

Complex numbers \mathbb{C} : numbers of the form $z = a + bi$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

difference between \mathbb{C} and \mathbb{R}^2 :
 $\begin{matrix} (a, b) \\ \uparrow \quad \downarrow \\ \text{real part } (\operatorname{Re} z) \quad \text{imaginary part } (\operatorname{Im} z) \end{matrix}$

\mathbb{C} has a product:

$$(a + bi)(c + di) = ac + ibc + ida + bdi^2 = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$$

$$(a, b)(c, d) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$$

and you can do division. Define the norm or modulus of $z = a + bi$ by $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

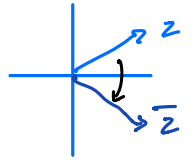
What's the same? distance:

$$z = a + bi, w = c + di$$

$$|z - w| = \sqrt{(\operatorname{Re} z - \operatorname{Re} w)^2 + (\operatorname{Im} z - \operatorname{Im} w)^2} = \sqrt{(a - c)^2 + (b - d)^2} = \|(a, b) - (c, d)\|$$

The conjugate of $z = a + bi$ is $\bar{z} = a - bi$. We have:

$$\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}, \quad \overline{zw} = \bar{z}\bar{w}, \quad \operatorname{Re} z = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \quad \operatorname{Im} z = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$$



p. 5 # 14 $\operatorname{Re}(iz) = \frac{iz + i\bar{z}}{2} = \frac{iz - i\bar{z}}{2} = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2}i = -\frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i} = -\operatorname{Im} z$

p. 6 # 22 Roots of $z^4 - 16 = 0$:

$$\text{factor as } (z^2)^2 - 4^2 = (z^2 - 4)(z^2 + 4) = (z - 2)(z + 2)(z^2 + 4)$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \pm 2, \pm 2i$$

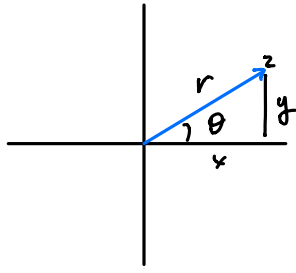
Fundamental theorem of algebra The polynomial $a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ ($a_n \neq 0$, $n \geq 1$)

has exactly n roots in \mathbb{C} .

[Hard part is showing that a root exists: we'll be able to do this later in the course, e.g. using Liouville's thm.]

Note: we count with multiplicity, so e.g. $z^2 = 0$ has two solutions.

Polar form.



$$z = x + iy$$

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

if $x, y > 0$,

$$\theta = \arctan \frac{y}{x} + 2\pi k \quad (k \in \mathbb{Z}).$$

$\theta = \text{"arg } z\text{"}$

So the polar form is not unique. We write $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$.

Write $\theta = \text{Arg } z$ to choose the θ s.t. $-\pi < \theta \leq \pi$.

Complex exponential

$$e^z := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!}.$$

Key property:

$$e^{z+w} = e^z e^w$$

$$\text{Def. } \cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \quad \sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}.$$

Then:

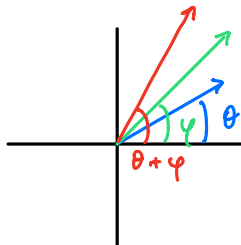
$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta \quad (\theta \in \mathbb{R})$$

so we can write

$$z = r e^{i\theta}$$

Multiplication: $z = r e^{i\theta}$, $w = s e^{i\varphi}$:

$$zw = r s e^{i\theta} e^{i\varphi} = r s e^{i(\theta + \varphi)}$$



so when we multiply, we add the angles and multiply the lengths.

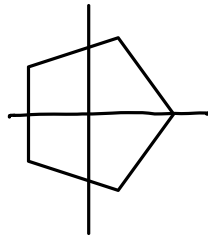
Roots of unity

The eqn. $z^n = 1$ has n solutions, given by

$$z = e^{2\pi ki/n} \quad (k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1)$$

$$= \cos \frac{2\pi k}{n} + i \sin \frac{2\pi k}{n}$$

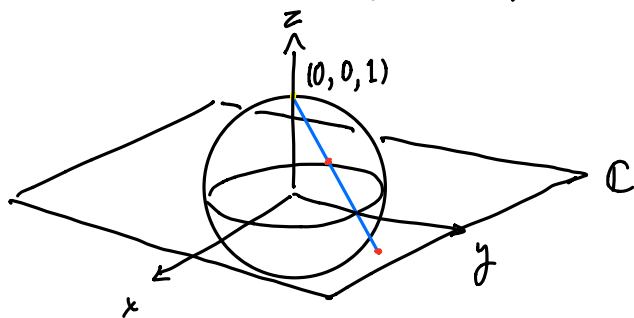
The roots of unity form the vertices of a regular n -gon inscribed in the unit circle.



($n = 5$)

132 Disc. 2

Riemann sphere / stereographic projection



Let $S^2 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 : \|x\| = 1\}$.

For $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in S^2$ exc. $(0, 0, 1)$, assoc. the complex # the blue line hits when going through $(0, 0, 1)$, (x_1, x_2, x_3) . That is,

$$(0, 0, 1) + t(x_1, x_2, x_3 - 1) = (x, y, 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + t(x_3 - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow t(x_3 - 1) = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow t = \frac{1}{1 - x_3}$$

$$\Rightarrow (x, y) = \left(\frac{x_1}{1 - x_3}, \frac{x_2}{1 - x_3} \right)$$

i.e.,
$$z = \frac{x_1 + ix_2}{1 - x_3}$$

To go the other way, note that

$$|z|^2 = \left(\frac{|x_1 + ix_2|}{1 - x_3} \right)^2 = \frac{x_1^2 + x_2^2}{(1 - x_3)^2} = \frac{1 - x_3^2}{(1 - x_3)^2}$$

$$= \frac{(1 - x_3)(1 + x_3)}{(1 - x_3)^2} = \frac{1 + x_3}{1 - x_3}$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 - x_3)|z|^2 = 1 + x_3$$

$$\Rightarrow |z|^2 - x_3|z|^2 = 1 + x_3 \Rightarrow |z|^2 - 1 = x_3(1 + |z|^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow x_3 = \frac{|z|^2 - 1}{|z|^2 + 1}$$

$$\text{so } \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} = \operatorname{Re} z = \frac{x_1}{1 - x_3}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} (1 - x_3) = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{|z|^2 + 1}$$

$$x_1 = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{|z|^2 + 1}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{i(|z|^2 + 1)}$$

$$x_3 = \frac{|z|^2 - 1}{|z|^2 + 1}$$

& sim.

for completeness

Now, $(0, 0, 1)$ corresponds to the "point at infinity": we will write ∞ .
Thus, the whole S^2 corresponds to $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$.

