int_{C_0} \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)} dz \stackrel{r \rightarrow 0}{=} f(z_0) \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\cancel{r} i e^{i\theta} d\theta}{\cancel{r} e^{i\theta}} = 2\pi i f(z_0) \text{ for } r \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = 2\pi i f(z_0) \Rightarrow \boxed{f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz} \quad \text{Cauchy Integral Formula}$$

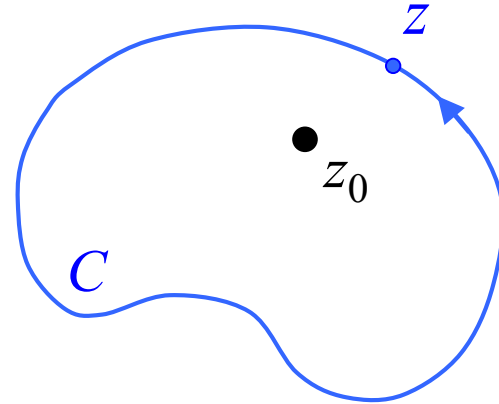
- Note the *remarkable* result :

The value of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$  is completely determined by its values on  $C$ !

# Cauchy Integral Formula (cont.)

## Summary of Cauchy Integral Formula:

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



Another way to write it:

$$f(z) = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z')}{z - z'} dz'$$

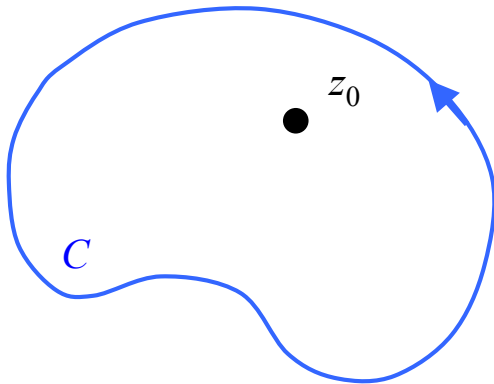
The Cauchy integral formula is useful for many purposes in complex variable theory.

# Cauchy Integral Formula (cont.)

- Note that if  $z_0$  is outside  $C$ , the integrand is analytic inside  $C$ ; hence by the Cauchy's theorem, we have

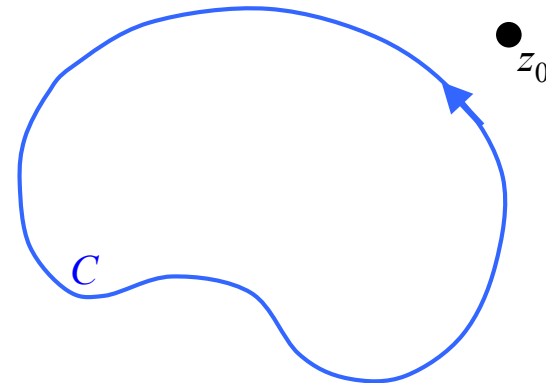
$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = 0$$

$z_0$  is inside  $C$



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

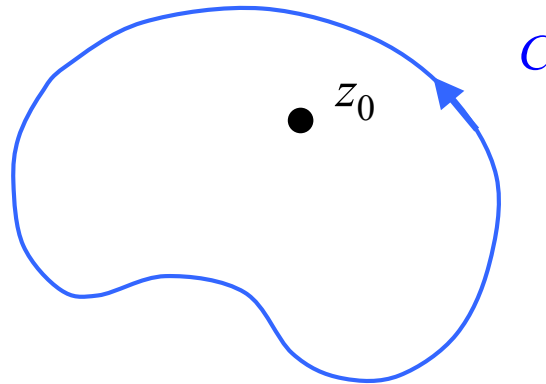
$z_0$  is outside  $C$



$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = 0$$

# Cauchy Integral Formula (cont.)

## Cauchy Integral Formula: Summary of Both Cases:

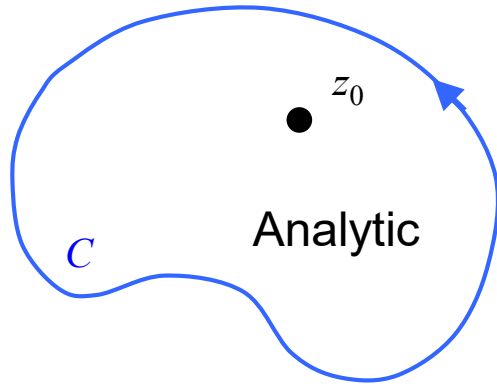


$$\oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = \begin{cases} 2\pi i f(z_0), & z_0 \text{ inside } C \\ 0, & z_0 \text{ outside } C \end{cases}$$

### Application:

This gives us a numerical way to determine if a point is inside of a region: just set  $f(z) = 1$ .

