

MTH305

COMPLEX ANALYSIS II



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Series 1 Laurent Expansions, Isolated Singularities, and Residues

Series Outline

Part 1.1: Laurent Expansions

Definition of Laurent series

Derivation and examples

Region of convergence

Part 1.2: Isolated Singularities

Definition and classification (removable, pole, essential)

Behaviour near singularities

Worked examples

Part 1.3: Residues

Definition of residue

Methods of calculating residues (direct computation, limit method, coefficient extraction)

Illustrative examples

Part 1.4: Applications of Residues in Complex Functions

Connection between residues and singularities

Role of residues in contour integration

Preliminary applications leading into the residue theorem

Introduction

In everyday mathematics, we often encounter functions that behave smoothly across their domains. However, in complex analysis, certain functions exhibit points where they fail to be analytic, known as singularities. To study such behaviour, mathematicians developed the Laurent expansion, a powerful tool that allows us to represent functions near these points using series that include both positive and negative powers. This expansion provides a way to analyse and classify singularities, and to compute important quantities called residues, which play a central role in evaluating complex integrals.



The aim of this Series is to introduce you to Laurent expansions, isolated singularities, and residues, and to equip you with the skills needed to compute and interpret them in the study of complex functions. We shall commence this Series by examining the concept of Laurent expansions, including their definition, derivation, and regions of convergence. Next, we will explore isolated singularities, considering their classification into removable singularities, poles, and essential singularities. Following that, we will study residues, focusing on their definition and methods of calculation. Finally, we will conclude by discussing the applications of residues in complex functions, preparing the ground for the residue theorem in the next Series.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

- SLO 1.1 define the Laurent expansion and explain how it represents complex functions near singularities,
- SLO 1.2 analyse the region of convergence of a Laurent series and demonstrate its application with examples,
- SLO 1.3 classify isolated singularities into removable singularities, poles, and essential singularities, and explain their behaviour,
- SLO 1.4 define the concept of a residue and demonstrate methods of calculating residues using direct computation, limits, and coefficient extraction,
- SLO 1.5 evaluate the role of residues in complex functions and apply them to preliminary problems involving contour integration.

1.1 Laurent Expansions

The Laurent expansion is a representation of a complex function as a series that includes both positive and negative powers of the variable. Unlike the Taylor series, which only involves non-negative powers, the Laurent series allows us to study functions near points where they are not analytic, known as singularities. This makes it a powerful tool in complex analysis.

Fill in the blank: A Laurent series differs from a Taylor series because it includes _____ powers of the variable.

1.1.1 Definition of Laurent series

A Laurent series is defined as an infinite series of the form:



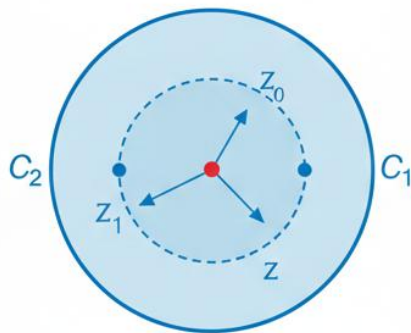
$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n$$

where z_0 is the centre of expansion and the coefficients a_n are complex numbers. The terms with negative powers are called the principal part, while those with non-negative powers form the regular part.

Laurent Series Expansion: Positive & Negative Powers

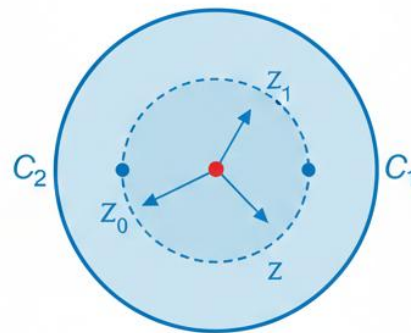
Series Representation in Complex Analysis

1. Analytic Part (Positive Powers)



$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n$$

2. Principal Part (Negative Powers)



$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^{-n}$$

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n (z - z_0)^{-n}$$

A Laurent series expands a complex function $f(z)$ around the point z_0 in an annulus. It consists of the analytic part with positive powers of $(z - z_0)$, which converges on a circle, and inner circle, and contains inside an outer circle. The full series converges in the region between C_1 and C_2 .



Structure of a Laurent series expansion

Fill in the blank: The terms with negative powers in a Laurent series are called the _____ part.



1.1.2 Derivation and examples

Laurent expansions can be derived using contour integration or by manipulating known series expansions. For example, the function

$$f(z) = 1/z(1-z)$$

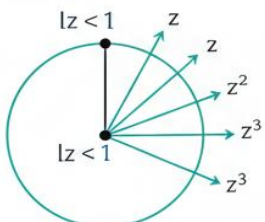
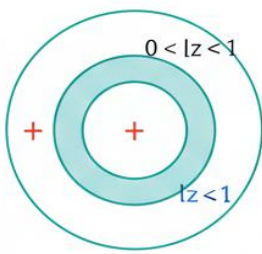
can be expanded around $z=0$ as:

$$f(z) = 1/z + 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots$$

Here, the term $1/z$ belongs to the principal part, while the remaining terms form the regular part.

Laurent Series Example: $f(z) = 1/z(1-z)$

Expansion Around $z=0$ & Regions of Convergence

1. Geometric Series for $1/(1-z)$  $1/(1-z) = 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots$	2. Laurent Series Expansion $f(z) = \frac{1/z}{1-z}$ $f(z) = \frac{1}{z} \left[1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots \right]$ $f(z) = \frac{1}{z} \quad \text{Principal Part (Negative Powers)}$ $f(z) = \frac{1}{z} + 1 + z + z^2 + \dots \quad \text{Analytic Part (Positive Powers) ...}$	3. Region of Convergence  Singularities at $z=0, z=1$ Series converges in the annulus $0 < z < 1$
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$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z} (1-z) = \frac{1}{z} + 1 + z + z^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=-1}^{\infty} z^n \quad \text{for } 0 < |z| < 1$$

This diagram illustrates the Laurent series expansion of $f(z) = 1/z(1-z)$. The function is broken into principal part with negative powers of z and analytic part the powers of z . The series converges in the annulus defined by the singularities at $z=0$ and $z=1$.

Example of Laurent expansion around $z = 0$

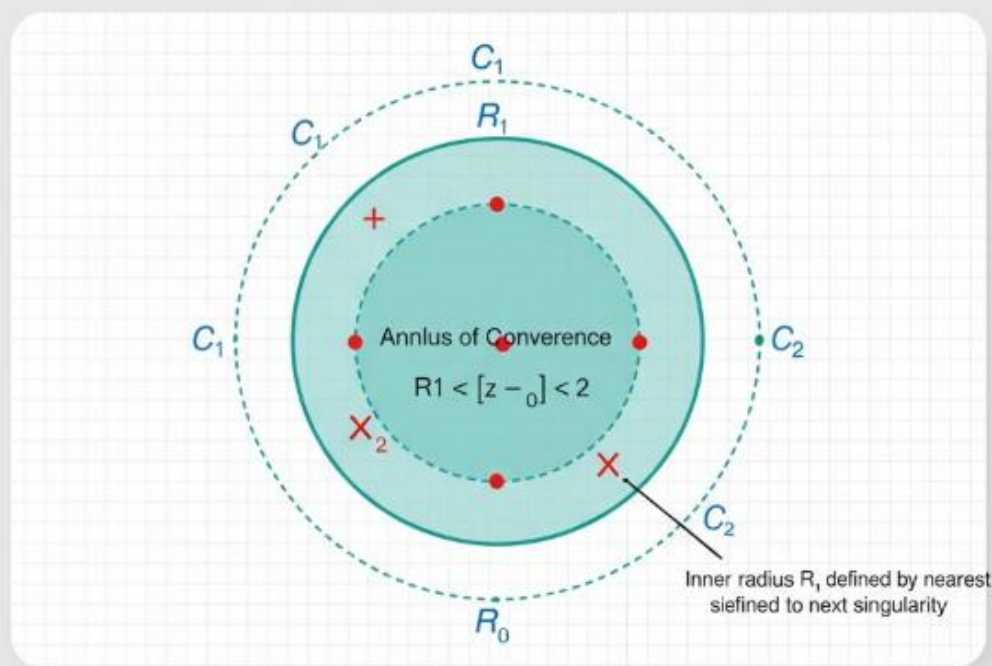
Fill in the blank: In the expansion of $f(z)=1z(1-z)$, the term $1z$ belongs to the _____ part.

1.1.3 Region of convergence

The region of convergence of a Laurent series is an annulus (ring-shaped region) around the point of expansion. Within this region, the series converges absolutely and uniformly. The inner radius corresponds to the nearest singularity inside, and the outer radius corresponds to the nearest singularity outside.

Laurent Series: Region of Convergence

The Annulus in a Complex Plane



$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{2^n} (z - z_0)^n \quad \text{for } R_1 < |z - z_0| < R_2$$

A Laurent series for complex function $f(z)$ centered at z_0 converges in the annulus between two concentric circles, defined by distance to the nearest singularity R_1 and the distance to the next singularity R_2 .



Region of convergence of a Laurent series



Fill in the blank: The region of convergence of a Laurent series is shaped like an _____ around the point of expansion.

Pilot questions 1.1

A Laurent series differs from a Taylor series because it includes: A. Only positive powers B. Negative powers C. No powers D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.1)

The terms with negative powers in a Laurent series are called the: A. Regular part B. Principal part C. Convergent part D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.1)

In the expansion of $f(z)=1z(1-z)$, the term $1z$ belongs to the: A. Regular part B. Principal part C. Convergent part D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.2)

The region of convergence of a Laurent series is shaped like: A. A circle B. An annulus C. A rectangle D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.2)

The coefficients of a Laurent series are: A. Real numbers only B. Complex numbers C. Integers D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.1)

1.2 Isolated Singularities

In complex analysis, certain points exist where a function ceases to be analytic. These points are called isolated singularities, defined as points where a function is not analytic but remains analytic in some punctured neighbourhood around them. Studying isolated singularities is crucial because they determine the behaviour of functions near problematic points and form the basis for residue theory.

Fill in the blank: An isolated singularity is a point where a function is not analytic but remains analytic in a _____ neighbourhood around it.

1.2.1 Definition and classification

There are three main types of isolated singularities:

Removable singularity: A point where the function is undefined, but can be redefined to make it analytic.

Pole: A point where the function tends to infinity as the variable approaches it. Poles are classified by order, depending on how rapidly the function diverges.

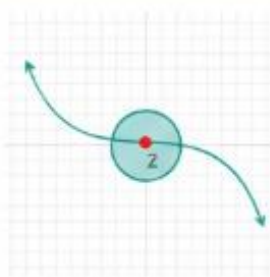


Essential singularity: A point where the function exhibits chaotic behaviour, with values clustering densely around the complex plane near the singularity.

Isolated Singularities in Classification with Examples

Series Representation in Complex Analysis

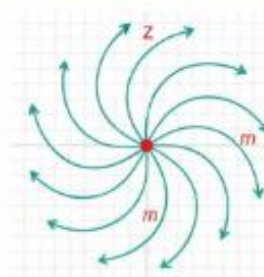
1. Removable Singularity



$$f(z) = \sin(z/z)$$

$\lim f = \text{exists at } z_0$.
 $\lim f$ exists at z_0 . Def to "fill" n to the hole.

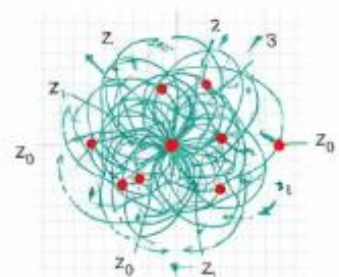
2. Poles (Order m)



$$f(z) = 1 - i \operatorname{order}_0^m$$

$\lim [= 1/(z) = \text{infinity at } z_0$.
 Dominant finisits
 finite number of negative powers.

3. Essential Singularity



$$f(z) = \text{behaves erratically}$$

$\lim f = 1$ NOT exist at 0_0 .
 Infinite number of negative negative powers.

A Isolated singularity is a point in the complex plane where a function is not analytic, but analytic in the neighborhood around it. The function has a Laurent series at its series z_0 . This concept is used in contour integration.



Classification of isolated singularities

Fill in the blank: A point where a function tends to infinity as the variable approaches it is called a _____.



1.2.2 Behaviour near singularities

The behaviour of a function near its singularities depends on the type:

Near a removable singularity, the function behaves smoothly once redefined.

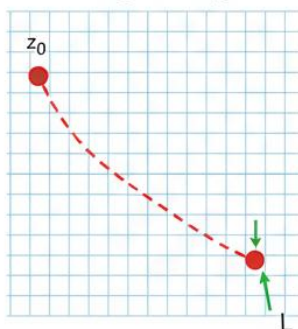
Near a pole, the function grows without bound, with the rate determined by the order of the pole.

Near an essential singularity, the function takes on values that are dense in the complex plane, as described by Picard's theorem.

Function Behavior Near Isolated Singularities

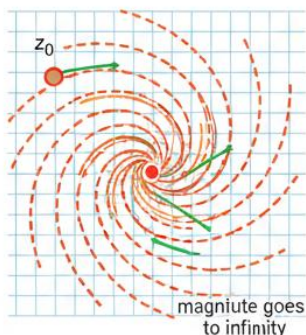
Visualizing Limits in Complex Analysis

1. Removable Singularity



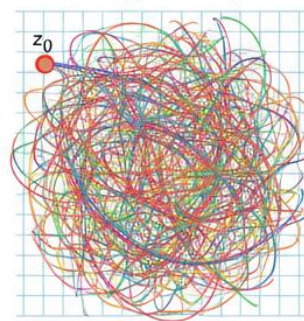
$f(z)$ has a limit at z_0 .
The
"hole" can be filled.

2. Pole (Order m)



$f(z)$ approaches infinity
as $z \rightarrow z_0$.
Function "blows up".

3. Essential Singularity



$f(z)$ has no limit at z_0 .
Behavior is chaotic
and unpredictable
near z_0
(Casorati-Weierstrass).

Isolated singularities define points where a complex function is not analytic but is analytic in the neighborhood around it. This diagram illustrates behavior (its limit) types for each singularity.

OER

Math & Physics
Source: OER Math & Physics

Behaviour of functions near isolated singularities ”



Fill in the blank: Near an essential singularity, the function takes on values that are _____ in the complex plane.

1.2.3 Worked examples

Example 1: Consider $f(z) = \sin z/z$. At $z=0$, the function is undefined, but redefining $f(0)=1$ makes it analytic. Thus, $z=0$ is a removable singularity.

Example 2: Consider $f(z) = 1/z^2$. At $z=0$, the function tends to infinity, and the singularity is a pole of order 2.

Example 3: Consider $f(z) = e^{1/z}$. At $z=0$, the function exhibits chaotic behaviour, making it an essential singularity.

Fill in the blank: The function $f(z) = e^{1/z}$ has an _____ singularity at $z=0$.

Pilot questions 1.2

An isolated singularity is a point where a function is: A. Analytic everywhere
B. Not analytic but analytic in a punctured neighbourhood C. Always infinite D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.3)

A point where a function can be redefined to make it analytic is called a: A. Pole B. Removable singularity C. Essential singularity D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.3)

A point where a function tends to infinity is called a: A. Removable singularity
B. Pole C. Essential singularity D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.3)

Near an essential singularity, the function takes on values that are: A. Finite B. Dense in the complex plane C. Zero D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.3)

The function $f(z) = 1/z^2$ has a singularity at $z=0$ which is a: A. Removable singularity B. Pole of order 2 C. Essential singularity D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.3)

1.3 Residues

The concept of residues is central to complex analysis. A residue is the coefficient of the $1/z$ term in the Laurent expansion of a function about a singularity z_0 . Residues allow us to evaluate complex integrals efficiently, especially when functions have singularities inside the contour of integration.

Fill in the blank: The residue of a function at a point is the coefficient of the _____ term in its Laurent expansion.



1.3.1 Definition of residue

For a function $f(z)$ with an isolated singularity at z_0 , the residue of f at z_0 is defined as:

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = a_{-1}$$

where a_{-1} is the coefficient of $(z - z_0)^{-1}$ in the Laurent expansion of $f(z)$ about z_0 .

Laurent Series Residue

The Coefficient of $(z - z_0)^{-1}$

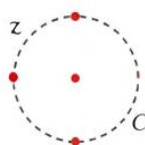
1. Laurent Series Expansion

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

↑
Residue: a_{-1}

2. Integral Definition

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



3. Example: $f(z) = e^z/z^2$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \left(1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots \right)$$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z} + \frac{z}{2} + \frac{z^2}{6} + \dots$$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z} + \frac{z}{2} + \frac{z^2}{6} + \dots$$

↑
Residue: $a_{-1} = 1$

The residue of a complex function $f(z)$ at an isolated singularity z_0 is the coefficient a_{-1} of the $(z - z_0)^{-1}$ term in its Laurent series expansion. It is the analysis. It is a complex concept in comments, crucial for the residue theorem and evaluating contour integrals.



Source: OER Math & Physics

Residue as the coefficient of the $(z - z_0)^{-1}$ term

1.3.2 Methods of calculating residues

There are several methods for computing residues:



Direct computation from Laurent expansion: Expand the function and identify the coefficient of $(z-z_0)^{-1}$.

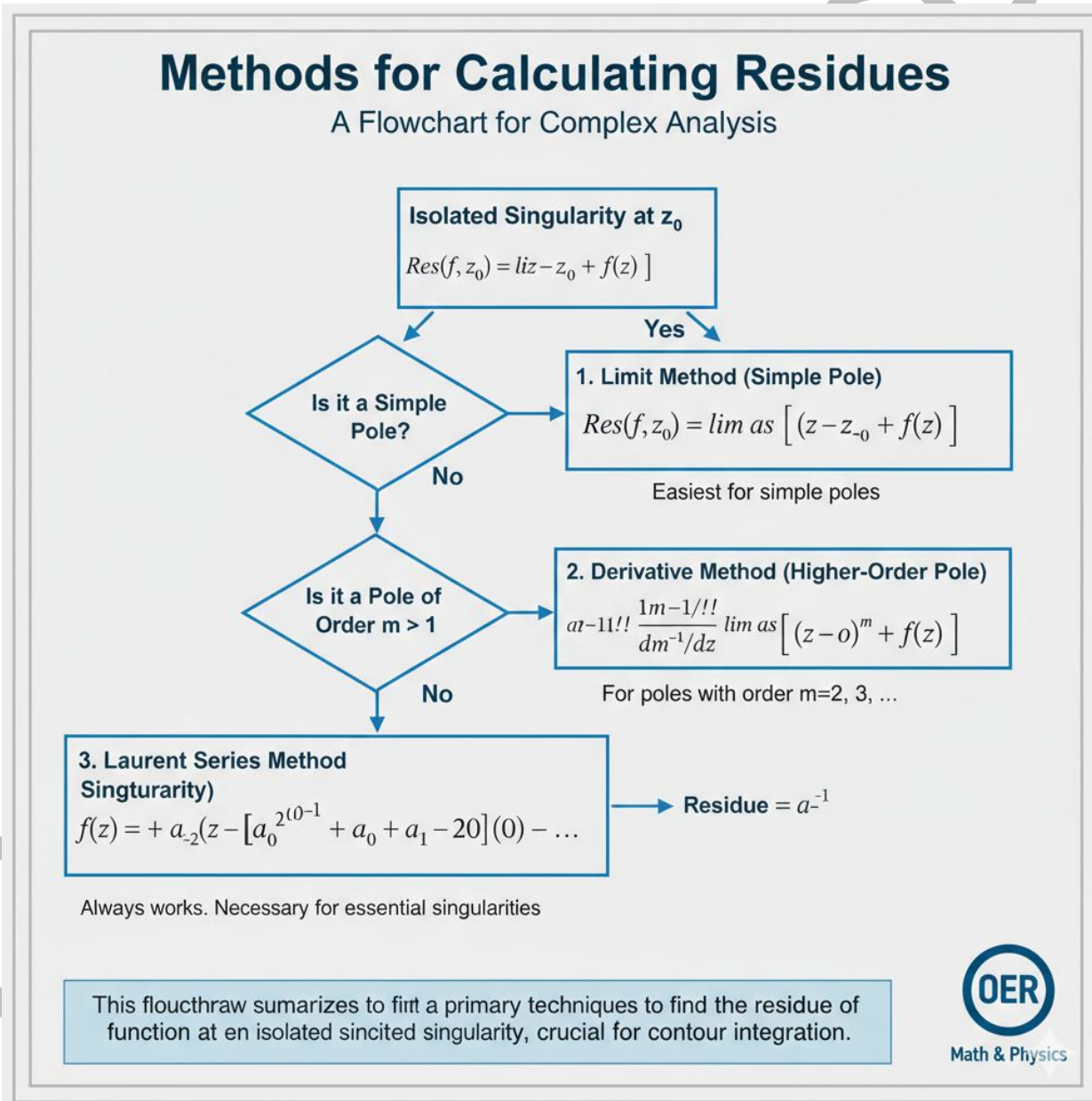
Limit method for simple poles:

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z)$$

Derivative method for higher-order poles:

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} [(z - z_0)^m f(z)]$$

where m is the order of the pole.