We now show:

Prop. Stereographic projection takes circles in \mathbb{C} to circles on S^2 .

Important note: Lines in \mathbb{C} are circles through ∞ .

Pf. Any circle on the sphere lies in some plane

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_3 = \alpha_0$$

where we can assume $\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + \alpha_3^2 = 1$, $0 \leq \alpha_0 < 1$.

In terms of z ,

$$\alpha_1(z + \bar{z}) - i\alpha_2(z - \bar{z}) + \alpha_3(|z|^2 - 1) = \alpha_0(|z|^2 + 1)$$

or, with $z = x + iy$,

$$2\alpha_1 x - i\alpha_2(2iy) + \alpha_3(x^2 + y^2 - 1) = \alpha_0(x^2 + y^2 + 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow (\alpha_0 - \alpha_3)(x^2 + y^2) - 2\alpha_1 x - 2\alpha_2 y + \alpha_0 + \alpha_3 = 0$$

so if $\alpha_0 \neq \alpha_3$, this is a circle, and if $\alpha_0 = \alpha_3$, this is a line.

We say $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is (complex) differentiable at z_0 if

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$$

exists.

Ex. $f(z) = \bar{z}$ is nowhere differentiable:

$$\frac{z+h - \bar{z}}{h} = \frac{h}{h}$$

as $h \rightarrow 0$ along \mathbb{R} , get 1

as $h \rightarrow 0$ along im. axis, get -1:

$$\frac{\bar{i}y}{iy} = \frac{-iy}{iy} = -1$$

Key idea: allowing $h \rightarrow 0$ from any direction makes complex differentiability a very strong condition.

Note: usual rules of calculus hold (sum, product, quotient, chain rule)

We say f is analytic or holomorphic in an open set Ω if f is differentiable for each $z \in \Omega$.

But, we can also think in terms of real & imaginary parts:

$$z = x + iy, \quad f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$$

Recall from calc:

We say $\bar{F}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is differentiable in the real sense if

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow \vec{0}} \frac{\|\bar{F}(x+h) - \bar{F}(x) - Jh\|}{\|h\|} = 0 \quad \text{for some } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrix } J$$

which we call the Jacobian matrix.

In this case, the partials exist &

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \partial u / \partial x & \partial u / \partial y \\ \partial v / \partial x & \partial v / \partial y \end{bmatrix}.$$

So, what's the difference?

Suppose $f = u + iv$ is complex differentiable at $z_0 = (x_0, y_0)$.

We know

$$\begin{aligned} f'(z_0) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z_0 + h) - f(z_0)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{\substack{h_1 \rightarrow 0 \\ h_1 \in \mathbb{R}}} \frac{f(x_0 + h_1, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h_1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(z_0) \end{aligned}$$

& sim. using $h = ih_2$, we get

$$f'(z_0) = \lim_{h_2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0, y_0 + h_2) - f(x_0, y_0)}{ih_2} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(z_0)$$

So, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ at (x_0, y_0) .

Now since $f = u + iv$

$$\frac{\partial(u + iv)}{\partial x} = -i \frac{\partial(u + iv)}{\partial y}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}} \quad \text{at } z_0$$

These are the Cauchy-Riemann equations.

Ex. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{|x| |y|}$. This f satisfies the C-R eqns. at $(0, 0)$ but is not differentiable there.

$$u(x, y) = \sqrt{|x| |y|}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(0, 0) = \lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ \text{real}}} \frac{\sqrt{|0+h| |0|} - \sqrt{|0| |0|}}{h} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(0, 0) = 0 \quad \text{similarly}$$

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

$$\text{We also have } \lim_{h_1 + ih_2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{|0+h_1| |0+h_2|} - \sqrt{|0| |0|}}{h_1 + ih_2} = \lim_{h_1 + ih_2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{|h_1| |h_2|}}{h_1 + ih_2}$$

$$\text{so if } h_1 = h_2 \rightarrow 0, \quad \lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{|h_1|^2}}{(1+i)h_1} = \frac{1}{1+i} \lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \frac{|h_1|}{h_1} \quad \text{which does not exist.}$$

We also have

Thm. Suppose $f = u + iv$ is defined on an open set Ω .

If u, v are continuously differentiable & satisfy the C-R eqns. in Ω , then f is analytic on Ω .

Pf. We have

$$u(x+h_1, y+h_2) - u(x, y) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} h_1 + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} h_2 + |h| \psi_1(h)$$

$$v(x+h_1, y+h_2) - v(x, y) = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} h_1 + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} h_2 + |h| \psi_2(h)$$

(MVT/continuity)

wh. $h = h_1 + ih_2$, $\psi_j \rightarrow 0$ as $|h| \rightarrow 0$.

Then C-R \Rightarrow

$$f(z+h) - f(z) = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) h + |h| (\psi_1 + i\psi_2)(h)$$

$\therefore f$ is hol. in Ω

$$\text{If } J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det J \neq 0 = \underbrace{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}_c \begin{bmatrix} \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} & \frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} \\ -\frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} & \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= c \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for some } \theta$$

$$\text{by C-R, } \det J = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^2$$

$$|f'(z_0)|^2 = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right|^2 = \left| \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right|^2 = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^2$$

so $f'(z_0) \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ locally f is a rotation & scaling (no reflections).