# Derivative Formulas



Since  $f$  is analytic inside  $C$ , we can start with the Cauchy integral formula:

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz \quad (\text{Note } z_0 \text{ is inside } C.)$$

$$f(z_0 + \Delta z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0 - \Delta z} dz$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z} = \frac{1}{2\pi i \Delta z} \oint_C \left( \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0 - \Delta z} - \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} \right) dz$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i \cancel{\Delta z}} \oint_C f(z) \left( \frac{\cancel{\Delta z}}{(z - z_0 - \Delta z)(z - z_0)} \right) dz$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + \Delta z) - f(z_0)}{\Delta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) \left( \frac{1}{(z - z_0 - \Delta z)(z - z_0)} \right) dz$$



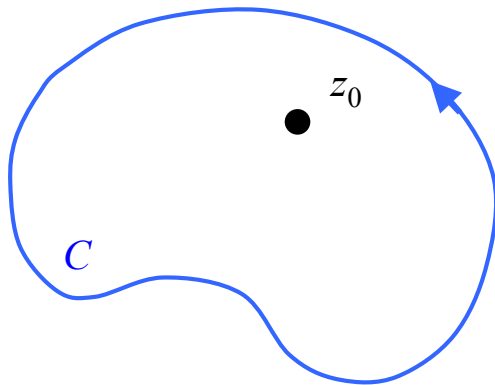
$$f'(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^2} dz$$

**Note:** We have proved that you can differentiate w.r.t.  $z_0$  under the integral sign!

# Derivative Formulas (cont.)

Similarly (derivation omitted):

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



$f(z)$  analytic in a simply connected region containing  $C$

In general:

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) \frac{d^n}{dz_0^n} \left( \frac{1}{z-z_0} \right) dz$$

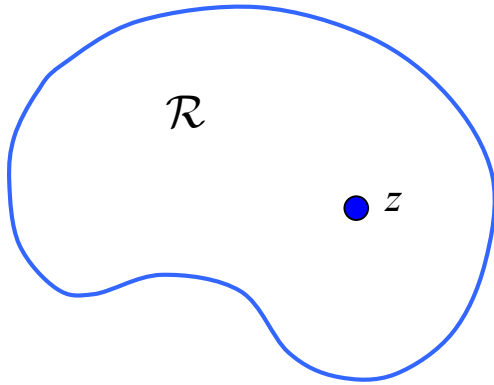


$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

If  $f$  is analytic in a region, then all of the derivatives exist, and hence all of the derivatives are analytic as well.

**Note:** All derivatives can be determined from  $f$  on the boundary!

# Morera's Theorem



If a function  $f(z)$  is continuous in a simply - connected region  $\mathcal{R}$  and

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

for **every** closed contour  $C$  within  $\mathcal{R}$ , then  $f(z)$  is analytic throughout  $\mathcal{R}$ .

- **Cauchy's Theorem** : If  $f(z)$  is analytic in a simply - connected region  $\mathcal{R}$  then

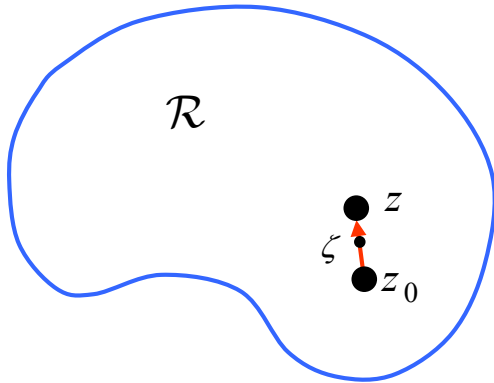
$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 0, \quad C \text{ in } \mathcal{R}.$$

- **Morera's Theorem** : If a function  $f(z)$  is continuous in a simply - connected region  $\mathcal{R}$  and  $\oint_C f(z) dz = 0$  for every closed contour  $C$  within  $\mathcal{R}$ , then  $f(z)$  is analytic throughout  $\mathcal{R}$ .

- These theorems are converses of one another!



# Proof of Morera's Theorem



Assume that the function  $f(z)$  is continuous in a region  $\mathcal{R}$  and

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

for **every** closed contour  $C$  within  $\mathcal{R}$ .

**Note:**  $f$  will be analytic if we can prove its derivative exists!

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 0 \Rightarrow \int_{z_0}^z f(\zeta) d\zeta \text{ is path independent, so define } F(z) \equiv \int_{z_0}^z f(\zeta) d\zeta.$$

