

Example 3 Consider  $f: \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with

$$f(z) = \frac{2}{z} + \frac{3}{z-1} + \frac{1}{z^2}$$

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

$f$  has pole of order 1 at  $z_0=1$ , and another pole of order 2 at  $z_0=0$

$$\text{Res}_1(f) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1)f(z)$$

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

$$= 3 + 0 \cdot \frac{1+2 \cdot 1}{1} = 3$$

$$\text{Res}_0(f) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} \left[ (z-0)^2 f(z) \right]$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} \left[ \frac{3z^2}{z-1} + 1 + 2z \right]$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{6z(z-1) - 3z^2}{(z-1)^2} + 2 \right] = 0 + 2 = 2$$

That provides the residues at the poles.

[Any integral  $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$  along some closed (piecewise) differentiable curve can be computed with the residue theorem.]

Let us suppose  $\gamma$  is a single piecewise differentiable curve.

We make a case distinction:

Case a)  $0, 1 \notin \overline{\text{int } \gamma} \Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$

Residue thm  
Cauchy thm

Case b)  $0 \in \text{int } \gamma$   
 $1 \notin \overline{\text{int } \gamma} \Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \cdot \text{Res}_0(f)$

$= 2\pi i \cdot 2 = 4\pi i$

Case c)  $0 \notin \overline{\text{int } \gamma}$   
 $1 \in \text{int } \gamma \Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \cdot \text{Res}_1(f)$

$= 2\pi i \cdot 3 = 6\pi i$

Case d)  $0, 1 \in \text{int } \gamma \Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i (\text{Res}_0(f) + \text{Res}_1(f))$

$= 10\pi i$

Case e) If  $0 \in \gamma$  or  $1 \in \gamma$ , then the integral is not defined.



Example 4 The function

$$f(z) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{z}\right) = 1 + \textcolor{blue}{1}z^{-1} + \frac{z^{-2}}{2} + \frac{z^{-3}}{3!} + \frac{z^{-4}}{4!} + \dots$$

has an essential singularity at  $z_0 = 0$ . The residue there is

$$\text{Res}_0(f) = 1 = \textcolor{blue}{-1}$$

as seen from the Laurent series.

Example 5 The function

$$f(z) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right) = 1 + \frac{z^{-2}}{1!} + \frac{z^{-4}}{2!} + \frac{z^{-6}}{3!} + \dots$$

has an essential singularity at  $z_0 = 0$ , whose residue equals

$$\text{Res}_0(f) = 0.$$

## IV. 2 Applications to Integrals

Example 1 We want to calculate

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

Towards that end, we study the function  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 1}$

We introduce the linear segment  $L_r : [-r, r] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, t \mapsto t$

Then

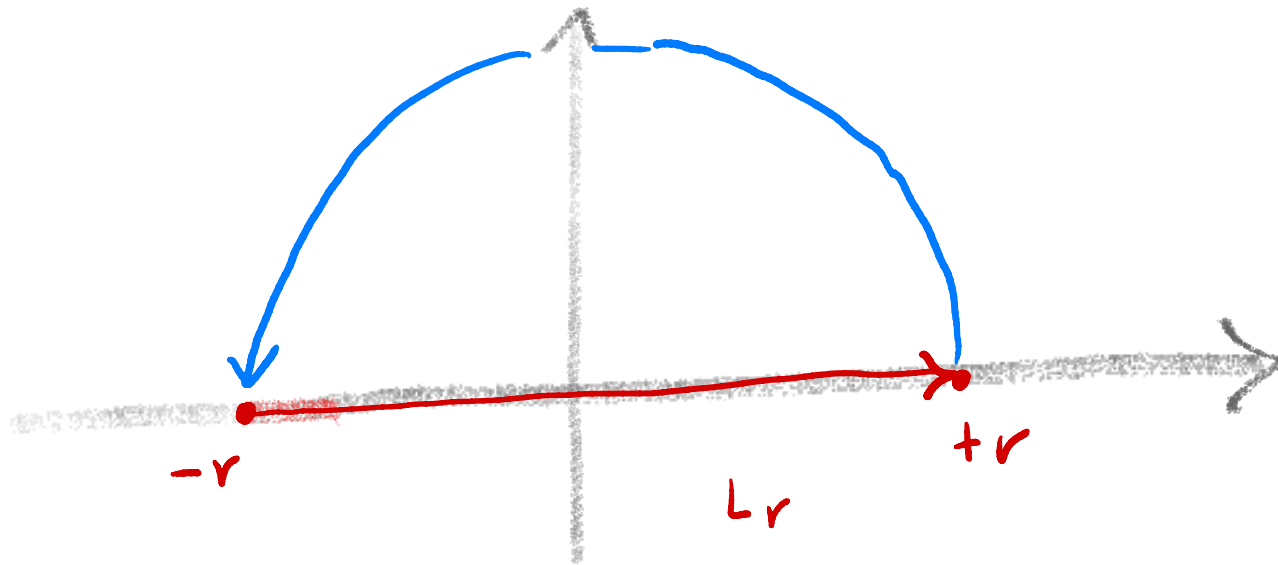
$$\int_{L_r} f(z) dz = \int_{-r}^r \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} dz \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} dz$$