That is, f is orientation-preserving.

(This is "why" $f(z) = \bar{z}$ is not analytic).

logs

Want an inverse to $z = e^w$

$$\log z = w : e^w = z$$

In \mathbb{R} , this is fine.

Problem: $e^{2\pi i} = 1 \Rightarrow e^{(y+2\pi)i} = e^{yi}$. If $z = re^{i\theta}$,

$$\log z = \log |z| + i \arg z$$

satisfies

$$e^{\log z} = e^{\log |z|} e^{i \arg z} = e^{\log r} e^{i(\theta + 2\pi k)} = r e^{i\theta} = z.$$

\downarrow (any k)

But this \log has infinitely many possible values.

We thus define the principal branch

$$\text{Log } z = \log |z| + i \text{Arg } z \quad \text{where we recall, } -\pi < \text{Arg } z \leq \pi$$

because the Arg jumps by 2π as we move over \mathbb{R}^- , we will define Log on a domain with a branch cut: specifically, we remove $\mathbb{R}_{\leq 0} = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : y \leq 0\}$.

Prop. Log is analytic in $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : z \in \mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}\}$, with derivative $1/z$.

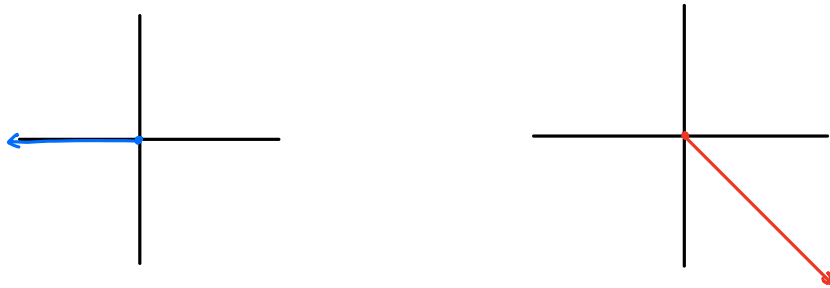
Pf. We try direct computation:

$$\lim_{\substack{z \rightarrow z_0 \\ z = e^w, z_0 = e^{w_0}}} \frac{\log z - \log z_0}{z - z_0} = \lim_{w \rightarrow w_0} \frac{w - w_0}{e^w - e^{w_0}} = \lim_{w \rightarrow w_0} \frac{1}{\frac{e^w - e^{w_0}}{w - w_0}} = \frac{1}{e^{w_0}} = \frac{1}{z_0}$$

This works as long as

- here, need \rightarrow the branch cut for continuity of \log
- (i) $z \rightarrow z_0 \Leftrightarrow w \rightarrow w_0$: this is just by continuity of \exp and Log
 - (ii) $z \neq z_0 \Rightarrow w \neq w_0$: this is immediate.

We can also use other branch cuts:



In the second case, we use an arg w/

$$-\frac{\pi}{4} < \arg z < 2\pi - \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{7}{4}\pi.$$

So, with this $\log = \log_{-\pi/4}$

$$\log(-1) = \log|1| + i \arg(-1)$$

$$= 0 + i\pi = i\pi$$

which indeed satisfies $e^{i\pi} = -1$.

In fact, this is exactly why we might need other branch cuts.

Ex. 2 (from book)

Find a branch of $\log(z^3 - 2)$ that's analytic at $z=0$.

Want a \log that's analytic at -2 . E.g. we can use $\log_{-\pi/4}$.

In fact, we can go further:

Thm. If Ω is open, simply connected, & $0 \in \Omega$, then there is an analytic branch of \log on Ω .

Thm.

Same, for any entire function that's everywhere nonzero, like e^z

Problem list all entire functions f s.t.

$$f^2 + (f')^2 = 1.$$

Prove that your list is exhaustive.

(We'll do the proof next time)

Start w/ answer to problem from last time.

Complete list is: $f = \pm 1$, $\cos(z-c)$ for $c \in \mathbb{C}$.

Pf. If f is constant, then $f' = 0$, so $f^2 + (f')^2 = 1 \Rightarrow f = \pm 1$.

Suppose f is not constant. Write $g = f'$. We have

$$\underbrace{f^2 + g^2}_{=} = 1 \quad (*)$$

$$\text{"}$$

$$(f-ig)(f+ig)$$

So $f-ig$, $f+ig$ have no zeros. Thus $\exists h$ hol. in \mathbb{C} s.t.

$$f-ig = e^h. \text{ Then } (*) \Rightarrow f+ig = e^{-h}.$$

Adding the last two eqns.,

$$f = \frac{e^h + e^{-h}}{2}$$

& similarly $-2ig = f-ig - (f+ig) = e^h - e^{-h}$

$$\Rightarrow g = -\frac{e^h - e^{-h}}{2i}$$

$$\text{But we also know } g = f' = \frac{d}{dz} \frac{e^h + e^{-h}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{e^h h' + e^{-h}(-h')}{2}$$

$$= h' \left(\frac{e^h - e^{-h}}{2} \right)$$

$$\text{hence } -\frac{e^h - e^{-h}}{2i} = h' \left(\frac{e^h - e^{-h}}{2} \right).$$

Want to cancel $\frac{e^h - e^{-h}}{2}$: can do this since $e^h \neq e^{-h}$

except at isolated points: otherwise we would have $e^h \equiv e^{-h}$ by analytic continuation, hence $f \equiv \text{const.}$, a contradiction.

$$\text{Thus, } -\frac{1}{i} = h' \Rightarrow h'(z) = i \Rightarrow h(z) = iz + C$$

$$= iz - ic \text{ for } c = \frac{C}{-i}$$

$$\text{That is, } f = \frac{e^h + e^{-h}}{2} = \frac{e^{i(z-c)} + e^{-i(z-c)}}{2} = \cos(z-c).$$

Midterm 1

1. $(z-1)^{2019} = z^{2019} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{z-1}{z}\right)^{2019} = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{z-1}{z} = e^{2\pi i \frac{k}{2019}} \quad 0 \leq k < 2019$$

$$\Rightarrow z-1 = z e^{2\pi i k / 2019}$$

$$\Rightarrow z(1 - e^{2\pi i k / 2019}) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \frac{1}{1 - e^{2\pi i k / 2019}} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq k < 2019$$

2. Let \mathcal{D}_2 be the boundary of $\{z \mid |z| < 2\}$. Then

(i) $\left| \frac{1}{z^2 - 1} \right| \leq \frac{1}{3}$

(ii) does this hold in $|z| < 2$?

