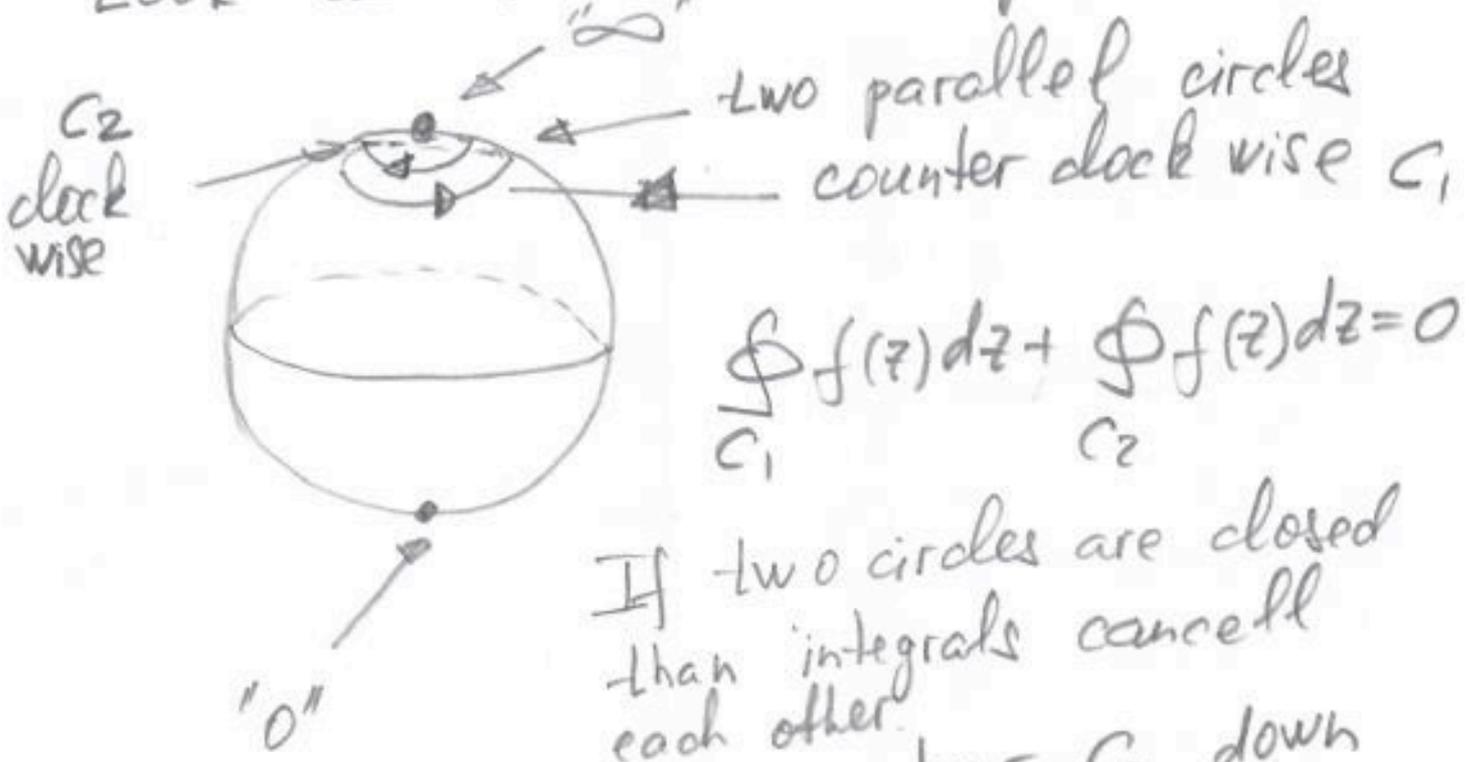


We understand that point at infinity can be treated like any other point.

From here we can naturally define the  $\text{Res } f(\infty)$ .

Look at the Riemann sphere



$$\oint_{C_1} f(z) dz + \oint_{C_2} f(z) dz = 0$$

If two circles are closed than integrals cancel each other.

Now we pull the contour  $C_2$  down and by Cauchy's theorem it becomes

$$\oint_{C_2} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_n \text{Re } f(z_n)$$

all residue at point on the complex plane (Riemann sphere) except  $\infty$  (N-pole)

We got

$$\oint_{C_1} f(z) dz + 2\pi i \sum_n \text{Res} f(z_n) = 0$$

clockwise

Now define

$$\text{Res} f(\infty) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} f(z) dz$$

clockwise  
around the  
point  $\infty$   
(N pole)

Sum of Residues of analytic function is zero

$$\sum_n f(z_n) + f(\infty) = 0$$

Important, we assumed that the function has only pole singularities on the complex plane.

