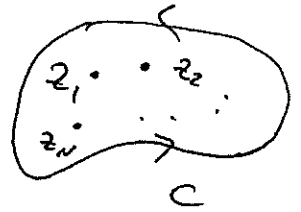


Last class

Complex Analysis (I) (cont'd)

Proved the residue theorem:

If $f(z)$ is analytic except for a finite # of singularities z_1, \dots, z_N , then



$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{i=1}^N \text{Res } f(z_i)$$

$\text{Res } f(z_i)$ is the coefficient a_{-1} of the Laurent expansion ^{of $f(z)$} around z_i .

$$f(z) = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(h)}(z_0)}{h!} (z-z_0)^h \quad \sim \text{Taylor series (analytic } f(z) \text{ at } z_0)$$

$$f(z) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} a_h (z-z_0)^h \quad \sim \text{Laurent series, } f(z) \text{ may not be analytic at } z_0.$$

(if all $a_{-n} \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ essential singularity)

Simple pole: $f(z) = \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + a_0 + \dots$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Res } f(z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \left[(z-z_0) f(z) \right]$$

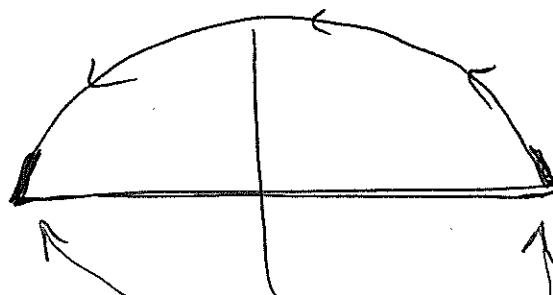
Pole of order n : $f(z) = \frac{a_{-n}}{(z-z_0)^n} + \dots + \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + a_0 + \dots$

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

for $n=1$ reduces to the simple pole expression

Integrals with complex exponentials:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx f(x) e^{ikx}, \quad k > 0$$



can close the contour

in the upper half-plane

if $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} f(Re^{i\varphi}) = 0$ for all φ .

(Jordan's lemma).

$$e^{ikx} = e^{ikR e^{i\varphi}} = e^{ikR \cos \varphi - kR \sin \varphi}$$

\Rightarrow if $\sin \varphi \lesssim \frac{1}{kR} = \frac{1}{\sin \varphi_0}$ the exponential won't

fall off f (see segments on the plot)

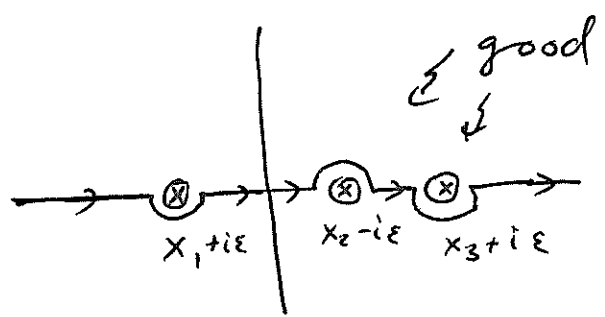
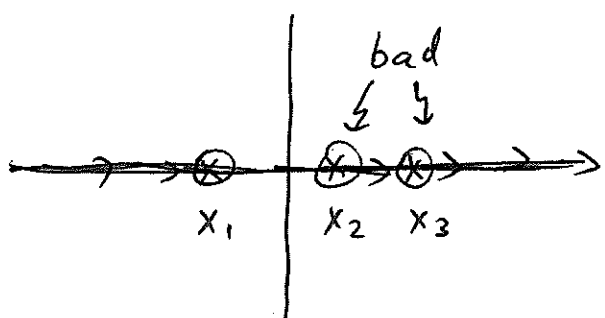
$$\Rightarrow \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{C_R} dz f(z) e^{ikz} \approx \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} 2R i \int_{\varphi_0}^{\varphi_0} d\varphi e^{i\varphi} f(Re^{i\varphi}) e^{ikR}$$

$\varphi_0 \sim \frac{1}{R}$

\Rightarrow need $f(Re^{i\varphi}) \rightarrow 0$ as $R \rightarrow \infty$ for the integral = 0.

Integration using real axis:

When integrating over the real axis, may run into situation when the poles are on the real axis. The integral is then ill-defined. One can specify how to go around those poles, thus defining the integral.



$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}$$

↑ ill-defined!

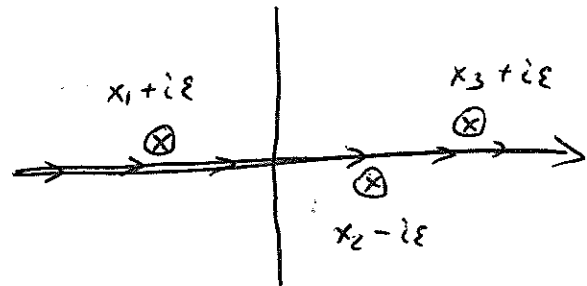
=> the integral has no value

To specify how to go around the pole we replace

$$\frac{1}{x-x_0} \rightarrow \frac{1}{x-x_0 \pm i\epsilon}$$

where ϵ is infinitesimal, and \pm defines whether the contour goes below/above the pole.