=

(i) eq. to $|z^2 - 1| \geq 3$. We have

$$|z^2 - 1| \geq |z|^2 - 1 = 4 - 1 = 3 \quad \text{by rev. } \Delta\text{-ineq.}$$

(ii) No; let $z = 0$.

3. Suppose f is entire w/ $f = u + iv$ and $u(x, y)v(x, y) = 2019$.

↑
real-valued

Show that f is constant.

We have $\begin{matrix} \partial_x(uv) = 0 \\ \parallel \\ u_x v + u v_x \end{matrix}$ and $\begin{matrix} \partial_y(uv) = 0 \\ \parallel \\ u_y v + u v_y \end{matrix}$ and $\begin{cases} u_x = v_y \\ -u_y = v_x \end{cases}$ by Cauchy-Riemann

$$\text{so } u_x v + u v_x = 0 = u_y v + u v_y$$

$$\begin{matrix} \parallel & \parallel \\ v_y v - u u_y & -v_x v + u u_x \end{matrix}$$

$$u u_x = v v_x$$

$$\Rightarrow u u_x = v v_x, \quad u u_y = v v_y.$$

Thus, $v v_y = u u_y$
 $\left(\frac{1}{2}v^2\right)_y = \left(\frac{1}{2}u^2\right)_y \Rightarrow u^2 = v^2 + C(x)$
 $\Rightarrow u^2 - v^2 = C(x)$

Similarly, $u^2 - v^2 = C(y)$ using the other eqn.

Thus, $u^2 - v^2 = C.$

We thus have $(u+iv)^2 = u^2 + 2iuv - v^2$
 $= (u^2 - v^2) + 2iuv$
 $= C + 2i \cdot 2019$

so f^2 is const.

hence f is constant.

Prof. Salazar's soln. We get $\begin{cases} u_x v + u v_x = 0 \\ u_y v + u v_y = 0 \end{cases}$ as above. Then use C-R & multiply by v, u resp.: \nearrow for 2nd

$$\begin{cases} -v_x v^2 + u u_x v = 0 \\ u_x v u + u^2 v_x = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow v_x (u^2 + v^2) = 0.$$

Similarly $u_x (u^2 + v^2) = 0$. Thus, since $uv = 2019 \Rightarrow u^2 + v^2 > 0$,

we see that $u_x \equiv 0, v_x \equiv 0$ so C-R again $\Rightarrow f$ is constant.

4. Note that

$$z \neq z_0, \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} = \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} \frac{z - z_0}{g(z) - g(z_0)} \rightarrow \frac{f'(z_0)}{g'(z_0)} \text{ as } z \rightarrow z_0.$$

\uparrow Need $g \neq 0$ near z_0 . [Oth. $g \equiv 0$ by continuation]

Prof. Salazar's reason: $g = 0$ near $z_0 \Rightarrow \frac{g(z) - g(z_0)}{z - z_0} = 0 \Rightarrow g'(z_0) = 0 \quad \zeta$

5. We have $\operatorname{Re} \frac{1}{z} = \operatorname{Re} \frac{1}{x+iy} = \operatorname{Re} \frac{x-iy}{x^2+y^2} = \frac{x}{x^2+y^2}$ & sim. $\operatorname{Im} \frac{1}{z} = \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2}$.

Write $\frac{1}{z} = a+ib$. Then

$$e^a \cos b = e^a \frac{e^{ib} + e^{-ib}}{2} = \frac{e^{a+ib} + e^{a-ib}}{2},$$

but on the other hand,

$$\operatorname{Re} e^{1/2} = \frac{e^{1/2} + e^{1/2}}{2} = \frac{e^{a+ib} + e^{a-ib}}{2}.$$

So $\varphi = \operatorname{Re}(e^{1/2})$ is harmonic.

132 disc. 6

Ex. The quarter-circular contour integral

$$\int_C \frac{1}{z-a} dz = 2\pi i$$

where C is a circ. $|z-a| = r$ w/ positive orientation.

Indeed,

$$\int_C \frac{dz}{z-a} = \int_a^b \frac{z'(t) dt}{z(t)-a} \quad \begin{array}{l} z(t) = a + re^{it} \\ 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi \end{array}$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{i r e^{it}}{r e^{it}} dt = 2\pi i.$$

Now, follow Rudin for local Cauchy theorems. First do: $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$ if $f = F'$, γ a loop.

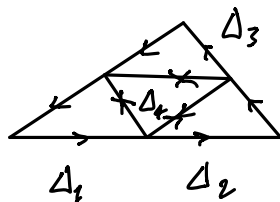
Cauchy's thm. for a triangle

Suppose f is analytic in an open set Ω , Δ is a clsd. triangle in Ω .

Then

$$\int_{\partial\Delta} f(z) dz = 0.$$

Pf. The proof is via bisection



Consider the subdivision above, so

$$\int_{\partial\Delta} f(z) dz = \sum_{j=1}^4 \int_{\partial\Delta_j} f(z) dz.$$

Hence

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4 \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_j} f(z) dz \right| \text{ for some } 1 \leq j \leq 4:$$

if not, $\left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f(z) dz \right| > 4 \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_j} f(z) dz \right|$ for all j , so

$$4 \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_j} f(z) dz \right| < \left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f(z) dz \right| \leq \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_1} f(z) dz \right| + \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_2} f(z) dz \right| + \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_3} f(z) dz \right| + \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_4} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4 \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_j} f(z) dz \right|$$

Now, iterate, subdividing the triangle Δ_j chosen above:

$$\left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4^n \left| \int_{\partial\Delta_j^{(n)}} f(z) dz \right|$$

So, get a seq. $\Delta^{(1)} \supseteq \Delta^{(2)} \supseteq \Delta^{(3)} \supseteq \dots$

hence there is a unique point $z_0 \in \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} \Delta^{(j)}$

since $\Delta^{(j)}$ is cpt. & diam $\Delta^{(j)} \rightarrow 0$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$.