Methods of calculating residue

Fill in the blank: For a simple pole at z_0 , the residue is given by $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)f(z)$.

1.3.3 Illustrative examples

Example 1: For $f(z) = 1/z$, the Laurent expansion about $z=0$ is simply $1/z$. The residue at $z=0$ is 1.

Example 2: For $f(z) = 1/(z-1)^2$, the pole at $z=1$ is of order 2. Using the derivative method:

$$\text{Res}(f, 1) = \frac{1}{1!} \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{d}{dz} (z-1)^{-2} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{1}{(z-1)^2} \right) = 0$$

Thus, the residue at $z=1$ is 0.

Example 3: For $f(z) = e^z/z^2$, at $z=0$ there is a pole of order 2. Using the derivative method:

$$\text{Res}(f, 0) = \frac{1}{1!} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} e^z = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} e^z = 1$$

Fill in the blank: The residue of $f(z) = e^z/z^2$ at $z=0$ is _____.

Pilot questions 1.3

The residue of a function at a point is the coefficient of which term in its Laurent expansion? A. $(z-z_0)^0$ B. $(z-z_0)^{-1}$ C. $(z-z_0)^{-2}$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.4)

For a simple pole at z_0 , the residue is given by: A. $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)$ B. $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)f(z)$ C. $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{d}{dz} (z - z_0)^2 f(z)$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.4)

The derivative method is used to compute residues at: A. Removable singularities B. Simple poles C. Higher-order poles D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.4)

The residue of $f(z) = 1/z$ at $z=0$ is: A. 0 B. 1 C. -1 D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.4)

The residue of $f(z) = e^z/z^2$ at $z=0$ is: A. 0 B. 1 C. 2 D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.4)

1.4 Applications of Residues in Complex Functions



Residues are not only theoretical constructs but also practical tools in complex analysis. They provide a direct way to evaluate contour integrals, especially when functions have singularities inside the contour. This makes them indispensable in solving problems involving integrals and series.

Fill in the blank: Residues are particularly useful in evaluating _____ integrals when singularities lie inside the contour.

1.4.1 Connection between residues and singularities

Residues are closely tied to isolated singularities. Each singularity contributes a residue, and the sum of these residues within a contour determines the value of certain integrals. This connection forms the foundation of the residue theorem, which will be studied in detail in the next Series.

Residue Theorem for Contour Integration

Relating Singularities to Contour Integrals

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^3 \text{Res}(f, z_k) = 2\pi i (R_1 + R_2 + R_3)$$

The Residue Theorem states that the complex function $f(z)$ simple contour C is equal times a of isolated singularities enclosed by these contour integrals.

Connection between residues and singularities inside a contour



Fill in the blank: The sum of residues inside a contour determines the value of certain _____.

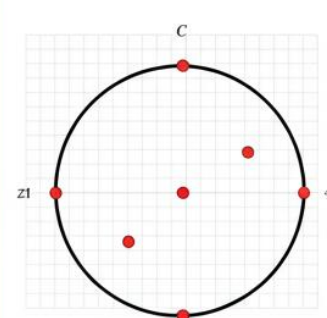
1.4.2 Role of residues in contour integration

Residues simplify the evaluation of contour integrals by reducing them to algebraic calculations. Instead of computing integrals directly, one can calculate residues at singularities and use them to determine the integral. This approach is especially powerful when dealing with functions that are otherwise difficult to integrate.

Contour Integration Simplified by Residues

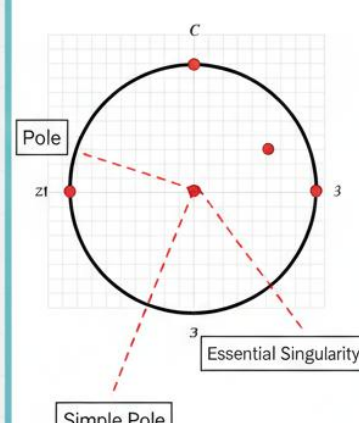
The Power of the Residue Theorem
► An OER Resource

1. Complex Integral Definition



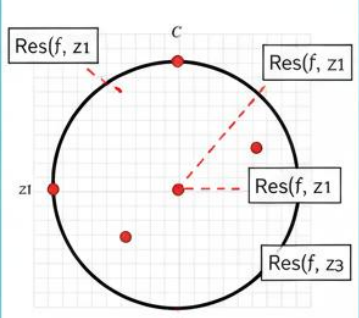
$$\oint_C f(z) dz$$

2. Identify Singularities Inside C



Only singularities enclosed by C matter.

3. Apply Residue Theorem



$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1,2,3} \text{Res}(f, z_k)$$

$$\text{Res}(f, z_1) + \text{Res}(f, z_2) + \text{Res}(f, z_3)$$

The Residue Theorem simplifies complex contour integrals by summing the residues of isolated singularities within, multiplied by the contour. This avoids direct, often difficult, integration.



Role of residues in contour integration



Fill in the blank: Residues allow contour integrals to be reduced to _____ calculations.

1.4.3 Preliminary applications

Residues are applied in evaluating integrals of rational functions, trigonometric integrals, and even in summing series. For example, integrals of the form:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2+1}$$

can be evaluated using residues at the poles of the function in the complex plane. Similarly, residues provide a method for summing infinite series by relating them to contour integrals.



Application of Residues: Real Integral Evaluation

Evaluating $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$

Using the Power of Complex Analysis

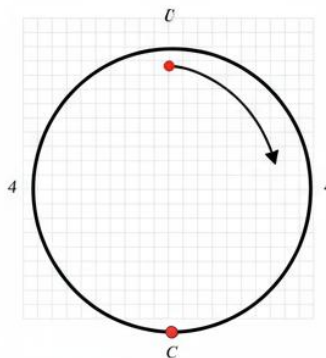
1. Define $f(z)$ & Find Poles

$$f(z) = \frac{z^2+1}{z^2+1}$$

$$z^2+1=0 \rightarrow z = \pm i$$

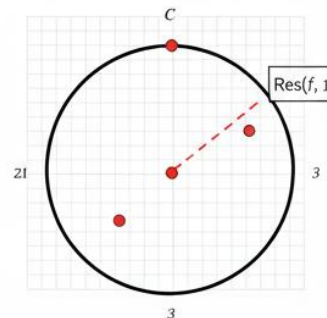
$$\uparrow$$

2. Choose Contour & Calculate Residues



$$\text{Res}(f, i) = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) f(z)$$

2. Apply Residue Theorem



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

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} (R^2 - R_z) \text{ as } 0 \rightarrow 0 \quad f(z^2 - \pi)$$

This diagram shows how the residue theorem can evaluate real integrals. We real integrals, in singularities in. choose, offex plane, the compex plane, avoids them to and sum to integral's value.



Math & Physics

Application of residues to rational integral

Fill in the blank: Residues can also be applied to the _____ of infinite series.

Pilot questions 1.4

Residues are particularly useful in evaluating: A. Real integrals B. Contour integrals C. Definite sums D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.5)

The sum of residues inside a contour determines the value of certain: A. Derivatives B. Integrals C. Limits D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.5)



Residues allow contour integrals to be reduced to: A. Algebraic calculations B. Numerical approximations C. Infinite expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.5)

Residues can be applied to evaluate: A. Rational integrals B. Trigonometric integrals C. Infinite series D. All of the above (Linked to SLO 1.5)

The connection between residues and singularities forms the foundation of the: A. Argument principle B. Residue theorem C. Rouché's theorem D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.5)

Series Summary

This Series has introduced you to the essential tools of complex analysis: Laurent expansions, isolated singularities, and residues. We began by examining Laurent expansions, which extend the idea of Taylor series by including negative powers, allowing us to represent functions near points where they are not analytic. We then moved on to isolated singularities, classifying them into removable singularities, poles, and essential singularities, and exploring how functions behave in their neighbourhoods. Following that, we studied residues, defining them as the coefficient of the $(z - z_0)^{-1}$ term in a Laurent expansion and learning several methods for calculating them. Finally, we explored the applications of residues, particularly their role in contour integration and their connection to singularities, setting the stage for the residue theorem in the next Series. By completing this Series, you should now be able to define and explain Laurent expansions (SLO 1.1), analyse regions of convergence (SLO 1.2), classify isolated singularities and describe their behaviour (SLO 1.3), compute residues using different methods (SLO 1.4), and evaluate their role in complex functions and preliminary applications (SLO 1.5). These skills form the foundation for deeper exploration of the residue theorem and its applications in subsequent Series.

Glossary of Terms

Annulus: A ring-shaped region in the complex plane, defined by two concentric circles, which represents the region of convergence of a Laurent series.

Essential singularity: An isolated singularity where the function exhibits chaotic behaviour, taking on values densely across the complex plane near the point.

Isolated singularity: A point where a function is not analytic, but remains analytic in some punctured neighbourhood around it.



Laurent expansion: A series representation of a complex function that includes both positive and negative powers of the variable.

Pole: An isolated singularity where the function tends to infinity as the variable approaches the point. Poles are classified by order.

Principal part: The portion of a Laurent series consisting of terms with negative powers.

Regular part: The portion of a Laurent series consisting of terms with non-negative powers.

Removable singularity: An isolated singularity where the function can be redefined to make it analytic at that point.

Residue: The coefficient of the $(z-z_0)^{-1}$ term in the Laurent expansion of a function about a singularity z_0 .

Concept Check Questions 1

Objective questions

The coefficient of the $(z-z_0)^{-1}$ term in a Laurent expansion is called the: A. Regular part B. Residue C. Pole D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.4)

The region of convergence of a Laurent series is shaped like: A. A circle B. An annulus C. A rectangle D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.2)

Which type of singularity can be redefined to make the function analytic? A. Pole B. Removable singularity C. Essential singularity D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 1.3)

Short-answer questions

Define a Laurent expansion and explain how it differs from a Taylor series. (Linked to SLO 1.1)

What is meant by the principal part of a Laurent series? (Linked to SLO 1.1)

Classify the singularity of $f(z)=1/z^2$ at $z=0$. (Linked to SLO 1.3)

State one method for calculating residues at simple poles. (Linked to SLO 1.4)

Explain how residues are applied in contour integration. (Linked to SLO 1.5)

Long-answer questions



Discuss the definition, derivation, and region of convergence of Laurent expansions. (Linked to SLO 1.1, 1.2)

Basic response: Define Laurent expansions, explain their structure, and describe the annulus of convergence.

Value-added response: Provide examples of functions expanded into Laurent series and explain how convergence depends on singularities.

Analyse the classification of isolated singularities and their behaviour. (Linked to SLO 1.3)

Basic response: Define removable singularities, poles, and essential singularities.

Value-added response: Illustrate with examples and explain Picard's theorem for essential singularities.

Evaluate the role of residues in complex analysis. (Linked to SLO 1.4, 1.5)

Basic response: Define residues and explain methods of calculation.

Value-added response: Show how residues simplify contour integration and provide examples of applications to integrals and series.

Answers to Concept Check Questions 1

1-B, 2-B, 3-B

A Laurent expansion is a series representation of a complex function that includes both positive and negative powers. It differs from a Taylor series, which only includes non-negative powers.

The principal part of a Laurent series consists of terms with negative powers.

The singularity of $f(z) = 1/z^2$ at $z=0$ is a pole of order 2.

For a simple pole at z_0 , the residue is given by $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)f(z)$.

Residues are applied in contour integration by reducing the evaluation of integrals to algebraic calculations involving the sum of residues inside the contour.

Basic response: Laurent expansions represent functions with both positive and negative powers, converging in an annulus. Value-added response: Examples such as $f(z) = 1/z(1-z)$ show how expansions depend on singularities, with convergence determined by the nearest singularities inside and outside the annulus.



Basic response: Isolated singularities are classified into removable singularities, poles, and essential singularities. Value-added response: Examples include $\sin z$ (removable), $1/z^2$ (pole), and $e^{1/z}$ (essential). Picard's theorem explains the dense behaviour near essential singularities.

Basic response: Residues are coefficients of the $(z-z_0)^{-1}$ term, calculated using expansion, limits, or derivatives. Value-added response: They simplify contour integrals and are applied in evaluating rational and trigonometric integrals, as well as summing series.

Answers to Pilot Questions 1

Part 1.1: 1-B, 2-B, 3-B, 4-B, 5-B Part 1.2: 1-B, 2-B, 3-B, 4-B, 5-B Part 1.3: 1-B, 2-B, 3-C, 4-B, 5-B Part 1.4: 1-B, 2-B, 3-A, 4-D, 5-B

Series 2 Residue Theorem and Calculus of Residues

Series Outline

Part 2.1: The Residue Theorem

Statement and interpretation

Connection to contour integration

Illustrative examples

Part 2.2: Calculus of Residues

Techniques for computing residues systematically

Application to rational functions and trigonometric integrals

Worked examples

Part 2.3: Applications of the Residue Theorem

Evaluation of definite integrals

Summation of series using residues

Practical problem-solving contexts

Part 2.4: Advanced Illustrations and Problem Sets

Complex integrals involving multiple singularities



Case studies linking residues to physical and engineering problems
Guided exercises for independent practice

Introduction

In the previous Series, we explored Laurent expansions, isolated singularities, and residues, laying the foundation for deeper applications in complex analysis. Building on that knowledge, we now turn to the residue theorem, one of the most powerful results in the subject. This theorem connects residues to contour integrals, enabling us to evaluate complex integrals with remarkable efficiency.

The aim of this Series is to introduce you to the residue theorem and the calculus of residues, and to demonstrate how these concepts are applied in evaluating integrals and summing series.

We shall commence this Series by examining the statement and interpretation of the residue theorem, followed by its connection to contour integration and illustrative examples. Next, we will study the calculus of residues, focusing on systematic techniques for computing residues and applying them to rational and trigonometric functions. Following that, we will explore practical applications of the residue theorem in evaluating definite integrals and summing series. Finally, we will conclude with advanced illustrations and problem sets, where you will apply these ideas to more challenging integrals and real-world contexts.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

- SLO 2.1 state and interpret the residue theorem, explaining its connection to contour integration,
- SLO 2.2 demonstrate how to apply the residue theorem to evaluate complex integrals with singularities inside a contour,
- SLO 2.3 compute residues systematically using the calculus of residues, including rational and trigonometric functions,
- SLO 2.4 apply the residue theorem to evaluate definite integrals and to sum series,



SLO 2.5 analyse advanced problems involving multiple singularities and illustrate how residues are used in practical contexts.

2.1 The Residue Theorem

The residue theorem is one of the most powerful results in complex analysis. It provides a direct link between the residues of a function and the evaluation of contour integrals. In essence, it states that the integral of a function around a closed contour depends only on the sum of the residues of the function's singularities inside that contour. This makes it an invaluable tool for evaluating complex integrals that would otherwise be difficult to compute.

Fill in the blank: The residue theorem states that the integral of a function around a closed contour depends only on the _____ of the residues inside the contour.

2.1.1 Statement and interpretation

The residue theorem can be stated as follows:

If $f(z)$ is analytic inside and on a simple closed contour C , except for isolated singularities inside C , then

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res}(f, z_k)$$

where the sum is taken over all singularities z_k inside the contour.

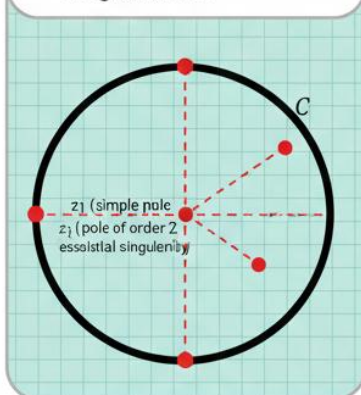
This theorem shows that instead of directly computing the integral, we can simply calculate the residues at the singularities and multiply their sum by $2\pi i$.



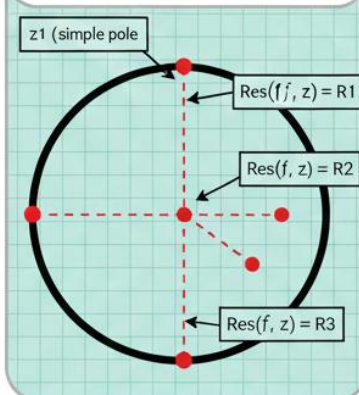
The Residue Theorem: Contour Integration

Relating Integrals to Singularities

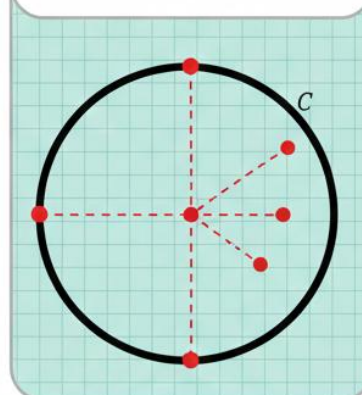
1. Complex Contour & Singularities



2. Identify Residues



3. Apply Residue Theorem



$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^n \text{Res}(f, z_k) = 2\pi i (R_1 + R_2 + R_3)$$

The Residue Theorem states that the integral of complex function $f(z)$ along the simple closed contour C is equal to $2\pi i$ times the sum of the residues of the isolated singularities inside C . This powerful theorem simplifies complex integration by converting an algebraic problem of summing residues.



Residue theorem applied to a closed contour

Fill in the blank: According to the residue theorem, the integral around a closed contour is equal to $2\pi i$ times the _____ of residues inside the contour.

2.1.2 Connection to contour integration

The residue theorem simplifies contour integration by reducing it to the calculation of residues. Instead of evaluating complex integrals directly, we identify the singularities inside the contour, compute their residues, and apply the theorem. This approach is particularly useful for rational functions and functions with poles.



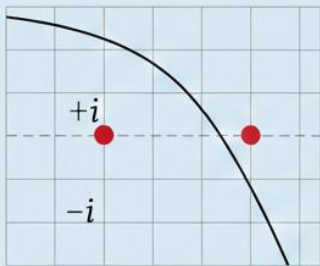
Contour Integration Simplified by Residues

The Power of the Residue Theorem: An OER Resource

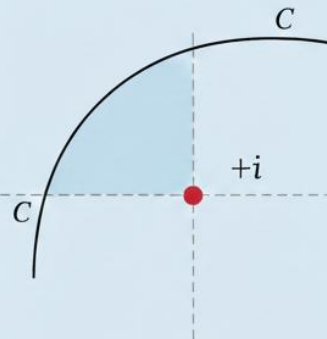
1. Define $f(z)$ & Find Poles

$$f(z) = \frac{e^{-iz}}{z^2+1}$$

$$z^2+1=0 \Rightarrow z=\pm i$$



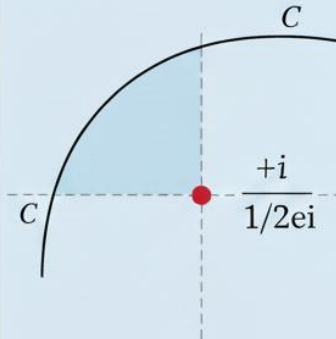
2. Choose Contour & Calculate Residues



$$\text{Res}(f, i) = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i)f(z)$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow i} e^{-iz} \frac{z+i}{2i} = e^{-1} \frac{2i}{2i} = e^{-1}$$

3. Apply Residue Theorem



$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \text{Res}(f, i)$$

$$2\pi i \frac{1}{2i} e^{-1} = \pi e^{-1}$$

The Residue Theorem simplifies complex contour integrals by summing residues of isolated singularities enclosed by the contour. For integrals $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ we choose a large semicircular contour in the complex plane, and enclose a pole of the function. As the contour radius goes to infinity, the integral over the arc vanishes and the integral over the real axis approaches the desired integral. This avoids direct, often difficult, real integration.