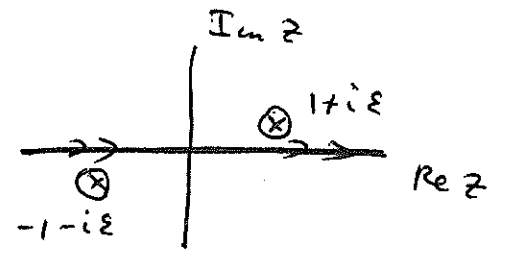
One can draw this as moving the poles, not the contour (by infinitesimal quantities)



Example $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{(x-1)(x+1)}$ is ill-defined.

However, for instance;

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{(x-1-i\epsilon)(x+1+i\epsilon)}$$



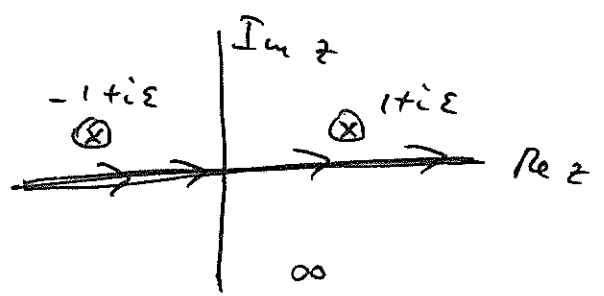
is well-defined. Closing the contour in upper half-plane we get

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{(x-1-i\epsilon)(x+1+i\epsilon)} = 2\pi i \frac{1}{2+2i\epsilon} \xrightarrow{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \pi i$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{(x-1-i\epsilon)(x+1+i\epsilon)} = \pi i.$$

We can go around the poles in different ways, each time obtaining different (!) integrals!

Example $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{(x-1-i\epsilon)(x+1-i\epsilon)} = \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{close contour in the} \\ \text{lower half-plane} \end{array} \right.$



$$= -2\pi i \cdot \emptyset = 0$$

↑
no poles in the lower half-plane

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{(x-1-i\epsilon)(x+1-i\epsilon)} = 0. \text{ (cf. previous example)}$$

Def. Principle value regularization is defined (2.29)

$$\text{by: } \boxed{PV \frac{1}{x} \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} + \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} \right]}, \quad x = \text{real.}$$

$$PV \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\text{---} \otimes \text{---} + \text{---} \otimes \text{---} \right] \sim \text{half-sum}$$

of the above & below contours.

$$\text{Note that } PV \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} + \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} \right] = \frac{x}{x^2 + \epsilon^2} \sim \text{real!}$$

Sometimes people use $P \frac{1}{x}$ to denote $PV \frac{1}{x}$.

$$\text{Consider } \frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} - \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} = \frac{2i\epsilon}{x^2 + \epsilon^2} \xrightarrow{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \begin{cases} 0, & x \neq 0 \\ \infty, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

($x \in \text{Reals}$)

\Rightarrow could be a δ -function. To check integrate:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \left[\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} - \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} \right] = 2i\epsilon \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x-i\epsilon)(x+i\epsilon)} = \cancel{2i\epsilon} \frac{2\pi i}{2i\epsilon} = 2\pi i$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} - \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} \right] = 2\pi i \delta(x).$$

Usually people drop the limit sign and write

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} - \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} = 2\pi i \delta(x).}$$

Note that

$$\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} = PV \frac{1}{x} + \pi i S(x)$$

$$\frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} = PV \frac{1}{x} - \pi i S(x)$$

This follows from the definition of PV and the formula for S-function we've obtained.

Example $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx PV \frac{1}{x} PV \frac{1}{x-1} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} + \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} \right]$

$$\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{x-1-i\epsilon} + \frac{1}{x-1+i\epsilon} \right] = \frac{1}{4} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \left[\frac{1}{x-i\epsilon} \frac{1}{x-1+i\epsilon} + \frac{1}{x+i\epsilon} \frac{1}{x-1-i\epsilon} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} [2\pi i (-1) + 2\pi i] = 0.$$

Example (higher-order poles)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{e^{ix}}{(x^2+1)^2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{e^{ix}}{(x-i)^2(x+i)^2} = \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{close the contour in} \\ \text{the upper half-plane} \end{array} \right.$$

$$= 2\pi i \frac{1}{(2-1)!} \lim_{x \rightarrow i} \frac{d}{dx} \left[(x-i)^2 \frac{e^{ix}}{(x-i)^2(x+i)^2} \right] = 2\pi i.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow i} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{e^{ix}}{(x+i)^2} \right) = 2\pi i \lim_{x \rightarrow i} \left[\frac{ie^{ix}}{(x+i)^2} - 2 \frac{e^{ix}}{(x+i)^3} \right] = 2\pi i \cdot e^{-1}.$$

$$\cdot \left[\frac{i}{-4} - 2 \frac{i}{8} \right] = 2\pi i e^{-1} \frac{-i}{2} = \frac{\pi}{e}$$