Since f is analytic, for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\left| \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f'(z_0) \right| < \epsilon$$

for z near z_0 , hence in $\Delta^{(j)}$ for large j .

That is,

$$|f(z) - f(z_0) - f'(z_0)(z - z_0)| < \epsilon |z - z_0|$$

$$\text{So } \int_{\partial\Delta^{(j)}} f(z) dz = \underbrace{\int_{\partial\Delta^{(j)}} f(z) - f(z_0) - f'(z_0)(z - z_0) dz}_{=0 \text{ since this fn. has a primitive}} + \int_{\partial\Delta^{(j)}} f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) dz$$

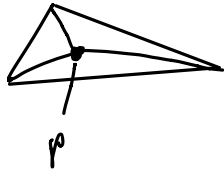
$$|\cdot| \leq \epsilon \cdot \text{perim } \Delta^{(j)} \cdot \text{diam } \Delta^{(j)}$$

$$= \epsilon \cdot 2^{-j} \text{perim } \Delta \cdot 2^{-j} \text{diam } \Delta$$

$$\text{so that } \left| \int_{\partial\Delta} f \right| \leq 4^j \left| \int_{\partial\Delta^{(j)}} f \right| \leq 4^j \varepsilon 2^{-j} \text{perim } \Delta 2^{-j} \text{diam } \Delta \\ = \varepsilon \cdot \text{perim } \Delta \cdot \text{diam } \Delta$$

so since $\varepsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, $\int_{\Delta} f = 0$.

Now, show this still holds if f is cont., f analytic in $\Omega \setminus \{p\}$:
consider case where p is a vertex, then reduce to this case:



Cauchy's thm. in a convex set

Suppose Ω is open, convex, f cont. in Ω , f analytic in $\Omega \setminus \{p\}$.

Then f has a primitive F in Ω , i.e. $f = F'$.

Hence

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

for every closed path γ in Ω .

Pf. Fix $a \in \Omega$. If $z \in \Omega$, the segment $[a, z] \subseteq \Omega$ since Ω is convex.

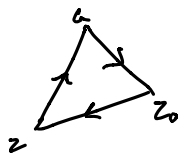
So define

$$F(z) = \int_{[a, z]} f(\zeta) d\zeta \quad (z \in \Omega).$$

If $z, z_0 \in \Omega$, the triangle w/ vertices a, z, z_0 is in Ω .

So by Cauchy's thm. for a triangle,

$$F(z) - F(z_0) = \int_{[z_0, z]} f(\zeta) d\zeta : \text{ indeed}$$



$$\int_{[z_0, z]} f + \int_{[z, a]} f + \int_{[a, z_0]} f = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{so } \int_{[z_0, z]} f &= -\int_{[z, a]} f - \int_{[a, z_0]} f \\
 &= \int_{[a, z]} f - \int_{[a, z_0]} f = F(z) - F(z_0).
 \end{aligned}$$

By continuity, for $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$: $|z - z_0| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(z) - f(z_0)| < \varepsilon$

hence

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left| \frac{F(z) - F(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f(z_0) \right| \\
 &= \left| \frac{1}{z - z_0} \int_{[z_0, z]} (f(\xi) - f(z_0)) d\xi \right| \\
 &\leq \frac{1}{|z - z_0|} \sup |f(\xi) - f(z_0)| \cdot \text{len } [z_0, z] \\
 &= \sup |f(\xi) - f(z_0)| \leq \varepsilon \text{ if } \delta \text{ is as above.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $F' = f$.

Using Cauchy's theorem

Prop. for $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$e^{-\pi \xi^2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} e^{-2\pi i x \xi} dx$$

Pf. For $\xi = 0$, this is just

$$1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx \quad (\text{which we can do in polar coords.})$$

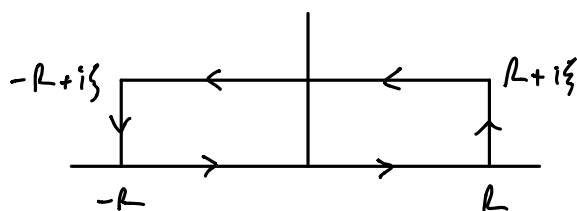
Now suppose $\xi > 0$.

Idea: the integrand suggests looking at

$$e^{-\pi(x+i\xi)^2} = e^{-\pi x^2} e^{-2\pi i x \xi} e^{-\pi \xi^2}$$

so integrating RHS corresponds to integrating LHS, i.e. integrating $e^{-\pi z^2}$ over the segt. $[-R+i\xi, R+i\xi]$.

So, consider the contour Γ :



We have

$$\int_{\Gamma} e^{-\pi z^2} dz = 0 \quad \text{by Cauchy's theorem}$$

On the other hand, it's

$$\int_{-R}^R e^{-\pi x^2} dx + \int_R^{-R} e^{-\pi(x+i\xi)^2} dx + \int_{R+i\xi}^{-R+i\xi} e^{-\pi z^2} dz + \int_{-R+i\xi}^{-R} e^{-\pi z^2} dz$$

(I)
(II)
(III)
(IV)

for the third integral,

$$\left| \int_{[R, R+i\zeta]} e^{-\pi z^2} dz \right| = \left| \int_0^\zeta \underbrace{e^{-\pi(R+iy)^2}}_{e^{-\pi(R^2+2iRy-y^2)}} i dy \right| \leq C e^{-\pi R^2}, \quad \text{so}$$

Ⓒ $\rightarrow 0$ as $R \rightarrow \infty$.