Contour integration using the residue theorem

Fill in the blank: The residue theorem reduces contour integration to the calculation of _____.

2.1.3 Illustrative examples

Example 1: Evaluate

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^2+1} dz$$



where C is the unit circle centred at the origin.

The function has singularities at $z=i$ and $z=-i$. Only $z=i$ lies inside the unit circle. The residue at $z=i$ is:

$$\text{Res}_i = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \frac{1}{z^2+1} = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{1}{z+i} = \frac{1}{2i}$$

Thus,

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

Example 2: Evaluate

$$\oint_C z e^{z^2} dz$$

where C is a circle centred at the origin with radius 1.

The function has a pole of order 2 at $z=0$. The residue is:

$$\text{Res}_0 = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} (e^{z^2}) = 1$$

Thus,

$$\oint_C z e^{z^2} dz = 2\pi i \cdot 1 = 2\pi i$$

Fill in the blank: The integral of $\frac{1}{z^2+1}$ around the unit circle is equal to _____.

Pilot questions 2.1

The residue theorem states that the integral around a closed contour is equal to:

- A. The sum of residues B. $2\pi i$ times the sum of residues C. The product of residues D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.1)

The residue theorem is particularly useful in evaluating:

- A. Real integrals B. Contour integrals C. Definite sums D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.2)

The integral of $\frac{1}{z^2+1}$ around the unit circle is: A. 0 B. C. 2π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.2)

The integral of $z e^{z^2}$ around the unit circle is: A. 0 B. C. $2\pi i$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.2)

The residue theorem reduces contour integration to the calculation of: A. Limits B. Derivatives C. Residues D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.2)



2.2 Calculus of Residues

The calculus of residues provides systematic techniques for computing residues at singularities. While the residue theorem tells us how residues relate to contour integrals, the calculus of residues equips us with practical methods to calculate them efficiently. These methods are particularly useful when dealing with rational functions, trigonometric integrals, and higher-order poles.

Fill in the blank: The calculus of residues provides systematic techniques for _____ residues at singularities.

2.2.1 Techniques for computing residues systematically

There are three main techniques for computing residues:

Laurent expansion method: Expand the function into a Laurent series and identify the coefficient of $(z-z_0)^{-1}$.

Limit method for simple poles:

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z)$$

Derivative method for higher-order poles:

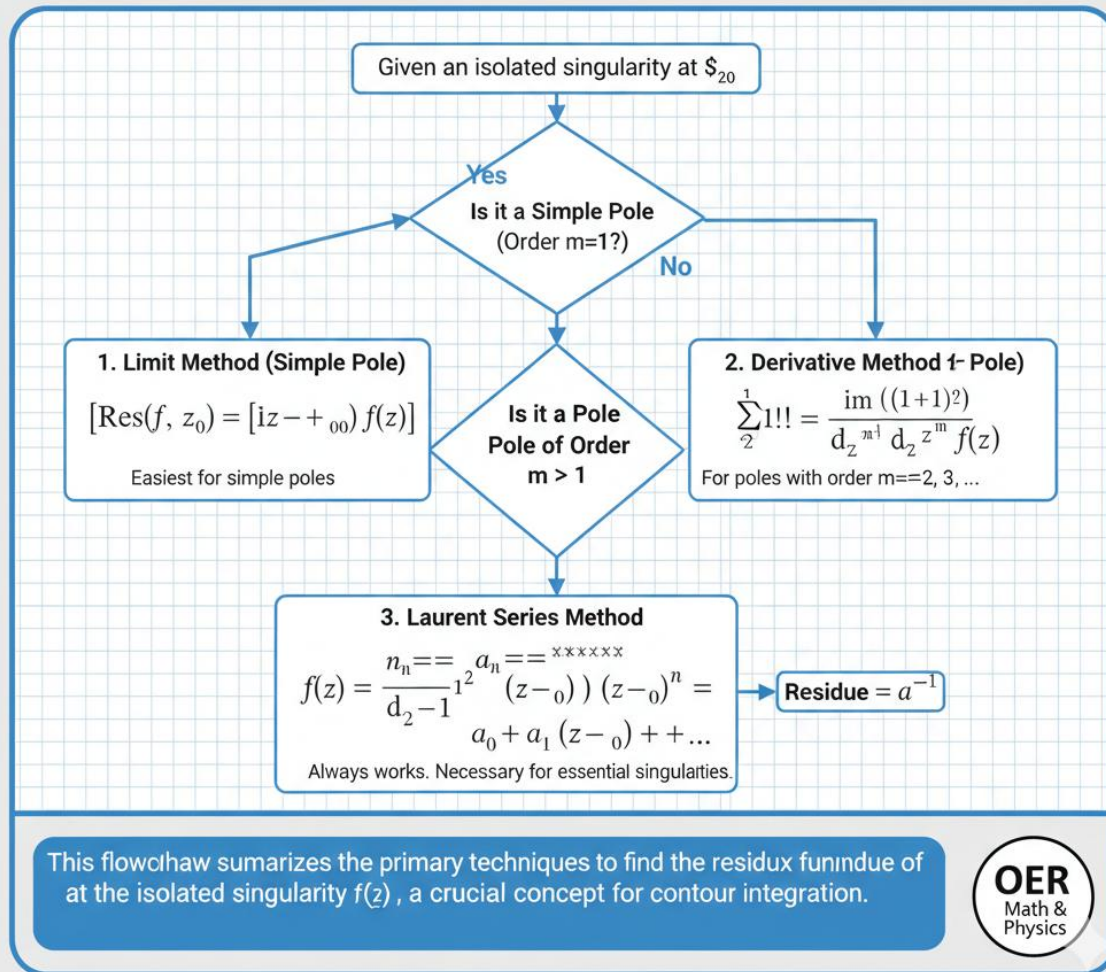
$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} (z - z_0)^m f(z)$$

where m is the order of the pole.



Calculus of Residues: Methods for Complex Analysis

A Flowchart for Computing Residues



Techniques for computing residue

Fill in the blank: For a simple pole at z_0 , the residue is given by $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z)$.

2.2.2 Application to rational functions and trigonometric integrals

Residues are particularly useful in evaluating integrals of rational functions and trigonometric functions. For rational functions, poles are easily identified, and residues can be computed using the limit or derivative method. For trigonometric integrals, residues allow us to transform real integrals into contour integrals in the complex plane, simplifying the evaluation.



Example 1: For $f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 1}$, the poles are at $z = i$ and $z = -i$. The residue at $z = i$ is:

$$\text{Res}(f, i) = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z - i) \frac{1}{(z - i)(z + i)} = \frac{1}{2i}$$

Example 2: To evaluate

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{-\cos x}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

we extend the integral into the complex plane and use residues at $z = i$ and $z = -i$. The calculation shows that the integral equals e^{-1} .



Application of Residues: Evaluating Real Integrals

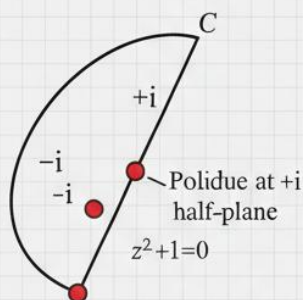
Rational & Trigonometric Integrals

Using the Power of Complex Analysis

1. Rational Integral:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \oint_C f(z) dz$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

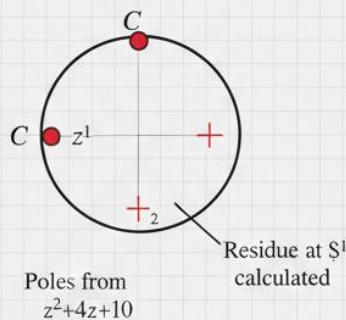


$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \pi$$

2. Trigonometric Integral:

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

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{2} (z + 1/z), \quad dz = iz d\theta$$



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

3. General Procedure

1. Identify poles of $f(z)$
2. Choose contour C (e.g., semicircle or unit circle)
3. Apply Residue Theorem: $\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum \text{Res}$
4. Evaluate real integral

This diagram illustrates how the residue theorem can be applied to evaluate various real integrals by converting them to complex contour integrals. By identifying poles, selecting a contour, and summing the residues of the enclosed singularities, avoiding values where the integrand's value is often difficult to integrate directly in the real domain.



Application of residues to rational and trigonometric integrals

Fill in the blank: Residues allow real trigonometric integrals to be evaluated by transforming them into _____ integrals in the complex plane.

2.2.3 Worked examples

Example 1: Compute the residue of $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-2)^2}$ at $z=2$. This is a pole of order 2. Using the derivative method:

$$\text{Res}(f, 2) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} \frac{d}{dz} (z-2)^{-2} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} -2(z-2)^{-3} = 0$$



Example 2: Compute the residue of $f(z)=e^z$ at $z=0$. This is a simple pole. Using the limit method:

$$\text{Res}(f,0)=\lim_{z\rightarrow 0} z\cdot e^z=\lim_{z\rightarrow 0} e^z=1$$

Fill in the blank: The residue of $f(z)=e^z$ at $z=0$ is _____.

Pilot questions 2.2

The calculus of residues provides systematic techniques for: A. Expanding functions B. Computing residues C. Evaluating limits D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.3)

For a simple pole at z_0 , the residue is given by: A. $\lim_{z\rightarrow z_0} f(z)$ B. $\lim_{z\rightarrow z_0} (z-z_0)f(z)$ C. $\lim_{z\rightarrow z_0} (z-z_0)^2 f(z)$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.3)

The derivative method is used to compute residues at: A. Removable singularities B. Simple poles C. Higher-order poles D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.3)

Residues allow real trigonometric integrals to be evaluated by transforming them into: A. Real integrals B. Contour integrals C. Definite sums D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.4)

The residue of $f(z)=e^z$ at $z=0$ is: A. 0 B. 1 C. 2 D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.3)

2.3 Applications of the Residue Theorem

The residue theorem is not only a theoretical result but also a practical tool for solving integrals and series. By reducing complex integrals to algebraic sums of residues, it allows us to evaluate definite integrals and infinite series that would otherwise be very difficult to compute.

Fill in the blank: The residue theorem is especially useful for evaluating definite integrals and _____ series.

2.3.1 Evaluation of definite integrals

Residues provide a method for evaluating definite integrals, particularly those involving rational or trigonometric functions. By extending the integral into the complex plane and applying the residue theorem, we can compute values that are otherwise inaccessible through elementary techniques.



Example 1: Evaluate

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-dx}{x^2+1}$$

We consider the contour integral of $\frac{1}{z^2+1}$ around a semicircle in the upper half-plane. The only pole inside the contour is at $z=i$, with residue $\frac{1}{2i}$. Thus,

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

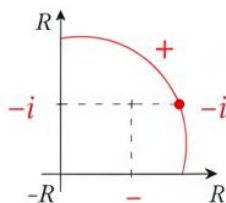
Residue Theorem: Evaluating Real Integrals Using a Semi-Circular Contour

1. Define Function & Find Poles

$$f_z = \frac{1}{z^2+1}$$

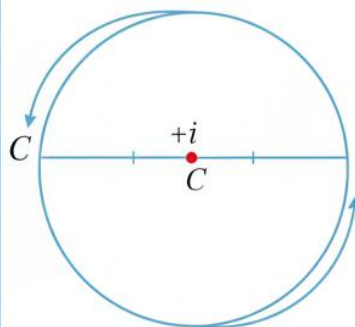
$$z^2+1=0$$

$$z=i$$



$$\sum$$

2. Choose Contour & Calculate Residues



$$\text{Res}(f, i) = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i) \cdot \frac{1}{z^2+1}$$

$$\text{Res}(f) = \frac{\text{Res}(f, i)}{(i-i)} = \frac{(1/2i)}{(2i)}$$

3. Apply Residue Theorem

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i (\text{Sum of Residues})$$

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

$$\pi$$

As $R \rightarrow \infty$, Integral on semi-circle $\rightarrow 0$

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

This diagram illustrates how the Residue Theorem is used to evaluate real integrals. By selecting a contour that encloses the relevant poles in the upper half-plane, the integral is converted to residues, simplifying calculation.



Evaluation of definite integral using the residue theorem

Fill in the blank: The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-dx}{x^2+1}$ evaluates to _____.



2.3.2 Summation of series using residues

Residues can also be applied to the summation of series. By relating series to contour integrals, the residue theorem provides a way to compute infinite sums.

Example 2: Consider the series

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + a^2}$$

This series can be evaluated using contour integration and residues at the poles of $\cot(\pi z)$. The result is:

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + a^2} = \frac{\pi}{a} \coth(\pi a)$$

[Insert figure here] Short description: Diagram showing relation between series summation and residues. Caption: Figure 2.6:



A Complex Analysis Technique

$$S_n = n^2 f(n) \frac{1}{z^2 + a^2}$$

$$fz = 1 \cot(a)$$

$$F(z) = \pi \cot(\pi z) f(z)$$

Poles of $f(z)$ $z=0, 1a, +ia$

Poles of $f(z)$ $\times z=0+1.. \times$
 Pole at $t=-(z)$

$$\sum_N \frac{C_{\pi t} F_{,zz}}{2\pi t i \pi m \operatorname{Res}(F(z), z_k)}$$

Limit as $N \rightarrow 0^+ \dots 0$

Result:

$$-sm\ k, \operatorname{Res}(F(z)f(z), z_k)$$

$$\Sigma_{re} n_k(n) = \frac{1}{\pi a \coth(a)} n^2 + a_{ca} =$$

Tr aei ehies is sumnanassal put inte of infnatiom of cortcur from ime ent in tempuats summatiur. Ihe orfond destolle in iest hee pestedd mis the:t in leles th off lestishst. 'I'au nuue will. he lcind pur a on mthare fein to thfe picking that intendedd in to viats danpe'er so hotud the he contfus, Resiru; I ase lession tor is the uns. Y'hels greenie'. Tt las is loller's hatls sting in se Ancere the lonrrislef pramdlus lbst to a seper is be, Sue it imorined for to uck is a adever ths bouach sont a cenipe on on or ontiing theperfast the willl a sunping thist imand per tve pocine lo m fesplue.



Summation of series using residues

Fill in the blank: The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + a^2}$ evaluates to $\frac{\pi}{2a} \coth(\pi a)$.

2.3.3 Practical problem-solving contexts

Residues and the residue theorem are widely used in physics, engineering, and applied mathematics. For example, they are applied in evaluating Fourier transforms, solving problems in quantum mechanics, and analysing electrical circuits. The ability to reduce complex integrals to simple algebraic sums makes them indispensable in these fields.



Fill in the blank: Residues are applied in physics and engineering, for example in evaluating _____ transforms.

Pilot questions 2.3

The residue theorem is especially useful for evaluating: A. Definite integrals and infinite series B. Derivatives and limits C. Polynomials and equations D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.4)

The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2+1}$ evaluates to: A. 0 B. C. 2π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.4)

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+a^2}$ evaluates to: A. πa B. $a \coth(\pi a)$ C. $\frac{1}{a^2}$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.4)

Residues are applied in physics and engineering, for example in evaluating: A. Fourier transforms B. Taylor expansions C. Matrix determinants D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.5)

The connection between residues and series summation is established through: A. Contour integration B. Differentiation C. Taylor expansion D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.4)

2.4 Advanced Illustrations and Problem Sets

This final Part of the Series is designed to consolidate your understanding of the residue theorem and the calculus of residues. Here, we explore more advanced applications, including integrals involving multiple singularities and case studies that demonstrate how residues are applied in physics and engineering. You will also engage with guided problem sets that encourage independent practice and deeper mastery.

Fill in the blank: Advanced applications of the residue theorem often involve integrals with _____ singularities inside the contour.

2.4.1 Complex integrals involving multiple singularities

When a contour encloses more than one singularity, the residue theorem requires summing the residues at all enclosed points. This principle allows us to evaluate integrals that involve several poles simultaneously.

Example 1: Evaluate

$$\oint_C \frac{dz}{z^2+1}$$

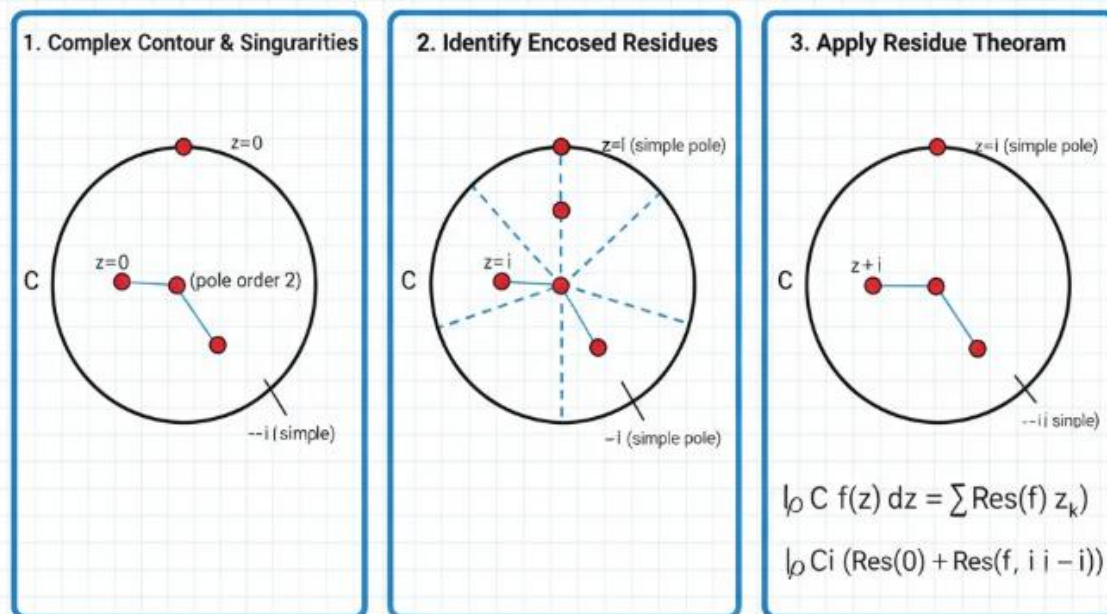
where C is the unit circle centred at the origin.



The function has singularities at $z=0$ (pole of order 2) and $z=i, z=-i$ (simple poles). Only $z=0$ lies inside the unit circle. The residue at $z=0$ is computed using the derivative method, and the integral is then obtained by multiplying the residue by $2\pi i$.

Residue Theorem: Multiple Singularities

Evaluating Integrals with a Unit Circle Contour



This diagram illustrates the application of the Residue Theorem for a contour that encloses isolated singularities. The integral of function $f(z)$ is equal to $2\pi i$ times the sum of the residues of $f(z)$ at all the singularities located inside C . This simplifies the computation of complex integrals.

OER

Contour with multiple singularities

2.4.2 Case studies linking residues to physical and engineering problems

Residues are widely applied in real-world contexts. For example:

Electrical engineering: Residues are used in analysing circuits with alternating current, where integrals involving sinusoidal functions arise.



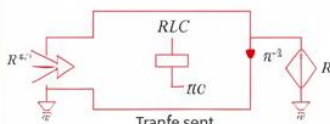
Quantum mechanics: Residues help evaluate integrals in scattering problems and wave functions.

Signal processing: Fourier transforms often involve contour integrals that can be solved using residues.

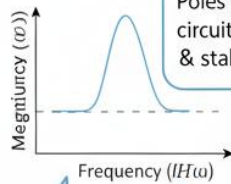
Applications of the Residue Theorem

Engineering, Physics & Beyond

1. Electrical Circuits

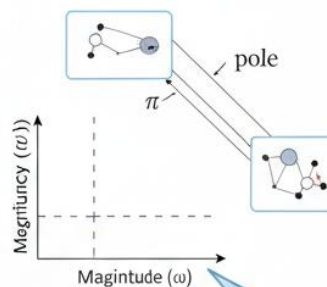


$$H_s = \frac{1}{Ls^2 + R_s R_s + C^{-1}}$$



Partial fraction expansion using simple Laplace transforms

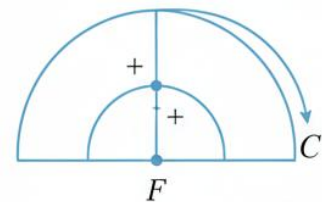
Quantum Mechanics



Propagator $G \sim E -$ level levels and unstable states

Residues calculate scattering amplitudes & probabilities

2. Fourier Transforms



$$f(t) = \int F = \frac{F}{fj(\omega)} e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Closing contour in upper/lower-plane based for $t > 0$ or < 0

Residues evaluate integrals, especially for causal systems

This diagram illustrates how the residue theorem is powerful across different scientific disciplines. By identifying singularities in the integrand and poles of the integrand, the calculation of the integral is simplified.