Let us check how it works.  
Consider example.

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$$

$$\text{Res } f(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{1}{z} dz =$$

around zero  
anticlockwise

$$z = \varepsilon e^{i\varphi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{\varepsilon e^{i\varphi}} i \varepsilon e^{i\varphi} d\varphi = 1$$

$$\text{Res } f(\infty) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} \frac{1}{z} dz =$$

around  
 $\infty$ , clockwise

$$z = R e^{i\varphi}$$

$$R \gg 1$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{-2\pi} \frac{1}{R e^{i\varphi}} i d\varphi R e^{i\varphi} = -\frac{2\pi i}{2\pi i} = -1$$

$$\text{Res } f(0) + \text{Res } f(\infty) = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

In a slightly different way the same example.

Consider an integral around  $\infty$

$$\text{Re } f(\infty) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_2} \frac{1}{z} dz \quad \text{and } \text{perform a mapping}$$

$$z = \frac{1}{z}$$

As we know this is Möbius mapping that relates Riemann sphere, sending  $\infty \rightarrow 0$

So we can understand the integral around the point  $\infty$  in several equivalent ways.

1) As an integral in clockwise direction on a large circle on the complex plane [small circle around  $N$  pole on the Riemann sphere]

2) We can apply a Möbius transformation

$\zeta = 1/z$  sending  $\infty \rightarrow N$  and clockwise contour in  $z$  plane to anticlockwise contour in  $\zeta$  plane.

In this way

$$\oint_{\text{clockwise circle around } \infty} dz f(z) = \oint_{\text{anticlockwise circle around } 0} -\frac{dz}{z^2} f(1/z)$$

For our example

$$= \oint_{\text{clockwise around } \infty} \frac{dz}{z} = \oint_{\text{anticlockwise around } 0} -\frac{dz}{z} = - \oint_{\text{anticlockwise}} \frac{dz}{z} = -2\pi i \rightarrow \text{Res } z(\infty) = \underline{-1}$$

and  $\text{Re } z(0) + \text{Re } z(\infty) = 1 - 1 = 0$  as expected

$$\text{Res } f(\infty) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} f(z) dz = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} \frac{dz}{z} = -1$$

(anticlockwise around 0)

Now we understand how complex variables help to compute ordinary integrals. We now discuss how they also help in solving partial differential eqs.

For example Laplace equation.  
 $\Delta \psi = 0$ . Here  $\Delta \equiv \nabla^2 = \text{div} \cdot \text{grad}$

This equation appears frequently in physics, for example in electrostatics where Poisson equation for electric potential  $\Delta \psi = 4\pi \rho$  ← density of electric charge

↑ electrostatic potential

if  $\rho = 0$  in some area Poisson eq. reduces to Laplace eq. also appears in hydrodynamic eq. and other areas [to be discussed in the future]

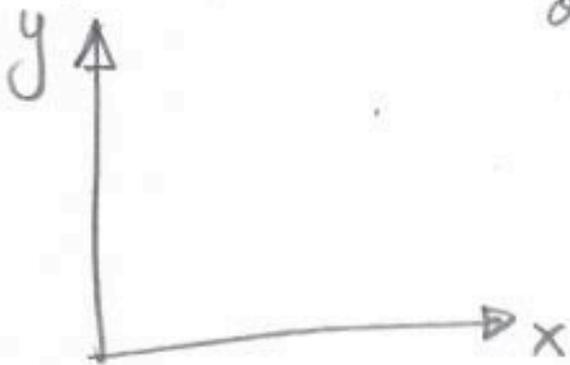
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Any functions that satisfy the Laplace equation are called harmonic functions.

We can study the harmonic functions in 2D via complex analysis.

First, let us combine the coordinates  $x, y$  of the real 2D plane into a complex variable

$$z = x + iy$$



Then we can connect the harmonic function in 2D with analytic functions on the complex plane  $z$ .

Theorem If  $f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$  is analytic in the domain  $D$  of the complex plane then both  $u(x, y)$  and  $v(x, y)$  are harmonic functions on  $D$ .

Proof is based on Cauchy-Riemann eqs.

$$\frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v(x, y)}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v(x, y)}{\partial x}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} v(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} v(x, y)$$

[Here we assume that  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$  are interchangeable]

Add together we get

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Similarly for  $v(x, y)$   $\square$

This theorem works in the opposite direction as well.

If  $u(x, y)$  is harmonic on simply connected domain  $D$ , then  $u(x, y) = \text{Re } f(z)$

$f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$  is an analytic function on  $D$ .

[Proof to be read in textbook]

If harmonic functions  $u$  and  $v$  are real and imaginary parts of an analytic function, then we call them harmonic conjugates.