Sim. for Ⓓ.

We also know $\int_{-R}^R e^{-\pi x^2} dx \rightarrow 1$ as $R \rightarrow \infty$

$$\& \text{ Ⓔ} = - \int_{-R}^R e^{-\pi(x+i\zeta)^2} dx = -e^{\pi\zeta^2} \int_{-R}^R e^{-\pi x^2} e^{-2\pi i x \zeta} dx$$

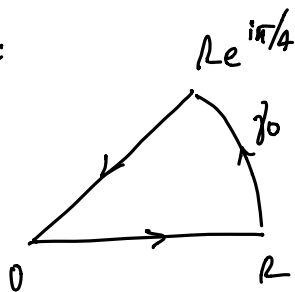
so as $R \rightarrow \infty$ we get

$$1 - e^{\pi\zeta^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} e^{-2\pi i x \zeta} dx + \text{Ⓒ} + \text{Ⓓ} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} e^{-2\pi i x \zeta} dx = e^{-\pi\zeta^2}.$$

Prop. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^x \sin(t^2) dt = ?$

Consider Γ :



and $f(z) = e^{-z^2}$

Then

$$\int_0^R e^{-x^2} dx + \int_{\gamma_0} e^{-z^2} dz + \int_{[Re^{i\pi/4}, 0]} e^{-z^2} dz = \int_{\Gamma} e^{-z^2} = 0.$$

Ⓘ Ⓚ Ⓛ

② $\rightarrow 0$ as $R \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{\text{II}} &= \int_R^0 e^{-(e^{i\pi/4} y)^2} e^{i\pi/4} dy \\ &= -e^{i\pi/4} \int_0^R e^{-iy^2} dy \end{aligned}$$

$$\textcircled{\text{I}} \rightarrow \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$

so as $R \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} - e^{i\pi/4} \int_0^\infty e^{-iy^2} dy = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \int_0^\infty \underbrace{e^{-iy^2}}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \cos(y^2) - i \sin(y^2)}} dy &= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} e^{-i\pi/4} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \left(\cos \frac{\pi}{4} - i \sin \frac{\pi}{4} \right) \\ \cos \frac{\pi}{4} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \sin \frac{\pi}{4} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^\infty \cos y^2 dy = \operatorname{Re} \int_0^\infty e^{-iy^2} dy = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

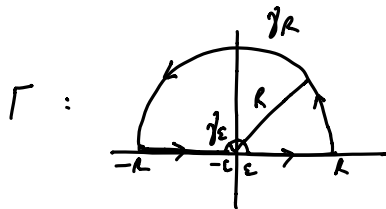
$$\int_0^\infty \sin y^2 dy = -\operatorname{Im} \int_0^\infty e^{-iy^2} dy = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

These are the Fresnel integrals.

Circular contour example

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

Consider $f(z) = \frac{e^{iz}}{z}$



$$0 = \int_{\Gamma} f = \int_{\epsilon < |k| < R} \frac{e^{ik}}{k} dk + \int_{\gamma_R} f dz + \int_{\gamma_\epsilon} f dz$$

$$\left| \int_{\gamma_R} f dz \right| = \left| \int_0^\pi \frac{e^{i(R \cos \theta + i R \sin \theta)}}{e^{i\theta}} i R e^{i\theta} d\theta \right| \leq \int_0^\pi e^{-R \sin \theta} d\theta$$

$$0 \leq e^{-R \sin \theta} \leq 1 \text{ in } [0, \pi], \text{ so}$$

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\pi e^{-R \sin \theta} d\theta = \int_0^\pi \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} e^{-R \sin \theta} d\theta = 0 \quad (\text{by DCT}).$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma_\epsilon} f dz &= - \int_0^\pi \frac{e^{i\epsilon \cos \theta} e^{-\epsilon \sin \theta}}{e^{i\theta}} i \epsilon e^{i\theta} d\theta \\ &= -i \int_0^\pi (e^{i\epsilon \cos \theta} e^{-\epsilon \sin \theta}) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

The integrand is bdd. by $e^{-\epsilon \sin \theta} \leq 1$, so

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\gamma_\epsilon} f dz &= -i \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_0^\pi e^{i\epsilon \cos \theta} e^{-\epsilon \sin \theta} d\theta \\ &= -i \int_0^\pi \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} (e^{i\epsilon \cos \theta} e^{-\epsilon \sin \theta}) d\theta = -i\pi \quad (\text{by DCT}). \end{aligned}$$

So sending $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, then $R \rightarrow \infty$, we get

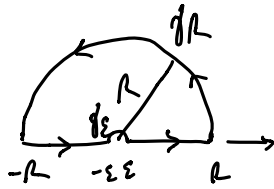
$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x} dx + 0 - i\pi \\ \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{x} dx &= i\pi \end{aligned}$$

hence taking imaginary parts gives $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \pi.$

Prob. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} dx = ?$ Hint: use Taylor series for one part of the integral

$$\operatorname{Re} \left(\frac{1 - e^{ix}}{x^2} \right)$$

$$f = \frac{1 - e^{iz}}{z^2}, \quad \Gamma:$$



$$0 = \int_{\Gamma} f = \int_{\epsilon < |x| < R} \frac{1 - e^{ix}}{x^2} dx + \int_{\gamma_{\epsilon}} f + \int_{\gamma_R} f \quad \begin{matrix} 0 \text{ as} \\ R \rightarrow \infty \end{matrix}$$

$$\int_{\gamma_{\epsilon}} f = - \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1 - e^{i\epsilon e^{i\theta}}}{\epsilon^2 e^{2i\theta}} i\epsilon e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$\frac{1 - e^{ix}}{x^2} = \frac{1 - (1 + ix + \frac{(ix)^2}{2} + \dots)}{x^2} = -\frac{i}{x} + O(1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\gamma_{\epsilon}} f = - \int_0^{\pi} \left(-\frac{i}{\epsilon e^{i\theta}} + O(1) \right) i\epsilon e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$= - \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{\cancel{\epsilon e^{i\theta}} \cancel{\epsilon e^{i\theta}}} d\theta - \int_0^{\pi} O(1) i\epsilon e^{i\theta} d\theta$$

$$= -\pi$$

$$| \cdot | \leq O(1) \cdot \epsilon \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \epsilon \rightarrow 0$$

\Rightarrow as $R \rightarrow \infty$, $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$,

$$0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1 - e^{ix}}{x^2} dx - \pi + 0$$

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

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

Midterm 2

1. [5 pts] Suppose f and g are analytic in the simply connected domain D . If Γ is a simple closed contour completely contained in D , and if $f(z) = g(z)$ for all z along Γ , show that $f(z) = g(z)$ for every point inside of Γ .