We make a detour through the complex plane, introducing the half-arc

$$C_r : [0, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad t \rightarrow r \cdot e^{it}$$

of radius  $r$  centered at  $0$ .

We compute the line integral of  $f$  along  $\Gamma_r := L_r \cup C_r$



$\Gamma_r$  is a closed piecewise differentiable curve.

We apply the residue theorem.

$$\int_{\Gamma_r} f(z) dz = \int_{\Gamma_r} \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} dz = \int_{\Gamma_r} \frac{1}{(z+i)(z-i)} dz$$

By the residue theorem, for very large  $r > 0$

$$\int_{\Gamma_r} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \cdot \text{Res}_i(f)$$

We compute the residue:

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

Hence

$$\int_{\Gamma_r} f(z) dz = \pi$$

[Exercise:  $\text{Res}_{-i}(f) = \dots$ , not needed here]

Here, we have used:

- $\Gamma_r$  encloses only the pole at  $i$ , not the one at  $-i$ , and so only the residue at  $i$  matters for the residue theorem
- The pole at  $i$  is of first order, which determines the formula for computing the residue.

For our original goal, we observe

$$\pi = \int_{\Gamma_r} f(z) dz = \int_{L_r} f(z) dz + \int_{C_r} f(z) dz$$

As  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , we already know

We want to show this goes to zero as  $r \rightarrow \infty$

$$\int_{L_r} f(z) dz \longrightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(z) dz$$

What about the integral along  $C_r$  in the limit?

$$\int_{C_r} f(z) dz = \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{r^2 e^{2it} + 1} \cdot r i e^{it} dt$$

We bound the absolute value of the integral:

$$\left| \int_{C_r} f(z) dz \right| \leq \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{|r^2 e^{2it} + 1|} |r i e^{it}| dt$$

We have

$$|r i e^{it}| = r \cdot |i e^{it}| = r \cdot \underbrace{|i|}_{=1} \cdot \underbrace{|e^{it}|}_{=1} = r$$

and for  $r$  large, we have approximately

$$|r^2 e^{2it} + 1| \approx |r^2 e^{2it}| = r^2.$$

Hence, for large  $r$  we find:

$$\left| \int_{C_r} f(z) dz \right| \approx \int_0^\pi \frac{r}{r^2} = \frac{\pi}{r} \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

As  $r$  goes to  $\infty$ , the absolute value of the integral along  $C_r$  goes to zero, and so the value of the integral itself must go to zero.

In summary

$$\pi = \int_{\Gamma_r} f(z) dz = \int_{L_r} f(z) dz + \int_{C_r} f(z) dz$$

$$\xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} dz + 0$$

Hence

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

Example 2 Consider the indefinite integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} R(x) \cdot e^{i\alpha x} dx, \quad \text{where } \alpha \geq 0,$$

and where  $R(x) = P(x) / Q(x)$  is a rational function such that  $P$  and  $Q$  are polynomials with

- $\deg Q \geq \deg P + 2$
- $Q(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

Previous example is a special case  
 $P(x) = 1, \quad Q(x) = x^2 + 1, \quad \alpha = 0$

Since  $Q$  has at most  $\deg Q$  zeroes throughout  $\mathbb{C}$ , the function  $R(z) = P(z) / Q(z)$  has at most  $\deg Q$  singularities.