Note that

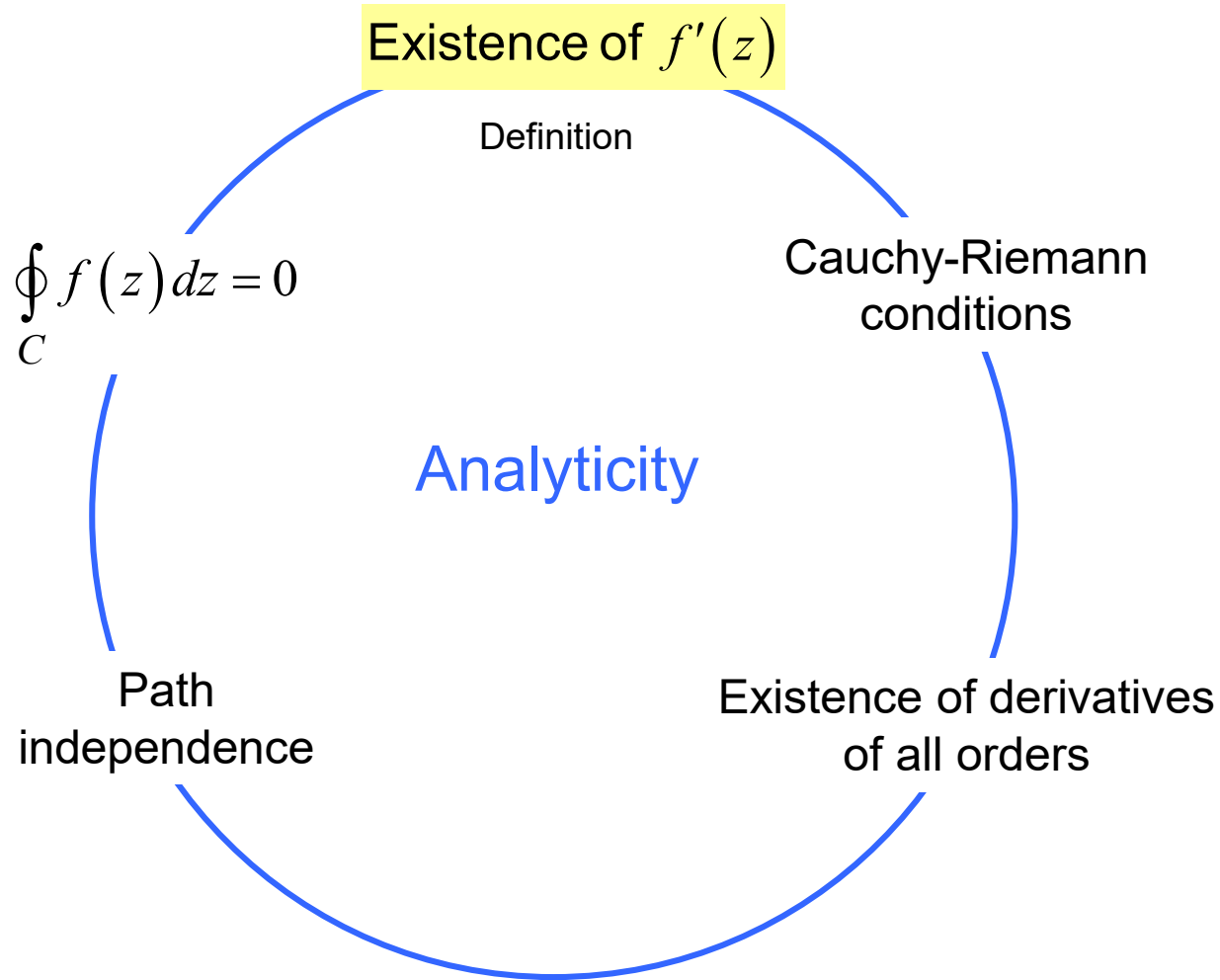
$$F(z) - \cancel{F(z_0)} = \int_{z_0}^z f(\zeta) d\zeta \Rightarrow \frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} = \frac{1}{z - z_0} \int_{z_0}^z f(\zeta) d\zeta$$

**Note :** We can choose a small straight-line path between the two points since the integral is path independent. Along this small path,  $f$  is almost constant (from continuity of  $f$ ).

$$\frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} = \frac{1}{z - z_0} \int_{z_0}^z f(\zeta) d\zeta \xrightarrow{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z_0)}{\cancel{z - z_0}} \int_{z_0}^z d\zeta = \frac{f(z_0)}{\cancel{z - z_0}} (\cancel{z - z_0}) = f(z_0)$$

$\Rightarrow F'(z_0) = f(z_0)$ . Hence  $F$  is analytic at any  $z_0$  in  $\mathcal{R}$  (its derivative exists). But then so are all its derivatives. Thus  $F'$  is analytic at  $z_0$ . But  $F' = f$ . Hence,  $f$  is analytic at  $z_0$ .

# Properties of Analytic Functions



# Cauchy's Inequality

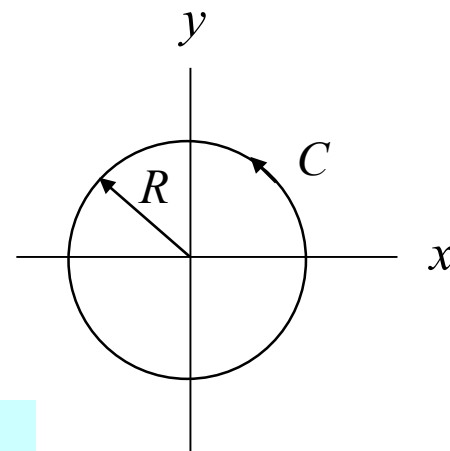
□ Suppose  $f(z)$ :

(a) is bounded ( $|f(z)| < M$ ) on the circle of radius  $R$

(b) has a convergent power series representation:

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n \quad (\text{see note below})$$

inside (and on) the circle of radius  $R$ .