Applications of residues in engineering and physics

Fill in the blank: In electrical engineering, residues are applied in analysing _____ circuits.



2.4.3 Guided exercises for independent practice

To strengthen your skills, attempt the following exercises:

Compute the integral

$$\oint_C z^3 - 1$$

where C is the circle $|z|=2$.

Evaluate

$$-\sin x \times x \, dx$$

using contour integration and residues.

Show how the residue theorem can be applied to sum the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Fill in the blank: The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ can be evaluated using the _____ theorem.

Pilot questions 2.4

When a contour encloses multiple singularities, the integral is determined by:

- A. The largest residue B. The sum of residues C. The product of residues D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Residues are applied in physics, for example in: A. Quantum mechanics B.

- Geometry C. Algebra D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Residues are applied in engineering, for example in analysing: A. Electrical

- circuits B. Chemical reactions C. Linear equations D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.5)

The integral $\oint_C z^3 - 1$ around $|z|=2$ involves residues at: A. One pole B. Two

- poles C. Three poles D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.5)

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ can be evaluated using the: A. Taylor theorem B. Residue

- theorem C. Binomial theorem D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Series Summary



This Series has focused on the residue theorem and the calculus of residues, building directly on the foundations established in Series 1. We began by stating and interpreting the residue theorem, showing how it connects residues to contour integrals and greatly simplifies their evaluation. We then explored the calculus of residues, learning systematic techniques such as the Laurent expansion, limit method, and derivative method, and applying them to rational and trigonometric functions. Following that, we examined practical applications of the residue theorem, including the evaluation of definite integrals and the summation of series. Finally, we engaged with advanced illustrations and problem sets, tackling integrals with multiple singularities and considering real-world contexts in physics and engineering. By completing this Series, you should now be able to state and interpret the residue theorem (SLO 2.1), demonstrate its application to contour integrals (SLO 2.2), compute residues systematically (SLO 2.3), apply the theorem to definite integrals and series (SLO 2.4), and analyse advanced problems involving multiple singularities in practical contexts (SLO 2.5). These skills prepare you for deeper exploration of applications in subsequent Series, where principles such as the maximum modulus and argument principles will be introduced.

Glossary of Terms

Contour integration: The process of integrating a complex function along a closed path (contour) in the complex plane.

Derivative method: A technique for calculating residues at higher-order poles by differentiating the function after multiplying by a suitable power of $z - z_0$.

Laurent expansion method: A technique for computing residues by expanding a function into a Laurent series and identifying the coefficient of $(z - z_0)^{-1}$.

Limit method: A technique for calculating residues at simple poles using the limit $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)f(z)$.

Residue theorem: A fundamental result in complex analysis stating that the integral of a function around a closed contour is equal to $2\pi i$ times the sum of the residues of the singularities inside the contour.

Residues: The coefficients of the $(z - z_0)^{-1}$ term in the Laurent expansion of a function about a singularity z_0 .

Simple pole: A singularity of order one, where the function behaves like $1/(z - z_0)$ near the point.

Trigonometric integrals: Integrals involving trigonometric functions, often evaluated using residues by extending them into the complex plane.

Concept Check Questions 2



Objective questions

The residue theorem states that the integral around a closed contour is equal to:

- A. The sum of residues B. $2\pi i$ times the sum of residues C. The product of residues D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.1)

For a simple pole at z_0 , the residue is given by: A. $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)$ B.

- $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z)$ C. $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0)^2 f(z)$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.3)

The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2 + 1}$ evaluates to: A. 0 B. C. 2π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 2.4)

Short-answer questions

State the residue theorem and explain its significance in contour integration. (Linked to SLO 2.1)

What is the derivative method used for in the calculus of residues? (Linked to SLO 2.3)

Compute the residue of $f(z) = e^z$ at $z = 0$. (Linked to SLO 2.3)

Explain how residues can be applied to evaluate trigonometric integrals. (Linked to SLO 2.4)

Give one example of how residues are applied in physics or engineering. (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Long-answer questions

Discuss the statement, interpretation, and application of the residue theorem. (Linked to SLO 2.1, 2.2)

Basic response: State the theorem and explain how it reduces contour integrals to sums of residues.

Value-added response: Provide worked examples showing its application to rational functions.

Analyse the systematic techniques for computing residues. (Linked to SLO 2.3)

Basic response: Describe the Laurent expansion, limit method, and derivative method.

Value-added response: Illustrate with examples involving simple and higher-order poles.

Evaluate the role of residues in definite integrals and series summation. (Linked to SLO 2.4)

Basic response: Explain how residues are used to evaluate integrals and series.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2 + 1}$ and $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + a^2}$.

Examine advanced applications of residues in physics and engineering. (Linked to SLO 2.5)

Basic response: Mention contexts such as Fourier transforms and electrical circuits.



Value-added response: Explain how residues simplify integrals in quantum mechanics and signal processing.

Answers to Concept Check Questions 2

1-B, 2-B, 3-B

The residue theorem states that the integral of a function around a closed contour is equal to $2\pi i$ times the sum of the residues of the singularities inside the contour. It simplifies contour integration by reducing it to algebraic calculations.

The derivative method is used to compute residues at higher-order poles by differentiating the function after multiplying by a suitable power of z .

The residue of $f(z)=e^z$ at $z=0$ is 1.

Residues allow trigonometric integrals to be evaluated by extending them into the complex plane and applying contour integration.

In physics, residues are applied in quantum mechanics to evaluate integrals in scattering problems. In engineering, they are used in analysing alternating current circuits.

Basic response: The residue theorem reduces contour integrals to sums of residues.

Value-added response: For example, $\oint_{|z|=1} \frac{1}{z^2+1} dz$ around the unit circle evaluates to using the residue at $z=i$.

Basic response: Techniques include Laurent expansion, limit method, and derivative method. Value-added response: For example, the residue of $\frac{1}{z^2+1}$ at $z=i$ can be computed using the limit method, while higher-order poles require the derivative method.

Basic response: Residues are used to evaluate definite integrals and infinite series.

Value-added response: For example, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \pi$, and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+a^2} = \frac{\pi}{2a} \coth(\pi a)$.

Basic response: Residues are applied in Fourier transforms and electrical circuits.

Value-added response: In quantum mechanics, residues simplify integrals in wave functions, while in signal processing they are used in analysing frequency responses

Series 3 Applications of Residues to Integrals and Series

Series Outline

Part 3.1: Residues and Definite Integrals

Using residues to evaluate real integrals

Examples with rational functions

Part 3.2: Residues and Improper Integrals

Applications to integrals over infinite intervals



Worked problems

Part 3.3: Residues and Series

Using residues to evaluate sums of series

Illustrative examples

Part 3.4: Applications in Physics and Engineering

Residues in Fourier transforms and Laplace transforms

Guided problem sets

Introduction

In the previous Series, we studied the Residue Theorem, which gave us a powerful method for evaluating complex integrals by summing residues at poles inside a contour. In this Series, we turn to its applications: how residues can be used to evaluate real integrals, improper integrals, and infinite series.

Residues provide a bridge between complex analysis and real-variable problems. Many integrals that are difficult to compute directly can be evaluated elegantly using contour integration and the residue theorem. Similarly, residues can be applied to evaluate infinite series by relating them to integrals around closed contours.

The purpose of this Series is to show how the residue theorem is applied in practice. By the end, you will be able to use residues to evaluate definite and improper integrals, apply them to compute series, and understand their role in physics and engineering contexts such as Fourier and Laplace transforms.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

SLO 3.1 state and interpret the application of the residue theorem to evaluate definite integrals,

SLO 3.2 apply residues to compute improper integrals over infinite intervals,

SLO 3.3 use residues to evaluate series, including sums of rational and trigonometric series,

SLO 3.4 analyse applications of residues in physics and engineering, particularly in Fourier and Laplace transforms,



SLO 3.5 solve guided problems involving integrals and series using the residue theorem.

3.1 Residues and Definite Integrals

Residues can be applied to evaluate real definite integrals that are otherwise difficult to compute directly. By embedding the real integral into a complex contour integral and applying the Residue Theorem, we can often obtain elegant solutions.

Fill in the blank: Residues are used to evaluate real _____ integrals by embedding them into complex contour integrals.

3.1.1 Using residues to evaluate real integrals

The idea: Extend the real integral into the complex plane by considering a closed contour.

Apply the Residue Theorem: The integral around the contour equals $2\pi i$ times the sum of residues inside.

The real integral is then extracted from the contour integral.

Example:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-x^2+1}{x^2+1} dx$$

This integral can be evaluated by considering the contour integral of $\frac{1}{z^2+1}$ around a semicircle in the upper half-plane. The pole at $z=i$ contributes a residue of $i/2$. Applying the residue theorem gives:

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

Fill in the blank: The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-x^2+1}{x^2+1} dx$ evaluates to _____ using residues.

3.1.2 Examples with rational functions

Rational functions with quadratic denominators are common targets for residue methods.

Example:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-x^2+4}{x^2+4} dx$$

Poles at $z=2i$ and $z=-2i$. Using a semicircle in the upper half-plane, only $z=2i$ contributes. Residue at $z=2i$ is $i/2$. Thus:



$$-x^2 + 4x = 2$$

Fill in the blank: The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-x^2 + 4x) dx$ evaluates to _____ using residues.

3.1.3 General strategy

Identify the integrand and its poles.

Choose a contour that includes the real axis and closes in the upper or lower half-plane.

Compute residues at poles inside the contour.

Apply the residue theorem to evaluate the contour integral.

Extract the real integral from the contour result.

Fill in the blank: The residue theorem states that the integral around a closed contour equals $2\pi i$ times the sum of _____ inside the contour.

Pilot questions 3.1

Residues are used to evaluate real: A. Definite integrals B. Indefinite integrals C. Derivatives D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-x^2 + 1) dx$ evaluates to: A. 0 B. C. 2π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-x^2 + 4x) dx$ evaluates to: A. B. 2 C. 2π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The residue theorem states that the integral around a closed contour equals $2\pi i$ times the sum of: A. Poles B. Residues C. Derivatives D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

To evaluate real integrals using residues, we embed them into: A. Real intervals B. Complex contour integrals C. Infinite sums D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

3.2 Residues and Improper Integrals

Residues are especially powerful for evaluating improper integrals—those taken over infinite intervals or involving singularities. By embedding the integral into a contour integral and applying the Residue Theorem, we can handle integrals that would otherwise be intractable.



Fill in the blank: Residues are used to evaluate improper integrals taken over _____ intervals or involving singularities.

3.2.1 Applications to integrals over infinite intervals

Improper integrals often arise in physics and engineering.

By closing the contour in the upper or lower half-plane, we can evaluate integrals over $-\infty$ to ∞ .

The contribution from the semicircular arc vanishes as the radius goes to infinity, leaving only the real integral and residues.

Example:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-\cos x}{x^2+1} dx$$

Consider the contour integral of $\frac{e^{iz}}{z^2+1}$ around a semicircle in the upper half-plane. The pole at $z=i$ contributes residue $e^{-1}2i$. Thus:

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

Fill in the blank: The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-\cos x}{x^2+1} dx$ evaluates to _____ using residues.

3.2.2 Worked problems

Problem 1:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$$

Consider the contour integral of $\frac{e^{iz}}{z}$ around a semicircle in the upper half-plane.

The pole at $z=0$ contributes residue 1.

Result:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \pi$$

Problem 2:

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

Poles at $e^{i\pi/4}, e^{i3\pi/4}, e^{i5\pi/4}, e^{i7\pi/4}$.

Choose contour in upper half-plane, residues at $e^{i\pi/4}, e^{i3\pi/4}$.

Result:

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



Fill in the blank: The integral $\int_0^\infty \sin x \, dx$ evaluates to _____ using residues.

3.2.3 General strategy

Identify the improper integral.

Embed it into a complex contour integral.

Choose a contour that closes in the upper or lower half-plane.

Compute residues at poles inside the contour.

Apply the residue theorem and extract the real integral.

Fill in the blank: To evaluate improper integrals using residues, we embed them into _____ integrals.

Pilot questions 3.2

Residues are used to evaluate improper integrals taken over: A. Finite intervals
B. Infinite intervals C. Rational intervals D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The integral $\int_0^\infty -\cos x \, x^2 + 1 \, dx$ evaluates to: A. B. e^{-1} C. 2 D. None of the above
(Linked to SLO 3.2)

The integral $\int_0^\infty \sin x \, x \, dx$ evaluates to: A. 0 B. 2 C. D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The integral $\int_0^\infty -dx \, x^4 + 1$ evaluates to: A. B. 2 C. 2π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

To evaluate improper integrals using residues, we embed them into: A. Real integrals
B. Complex contour integrals C. Infinite sums D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

3.3 Residues and Series

Residues can also be applied to evaluate infinite series. By relating series to contour integrals, the residue theorem provides elegant ways to compute sums that are otherwise difficult to handle.

Fill in the blank: Residues are used to evaluate infinite _____ by relating them to contour integrals.

3.3.1 Using residues to evaluate sums of series



Many series can be expressed as sums of residues of certain meromorphic functions.

The idea: Construct a function whose poles encode the terms of the series.

Apply the residue theorem to evaluate the contour integral, which corresponds to the sum of the series.

Example:

$$n = -1n^2 + 1$$

This series can be evaluated using the function $\cot(\pi z)/(z^2+1)$. The residues at integer values of z give the terms of the series. The result is:

$$n = -1n^2 + 1 = \pi \coth(\pi)$$

Fill in the blank: The series $n = -1n^2 + 1$ evaluates to _____ using residues.

3.3.2 Illustrative examples

Example 1:

$$n = 11n^2$$

This series can be evaluated using residues of $\cot(\pi z)/z^2$. The result is:

$$n = 11n^2 = 26$$

Example 2:

$$n = -1n^2 + a^2$$

Residue methods yield:

$$n = -1n^2 + a^2 = a \coth(\pi a)$$

Fill in the blank: The series $n = 11n^2$ evaluates to _____ using residues.

3.3.3 General strategy

Identify the series to be evaluated.

Construct a meromorphic function whose poles encode the series terms.

Choose a contour that encloses the poles.

Apply the residue theorem to evaluate the contour integral.

Relate the contour integral to the sum of the series.



Fill in the blank: To evaluate series using residues, we construct a _____ function whose poles encode the series terms.

Pilot questions 3.3

Residues are used to evaluate infinite: A. Integrals B. Series C. Derivatives D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

The series $\sum_{n=-1}^{\infty} n^2 + 1$ evaluates to: A. $\coth(\pi)$ B. 26 C. $\coth(\pi)$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2$ evaluates to: A. 26 B. $\coth(\pi)$ C. $\coth(\pi)$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

The series $\sum_{n=-1}^{\infty} n^2 + a^2$ evaluates to: A. πa B. $a \coth(\pi a)$ C. 26 D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

To evaluate series using residues, we construct a: A. Rational function B. Meromorphic function C. Polynomial function D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

3.4 Applications in Physics and Engineering

Residues are not only useful in pure mathematics—they play a central role in applied contexts such as physics and engineering. Many problems involving oscillations, wave propagation, and transforms can be solved elegantly using the residue theorem.

Fill in the blank: Residues are widely applied in physics and engineering, especially in _____ and Laplace transforms.

3.4.1 Residues in Fourier transforms

Fourier transforms often involve integrals over infinite intervals.

Residue methods simplify the evaluation of these integrals by embedding them into complex contours.

Example: Evaluating the Fourier transform of $\frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$ uses residues at poles $z = \pm i$.

Fill in the blank: Fourier transforms often involve integrals over _____ intervals, which can be handled using residues.

3.4.2 Residues in Laplace transforms



Laplace transforms convert differential equations into algebraic equations.

Inverse Laplace transforms often require contour integration.

Residues provide a direct way to compute inverse transforms by summing contributions from poles.

Example: Inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^2+1}$ involves residues at $s=\pm i$, yielding $\sin t$.

Fill in the blank: Inverse Laplace transforms are often computed using _____ at poles.

3.4.3 Guided problem sets

Problem 1: Evaluate the Fourier transform of $\frac{1}{x^2+1}$.

Solution: Poles at $z=\pm i$. Residues yield exponential terms. Result: Transform is proportional to $e^{-|k|}$.

Problem 2: Compute the inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^2+4}$.

Solution: Poles at $s=\pm 2i$. Residues yield $\frac{1}{2}\sin(2t)$.

Fill in the blank: The inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^2+4}$ is _____.

3.4.4 Broader applications

Quantum mechanics: Residues are used in evaluating propagators.

Electrical engineering: Residues simplify circuit analysis via Laplace transforms.

Signal processing: Residues help compute transforms for filtering and frequency analysis.

Fill in the blank: Residues are used in electrical engineering to simplify _____ analysis via Laplace transforms.

Pilot questions 3.4

Residues are widely applied in physics and engineering, especially in: A. Fourier and Laplace transforms B. Algebra and geometry C. Probability and statistics D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Fourier transforms often involve integrals over: A. Finite intervals B. Infinite intervals C. Rational intervals D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)



Inverse Laplace transforms are often computed using: A. Derivatives B. Residues at poles C. Integrals over finite intervals D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

The inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^2+4}$ is: A. $\sin t$ B. $\frac{1}{2}\sin(2t)$ C. $\cos t$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Residues are used in electrical engineering to simplify: A. Circuit analysis B. Probability analysis C. Geometric analysis D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Series Summary

In this Series, we explored the applications of residues to integrals and series, showing how the residue theorem extends beyond theory into practical problem-solving.

We began with definite integrals, where residues allow us to evaluate real integrals by embedding them into complex contour integrals. Examples such as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx = \pi$ demonstrated the efficiency of this method.

Next, we studied improper integrals over infinite intervals. By closing contours in the upper or lower half-plane, we evaluated integrals like $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \frac{\pi}{2}$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^4+1} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$.

We then applied residues to series, showing how infinite sums can be expressed as residues of meromorphic functions. Examples included $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{12}$.

Finally, we examined applications in physics and engineering, where residues simplify Fourier and Laplace transforms, making them invaluable in quantum mechanics, electrical engineering, and signal processing.

By completing this Series, you should now be able to apply the residue theorem to evaluate definite and improper integrals (SLO 3.1, 3.2), use residues to compute series (SLO 3.3), and analyse their applications in physics and engineering (SLO 3.4, 3.5). These skills prepare you for the next Series, where we will explore Rouchet's Theorem and Schwartz's Lemma, advancing toward deeper results in analytic function theory.

Glossary of Terms

Residue theorem: A fundamental result in complex analysis stating that the integral of a function around a closed contour equals $2\pi i$ times the sum of residues of the function inside the contour.



Residue: The coefficient of $1/z - z_0$ in the Laurent series expansion of a function around a pole z_0 .

Definite integral: An integral taken over a finite or infinite interval, often evaluated using residues when embedded into contour integrals.

Improper integral: An integral taken over an infinite interval or involving singularities, evaluated using contour integration and residues.

Contour integral: An integral of a complex function taken along a path (contour) in the complex plane.

Pole: A type of singularity where a function behaves like $1/(z - z_0)^n$ near z_0 .

Meromorphic function: A function that is analytic except at isolated poles.

Series evaluation via residues: A method of computing infinite sums by relating them to contour integrals and residues of meromorphic functions.

Fourier transform: A mathematical transform that expresses a function in terms of its frequency components; residues simplify its evaluation.

Laplace transform: A transform used to convert differential equations into algebraic equations; residues are used in computing inverse Laplace transforms.

Concept Check Questions 3

Objective questions

The residue theorem states that the integral around a closed contour equals $2\pi i$ times the sum of: A. Poles B. Residues C. Derivatives D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The integral $\int_0^{2\pi} (-1 + 2\cos x) dx$ evaluates to: A. 0 B. 2π C. 4π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The integral $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \cos x dx$ evaluates to: A. 0 B. 2 C. π D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ evaluates to: A. $\frac{\pi^2}{6}$ B. $\frac{\pi^2}{4}$ C. $\frac{\pi^2}{2}$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

Residues are widely applied in physics and engineering, especially in: A. Fourier and Laplace transforms B. Algebra and geometry C. Probability and statistics D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Short-answer questions



State the residue theorem and explain its significance. (Linked to SLO 3.1)

How are improper integrals evaluated using residues? (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Explain how residues can be used to evaluate series. (Linked to SLO 3.3)

Give one example of how residues are applied in physics or engineering. (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Why are contour integrals essential in applying the residue theorem? (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Long-answer questions

Discuss the application of residues to definite integrals, including examples. (Linked to SLO 3.1)

Basic response: State that residues can evaluate real definite integrals.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \pi$.