Hint: Let a be a point inside Γ . Apply Cauchy's integral formula to compute the value $h(a)$, where h is the difference function $h = f - g$.

We have

$$h(a) = \int_{\Gamma} \frac{f(\zeta) - g(\zeta)}{\zeta - a} d\zeta = 0.$$

$\rightarrow = 0$ on Γ

2. [10 pts] Evaluate

$$\int_{\Gamma} \bar{z} dz,$$

where Γ is the arc of the parabola $y = x^2$ from $x = 0$ to $x = 1$.

$$z(t) = t + it^2 \quad z'(t) = 1 + 2it$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Gamma} \bar{z} dz &= \int_0^1 (t - it^2)(1 + 2it) dt = \int_0^1 t dt + \int_0^1 -it^2 dt \\ &\quad + \int_0^1 2it^2 dt + \int_0^1 2t^3 dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}i + \frac{2i}{3} + \frac{1}{2} = 1 + \frac{i}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

3. [15 pts] Integrate the following functions over the set $|z| = 1$, traversed in the positive direction:

i. $\frac{e^{2z}}{4z - i\pi}$

(10 pts)

ii. $\frac{13z + 2}{(z^2 - 4)^2}$

(5 pts)

i. $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^{2z}}{4z - i\pi} dz = \frac{1}{4} \int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^{2z}}{z - i\pi/4} dz = \frac{1}{4} \cdot 2\pi i \cdot e^{2 \cdot i\pi/4} = -\frac{\pi}{2}$

\uparrow Cauchy int. formula

ii. $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{13z + 2}{(z^2 - 4)^2} dz = 0$ by Cauchy's thm.

4. [10 pts] Compute the integral

$$\int_{\sigma_{2019}} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2 + 1} dz,$$

where, σ_{2019} is the counterclockwise semicircle formed by the segment $[-2019, 2019]$ on the real axis, followed by the circular arc of radius 2019 in the upper half plane from 2019 to -2019 .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\sigma_{2019}} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2 + 1} dz &= \int_{|z-i|=1} \frac{e^{iz}}{z^2 + 1} dz \\ &= \int_{|z-i|=1} \frac{e^{iz}/(z+i)}{z-i} dz = 2\pi i \cdot \frac{e^{ii}}{i+i} \\ &= \frac{2\pi i e^{-1}}{2i} = \frac{\pi}{e} \end{aligned}$$

5. [10 pts] Let f be an entire function that is *bounded* by 2019. That is, f is analytic in \mathbb{C} , and $|f(z)| \leq 2019$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Prove that f must be a constant function.

Hint: For an arbitrary point $a \in \mathbb{C}$, integrate a carefully selected function over the set $|z - a| = R$ to obtain the estimate $|f'(a)| \leq \frac{2019}{R}$.

By Cauchy's estimate with $n = 1$,

$$|f'(a)| \leq \frac{1}{R} \sup_{|z-a|=R} |f(z)| \leq \frac{2019}{R}$$

so sending $R \rightarrow \infty$ shows that $f'(a) = 0$.

Since a was arbitrary, $f' \equiv 0$ so that f is constant.

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Local power series representation. Suppose f is analytic in Ω , $z_0 \in \Omega$, $z \in \mathcal{B}_r(z_0) \subseteq \Omega$:

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d\zeta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z_0} \frac{1}{1-\frac{z-z_0}{\zeta-z_0}} d\zeta \\ &\stackrel{|\frac{z-z_0}{\zeta-z_0}| < 1}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z_0} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z-z_0}{\zeta-z_0}\right)^n d\zeta \\ &\stackrel{\text{unif.}}{=} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z_0)^{n+1}} d\zeta\right) (z-z_0)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z_0)^{n+1}} d\zeta\right) \frac{(z-z_0)^n}{n!} \end{aligned}$$

so

- f can be expressed as a power series in $\mathcal{B}_r(z_0)$
- f is infinitely differentiable
- The derivatives at z_0 are given by

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta-z_0)^{n+1}} d\zeta.$$

Now if $M = \max_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} |f(\zeta)|$

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!}{2\pi} \int_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} \frac{|f(\zeta)|}{|\zeta-z_0|^{n+1}} |d\zeta| \leq \frac{n!M}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{2\pi r}{r^{n+1}} = \frac{n!M}{r^n}$$

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!M}{r^n} \quad (\text{Cauchy's estimates})$$

Cor. (Liouville's thm) Every bounded entire function is constant.

If f is bounded & entire, $\sup_{|\zeta-z_0|=r} |f(\zeta)| \leq M$ for some M , all $r > 0$, all $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$.

By Cauchy's est. ($n=1$), $|f'(z_0)| \leq \frac{M}{r}$ ($r > 0$).

Sending $r \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow f'(z_0) = 0$. Since z_0 was arbitrary, $f' \equiv 0$.

Prob. Suppose f is entire and $|f(z)| \leq C|z|^n$ for $|z|$ large. Then f is a polynomial of deg. $\leq n$.