Then

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{M}{R^n}.$$

Consider this integral:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{|z|=R} \frac{f(z)}{z^{m+1}} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_{|z|=R} z^{n-m-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{|z|=R} z^{-1} dz = ia_m \quad (\text{This is from the previous line integral example, where } n-m-1 = -1.)$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_m| = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left| \int_{|z|=R} \frac{f(z)}{z^{m+1}} dz \right| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{|z|=R} \frac{|f(z)|}{|z^{m+1}|} |dz| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{M}{R^{m+1}} R d\theta = \frac{M}{R^m}$$

$$\stackrel{m \rightarrow n}{\Rightarrow} \boxed{|a_n| \leq \frac{M}{R^n}}, \quad M \equiv \max_{|z|=R} |f(z)|$$

**Note:** If a function is analytic within and on the circle, then it must have a convergent power (Taylor) series expansion within and on the circle (proven later).

# Liouville's Theorem

If  $f(z)$  is analytic and bounded in the entire complex plane, it is a constant.

Because it is analytic in the entire complex plane,  $f(z)$  will have a power (Taylor) series that converges everywhere (proven later).

## Proof

By the Cauchy Inequality,

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{M}{R^n}, \text{ for any } R \text{ (so let } R \rightarrow \infty)$$

$$\Rightarrow a_n = 0, \quad n \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = a_0$$

↓

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$$

$\Rightarrow$  No "interesting" (i.e., non - constant) function  $f(z)$  is analytic and bounded everywhere!

- $z^n$  is analytic everywhere but unbounded at infinity
- $\sin z, e^z$  are analytic everywhere but unbounded at infinity
- $\frac{1}{(z - z_0)^2}$  is bounded at infinity but is not analytic at  $z = z_0$

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

(This theorem is due to Gauss\*.)

The  $N$ th degree polynomial,  $P_N(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n z^n$ ,  $a_N \neq 0$ ,  $N > 0$ , has  $N$  (complex) roots.

As a corollary, an  $N^{\text{th}}$  degree polynomial can be written in factored form as

$$P_N(z) = a_N (z - z_1)(z - z_2) \cdots (z - z_N)$$

\* The theorem was first proven in Gauss's doctoral dissertation in 1799 using an algebraic method. The present proof, based on Liouville's theorem, was given by him later, in 1816.

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carl\\_Friedrich\\_Gauss](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carl_Friedrich_Gauss)

Carl Friedrich Gauss



A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading 'Gauss'.

(his signature)

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra (cont.)

## Proof (by contradiction)

- First assume the polynomial has *no* roots. Then  $\frac{1}{P_N(z)}$  is analytic everywhere and

bounded at  $\infty$  since  $\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{|P_N(z)|} = \lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{|a_N||z|^N} \rightarrow 0$ .

- But by Liouville's theorem, we then have that  $\frac{1}{P_N(z)}$  is a constant, contrary to our assumption  $N > 0$ .

- Hence  $P_N(z)$  must have at least one root, say at  $z = z_1$ . We can then write

$$P_N(z) = (z - z_1)P_{N-1}(z) \quad (\text{see note below}).$$

- Repeat the above procedure  $N - 1$  times (a total of  $N$  times) until we arrive at the conclusion that

$$P_N(z) = (z - z_1)(z - z_2) \cdots (z - z_N)P_0$$

where  $P_0(z) = P_0$  is a constant.

**Note:**

To verify this, we can use the method of “polynomial division” to construct the polynomial  $P_{N-1}(z)$  in terms of  $a_n$ . An example is given on the next slide.

# The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra (cont.)

## ◇ Example (polynomial division)

Assume a third - order polynomial  $P(z) = z^3 + a_2z^2 + a_1z + a_0$  has a root at  $z = z_1$ .

Show that  $P(z) = (z - z_1)(z^2 + b_1z + b_0)$ .

- Equate coefficients other than  $z^0$  :

$$z^2: a_2 = b_1 - z_1 \rightarrow b_1 = a_2 + z_1$$

$$z^1: a_1 = b_0 - b_1z_1 \rightarrow b_0 = a_1 + b_1z_1$$

- The difference between  $P(z)$  and  $(z - z_1)(z^2 + b_1z + b_0)$  must then be a constant.
- Since both terms vanish at  $z = z_1$ , this constant must be zero.

# Numerical Integration in the Complex Plane

Here we give some tips about numerically integrating in the complex plane.

$$I \equiv \int_a^b f(z) dz$$

One way is to parameterize the integral using  $z = z(t)$ :

$$I = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} f(z(t)) \left( \frac{dz}{dt} \right) dt \quad \begin{array}{l} t_a = t_0 \\ t_b = t_f \end{array}$$

so

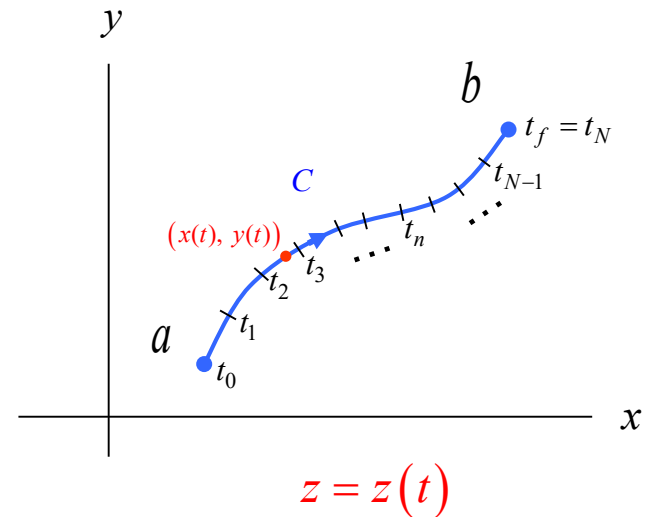
$$I = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} F(t) dt$$

where

$$F(t) \equiv f(z(t)) \left( \frac{dz}{dt} \right) = F_R(t) + iF_I(t)$$

$$I = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} F_R(t) dt + i \int_{t_a}^{t_b} F_I(t) dt$$

We assume a given function and a given path.