Analyse the role of residues in evaluating improper integrals. (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Basic response: Explain that residues handle integrals over infinite intervals.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $\int_0^{\infty} \sin x \cdot x dx = 2$.

Explain how residues are used to evaluate series, with examples. (Linked to SLO 3.3)

Basic response: State that residues relate series to contour integrals.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$.

Evaluate the importance of residues in Fourier and Laplace transforms. (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Basic response: State that residues simplify transforms.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as inverse Laplace transforms yielding sine functions.

Solve a guided problem using residues: Evaluate $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{-\cos x}{x^2+1} dx$. (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Basic response: State that residues are used.

Value-added response: Show that the result is e^{-1} .

Answers to Concept Check Questions 3



1-B, 2-B, 3-B, 4-B, 5-A

The residue theorem states that the integral around a closed contour equals $2\pi i$ times the sum of residues inside the contour. It is significant because it simplifies complex integrals.

Improper integrals are evaluated by embedding them into contour integrals, closing the contour in the upper or lower half-plane, and applying the residue theorem.

Residues evaluate series by constructing meromorphic functions whose poles encode the series terms, then applying the residue theorem.

Example: Inverse Laplace transforms in engineering are computed using residues at poles.

Contour integrals are essential because they connect real integrals and series to residues via the residue theorem.

Basic response: Residues evaluate definite integrals. Value-added response:

Example: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \pi$.

Basic response: Residues handle improper integrals. Value-added response:

Example: $\int_0^{\infty} \sin x \cdot x dx = 2$.

Basic response: Residues relate series to contour integrals. Value-added response:

Example: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$.

Basic response: Residues simplify transforms. Value-added response: Example:

Inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^2+1}$ yields $\sin t$.

Basic response: Residues are used. Value-added response: Result is e^{-1} .

Answers to Pilot Questions 3

Part 3.1 Residues and Definite Integrals

Residues are used to evaluate real: A. Definite integrals

The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$ evaluates to: B.

The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+4} dx$ evaluates to: B. 2

The residue theorem states that the integral around a closed contour equals $2\pi i$ times the sum of: B. Residues

To evaluate real integrals using residues, we embed them into: B. Complex contour integrals

Part 3.2 Residues and Improper Integrals



Residues are used to evaluate improper integrals taken over: B. Infinite intervals

The integral $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{-\cos x}{x^2+1} dx$ evaluates to: B. e^{-1}

The integral $\int_0^{\infty} \sin x \cdot x dx$ evaluates to: B. 2

The integral $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{-dx}{x^4+1}$ evaluates to: B. 2

To evaluate improper integrals using residues, we embed them into: B. Complex contour integrals

Part 3.3 Residues and Series

Residues are used to evaluate infinite: B. Series

The series $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+1}$ evaluates to: B. $\coth(\pi)$

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ evaluates to: B. $\frac{6}{\pi^2}$

The series $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+a^2}$ evaluates to: B. $\frac{\pi}{a} \coth(\pi a)$

To evaluate series using residues, we construct a: B. Meromorphic function

Part 3.4 Applications in Physics and Engineering

Residues are widely applied in physics and engineering, especially in: A. Fourier and Laplace transforms

Fourier transforms often involve integrals over: B. Infinite intervals

Inverse Laplace transforms are often computed using: B. Residues at poles

The inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^2+4}$ is: B. $\frac{1}{2} \sin(2t)$

Residues are used in electrical engineering to simplify: A. Circuit analysis

Series 3 Maximum Modulus Principle and Argument Principle

Series Outline

Part 3.1: Maximum Modulus Principle

Statement and interpretation

Consequences for analytic functions

Illustrative examples



Part 3.2: Minimum Modulus Principle

Statement and relation to the maximum modulus principle

Applications and examples

Part 3.3: Argument Principle

Statement and interpretation

Connection to zeros and poles of functions

Worked examples

Part 3.4: Applications of the Argument Principle

Counting zeros and poles inside a contour

Use in stability analysis and applied contexts

Guided problem sets

Introduction

In the previous Series, we examined the residue theorem and the calculus of residues, learning how residues simplify contour integration and enable the evaluation of definite integrals and series. Building on that foundation, this Series introduces two fundamental principles in complex analysis: the maximum modulus principle and the argument principle. These results provide deeper insight into the behaviour of analytic functions and their zeros and poles.

The purpose of this Series is to help you understand how analytic functions behave in terms of their maximum and minimum values, and how the argument principle connects changes in the argument of a function to the number of its zeros and poles. We begin with the maximum modulus principle, followed by the minimum modulus principle, then move on to the argument principle and its applications. By the end of this Series, you will be able to apply these principles to analyse functions, count zeros and poles inside contours, and solve problems in both theoretical and applied contexts.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

SLO 3.1 state and interpret the maximum modulus principle, explaining its consequences for analytic functions,



SLO 3.2 describe and apply the minimum modulus principle, showing its relation to the maximum modulus principle,

SLO 3.3 state and interpret the argument principle, connecting changes in the argument of a function to the number of its zeros and poles,

SLO 3.4 apply the argument principle to count zeros and poles inside a contour,

SLO 3.5 analyse practical applications of these principles in theoretical and applied contexts, including stability analysis.

3.1 Maximum Modulus Principle

The maximum modulus principle is a fundamental result in complex analysis that describes how analytic functions behave with respect to their maximum values. It states that if a function is analytic and non-constant within a domain, then the maximum of its modulus cannot occur inside the domain but must occur on the boundary. This principle highlights the restrictive nature of analytic functions and is a powerful tool in proving uniqueness and boundedness results.

Fill in the blank: The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the _____ of the domain.

3.1.1 Statement and interpretation

Formally, if $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant in a bounded domain D , then $|f(z)|$ cannot attain its maximum value at any point inside D . Instead, the maximum is achieved on the boundary of D .

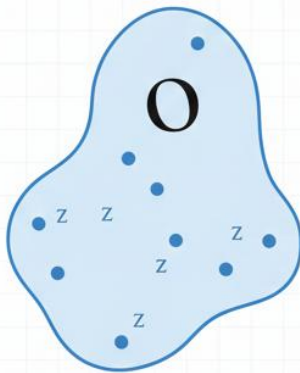
This principle implies that analytic functions are “controlled” by their boundary behaviour, and it prevents them from having interior points where the modulus is locally maximal.



The Maximum Modulus Principle

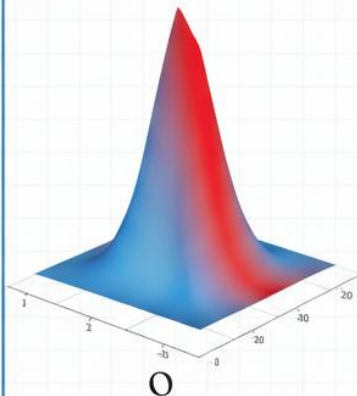
An Analytic Function Attains its Maximum on the Boundary

1. Bounded Domain Ω and Analytic Function $f(z)$



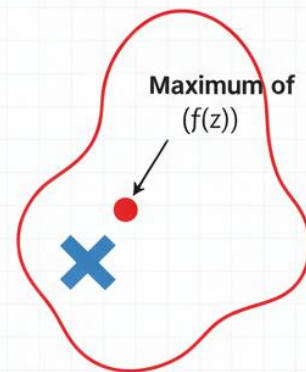
$f(z)$ is analytic in Ω

2. Modulus $|f(z)|$ Visualized



No interior maximum

3. Maximum on the Boundary



$$\max_{z \in \Omega} |f(z)| = \max_{z \in \partial\Omega} |f(z)|$$

This diagram illustrates the Maximum Modulus Principle, which states that if a function (holomorphic) is bounded on a domain Ω , then its maximum must occur on the boundary of the domain. A function cannot attain a local maximum in the interior of the domain unless it is a constant function.



Maximum modulus principle in a bounded domain AI prompt: “

Fill in the blank: If $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant in a domain, then $|f(z)|$ cannot attain its maximum value at any point _____ the domain.

3.1.2 Consequences for analytic functions

The maximum modulus principle has several important consequences:

Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are constant.

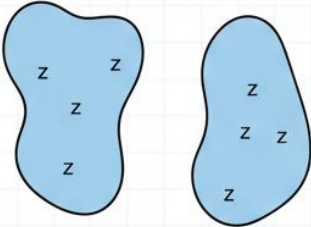
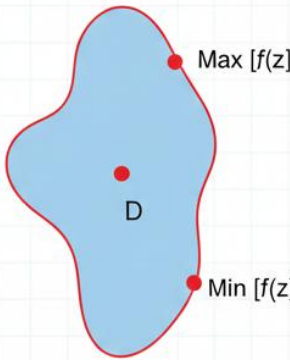
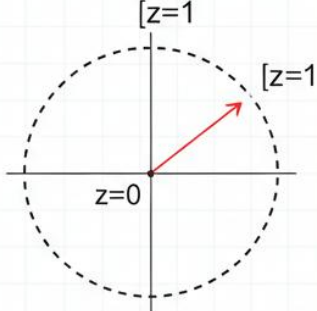


It provides a method for bounding analytic functions by their boundary values.

It is used in uniqueness proofs, showing that if two analytic functions agree on a boundary, they agree everywhere inside.

Consequences of the Maximum Modulus Principle

Boundary Control of Analytic Functions

1. Uniqueness	2. Maximum/Minimum on Boundary	3. Schwarz Lemma (Unit Disk)
 Two analytic functions f & g If $f(z) = g(z)$ on the boundary of D ↓ $\Rightarrow f(z) = g(z)$ for all z in D	 An analytic function's max/min magnitude occurs on the boundary of D	 For f analytic in unit disk, $f(0)=0$: $f(z) \leq z$ $f'(0) \leq 1$ If equality holds, $f(z) = cz$ with $c =1$

The Maximum Modulus Principle has powerful consequences: it implies that an analytic function controls its boundary values, leading to useful results, and useful results like the Schwarz Lemma for the bounded functions on the unit disk.



Source: OER Math & Physics

Consequences of the maximum modulus principle

Fill in the blank: Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are _____.

3.1.3 Illustrative examples



Example 1: Consider $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk $|z|<1$. The modulus $|f(z)|=|z|$ attains its maximum value of 1 on the boundary $|z|=1$, not inside the disk.

Example 2: Consider $f(z)=e^z$ in the strip $|\operatorname{Re}(z)|<1$. The maximum modulus occurs on the boundary lines $\operatorname{Re}(z)=\pm 1$.

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the maximum modulus occurs on the _____ of the disk.

Pilot questions 3.1

The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the: A. Interior of the domain B. Boundary of the domain C. Centre of the domain D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are: A. Constant B. Linear C. Quadratic D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The maximum modulus principle is useful in: A. Bounding analytic functions by boundary values B. Expanding functions into series C. Differentiating functions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the maximum modulus occurs on the: A. Interior B. Boundary C. Centre D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The maximum modulus principle implies that analytic functions are controlled by their: A. Derivatives B. Boundary behaviour C. Taylor expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

3.2 Minimum Modulus Principle

The minimum modulus principle complements the maximum modulus principle by describing how analytic functions behave with respect to their minimum values. It states that if a function is analytic and non-constant in a domain, then the minimum of its modulus cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a zero there. In other words, analytic functions cannot achieve a non-zero minimum modulus at an interior point.

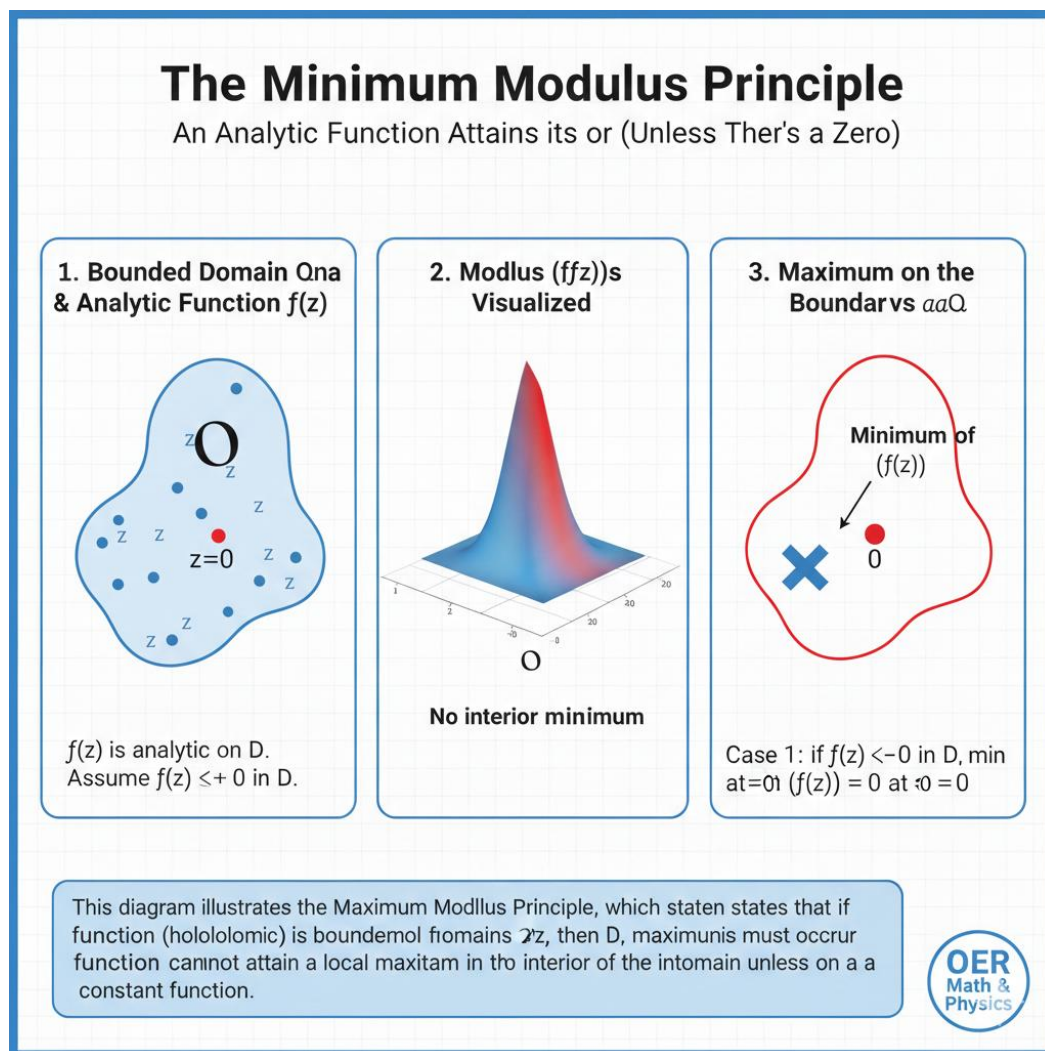
Fill in the blank: The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a _____ there.

3.2.1 Statement and relation to the maximum modulus principle



Formally, if $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant in a bounded domain D , then $|f(z)|$ cannot attain a non-zero minimum value at any point inside D . The minimum modulus must occur on the boundary of D , unless $f(z)$ has a zero inside the domain.

This principle is closely related to the maximum modulus principle, as both highlight the boundary-controlled behaviour of analytic functions.



Minimum modulus principle in a bounded domain

Fill in the blank: If $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant, then the minimum modulus must occur on the _____ unless a zero exists inside.

3.2.2 Applications and examples

The minimum modulus principle is useful in proving results about the distribution of zeros of analytic functions and in bounding functions from below.



Example 1: Consider $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk $|z|<1$. The modulus $|f(z)|=|z|$ attains its minimum value of 0 at the interior point $z=0$, which is a zero of the function.

Example 2: Consider $f(z)=e^z$ in the strip $|\operatorname{Re}(z)|<1$. Since e^z has no zeros, the minimum modulus occurs on the boundary lines $\operatorname{Re}(z)=\pm 1$.

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the minimum modulus occurs at the interior point _____.

Pilot questions 3.2

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a:
A. Pole B. Zero C. Constant value D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The minimum modulus principle is closely related to the: A. Argument principle B. Maximum modulus principle C. Taylor expansion D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the minimum modulus occurs at: A. Boundary B. Centre ($z=0$) C. Infinity D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Analytic functions cannot attain a non-zero minimum modulus inside a domain unless they have: A. A pole B. A zero C. A constant value D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The minimum modulus principle is useful in proving results about: A. Distribution of zeros B. Series expansions C. Differentiability D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

3.3 Argument Principle

The argument principle is another cornerstone of complex analysis. It connects the change in the argument of a meromorphic function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside the contour. This principle provides a powerful way to count zeros and poles without explicitly solving equations.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle relates the change in the _____ of a function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside.

3.3.1 Statement and interpretation



If $f(z)$ is meromorphic inside and on a simple closed contour C , with no zeros or poles on C , then

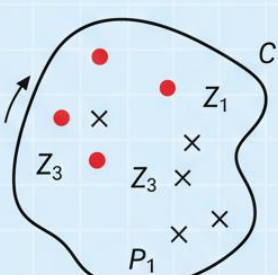
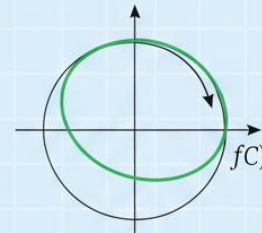
$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z) f(z) dz = N - P$$

where N is the number of zeros and P is the number of poles of $f(z)$ inside C , each counted with multiplicity.

This means that the integral of $f'(z) f(z)$ around a contour directly gives the difference between the number of zeros and poles inside.

The Argument Principle: Counting Zeros & Poles

Relating Contour Integrals to Singularities

1. Complex Contour & Singularities	2. Image Contour in w-plane	3. Apply Argument Principle
 $f(z)$ analytic inside & on C, except for poles. Zeros: $Z_1 + Z_2 + Z_3$ (orders n_i). Poles: $P_1 + P_2$ (orders m_i).	 Image of C under $f(z)$. Winding number $N = \#$ times $f(C)$ encircles origin.	3. Apply Argument Principle $N = Z - P$ $Z = \sum_p \frac{n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_m}{m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_n}$ If $Z=3, P=2$, then $N=1$ $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = N$

This principle relates the number of zeros and poles of analytic function inside of a simple closed C under C around f around the function. It is powerful tool for locating roots and poles.



Argument principle applied to a closed contour

Fill in the blank: According to the argument principle, $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z) f(z) dz$ equals the number of zeros minus the number of _____ inside the contour.



3.3.2 Connection to zeros and poles of functions

The argument principle provides a method for counting zeros and poles without explicitly finding them. By evaluating the integral, we can determine how many zeros and poles lie inside a contour. This is particularly useful in stability analysis and root-finding problems.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle provides a method for counting _____ and poles without explicitly solving equations.

3.3.3 Worked examples

Example 1: Let $f(z)=z^2-1$. Consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has zeros at $z=1$ and $z=-1$, both inside the contour. There are no poles. Thus,

$$12\pi i C_f'(z)f(z)dz=2$$

Example 2: Let $f(z)=1/z(z-1)$. Consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has poles at $z=0$ and $z=1$, both inside the contour. There are no zeros. Thus,

$$12\pi i C_f'(z)f(z)dz=-2$$

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z^2-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are _____ zeros inside.

Pilot questions 3.3

The argument principle relates the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Derivatives and integrals B. Zeros and poles C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

According to the argument principle, $12\pi i C_f'(z)f(z)dz$ equals: A. The sum of residues B. The number of zeros minus the number of poles C. The product of zeros and poles D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

The argument principle provides a method for counting: A. Derivatives B. Zeros and poles C. Series terms D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

For $f(z)=z^2-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: A. 0 zeros B. 1 zero C. 2 zeros D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

For $f(z)=1/z(z-1)$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: A. 0 poles B. 1 pole C. 2 poles D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

3.4 Applications of the Argument Principle



The argument principle is not just a theoretical result—it has powerful applications in mathematics, physics, and engineering. By connecting the change in the argument of a function to the number of zeros and poles inside a contour, it provides a practical way to analyse functions without explicitly solving equations.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle is applied to count the number of _____ and poles inside a contour.