[Fundamental theorem of algebra]



Let  $r > 0$  be a radius large enough such that  $B_r(0)$  contains all singular points of  $R(z)$ . We introduce

$$L_r = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid \operatorname{Im}(z) = 0, \quad -r \leq \operatorname{Re}(z) \leq r \}$$

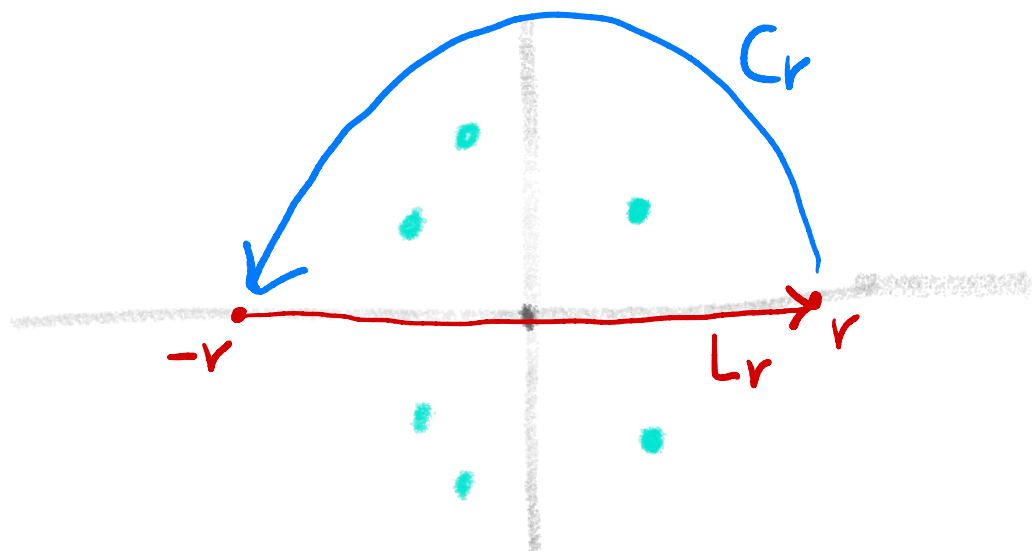
$$C_r = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z = r e^{i\theta}, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi \}$$

We join both curves to a closed curve  $\Gamma_r$ .

The function  $R(z) e^{i\alpha z}$  has singularities in the upper half-plane:

$$z_1, z_2, \dots, z_m$$

For  $r$  large enough,  $\Gamma_r$  encircles those singularities.



$$\int_{\Gamma_r} R(z) e^{i\alpha z} dz = 2\pi i \sum_{j=1}^m \text{Res}_{z_j}(R(z)e^{i\alpha z})$$

In addition,

$$\int_{\Gamma_r} R(z) e^{i\alpha z} dz = \int_{-r}^{+r} R(x) e^{i\alpha x} dx + \int_{C_r} R(z) e^{i\alpha z} dz$$

In the limit

$$\int_{-r}^{+r} R(x) e^{i\alpha x} dx \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} R(x) e^{i\alpha x} dx$$

It remains to control the integral over  $C_r$ : it is sufficient to show that the absolute value goes to zero as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$\left| \int_{C_r} R(z) e^{i\alpha z} dz \right| = \left| \int_0^\pi \frac{P(re^{it})}{Q(re^{it})} e^{i\alpha re^{it}} \cdot ire^{it} dt \right|$$

$$\leq \int_0^\pi \left| \frac{P(re^{it})}{Q(re^{it})} \right| \cdot |e^{i\alpha r e^{it}}| \cdot \underbrace{|i|}_{=1} \cdot r \cdot \underbrace{|e^{it}|}_{=1} dt$$

We use

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\alpha r e^{it}} &= e^{i\alpha r (\cos(t) + i\sin(t))} \\ &= e^{i\alpha r \cos(t) - \alpha r \sin(t)} \\ &= \underbrace{e^{i\alpha r \cos(t)}}_{\text{on the complex unit circle}} \cdot \underbrace{e^{-\alpha r \sin(t)}}_{\leq 1 \text{ because } \alpha \geq 0 \text{ and } \sin(t) \geq 0 \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq \pi} \end{aligned}$$

So

$$|e^{i\alpha r e^{it}}| \leq 1.$$

Finally,

$$\left| \frac{P(re^{it})}{Q(re^{it})} \right| \cdot r \text{ behaves proportionally like } \frac{1}{r^2} \cdot r = \frac{1}{r} \text{ for } r \text{ large}$$

This is where we use  $\deg Q \geq \deg P + 2$ .

In summary,

$$\left| \int_{C_r} f(z) dz \right| \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow \infty} \approx \pi \cdot \frac{1}{r}$$

which vanishes as  $r$  goes to infinity. Final result

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} R(z) e^{i\alpha z} dz = 2\pi i \sum_{j=1}^m \operatorname{Res}_{z_j} (R(z) e^{i\alpha z})$$

Example 3 We can compute the integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{x^2}{16 + x^4} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{x^2}{16 + x^4} e^{i0x} dx$$

Here  $R(z) = P(z) / Q(z)$  with  $P(z) = z^2$ ,  $Q(z) = 16 + z^4$ .