# Numerical Integration in the Complex Plane (cont.)

## Summary

$$I = \int_a^b f(z) dz = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} F(t) dt = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} F_R(t) dt + i \int_{t_a}^{t_b} F_I(t) dt$$

where

$$F(t) \equiv f(z(t)) \left( \frac{dz}{dt} \right) = F_R(t) + iF_I(t)$$

**Note:**

It is not always necessary to treat the real and imaginary parts of  $F$  separately; we can just allow  $F$  to be complex in most software.

The integrals in  $t$  can be preformed in the usual way, using any convenient scheme for integrating functions of a real variable (Simpson's rule, Gaussian Quadrature, Romberg method, etc.).

**Note:** The variable  $t$  can be  $x$ , or  $\theta$ , or any other convenient variable.

# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions

## Numerically Integrating Functions in a Region where they are Analytic

If the function  $f$  is analytic, then the integral is path independent. We can choose a straight-line path!

We explore how this works.

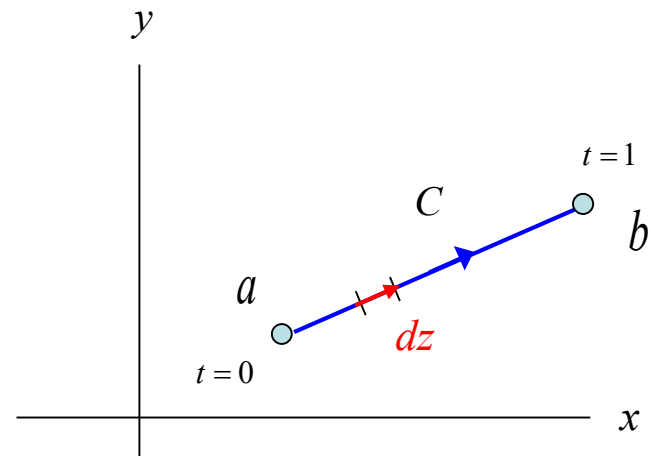
**Note:** If the path is piecewise linear, we simply add up the results from each linear part of the path.

$$z = a + (b - a)t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1$$

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = b - a$$

$$dz = (b - a)dt \Rightarrow |dz| = |b - a|dt, \quad \arg(dz) = \arg(b - a)$$

$$I \equiv \int_a^b f(z) dz = \int_0^1 f(z(t)) \frac{dz}{dt} dt = (b - a) \int_0^1 f(z(t)) dt$$



# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

## Summary:

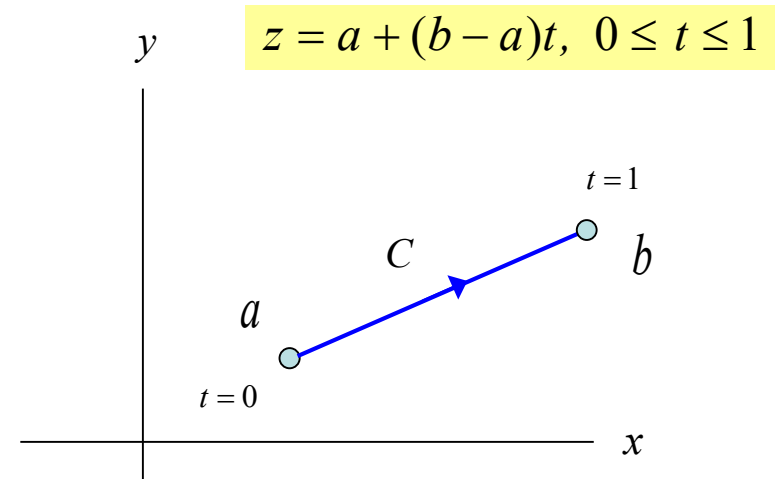
$$I = (b - a) \int_0^1 f(z(t)) dt$$

We can use any method that we wish to evaluate this integral along the real axis.

We can also break up the integral into real and imaginary parts if we wish\*:

$$I = (b - a) \int_0^1 \operatorname{Re} f(z(t)) dt + i(b - a) \int_0^1 \operatorname{Im} f(z(t)) dt$$

**Note:** The term  $b-a$  is complex!



\* This is usually not necessary for numerical integrations, since most software can handle complex functions.

# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

**Example:**

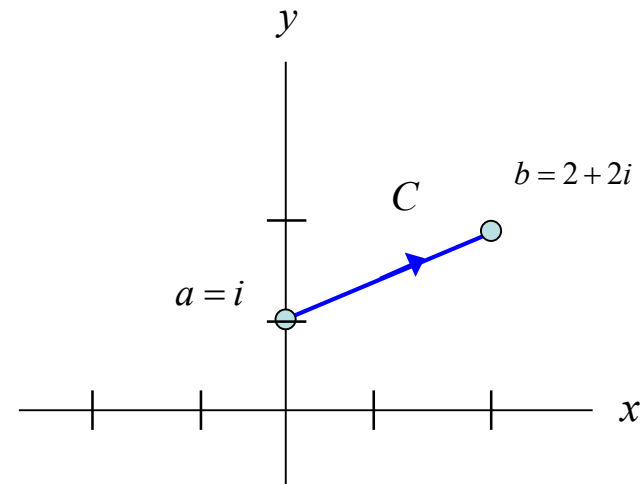
$$I = \int_a^b \sin(z) dz \quad a = i, \quad b = 2 + 2i$$

$$z = a + (b - a)t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1$$

$$I = (b - a) \int_0^1 f(z(t)) dt$$



$$I = (2 + i) \int_0^1 \sin(i + (2 + i)t) dt$$



This integral can be evaluated using any numerical integration package.

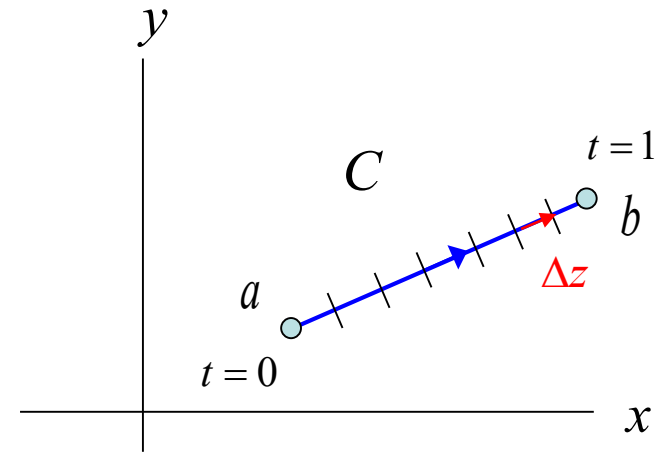
# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

## Uniform Partitioning

$$I = (b - a) \int_0^1 f(z(t)) dt$$

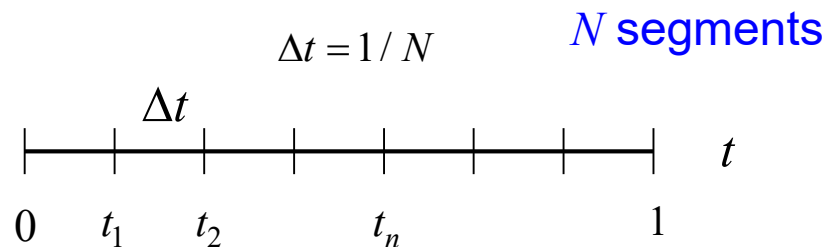
$$z = a + (b - a)t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1$$

**Note:** If we partition uniformly in  $t$ , then we are really partitioning uniformly along the line with  $\Delta z$ .



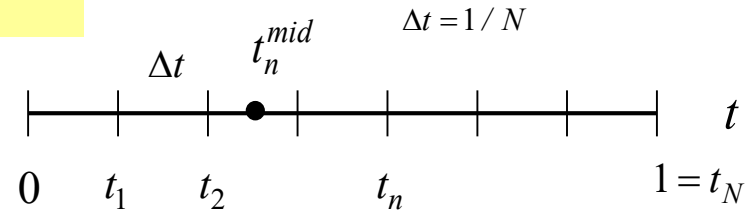
$$\Delta z = (b - a)\Delta t = (b - a) / N$$

(We don't have to partition uniformly, but we can if we wish.)



# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

$$I \equiv (b-a) \int_0^1 f(z(t)) dt$$



Uniform sampling (Midpoint rule):

$$I \approx (b-a) \sum_{n=1}^N f(z_n^{mid}) \Delta t$$

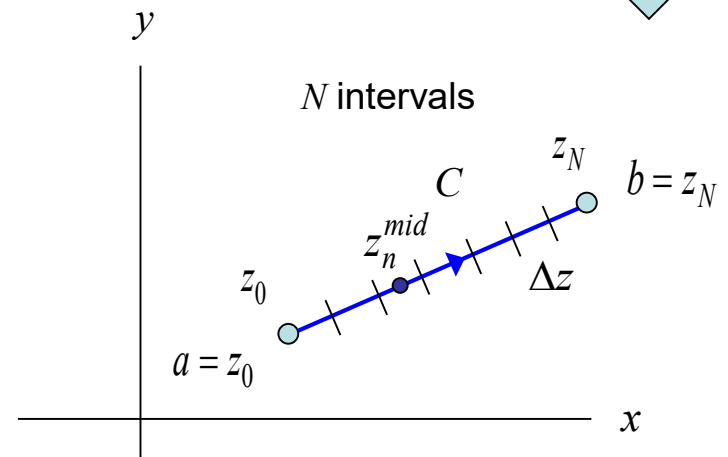
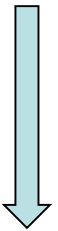
$$z_n^{mid} = a + (b-a)t_n^{mid}, \quad t_n^{mid} = \Delta t \left( n - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