3.4.1 Counting zeros and poles inside a contour

One of the most direct applications of the argument principle is counting the number of zeros and poles of a function inside a given contour. This is especially useful when the exact locations of zeros are difficult to determine.

Example 1: For $f(z)=z^3-1$, consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has three zeros (the cube roots of unity), all inside the contour. By applying the argument principle, we confirm that $N=3$ and $P=0$.

Example 2: For $f(z)=z^2+1$, consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has two zeros ($z=i, z=-i$) and two poles ($z=0$ of order 2). Thus, the argument principle shows $N-P=0$.

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z^3-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are _____ zeros inside.

3.4.2 Use in stability analysis and applied contexts

The argument principle is widely used in applied mathematics and engineering, particularly in control theory and stability analysis. For example:

In control theory, the principle is used to determine whether a system is stable by counting the number of poles of its transfer function in the right half-plane.

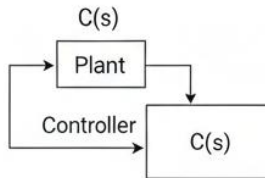
In physics, it helps analyse wave functions and scattering problems.

In numerical analysis, it is used to locate roots of equations by enclosing them in contours.



Applications of the Argument Principle: Control Theory & Stability Analysis

1. System & Characteristic Equation



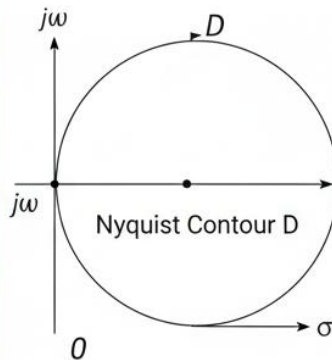
$$1 + C(s)G(s) = 0$$

Characteristic Equation

$$P(s) = 1 + (s)G(s)$$

- System is stable if $P(s)$ has no zeros in the Right-Half Plane (RHP)

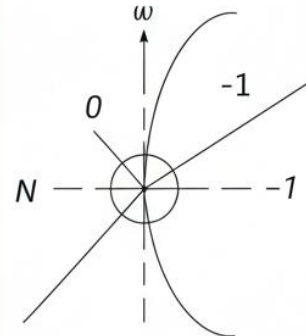
2. Nyquist Contour & Mapping



● = -plane

- Map D under $P(s)$ to w -plane. Count encirclements of -1 .

3. Nyquist Stability Criterion



$$N = Z - P$$

Z number zeros of poles
 P poles inside D (RHP)

- For stability: $P=0$ (no RHP in $1+CG$). Thus, $N=0$.

This diagram shows how the Argument Principle, via the Nyquist Control theory to complex plane to analyze system stability. By mapping of contour in complex plane and counting the characteristic equation has any encirclements of -1 in the Right-Half Plane without explicitly finding them.



Application of argument principle in stability analysis

Fill in the blank: In control theory, the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is _____.

3.4.3 Guided problem sets

Try the following exercises to strengthen your understanding:

Use the argument principle to count the number of zeros of $f(z)=z^4+z^2+1$ inside the contour $|z|=2$.



Apply the argument principle to determine the number of poles of $f(z)=1/z^2+4$ inside the contour $|z|=3$.

Explain how the argument principle can be applied in control theory to test system stability.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle can be applied in numerical analysis to locate _____ of equations by enclosing them in contours.

Pilot questions 3.4

The argument principle is applied to count the number of: A. Derivatives and integrals B. Zeros and poles C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

For $f(z)=z^3-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: A. 0 zeros B. 1 zero C. 3 zeros D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

In control theory, the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is: A. Stable B. Linear C. Quadratic D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.5)

The argument principle can be applied in numerical analysis to locate: A. Derivatives B. Roots of equations C. Series terms D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.5)

The argument principle connects the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Zeros and poles inside a contour B. Derivatives and integrals C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

Series Summary

This Series has focused on two fundamental principles in complex analysis: the maximum modulus principle and the argument principle. We began by studying the maximum modulus principle, which shows that analytic functions cannot attain their maximum modulus inside a domain unless they are constant, highlighting the boundary-controlled behaviour of analytic functions. We then examined the minimum modulus principle, which complements the maximum modulus principle by showing that analytic functions cannot attain a non-zero minimum modulus inside a domain unless they have a zero there.



Next, we explored the argument principle, which connects the change in the argument of a meromorphic function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside. This principle provides a powerful method for counting zeros and poles without explicitly solving equations. Finally, we applied the argument principle in practical contexts, such as stability analysis in control theory, root-finding in numerical analysis, and problem sets involving contours with multiple zeros and poles.

By completing this Series, you should now be able to state and interpret the maximum modulus principle (SLO 3.1), describe and apply the minimum modulus principle (SLO 3.2), state and interpret the argument principle (SLO 3.3), apply it to count zeros and poles inside contours (SLO 3.4), and analyse practical applications in theoretical and applied contexts (SLO 3.5). These skills prepare you for the next Series, where we will explore Rouchet's theorem and Schwartz's lemma, extending the study of analytic functions and their behaviour.

Glossary of Terms

Analytic function: A complex function that is differentiable at every point in its domain, with derivatives that are continuous.

Boundary behaviour: The values or properties of a function as evaluated on the boundary of its domain, often controlling its interior behaviour.

Maximum modulus principle: A theorem stating that if a function is analytic and non-constant in a domain, the maximum of its modulus occurs on the boundary of the domain.

Minimum modulus principle: A theorem stating that if a function is analytic and non-constant, the minimum of its modulus cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a zero there.

Meromorphic function: A function that is analytic except at isolated poles, where it has singularities.

Argument principle: A theorem that relates the change in the argument of a meromorphic function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside the contour.

Zeros of a function: Points where the function evaluates to zero.

Poles of a function: Points where the function tends to infinity, representing singularities.



Stability analysis: An applied context, especially in control theory, where the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is stable by counting poles in the right half-plane.

Concept Check Questions 3

Objective questions

The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the: A. Interior of the domain B. Boundary of the domain C. Centre of the domain D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a: A. Pole B. Zero C. Constant value D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The argument principle relates the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Derivatives and integrals B. Zeros and poles C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

Short-answer questions

State the maximum modulus principle and explain its significance. (Linked to SLO 3.1)

What is the minimum modulus principle, and how does it relate to zeros of analytic functions? (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Write the formula for the argument principle and explain what each term represents. (Linked to SLO 3.3)

How can the argument principle be applied to count zeros inside a contour? (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Give one example of how the argument principle is applied in engineering. (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Long-answer questions

Discuss the maximum modulus principle, including its statement, consequences, and examples. (Linked to SLO 3.1)

Basic response: State the principle and explain that maxima occur on boundaries.



Value-added response: Provide examples such as $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk.

Analyse the minimum modulus principle and its relation to zeros of analytic functions. (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Basic response: State the principle and explain that minima occur on boundaries unless zeros exist inside.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk and $f(z)=e^z$ in a strip.

Explain the argument principle and demonstrate its application with examples. (Linked to SLO 3.3, 3.4)

Basic response: State the formula and explain its meaning.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $f(z)=z^2-1$ and $f(z)=1/[z(z-1)]$.

Evaluate the role of the argument principle in applied contexts such as stability analysis. (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Basic response: Mention its use in counting poles for system stability.

Value-added response: Explain how it is applied in control theory and numerical analysis.

Answers to Concept Check Questions 3

1-B, 2-B, 3-B

The maximum modulus principle states that if a function is analytic and non-constant in a domain, the maximum of its modulus occurs on the boundary. It shows that analytic functions are controlled by boundary behaviour.

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a zero there. It relates directly to the distribution of zeros.

The formula is $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z)f(z)dz = N-P$, where N is the number of zeros and P is the number of poles inside the contour.

By evaluating the integral of $f'(z)f(z)$ around a contour, we can determine the number of zeros inside without explicitly solving for them.

In engineering, the argument principle is applied in control theory to test system stability by counting poles in the right half-plane.



Basic response: The maximum modulus principle states maxima occur on boundaries. Value-added response: For example, $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk has maximum modulus 1 on the boundary.

Basic response: The minimum modulus principle states minima occur on boundaries unless zeros exist inside. Value-added response: For example, $f(z)=z$ has minimum modulus 0 at $z=0$, a zero of the function.

Basic response: The argument principle relates the integral of $f'(z)/f(z)$ to zeros and poles. Value-added response: For $f(z)=z^2-1$, the principle shows 2 zeros inside $|z|=2$.

Basic response: The argument principle is used in stability analysis. Value-added response: In control theory, it counts poles in the right half-plane to determine system stability.

Answers to Pilot Questions 3

Part 3.1 Maximum Modulus Principle

The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the: B. Boundary of the domain

Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are: A. Constant

The maximum modulus principle is useful in: A. Bounding analytic functions by boundary values

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the maximum modulus occurs on the: B. Boundary

The maximum modulus principle implies that analytic functions are controlled by their: B. Boundary behaviour

Part 3.2 Minimum Modulus Principle

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a: B. Zero

The minimum modulus principle is closely related to the: B. Maximum modulus principle

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the minimum modulus occurs at: B. Centre ($z=0$)

Analytic functions cannot attain a non-zero minimum modulus inside a domain unless they have: B. A zero



The minimum modulus principle is useful in proving results about: A.
Distribution of zeros

Part 3.3 Argument Principle

The argument principle relates the change in the argument of a function to the number of: B. Zeros and poles

According to the argument principle, $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z) f(z) dz$ equals: B. The number of zeros minus the number of poles

The argument principle provides a method for counting: B. Zeros and poles

For $f(z)=z^2-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: C.
2 zeros

For $f(z)=1/z(z-1)$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are:
C. 2 poles

Part 3.4 Applications of the Argument Principle

The argument principle is applied to count the number of: B. Zeros and poles

For $f(z)=z^3-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: C.
3 zeros

In control theory, the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is: A. Stable

The argument principle can be applied in numerical analysis to locate: B. Roots of equations

The argument principle connects the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Zeros and poles inside a contour

Series 3 Maximum Modulus Principle and Argument Principle

Series Outline

Part 3.1: Maximum Modulus Principle

Statement and interpretation

Consequences for analytic functions

Illustrative examples



Part 3.2: Minimum Modulus Principle

Statement and relation to the maximum modulus principle

Applications and examples

Part 3.3: Argument Principle

Statement and interpretation

Connection to zeros and poles of functions

Worked examples

Part 3.4: Applications of the Argument Principle

Counting zeros and poles inside a contour

Use in stability analysis and applied contexts

Guided problem sets

Introduction

In the previous Series, we examined the residue theorem and the calculus of residues, learning how residues simplify contour integration and enable the evaluation of definite integrals and series. Building on that foundation, this Series introduces two fundamental principles in complex analysis: the maximum modulus principle and the argument principle. These results provide deeper insight into the behaviour of analytic functions and their zeros and poles.

The purpose of this Series is to help you understand how analytic functions behave in terms of their maximum and minimum values, and how the argument principle connects changes in the argument of a function to the number of its zeros and poles. We begin with the maximum modulus principle, followed by the minimum modulus principle, then move on to the argument principle and its applications. By the end of this Series, you will be able to apply these principles to analyse functions, count zeros and poles inside contours, and solve problems in both theoretical and applied contexts.

Series Learning Outcomes

Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

SLO 3.1 state and interpret the maximum modulus principle, explaining its consequences for analytic functions,



SLO 3.2 describe and apply the minimum modulus principle, showing its relation to the maximum modulus principle,

SLO 3.3 state and interpret the argument principle, connecting changes in the argument of a function to the number of its zeros and poles,

SLO 3.4 apply the argument principle to count zeros and poles inside a contour,

SLO 3.5 analyse practical applications of these principles in theoretical and applied contexts, including stability analysis.

3.1 Maximum Modulus Principle

The maximum modulus principle is a fundamental result in complex analysis that describes how analytic functions behave with respect to their maximum values. It states that if a function is analytic and non-constant within a domain, then the maximum of its modulus cannot occur inside the domain but must occur on the boundary. This principle highlights the restrictive nature of analytic functions and is a powerful tool in proving uniqueness and boundedness results.

Fill in the blank: The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the _____ of the domain.

3.1.1 Statement and interpretation

Formally, if $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant in a bounded domain D , then $|f(z)|$ cannot attain its maximum value at any point inside D . Instead, the maximum is achieved on the boundary of D .

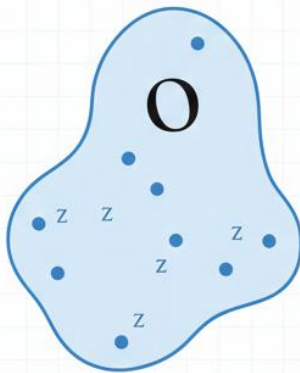
This principle implies that analytic functions are “controlled” by their boundary behaviour, and it prevents them from having interior points where the modulus is locally maximal.



The Maximum Modulus Principle

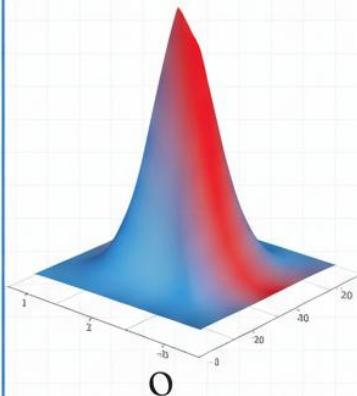
An Analytic Function Attains its Maximum on the Boundary

1. Bounded Domain Ω and Analytic Function $f(z)$



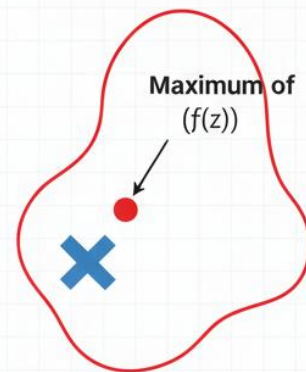
$f(z)$ is analytic in Ω

2. Modulus $|f(z)|$ Visualized



No interior maximum

3. Maximum on the Boundary $\partial\Omega$



$$\max_{z \in \bar{\Omega}} |f(z)| = \max_{z \in \partial\Omega} |f(z)|$$

This diagram illustrates the Maximum Modulus Principle, which states that if a function (holomorphic) is bounded on a domain Ω , then its maximum must occur on the boundary of the domain. A function cannot attain a local maximum in the interior of the domain unless it is a constant function.



Maximum modulus principle in a bounded domain AI prompt: “

Fill in the blank: If $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant in a domain, then $|f(z)|$ cannot attain its maximum value at any point _____ the domain.

3.1.2 Consequences for analytic functions

The maximum modulus principle has several important consequences:

Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are constant.

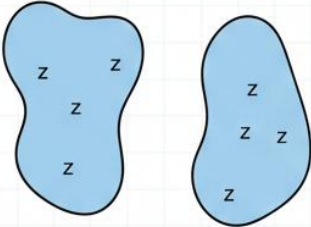
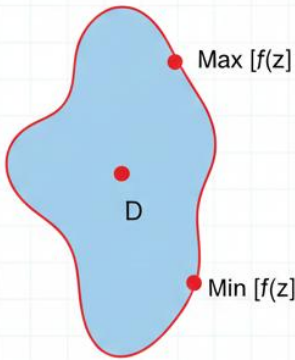
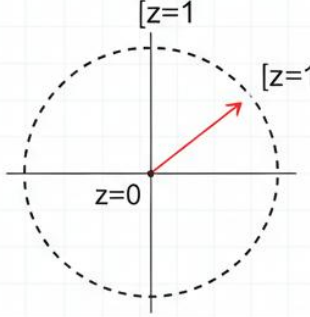


It provides a method for bounding analytic functions by their boundary values.

It is used in uniqueness proofs, showing that if two analytic functions agree on a boundary, they agree everywhere inside.

Consequences of the Maximum Modulus Principle

Boundary Control of Analytic Functions

1. Uniqueness	2. Maximum/Minimum on Boundary	3. Schwarz Lemma (Unit Disk)
 Two analytic functions f & g If $f(z) = g(z)$ on ∂D ↓ $\Rightarrow f(z) = g(z)$ for all z in D	 An analytic function's max/min magnitude occurs on the boundary ∂D	 For f analytic in unit disk, $f(0)=0$: $f(z) \leq z$ $f'(0) \leq 1$ If equality holds, $f(z) = cz$ with $c =1$

The Maximum Modulus Principle has powerful consequences: it implies that an analytic function controls its boundary values, leading to useful results, and useful results like the Schwarz Lemma for the bounded functions on the unit disk.



Source: OER Math & Physics

Consequences of the maximum modulus principle

Fill in the blank: Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are _____.

3.1.3 Illustrative examples



Example 1: Consider $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk $|z|<1$. The modulus $|f(z)|=|z|$ attains its maximum value of 1 on the boundary $|z|=1$, not inside the disk.

Example 2: Consider $f(z)=e^z$ in the strip $|\operatorname{Re}(z)|<1$. The maximum modulus occurs on the boundary lines $\operatorname{Re}(z)=\pm 1$.

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the maximum modulus occurs on the _____ of the disk.

Pilot questions 3.1

The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the: A. Interior of the domain B. Boundary of the domain C. Centre of the domain D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are: A. Constant B. Linear C. Quadratic D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The maximum modulus principle is useful in: A. Bounding analytic functions by boundary values B. Expanding functions into series C. Differentiating functions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the maximum modulus occurs on the: A. Interior B. Boundary C. Centre D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The maximum modulus principle implies that analytic functions are controlled by their: A. Derivatives B. Boundary behaviour C. Taylor expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

3.2 Minimum Modulus Principle

The minimum modulus principle complements the maximum modulus principle by describing how analytic functions behave with respect to their minimum values. It states that if a function is analytic and non-constant in a domain, then the minimum of its modulus cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a zero there. In other words, analytic functions cannot achieve a non-zero minimum modulus at an interior point.

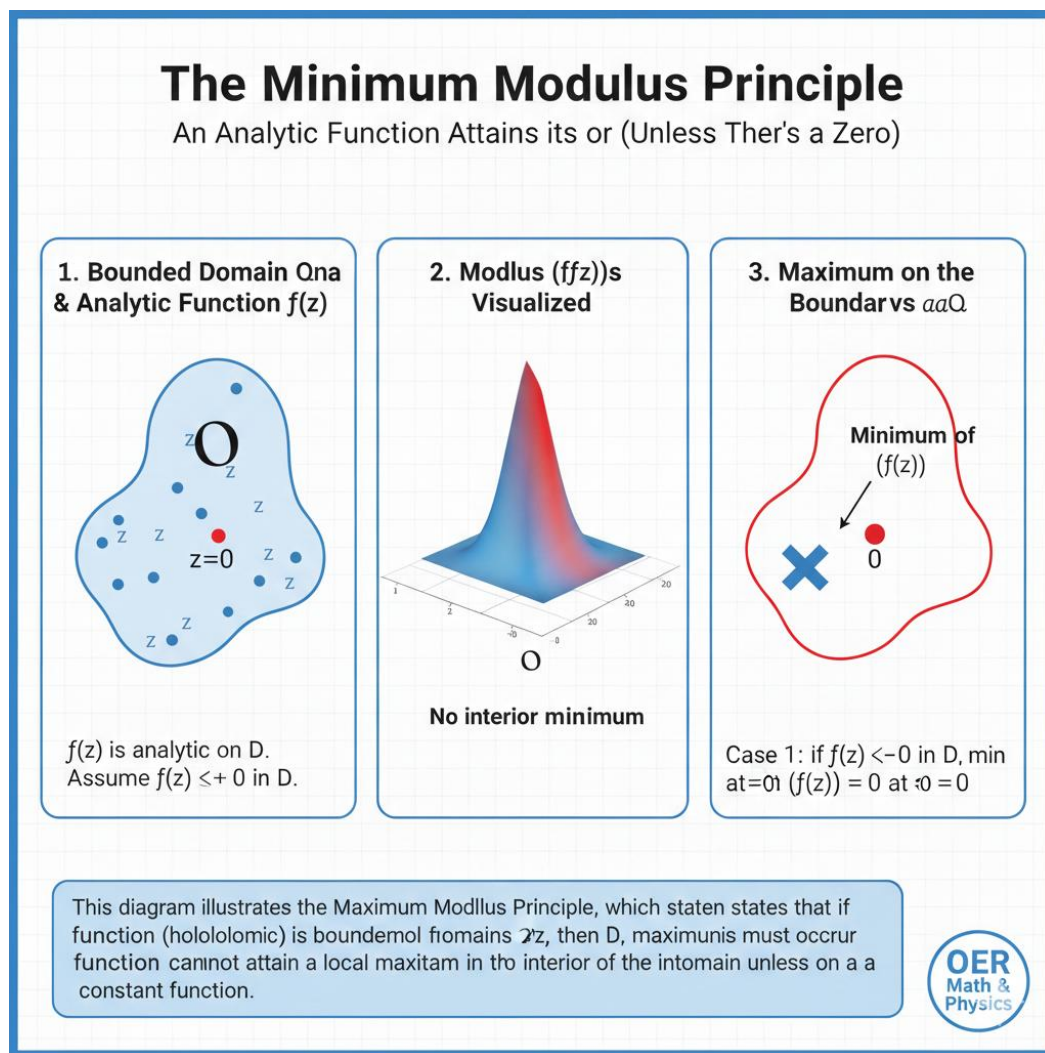
Fill in the blank: The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a _____ there.