Pf. By Cauchy's ests.,

$$\begin{aligned} |f^{(n+k)}(z_0)| &\leq \frac{(n+k)!}{r^{n+k}} \sup_{|z-z_0|=r} |f(z)| \\ &\leq \sup_{|z|=r} \frac{(n+k)!}{r^{n+k}} C|z|^n \leq C_2 \frac{(n+k)!}{r^{n+k}} r^n \\ &= C_2 (n+k)! r^{-k} \end{aligned}$$

so for $k > 0$, sending $r \rightarrow \infty$ shows that

$$f^{(n+k)}(z_0) = 0. \quad (*)$$

By the power series repr.,

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} z^n.$$

So by $(*)$,

$$f(z) = f(0) + f'(0)z + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}z^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}z^n,$$

so f is a polynomial of degree $\leq n$.

Problem 11. Suppose $f: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a holomorphic function such that the function $z \mapsto g(z) = f(z)f(1/z)$ is bounded on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$.

(a) Show that if $f(0) \neq 0$, then f is constant.

(b) Show that if $f(0) = 0$, then there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $f(z) = az^n$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

(a) If $f(0) \neq 0$, the bound gives

$$|f(1/z)| = \left| \frac{g(z)}{f(z)} \right| \leq \frac{\|g\|_{\infty}}{|f(z)|} \quad \text{for } |z| \text{ small,}$$

hence f is bounded for $|z|$ large.

By Liouville's thm., f is constant.

(b) Write $f(z) = z^n h(z)$, where $h(0) \neq 0$. Then

$$g(z) = z^n h(z) z^{-n} h(1/z) = h(z) h(1/z),$$

so part (a) shows that h is constant, say $\equiv a$.

Thus $f(z) = z^n h(z) = az^n$.

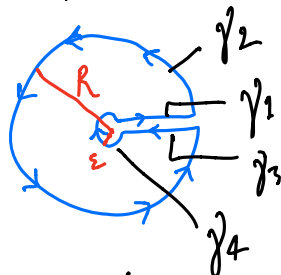
Example residue theorem application

Suppose $a, b > 0$. We will evaluate

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\log x}{(x+a)^2 + b^2} dx.$$

==

Define a keyhole contour Γ :



We consider
$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\log^2 z}{(z+a)^2 + b^2} dz = \left(\int_{\gamma_1} + \int_{\gamma_2} + \int_{\gamma_3} + \int_{\gamma_4} \right) \frac{\log^2 z}{(z+a)^2 + b^2}$$

where we define \log with a branch cut on \mathbb{R}^+ , so that $0 < \arg z < 2\pi$.

We have

$$\left| \int_{\gamma_2} \dots \right| = O\left(\frac{\log^2 R}{R^2}\right) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow \infty,$$

& sim. for γ_4 as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$.

Moreover,

$$\int_{\gamma_1} \dots = \int_{\epsilon}^R \frac{\log^2 x}{(x+a)^2 + b^2} dx, \quad \int_{\gamma_3} \dots = \int_R^{\epsilon} \frac{(\log x + 2\pi i)^2}{(x+a)^2 + b^2} dx,$$

$$\text{so } \int_{\gamma_1} + \int_{\gamma_3} \dots = \int_{\epsilon}^R \frac{\log^2 x - (\log^2 x + 4\pi i \log x - 4\pi^2)}{(x+a)^2 + b^2} dx.$$

On the other hand, $\frac{\log^2 z}{(z+a)^2 + b^2}$ has simple poles at $\pm ib - a$,

so by the Residue Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\log^2 z}{(z+a)^2 + b^2} dz &= 2\pi i \left(\operatorname{Res}_{z=ib-a} \frac{\log^2 z}{(z+a)^2 + b^2} + \operatorname{Res}_{z=-ib-a} \frac{\log^2 z}{(z+a)^2 + b^2} \right) \\
&= 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow ib-a} \frac{\log^2 z}{z - (-ib-a)} + 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow -ib-a} \frac{\log^2 z}{z - (ib-a)} \\
&= 2\pi i \frac{\log^2(ib-a)}{2ib} + 2\pi i \frac{\log^2(-ib-a)}{-2ib} \\
&= \frac{\pi}{b} (\log^2(ib-a) - \log^2(-ib-a)),
\end{aligned}$$

so that

$$-4\pi \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\log x}{(x+a)^2 + b^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{b} \operatorname{Im} (\log^2(ib-a) - \log^2(-ib-a)),$$

where $\log^2 z = (\log |z| + i \arg z)^2$ (usual real log)

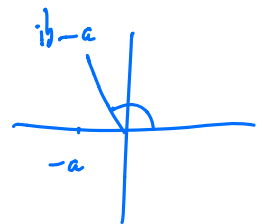
$$= \log^2 |z| + 2i \arg z \log |z| - \arg^2 z,$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned}
(*) \quad \log^2(ib-a) - \log^2(-ib-a) &= \log^2 |ib-a| + 2i \arg(ib-a) \log |ib-a| \\
&\quad - \arg^2(ib-a) \\
&\quad - \log^2 |-ib-a| - 2i \arg(-ib-a) \log |-ib-a| \\
&\quad + \arg^2(-ib-a),
\end{aligned}$$

where $\arg(ib-a) = \pi - \arg(a+ib) = \pi - \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$

& $\arg(-ib-a) = \pi + \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right).$



Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Im} (*) &= 2 \arg(ib-a) \log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} - 2 \arg(-ib-a) \log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \\
&= \left[\left(\pi - \arctan \frac{b}{a} \right) - \left(\pi + \arctan \frac{b}{a} \right) \right] \cdot \log (a^2 + b^2)
\end{aligned}$$

$$= -2 \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) \cdot \log(a^2 + b^2),$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\log x}{(x+a)^2 + b^2} dx &= + \frac{1}{\cancel{4b}} \cdot \frac{\cancel{x}}{b} \cdot + 2 \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) \log(a^2 + b^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2b} \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) \cdot \log(a^2 + b^2). \end{aligned}$$

For example, if $a = b = 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\log x}{x^2 + 2x + 2} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \arctan 1 \log 2 \\ &= \frac{\pi}{8} \log 2. \end{aligned}$$