Using  $\Delta z = (b-a)\Delta t \Rightarrow \Delta t = \Delta z / (b-a)$

we then have

$$I \approx \cancel{(b-a)} \sum_{n=1}^N f(z_n^{mid}) \frac{\Delta z}{\cancel{b-a}}$$

$$z = a + (b-a)t$$

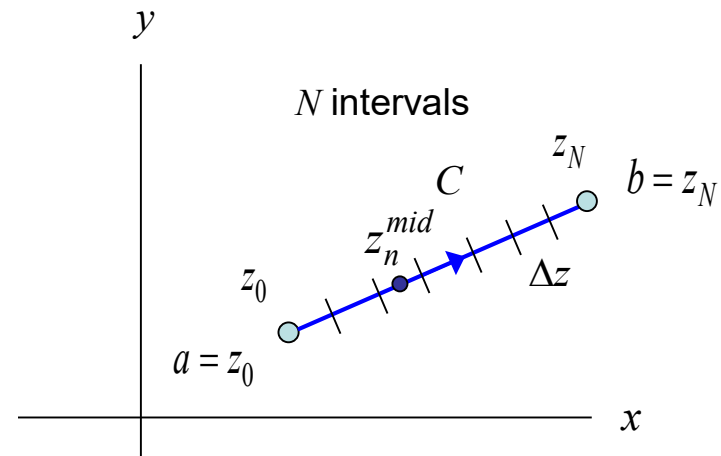


# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

$$I \approx \Delta z \sum_{n=1}^N f(z_n^{mid})$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} z_n^{mid} &= a + (b - a)t_n^{mid} \\ &= a + (b - a)\Delta t \left( n - \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &= a + (b - a) \frac{1}{N} \left( n - \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &= a + \Delta z \left( n - \frac{1}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$



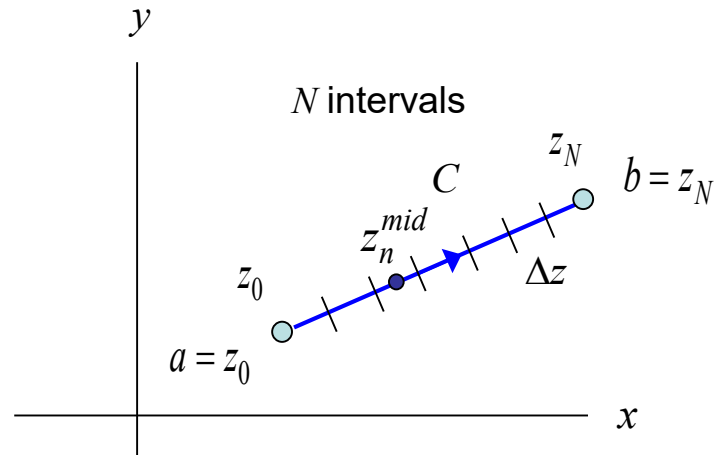
# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

## “Complex Midpoint rule”

$$I \approx \Delta z \sum_{n=1}^N f(z_n^{mid}) \quad \text{Error} \propto |\Delta z|^2$$

$$\Delta z = \frac{b-a}{N}$$

$$z_n^{mid} = a + \Delta z \left( n - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$



This is the same formula that we usually use for integrating a function along the real axis using the midpoint rule!  
(We essentially have a just rotation of the axis.)



# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

## “Complex Simpson’s rule”

$$I \approx \frac{\Delta z}{3} (f(z_0) + 4f(z_1) + 2f(z_2) + 4f(z_3) + 2f(z_4) + \dots + 4f(z_{N-1}) + f(z_N))$$

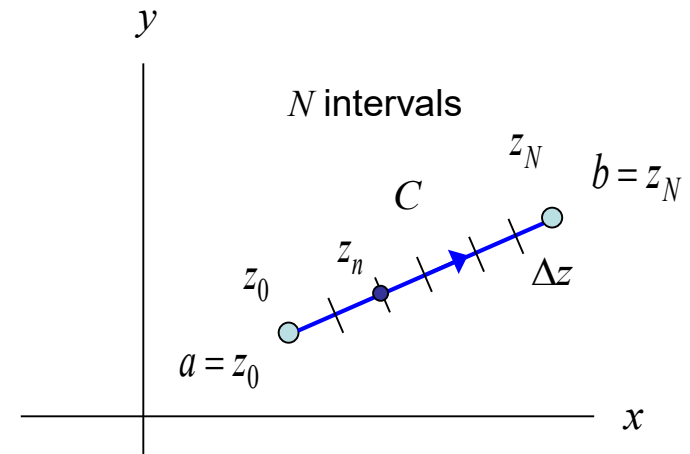
$$\text{Error} \propto |\Delta z|^4$$

$N$  = number of segments  
= even number

Number of sample points =  $N + 1$

$$z_n = a + (\Delta z)n, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N$$

$$\Delta z = \frac{b - a}{N}$$




# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

## 6-point Gaussian Quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^1 F(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^6 F(x_i) w_i$$