3.2.1 Statement and relation to the maximum modulus principle



Formally, if $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant in a bounded domain D , then $|f(z)|$ cannot attain a non-zero minimum value at any point inside D . The minimum modulus must occur on the boundary of D , unless $f(z)$ has a zero inside the domain.

This principle is closely related to the maximum modulus principle, as both highlight the boundary-controlled behaviour of analytic functions.



Minimum modulus principle in a bounded domain

Fill in the blank: If $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant, then the minimum modulus must occur on the _____ unless a zero exists inside.

3.2.2 Applications and examples

The minimum modulus principle is useful in proving results about the distribution of zeros of analytic functions and in bounding functions from below.



Example 1: Consider $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk $|z|<1$. The modulus $|f(z)|=|z|$ attains its minimum value of 0 at the interior point $z=0$, which is a zero of the function.

Example 2: Consider $f(z)=e^z$ in the strip $|\operatorname{Re}(z)|<1$. Since e^z has no zeros, the minimum modulus occurs on the boundary lines $\operatorname{Re}(z)=\pm 1$.

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the minimum modulus occurs at the interior point _____.

Pilot questions 3.2

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a:
A. Pole B. Zero C. Constant value D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The minimum modulus principle is closely related to the: A. Argument principle B. Maximum modulus principle C. Taylor expansion D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the minimum modulus occurs at: A. Boundary B. Centre ($z=0$) C. Infinity D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Analytic functions cannot attain a non-zero minimum modulus inside a domain unless they have: A. A pole B. A zero C. A constant value D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The minimum modulus principle is useful in proving results about: A. Distribution of zeros B. Series expansions C. Differentiability D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

3.3 Argument Principle

The argument principle is another cornerstone of complex analysis. It connects the change in the argument of a meromorphic function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside the contour. This principle provides a powerful way to count zeros and poles without explicitly solving equations.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle relates the change in the _____ of a function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside.

3.3.1 Statement and interpretation



If $f(z)$ is meromorphic inside and on a simple closed contour C , with no zeros or poles on C , then

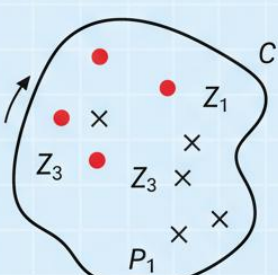
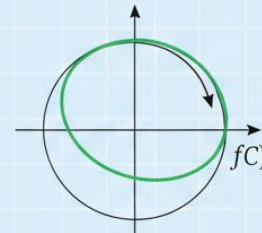
$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z) f(z) dz = N - P$$

where N is the number of zeros and P is the number of poles of $f(z)$ inside C , each counted with multiplicity.

This means that the integral of $f'(z) f(z)$ around a contour directly gives the difference between the number of zeros and poles inside.

The Argument Principle: Counting Zeros & Poles

Relating Contour Integrals to Singularities

1. Complex Contour & Singularities	2. Image Contour in w-plane	3. Apply Argument Principle
 $f(z)$ analytic inside & on C, except for poles. Zeros: $Z_1 + Z_2 + Z_3$ (orders n_i). Poles: $P_1 + P_2$ (orders m_i).	 Image of C under $f(z)$. Winding number Winding number $N = \#$ times $f(C)$ encircles origin.	3. Apply Argument Principle $N = Z - P$ $Z = \sum_p n_i + m_i \text{ (zeros)}$ $P = \sum_p m_i + n_i \text{ (poles)}$ If $Z=3, P=2$, then $N=1$ $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = N$

This principle relates the number of zeros and poles of analytic function inside of a simple closed C under C around f around the function. It is powerful tool for locating roots and poles.



Argument principle applied to a closed contour

Fill in the blank: According to the argument principle, $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z) f(z) dz$ equals the number of zeros minus the number of _____ inside the contour.



3.3.2 Connection to zeros and poles of functions

The argument principle provides a method for counting zeros and poles without explicitly finding them. By evaluating the integral, we can determine how many zeros and poles lie inside a contour. This is particularly useful in stability analysis and root-finding problems.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle provides a method for counting _____ and poles without explicitly solving equations.

3.3.3 Worked examples

Example 1: Let $f(z)=z^2-1$. Consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has zeros at $z=1$ and $z=-1$, both inside the contour. There are no poles. Thus,

$$12\pi i C_f(z)f(z)dz=2$$

Example 2: Let $f(z)=1/z(z-1)$. Consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has poles at $z=0$ and $z=1$, both inside the contour. There are no zeros. Thus,

$$12\pi i C_f(z)f(z)dz=-2$$

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z^2-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are _____ zeros inside.

Pilot questions 3.3

The argument principle relates the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Derivatives and integrals B. Zeros and poles C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

According to the argument principle, $12\pi i C_f(z)f(z)dz$ equals: A. The sum of residues B. The number of zeros minus the number of poles C. The product of zeros and poles D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

The argument principle provides a method for counting: A. Derivatives B. Zeros and poles C. Series terms D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

For $f(z)=z^2-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: A. 0 zeros B. 1 zero C. 2 zeros D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

For $f(z)=1/z(z-1)$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: A. 0 poles B. 1 pole C. 2 poles D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

3.4 Applications of the Argument Principle



The argument principle is not just a theoretical result—it has powerful applications in mathematics, physics, and engineering. By connecting the change in the argument of a function to the number of zeros and poles inside a contour, it provides a practical way to analyse functions without explicitly solving equations.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle is applied to count the number of _____ and poles inside a contour.

3.4.1 Counting zeros and poles inside a contour

One of the most direct applications of the argument principle is counting the number of zeros and poles of a function inside a given contour. This is especially useful when the exact locations of zeros are difficult to determine.

Example 1: For $f(z)=z^3-1$, consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has three zeros (the cube roots of unity), all inside the contour. By applying the argument principle, we confirm that $N=3$ and $P=0$.

Example 2: For $f(z)=z^2+1$, consider the contour $|z|=2$. The function has two zeros ($z=i, z=-i$) and two poles ($z=0$ of order 2). Thus, the argument principle shows $N-P=0$.

Fill in the blank: For $f(z)=z^3-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are _____ zeros inside.

3.4.2 Use in stability analysis and applied contexts

The argument principle is widely used in applied mathematics and engineering, particularly in control theory and stability analysis. For example:

In control theory, the principle is used to determine whether a system is stable by counting the number of poles of its transfer function in the right half-plane.

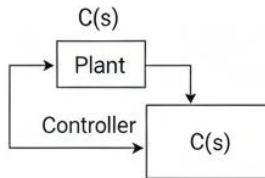
In physics, it helps analyse wave functions and scattering problems.

In numerical analysis, it is used to locate roots of equations by enclosing them in contours.



Applications of the Argument Principle: Control Theory & Stability Analysis

1. System & Characteristic Equation



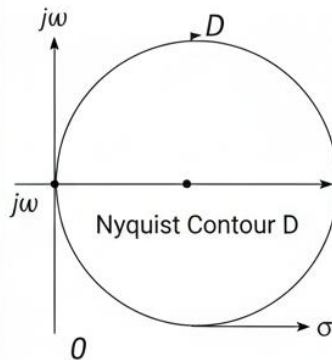
$$1 + C(s)G(s) = 0$$

Characteristic Equation

$$P(s) = 1 + (s)G(s)$$

- System is stable if $P(s)$ has no zeros in the Right-Half Plane (RHP)

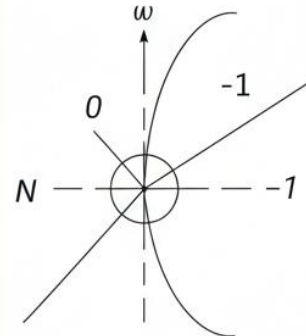
2. Nyquist Contour & Mapping



● = -plane

- Map D under $P(s)$ to w -plane. Count encirclements of -1 .

3. Nyquist Stability Criterion



$$N = Z - P$$

Z number zeros of poles
 P poles inside D (RHP)

- For stability: $P=0$ (no RHP in $1+CG$). Thus, $N=0$.

This diagram shows how the Argument Principle, via the Nyquist Control theory to complex plane to analyze system stability. By mapping of contour in complex plane and counting the characteristic equation has any encirclements of -1 in the Right-Half Plane without explicitly finding them.



Application of argument principle in stability analysis

Fill in the blank: In control theory, the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is _____.

3.4.3 Guided problem sets

Try the following exercises to strengthen your understanding:

Use the argument principle to count the number of zeros of $f(z) = z^4 + z^2 + 1$ inside the contour $|z| = 2$.



Apply the argument principle to determine the number of poles of $f(z)=1/z^2+4$ inside the contour $|z|=3$.

Explain how the argument principle can be applied in control theory to test system stability.

Fill in the blank: The argument principle can be applied in numerical analysis to locate _____ of equations by enclosing them in contours.

Pilot questions 3.4

The argument principle is applied to count the number of: A. Derivatives and integrals B. Zeros and poles C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

For $f(z)=z^3-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: A. 0 zeros B. 1 zero C. 3 zeros D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.4)

In control theory, the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is: A. Stable B. Linear C. Quadratic D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.5)

The argument principle can be applied in numerical analysis to locate: A. Derivatives B. Roots of equations C. Series terms D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.5)

The argument principle connects the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Zeros and poles inside a contour B. Derivatives and integrals C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

Series Summary

This Series has focused on two fundamental principles in complex analysis: the maximum modulus principle and the argument principle. We began by studying the maximum modulus principle, which shows that analytic functions cannot attain their maximum modulus inside a domain unless they are constant, highlighting the boundary-controlled behaviour of analytic functions. We then examined the minimum modulus principle, which complements the maximum modulus principle by showing that analytic functions cannot attain a non-zero minimum modulus inside a domain unless they have a zero there.



Next, we explored the argument principle, which connects the change in the argument of a meromorphic function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside. This principle provides a powerful method for counting zeros and poles without explicitly solving equations. Finally, we applied the argument principle in practical contexts, such as stability analysis in control theory, root-finding in numerical analysis, and problem sets involving contours with multiple zeros and poles.

By completing this Series, you should now be able to state and interpret the maximum modulus principle (SLO 3.1), describe and apply the minimum modulus principle (SLO 3.2), state and interpret the argument principle (SLO 3.3), apply it to count zeros and poles inside contours (SLO 3.4), and analyse practical applications in theoretical and applied contexts (SLO 3.5). These skills prepare you for the next Series, where we will explore Rouchet's theorem and Schwartz's lemma, extending the study of analytic functions and their behaviour.

Glossary of Terms

Analytic function: A complex function that is differentiable at every point in its domain, with derivatives that are continuous.

Boundary behaviour: The values or properties of a function as evaluated on the boundary of its domain, often controlling its interior behaviour.

Maximum modulus principle: A theorem stating that if a function is analytic and non-constant in a domain, the maximum of its modulus occurs on the boundary of the domain.

Minimum modulus principle: A theorem stating that if a function is analytic and non-constant, the minimum of its modulus cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a zero there.

Meromorphic function: A function that is analytic except at isolated poles, where it has singularities.

Argument principle: A theorem that relates the change in the argument of a meromorphic function along a closed contour to the number of its zeros and poles inside the contour.

Zeros of a function: Points where the function evaluates to zero.

Poles of a function: Points where the function tends to infinity, representing singularities.



Stability analysis: An applied context, especially in control theory, where the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is stable by counting poles in the right half-plane.

Concept Check Questions 3

Objective questions

The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the: A. Interior of the domain B. Boundary of the domain C. Centre of the domain D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.1)

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a: A. Pole B. Zero C. Constant value D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.2)

The argument principle relates the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Derivatives and integrals B. Zeros and poles C. Series and expansions D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 3.3)

Short-answer questions

State the maximum modulus principle and explain its significance. (Linked to SLO 3.1)

What is the minimum modulus principle, and how does it relate to zeros of analytic functions? (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Write the formula for the argument principle and explain what each term represents. (Linked to SLO 3.3)

How can the argument principle be applied to count zeros inside a contour? (Linked to SLO 3.4)

Give one example of how the argument principle is applied in engineering. (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Long-answer questions

Discuss the maximum modulus principle, including its statement, consequences, and examples. (Linked to SLO 3.1)

Basic response: State the principle and explain that maxima occur on boundaries.



Value-added response: Provide examples such as $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk.

Analyse the minimum modulus principle and its relation to zeros of analytic functions. (Linked to SLO 3.2)

Basic response: State the principle and explain that minima occur on boundaries unless zeros exist inside.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk and $f(z)=e^z$ in a strip.

Explain the argument principle and demonstrate its application with examples. (Linked to SLO 3.3, 3.4)

Basic response: State the formula and explain its meaning.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $f(z)=z^2-1$ and $f(z)=1/[z(z-1)]$.

Evaluate the role of the argument principle in applied contexts such as stability analysis. (Linked to SLO 3.5)

Basic response: Mention its use in counting poles for system stability.

Value-added response: Explain how it is applied in control theory and numerical analysis.

Answers to Concept Check Questions 3

1-B, 2-B, 3-B

The maximum modulus principle states that if a function is analytic and non-constant in a domain, the maximum of its modulus occurs on the boundary. It shows that analytic functions are controlled by boundary behaviour.

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a zero there. It relates directly to the distribution of zeros.

The formula is $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z)f(z)dz = N-P$, where N is the number of zeros and P is the number of poles inside the contour.

By evaluating the integral of $f'(z)f(z)$ around a contour, we can determine the number of zeros inside without explicitly solving for them.

In engineering, the argument principle is applied in control theory to test system stability by counting poles in the right half-plane.



Basic response: The maximum modulus principle states maxima occur on boundaries. Value-added response: For example, $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk has maximum modulus 1 on the boundary.

Basic response: The minimum modulus principle states minima occur on boundaries unless zeros exist inside. Value-added response: For example, $f(z)=z$ has minimum modulus 0 at $z=0$, a zero of the function.

Basic response: The argument principle relates the integral of $f'(z)/f(z)$ to zeros and poles. Value-added response: For $f(z)=z^2-1$, the principle shows 2 zeros inside $|z|=2$.

Basic response: The argument principle is used in stability analysis. Value-added response: In control theory, it counts poles in the right half-plane to determine system stability.

Answers to Pilot Questions 3

Part 3.1 Maximum Modulus Principle

The maximum modulus principle states that the maximum of the modulus of an analytic function occurs on the: B. Boundary of the domain

Analytic functions cannot have interior points of maximum modulus unless they are: A. Constant

The maximum modulus principle is useful in: A. Bounding analytic functions by boundary values

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the maximum modulus occurs on the: B. Boundary

The maximum modulus principle implies that analytic functions are controlled by their: B. Boundary behaviour

Part 3.2 Minimum Modulus Principle

The minimum modulus principle states that the minimum of the modulus of an analytic function cannot occur inside the domain unless the function has a: B. Zero

The minimum modulus principle is closely related to the: B. Maximum modulus principle

For $f(z)=z$ in the unit disk, the minimum modulus occurs at: B. Centre ($z=0$)

Analytic functions cannot attain a non-zero minimum modulus inside a domain unless they have: B. A zero



The minimum modulus principle is useful in proving results about: A.
Distribution of zeros

Part 3.3 Argument Principle

The argument principle relates the change in the argument of a function to the number of: B. Zeros and poles

According to the argument principle, $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f'(z) f(z) dz$ equals: B. The number of zeros minus the number of poles

The argument principle provides a method for counting: B. Zeros and poles

For $f(z)=z^2-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: C.
2 zeros

For $f(z)=1/z(z-1)$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are:
C. 2 poles

Part 3.4 Applications of the Argument Principle

The argument principle is applied to count the number of: B. Zeros and poles

For $f(z)=z^3-1$ in the contour $|z|=2$, the argument principle shows there are: C.
3 zeros

In control theory, the argument principle is used to determine whether a system is: A. Stable

The argument principle can be applied in numerical analysis to locate: B. Roots of equations

The argument principle connects the change in the argument of a function to the number of: A. Zeros and poles inside a contour

Series 5 Analytic Continuation, Multiple-Valued Functions, and Riemann Surfaces

Series Outline

Part 5.1: Analytic Continuation

Statement and interpretation

Methods of continuation



Illustrative examples

Part 5.2: Applications of Analytic Continuation

Extending domains of functions

Worked problems

Part 5.3: Multiple-Valued Functions

Definition and examples (logarithm, square root)

Branches and branch cuts

Illustrative examples

Part 5.4: Riemann Surfaces

Definition and motivation

Construction for multiple-valued functions

Applications in complex analysis

Introduction

In the previous Series, we studied Rouchet's theorem and Schwartz's lemma, which gave us powerful tools for counting zeros and bounding analytic functions in the unit disk. In this Series, we move into deeper territory: analytic continuation, multiple-valued functions, and Riemann surfaces.

Analytic continuation allows us to extend the domain of an analytic function beyond its original region of definition, often revealing new properties and connections. Multiple-valued functions, such as the logarithm and square root, challenge the idea of single-valuedness and require careful handling through branches and branch cuts. Riemann surfaces provide a geometric framework to make sense of these multiple-valued functions, turning them into well-defined objects by “unfolding” their structure across layered surfaces.

The purpose of this Series is to help you understand how analytic continuation expands the reach of functions, how multiple-valued functions are managed, and how Riemann surfaces unify these ideas into a coherent geometric picture. By the end, you will be able to apply analytic continuation to extend functions, handle multiple-valued functions with branches, and interpret Riemann surfaces as the natural setting for complex analysis.

Series Learning Outcomes



Upon completing this Series, you should be able to:

SLO 5.1 state and interpret the concept of analytic continuation, explaining how functions can be extended beyond their original domains,

SLO 5.2 apply analytic continuation to extend functions and solve problems involving extended domains,

SLO 5.3 define and explain multiple-valued functions, including examples such as the logarithm and square root, and describe how branches and branch

5.1 Analytic Continuation

Analytic continuation is one of the most powerful ideas in complex analysis. It allows us to extend the domain of an analytic function beyond the region where it was originally defined, often revealing deeper connections and hidden structures.

Fill in the blank: Analytic continuation is used to extend the _____ of an analytic function beyond its original region.

5.1.1 Statement and interpretation

If two analytic functions agree on a region where their domains overlap, then they are identical on the union of their domains. This principle allows us to “continue” a function step by step into larger regions, provided the continuation is consistent.