Note that if

$f(z) = u + iv$  is analytic so is

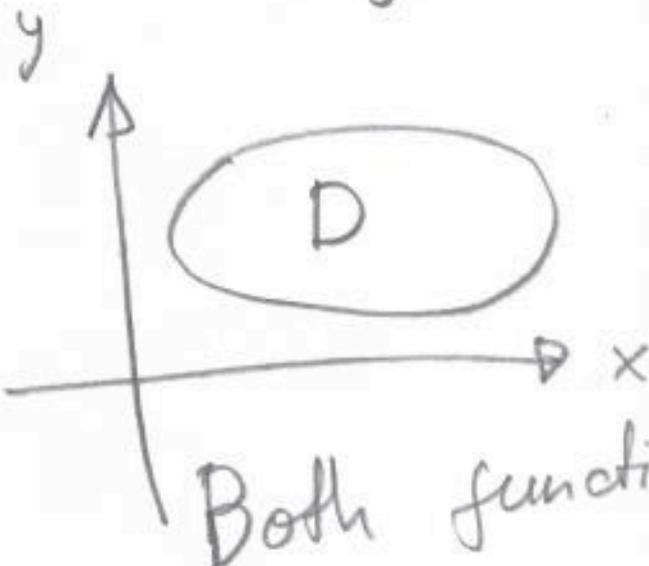
$$if(z) = -v + iu$$

therefore  $u$  and  $-v$  are also harmonic conjugates.

Example:

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

$$= \underbrace{\frac{x}{x^2+y^2}}_{u(x,y)} - i \underbrace{\frac{y}{x^2+y^2}}_{v(x,y)}$$



domain  $D$  does not contain the origin

Both functions  $u(x,y) = \frac{x}{x^2+y^2}$  and

$$v(x,y) = \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2}$$

are harmonic conjugates. They are harmonic

Theorem

The gradients of  $u$  and  $v$  are orthogonal

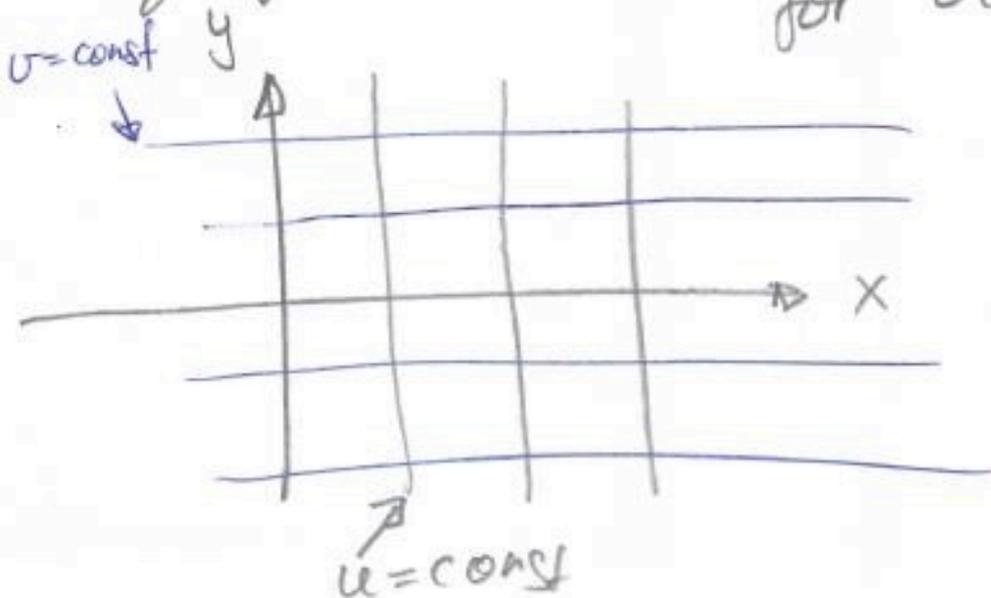
$$\begin{aligned}
 (\nabla u) \cdot (\nabla v) &= \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) = \\
 &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \checkmark \text{ Cauchy-Riemann eqs.} \\
 &= \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

The consequence of this, is that if levels of the function  $u(x,y)$  and  $v(x,y)$  [i.e. equipotential lines] are smooth, they are orthogonal.

Examples

$f(z) = z = x + iy = u$

Equipotential lines for  $u(x,y) \Rightarrow x = \text{const.}$   
for  $v(x,y) = y = \text{const.}$



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First branch of  $\ln$  on the complex plane with a cut

$$f(z) = \ln z = \ln R + i\varphi$$

$$z = R e^{i\varphi}$$

$$u = \operatorname{Re} f = \ln R$$

$$v = \operatorname{Im} f = \varphi$$