Use  $x' = \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right)x + \left(\frac{A+B}{2}\right) \quad x \in (-1,1) \Rightarrow x' \in (A,B)$

$$dx' = \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right) dx$$

  $\int_A^B f(x') dx' = \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right) \int_{-1}^1 F(x) dx \approx \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right) \sum_{i=1}^6 F(x_i) w_i = \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right) \sum_{i=1}^6 f(x'_i) w_i$

$$f(x') = F(x)$$

$$x'_i = \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right)x_i + \left(\frac{A+B}{2}\right) \leftarrow$$

Sample points

Weights

$$x_1 = -0.9324695$$

$$w_1 = 0.1713245$$

$$x_2 = -0.6612094$$

$$w_2 = 0.3607616$$

$$x_3 = -0.2386192$$

$$w_3 = 0.4679139$$

$$x_4 = 0.2386192$$

$$w_4 = 0.4679139$$

$$x_5 = 0.6612094$$

$$w_5 = 0.3607616$$

$$x_6 = 0.9324695$$

$$w_6 = 0.1713245$$

# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

## 6-point Gaussian Quadrature (cont.)

Use  $N$  intervals on larger (global) interval  $(a,b)$ :

$$I = \int_a^b f(x') dx' \approx \sum_{n=1}^N I_n$$

$$\int_A^B f(x') dx' = \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right) \sum_{i=1}^6 f(x'_i) w_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad I_n \approx \left(\frac{\Delta x'}{2}\right) \sum_{i=1}^6 f\left(x_n'^{mid} + x_i \frac{\Delta x}{2}\right) w_i$$

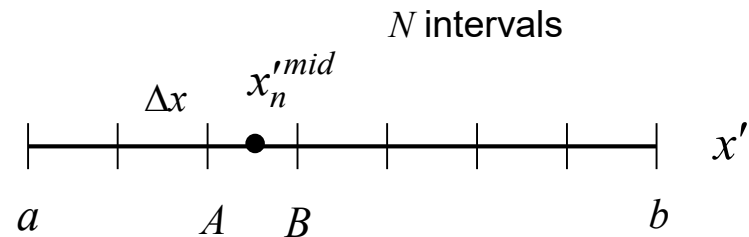
$$\text{Recall: } x'_i = \left(\frac{B-A}{2}\right) x_i + \left(\frac{A+B}{2}\right)$$

Sample points

Weights

$x_1 = -0.9324695$   
 $x_2 = -0.6612094$   
 $x_3 = -0.2386192$   
 $x_4 = 0.2386192$   
 $x_5 = 0.6612094$   
 $x_6 = 0.9324695$

$w_1 = 0.1713245$   
 $w_2 = 0.3607616$   
 $w_3 = 0.4679139$   
 $w_4 = 0.4679139$   
 $w_5 = 0.3607616$   
 $w_6 = 0.1713245$



# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

## “Complex Gaussian Quadrature”

$$I = \sum_{n=1}^N I_n$$

$$\text{Error} \propto |\Delta z|^{12}$$

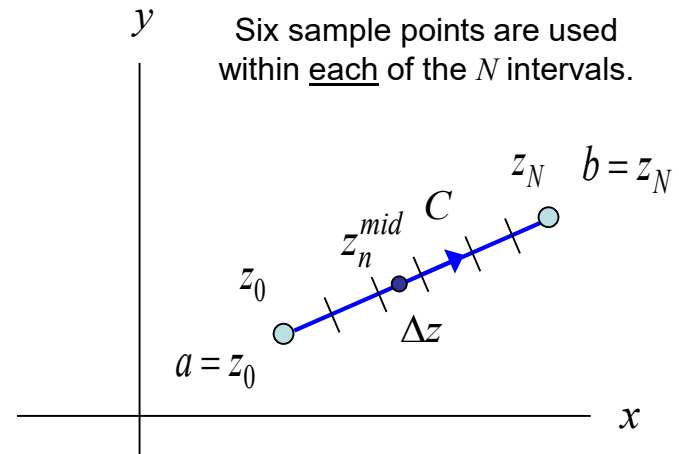
$$I_n \approx \left(\frac{\Delta z}{2}\right) \sum_{i=1}^6 f\left(z_n^{mid} + x_i \frac{\Delta z}{2}\right) w_i$$

(6-point Gaussian Quadrature)

$$z_n^{mid} = a + (\Delta z)(n - 1/2)$$

$N$  intervals

Six sample points are used within each of the  $N$  intervals.



Sample points	Weights
$x_1 = -0.9324695$	$w_1 = 0.1713245$
$x_2 = -0.6612094$	$w_2 = 0.3607616$
$x_3 = -0.2386192$	$w_3 = 0.4679139$
$x_4 = 0.2386192$	$w_4 = 0.4679139$
$x_5 = 0.6612094$	$w_5 = 0.3607616$
$x_6 = 0.9324695$	$w_6 = 0.1713245$

$$\Delta z = \frac{b - a}{N}$$

# Numerical Integration of Analytic Functions (cont.)

Here is an example of a piecewise linear path, used to calculate the electromagnetic field of a dipole source over the earth (Sommerfeld problem).

Gaussian quadrature (e.g., 6-point Gaussian quadrature) could be used on each of the linear segments of the path  $C$  (breaking each one up into  $N$  intervals as necessary to get good convergence).