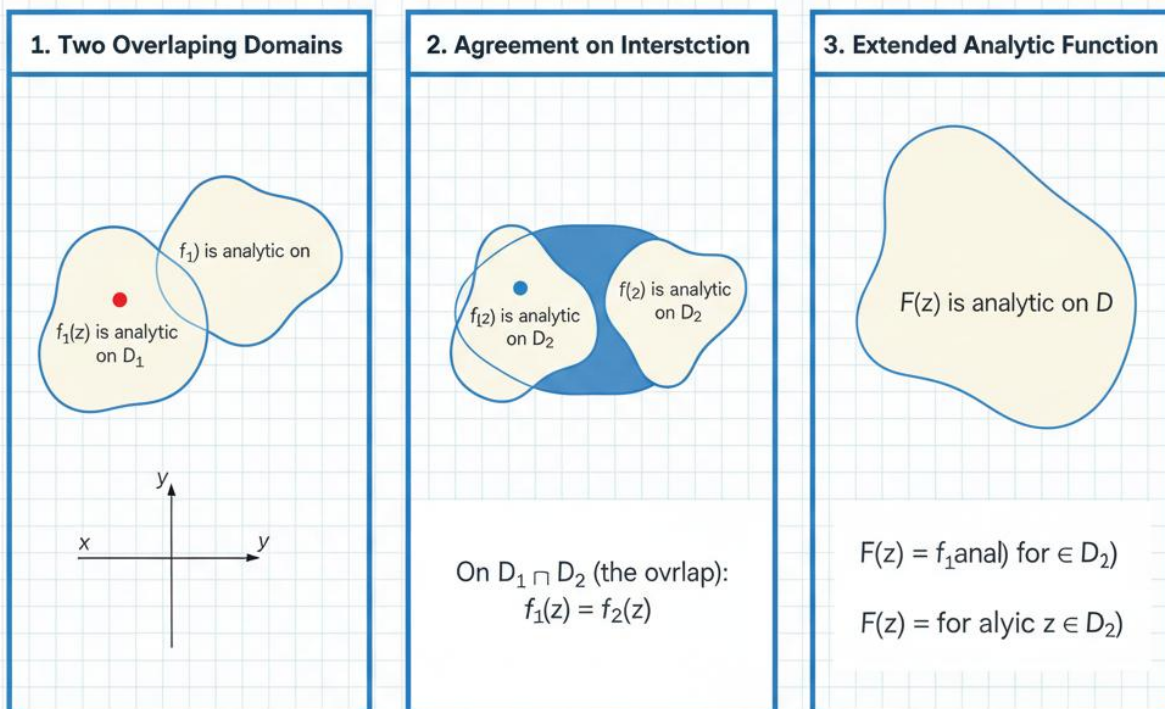
Analytic continuation is unique: once extended, the function is determined everywhere it can be continued.

It often reveals new singularities or branch points that were not visible in the original domain.



Analytic Continuation: Expanding the Domain

Unifying Analytic Functions Across Overlapping Regions



This diagram demonstrates Analytic Continuation. If two analytic functions $f_1(z)$ and $f_2(z)$ defined on overlapping domains D_1 and D_2 agree on their intersection, then they define a single, unified analytic function $F(z)$ on the combined domain $D_1 \cup D_2$. This process extends the domain for the analytic function.



Analytic continuation across overlapping domains

Fill in the blank: Analytic continuation is _____, meaning once extended, the function is determined everywhere it can be continued.

5.1.2 Methods of continuation

Power series continuation: Extend the radius of convergence by overlapping disks.

Functional equations: Use identities (e.g., Gamma function satisfies $\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z)$) to extend domains.



Integral representations: Define functions beyond their original domain using contour integrals.

Fill in the blank: The Gamma function can be analytically continued using the functional equation $\Gamma(z+1)=z\Gamma(z)$.

5.1.3 Illustrative examples

Example 1: The function $1/z$ is originally defined for $|z|<1$. By analytic continuation, it can be extended to all $z \neq 0$.

Example 2: The Riemann zeta function $\zeta(s)$ is defined by a series for $\text{Re}(s)>1$. Using analytic continuation, it can be extended to all complex $s \neq 1$.

Fill in the blank: The Riemann zeta function is originally defined for $\text{Re}(s)>1$, but analytic continuation extends it to all complex $s \neq$ _____.

Pilot questions 5.1

Analytic continuation is used to extend the: A. Domain of an analytic function B. Range of an analytic function C. Derivative of an analytic function D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.1)

Analytic continuation is: A. Arbitrary B. Unique C. Undefined D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.1)

The Gamma function can be analytically continued using the functional equation: A. $\Gamma(z+1)=z\Gamma(z)$ B. $\Gamma(z+1)=\Gamma(z)$ C. $\Gamma(z+1)=z^2\Gamma(z)$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.1)

The function $1/z$ is originally defined for: A. $|z|<1$ B. $|z|>1$ C. $|z|=1$ D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.1)

The Riemann zeta function is originally defined for $\text{Re}(s)>1$, but analytic continuation extends it to all complex s : A. 0 B. 1 C. 2 D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.1)

5.2 Applications of Analytic Continuation

Analytic continuation is not just a theoretical concept—it has wide-ranging applications in extending functions, solving problems in physics and mathematics, and uncovering deeper structures in complex analysis.

Fill in the blank: Analytic continuation is applied to extend functions beyond their original _____ of definition.



5.2.1 Extending domains of functions

Power series extension: Functions defined by series can be extended step by step into larger regions.

Special functions: Many functions in mathematics (Gamma, Zeta, Bessel functions) are defined initially in restricted domains but extended via analytic continuation.

Physics applications: Analytic continuation is used in quantum mechanics and statistical mechanics to extend solutions into complex domains.

Example: The Riemann zeta function $\zeta(s)$ is defined for $\text{Re}(s) > 1$. Analytic continuation extends it to all complex $s \neq 1$, allowing its use in number theory and physics.

Fill in the blank: The Riemann zeta function is extended to all complex $s \neq$ _____ by analytic continuation.

5.2.2 Worked problems

Problem: Extend the function $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$ beyond $|z| < 1$.

Solution: The series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$ converges only for $|z| < 1$. However, the closed form $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n = \frac{1}{1-z}$ is valid for all $z \neq 1$. Thus, analytic continuation extends the domain to all $z \neq 1$.

Problem: Show how the Gamma function is extended using its functional equation.

Solution: The Gamma function is defined by an integral for $\text{Re}(z) > 0$.

Using $\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z)$, we can extend it to negative values of z , except at non-positive integers where poles occur.

Fill in the blank: The Gamma function is extended to negative values of z using the functional equation $\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z)$, except at _____ integers.

5.2.3 Broader applications

Number theory: Analytic continuation of the zeta function is central to the study of prime numbers.



Quantum field theory: Continuation into complex time domains is used in path integrals.

Engineering: Analytic continuation helps in solving boundary value problems involving Laplace transforms.

Fill in the blank: Analytic continuation of the zeta function is central to the study of _____ numbers.

Pilot questions 5.2

Analytic continuation is applied to extend functions beyond their original: A. Range of definition B. Domain of definition C. Derivative of definition D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.2)

The Riemann zeta function is extended to all complex s : A. 0 B. 1 C. 2 D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.2)

The Gamma function is extended to negative values of z using the functional equation, except at: A. Positive integers B. Non-positive integers C. Rational numbers D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.2)

Analytic continuation of the zeta function is central to the study of: A. Rational numbers B. Prime numbers C. Real numbers D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.2)

Analytic continuation is used in physics to extend solutions into: A. Real domains B. Complex domains C. Rational domains D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.2)

5.3 Multiple-Valued Functions

Multiple-valued functions are functions in complex analysis that do not assign a single output to each input. Instead, they can produce several possible values. Classic examples include the logarithm, square root, and inverse trigonometric functions. These functions challenge the usual idea of single-valuedness and require careful handling through branches and branch cuts.

Fill in the blank: Multiple-valued functions can produce several possible _____ for a single input.

5.3.1 Definition and examples



Logarithm function: $\log z = \ln|z| + i\arg(z)$. Since $\arg(z)$ can differ by multiples of 2π , the logarithm is multiple-valued.

Square root function: z has two possible values for each nonzero z .

Inverse trigonometric functions: Functions like $\arcsin(z)$ and $\arccos(z)$ are multiple-valued because trigonometric functions are periodic.

Fill in the blank: The logarithm function is multiple-valued because the argument $\arg(z)$ can differ by multiples of _____.

5.3.2 Branches and branch cuts

To make multiple-valued functions manageable, we define branches: single-valued versions of the function restricted to a chosen domain.

Branch cut: A curve or line in the complex plane where the function is discontinuous, chosen to prevent ambiguity.

Example: For $\log z$, a common branch cut is along the negative real axis, restricting $\arg(z)$ to $(-\pi, \pi]$.

Example: For z , a branch cut is often chosen along the negative real axis to define a principal branch.

Fill in the blank: A branch cut is a curve in the complex plane where a multiple-valued function is made _____ to avoid ambiguity.

5.3.3 Illustrative examples

Example 1: The logarithm function $\log z$ has infinitely many values differing by multiples of $2\pi i$. Choosing the principal branch restricts $\arg(z)$ to $(-\pi, \pi]$.

Example 2: The square root function z has two values. Choosing the principal branch restricts the argument to $(-\pi, \pi]$, giving a consistent definition.

Example 3: The inverse sine function $\arcsin(z)$ is multiple-valued because sine is periodic. Branches are chosen to restrict the range.

Fill in the blank: The square root function has _____ possible values for each nonzero input.

Pilot questions 5.3

Multiple-valued functions can produce several possible: A. Inputs B. Outputs C. Derivatives D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.3)



The logarithm function is multiple-valued because the argument can differ by multiples of: A. 2π B. i C. D . None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.3)

A branch cut is a curve in the complex plane where a multiple-valued function is made: A. Continuous B. Single-valued C. Undefined D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.3)

The square root function has how many possible values for each nonzero input? A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.3)

Inverse trigonometric functions are multiple-valued because trigonometric functions are: A. Linear B. Periodic C. Constant D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.3)

5.4 Riemann Surfaces

Riemann surfaces provide the natural geometric framework for handling multiple-valued functions. Instead of restricting functions with branch cuts, Riemann surfaces “unfold” the complex plane into layered sheets, making multiple-valued functions single-valued when viewed on these surfaces.

Fill in the blank: Riemann surfaces provide a geometric framework to make _____ functions single-valued.

5.4.1 Definition and motivation

A Riemann surface is a one-dimensional complex manifold that locally looks like the complex plane.

Motivation: Multiple-valued functions (like $\log z$ or z) cannot be made single-valued on the complex plane without cuts. Riemann surfaces resolve this by creating layered structures.

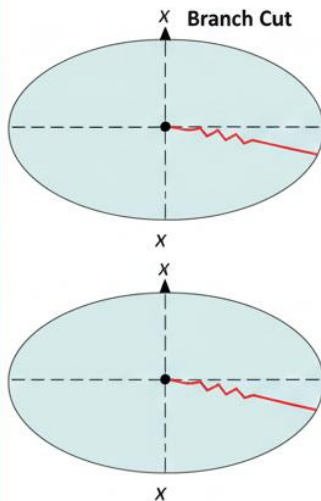
Each “sheet” corresponds to one branch of the function, and moving around branch points transitions between sheets.



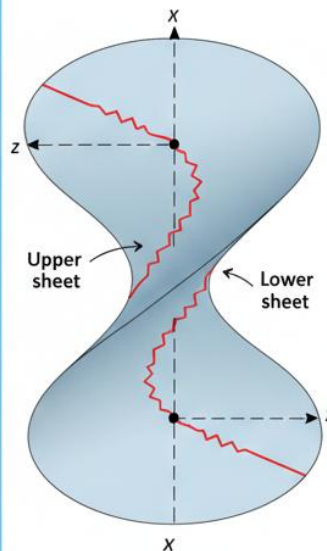
Riemen Surface for the Square Root

Visualizing Multi-Valued Functions

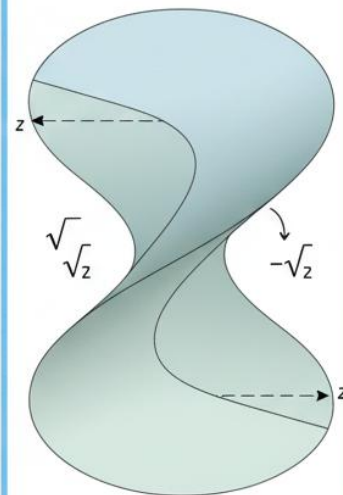
1. Two Complex Planes & Branch Cut



2. Connecting the Sheets



3. The Riemen Surface for $\sqrt{z}$



This diagram illustrates the Riemen surface for the squarot function. It consists two 'sheets' connected along a cut, visualizing how function is single-valued on this expanded domain. A full rotation a origin transitions between the two sheets.



Riemann surface for z

Fill in the blank: Each sheet of a Riemann surface corresponds to one _____ of a multiple-valued function.

5.4.2 Construction for multiple-valued functions

Square root function: Construct a two-sheeted surface where circling the origin moves you from one sheet to the other.



Logarithm function: Construct an infinite-sheeted surface where circling the origin repeatedly moves you to new sheets.

General case: Riemann surfaces are built by gluing sheets along branch cuts to make functions continuous and single-valued.

Fill in the blank: The logarithm function requires an _____-sheeted Riemann surface to become single-valued.

5.4.3 Applications in complex analysis

Simplifies multiple-valued functions: Makes them single-valued and analytic.

Geometric function theory: Provides a natural setting for studying conformal mappings.

Algebraic geometry: Riemann surfaces are central in studying algebraic curves.

Physics: Used in string theory and quantum field theory to model complex structures.

Fill in the blank: Riemann surfaces are central in studying algebraic _____ in mathematics.

Pilot questions 5.4

Riemann surfaces provide a geometric framework to make: A. Single-valued functions multiple-valued B. Multiple-valued functions single-valued C. Functions discontinuous D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.4)

Each sheet of a Riemann surface corresponds to one: A. Derivative B. Branch C. Pole D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.4)

The logarithm function requires an: A. Two-sheeted surface B. Infinite-sheeted surface C. Three-sheeted surface D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.4)

Riemann surfaces are central in studying algebraic: A. Curves B. Numbers C. Series D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.4)

Riemann surfaces are used in physics in: A. String theory and quantum field theory B. Classical mechanics C. Real analysis D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.5)

Series Summary

This Series explored three interconnected themes in complex analysis: analytic continuation, multiple-valued functions, and Riemann surfaces.



We began with analytic continuation, which allows functions to be extended beyond their original domains. This principle is unique and consistent, enabling us to uncover new properties of functions such as the Gamma and Riemann zeta functions. We then examined applications of analytic continuation, including extending domains, solving boundary problems, and its role in number theory and physics.

Next, we studied multiple-valued functions, such as the logarithm, square root, and inverse trigonometric functions. These functions produce several possible outputs for a single input, and we learned how branches and branch cuts are used to manage them.

Finally, we introduced Riemann surfaces, which provide a geometric framework to make multiple-valued functions single-valued. By constructing layered sheets connected at branch points, Riemann surfaces allow us to treat functions like $\sqrt{z}$ and $\log z$ as well-defined analytic functions. We also explored their applications in complex analysis, algebraic geometry, and physics.

By completing this Series, you should now be able to state and interpret analytic continuation (SLO 5.1), apply it to extend functions (SLO 5.2), define and explain multiple-valued functions with branches and cuts (SLO 5.3), understand Riemann surfaces as the natural setting for these functions (SLO 5.4), and analyse applications across mathematics and physics (SLO 5.5). These skills prepare you for the next Series, where we will explore Conformal Mapping and Applications, extending the geometric perspective of complex analysis.

Glossary of Terms

Analytic continuation: A method of extending the domain of an analytic function beyond its original region of definition by ensuring consistency across overlapping domains.

Domain of definition: The set of points in the complex plane where a function is originally defined.

Gamma function: A special function defined initially for $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$, extended to other values of z using analytic continuation and the functional equation $\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z)$.

Riemann zeta function: A function defined by a series for $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1$, extended to nearly the entire complex plane (except $s=1$) using analytic continuation.



Multiple-valued function: A function that assigns more than one value to a single input, such as $\log z$ or z .

Branch: A single-valued version of a multiple-valued function, defined by restricting the domain.

Branch cut: A curve or line in the complex plane used to restrict the domain of a multiple-valued function to make it single-valued.

Riemann surface: A one-dimensional complex manifold that provides a geometric framework for making multiple-valued functions single-valued by layering sheets connected at branch points.

Branch point: A point in the complex plane where a multiple-valued function changes values when encircled (e.g., $z=0$ for z).

Sheet: One layer of a Riemann surface corresponding to a branch of a multiple-valued function.

Concept Check Questions 5

Objective questions

Analytic continuation is used to extend the: A. Domain of an analytic function
B. Range of an analytic function C. Derivative of an analytic function D.
None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.1)

Multiple-valued functions can produce several possible: A. Inputs B. Outputs C.
Derivatives D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.3)

A branch cut is introduced to make a multiple-valued function: A. Continuous
B. Single-valued C. Undefined D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.3)

Each sheet of a Riemann surface corresponds to one: A. Derivative B. Branch
C. Pole D. None of the above (Linked to SLO 5.4)

Short-answer questions

State analytic continuation and explain its significance. (Linked to SLO 5.1)

How is the Gamma function extended to negative values of z ? (Linked to SLO 5.2)

Why is the logarithm function multiple-valued? (Linked to SLO 5.3)

What is a branch cut, and why is it necessary? (Linked to SLO 5.3)



Explain how Riemann surfaces resolve the issue of multiple-valued functions.
(Linked to SLO 5.4)

Long-answer questions

Discuss analytic continuation, including its statement, methods, and examples.
(Linked to SLO 5.1)

Basic response: State that analytic continuation extends functions beyond their original domain.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $\ln z$ and the Riemann zeta function.

Analyse applications of analytic continuation in mathematics and physics. (Linked to SLO 5.2)

Basic response: Explain its role in extending functions.

Value-added response: Discuss its use in number theory and quantum field theory.

Explain multiple-valued functions, branches, and branch cuts with examples.
(Linked to SLO 5.3)

Basic response: Define multiple-valued functions and explain branches.

Value-added response: Provide examples such as $\log z$ and z .

Evaluate the role of Riemann surfaces in complex analysis. (Linked to SLO 5.4, 5.5)

Basic response: State that Riemann surfaces make multiple-valued functions single-valued.

Value-added response: Explain their applications in algebraic geometry and physics.

Answers to Concept Check Questions 5

1-A, 2-B, 3-B, 4-B

Analytic continuation extends the domain of an analytic function beyond its original region, ensuring uniqueness and consistency.

The Gamma function is extended using the functional equation $\Gamma(z+1)=z\Gamma(z)$, except at non-positive integers where poles occur.



The logarithm function is multiple-valued because the argument $\arg(z)$ can differ by multiples of 2π .

A branch cut is a curve in the complex plane introduced to restrict the domain of a multiple-valued function, making it single-valued.

Riemann surfaces resolve multiple-valued functions by layering sheets connected at branch points, making the function single-valued on the surface.

Basic response: Analytic continuation extends functions beyond their domain.

Value-added response: For example, $\zeta(s)$ extends to all s ; the zeta function extends to all s .

Basic response: Analytic continuation extends functions. Value-added response: It is used in number theory (zeta function) and physics (quantum field theory).

Basic response: Multiple-valued functions assign more than one value; branches restrict them. Value-added response: $\log z$ has infinitely many values; z has two values. Branch cuts make them single-valued.

Basic response: Riemann surfaces make multiple-valued functions single-valued.

Value-added response: They are central in algebraic geometry and physics, e.g., string theory.

Answers to Pilot Questions 5

Part 5.1 Analytic Continuation

Analytic continuation is used to extend the: A. Domain of an analytic function

Analytic continuation is: B. Unique

The Gamma function can be analytically continued using the functional equation: A. $\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z)$

The function $\zeta(s)$ is originally defined for: A. $|z| < 1$

The Riemann zeta function is originally defined for $\text{Re}(s) > 1$, but analytic continuation extends it to all complex s : B. 1

Part 5.2 Applications of Analytic Continuation

Analytic continuation is applied to extend functions beyond their original: B. Domain of definition

The Riemann zeta function is extended to all complex s : B. 1



The Gamma function is extended to negative values of using the functional equation, except at: B. Non-positive integers

Analytic continuation of the zeta function is central to the study of: B. Prime numbers

Analytic continuation is used in physics to extend solutions into: B. Complex domains

Part 5.3 Multiple-Valued Functions

Multiple-valued functions can produce several possible: B. Outputs

The logarithm function is multiple-valued because the argument can differ by multiples of: B. 2π

A branch cut is a curve in the complex plane where a multiple-valued function is made: B. Single-valued

The square root function has how many possible values for each nonzero input? B. 2

Inverse trigonometric functions are multiple-valued because trigonometric functions are: B. Periodic

Part 5.4 Riemann Surfaces

Riemann surfaces provide a geometric framework to make: B. Multiple-valued functions single-valued

Each sheet of a Riemann surface corresponds to one: B. Branch

The logarithm function requires an: B. Infinite-sheeted surface

Riemann surfaces are central in studying algebraic: A. Curves

Riemann surfaces are used in physics in: A. String theory and quantum field theory



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