

Problem 1. (10 points) For each of the following functions, circle what kind of singularity it has at $z = 0$, and compute the residue at $z = 0$.

(a) $f(z) = \frac{1}{z \sin(z)}$.

Removable

Pole

Essential

(b) $f(z) = \frac{1}{\sin(1/z)}$.

Removable

Pole

Essential

Solution. (a) $f(z)$ has an **pole** at $z = 0$. To see this, we note that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} z^2 f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{z^2}{z \sin(z)} = 1,$$

so in fact, $f(z)$ has a pole of order 2. The residue can be computed using the derivative formula that we often use, or alternatively using the power series for $\sin z$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{z \sin(z)} &= \frac{1}{z \left(z - \frac{z^3}{6} + \cdots \right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{z^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z^2}{6} + \cdots} \\ &= \frac{1}{z^2} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{z^2}{6} + \cdots \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{6} + \cdots . \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\operatorname{Res} \left[\frac{1}{z \sin(z)}, 0 \right] = 0.$$

But the easiest way to compute the residue is to note that $f(z) = f(-z)$, i.e., the function $f(z)$ is even, so in its Laurent expansion

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k z^k,$$

we have $c_k = 0$ for every odd k . In particular, we have $c_{-1} = 0$, so the residue is 0.

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(b) $f(z)$ has an **essential singularity** at $z = 0$. We can see this by observing that $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} z^m f(z)$ does not exist for any integer $m \geq 0$. To ease notation, let $w = 1/z$, so we're looking at

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{\sin(w)}.$$

If we write $f(w)$ as a Laurent series in w , then the residue is the coefficient of w . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} f(w) &= \frac{1}{\left(w - \frac{w^3}{6} + \dots\right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{w} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{w^2}{6} + \dots} \\ &= \frac{1}{w} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{w^2}{6} + \dots\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{w} + \frac{w}{6} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Thus the Laurent series of $f(z)$ looks like

$$f(z) = z + \frac{1}{6z} + \frac{a}{z^3} + \frac{b}{z^5} + \dots$$

so

$$\operatorname{Res} \left[\frac{1}{\sin(1/z)}, 0 \right] = \frac{1}{6}.$$

Problem 2. (15 points) Compute the values of each of the following integrals.

(a) $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^{3z}}{z^3} dz.$

(b) $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{1}{z(e^z - 1)} dz.$

(c) $\int_{\gamma} \bar{z} dz,$ where γ is the line segment from 0 to $1 + i$.

Solution. (a) There is a one pole at $z = 0$, and it is a pole of order 3. The residue theorem gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^{3z}}{z^2} dz &= \text{Res} \left[\frac{e^{3z}}{z^2}, 0 \right] \\ &= \text{Res} \left[\frac{1}{z^3} \left(1 + 3z + \frac{(3z)^2}{2!} + \frac{(3z)^3}{3!} + \dots \right), 0 \right] \\ &= \text{Res} \left[\frac{1}{z^3} + \frac{3}{z^2} + \frac{9}{2z} + \frac{9}{2} + \dots, 0 \right] \\ &= \frac{9}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{e^{3z}}{z^2} dz = 9\pi i.$$

(b) Again there is one pole at $z = 0$, but this time it is a pole of order 2. Letting $f(z) = \frac{1}{z(e^z-1)}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Res}[f(z), 0] &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} (z^2 f(z)) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{z}{e^z - 1} \right) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{(e^z - 1) - ze^z}{(e^z - 1)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

One way to proceed now is to use L'Hopital's rule a couple of times. An easier(?) way is to use the Taylor series expansion of e^z . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{e^z - 1 - ze^z}{(e^z - 1)^2} &= \frac{\left(1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots \right) - 1 - z \left(1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots \right)}{\left(z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots \right)^2} \\ &= \frac{\left(\frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots \right) - \left(z^2 + \frac{z^3}{2} + \frac{z^4}{6} + \dots \right)}{z^2 + z^3 + \dots} \\ &= \frac{-\frac{z^2}{2} + \dots}{z^2 + \dots}. \end{aligned}$$

So the limit as $z \rightarrow 0$ is $-\frac{1}{2}$. Therefore

$$\int_{|z|=1} \frac{1}{z(e^z - 1)} dz = 2\pi i \text{Res} \left[\frac{1}{z(e^z - 1)}, 0 \right] = 2\pi i \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2} \right) = -\pi i.$$

(c) This line integral needs to be done directly from the definition. The curve γ is parametrized by

$$z(t) = (1 + i)t \quad \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq 1.$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} \bar{z} dz &= \int_0^1 \overline{(1 + i)t} d((1 + i)t) \\ &= \int_0^1 (1 - i)t (1 + i) dt \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 t dt \\ &= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

Problem 3. (10 points) Use residue theory to compute the value of the definite integral

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

(I expect you to use complex analysis for this problem, although it can also be done using continued fractions as you learned in first-year calculus.)

Solution. Let

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

and let

$$D_R = \{re^{i\theta} : -R < r < R \text{ and } 0 < \theta < \pi\}.$$

(This is the usual half-disk in the upper half-plane.) The function $f(z)$ has one pole in D_R , namely $z = i$, and it's a double pole, since

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

The residue at $z = i$ is

$$\begin{aligned}
 \operatorname{Res}[f(z), i] &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{d}{dz} ((z - i)^2 f(z)) \\
 &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{z^2}{(z + i)^2} \right) \\
 &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} 2 \left(\frac{z}{z + i} \right) \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{z}{z + i} \right) \\
 &= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} 2 \left(\frac{z}{z + i} \right) \left(\frac{i}{(z + i)^2} \right) \\
 &= 2 \cdot \frac{i}{2i} \cdot \frac{i}{-4} \\
 &= -\frac{i}{4}.
 \end{aligned}$$

So the residue theorem says that

$$\int_{\partial D_R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \operatorname{Res}[f(z), i] = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Let L_R be the line segment $-R \leq x \leq R$, and let Γ_R be the semicircle of radius R in the upper halfplane. Then

$$\int_{L_R} f(z) dz = \int_{-R}^R \frac{x^2}{(x^2 + 1)^2} dx.$$

Next we estimate

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left| \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz \right| &\leq \sup_{z \in \Gamma_R} |f(z)| \cdot \operatorname{Length}(\Gamma_R) \quad (\text{ML estimate}), \\
 &= \sup_{z \in \Gamma_R} \left| \frac{z^2}{(z^2 + 1)^2} \right| \cdot 2\pi R \\
 &\leq \frac{R^2}{(R^2 - 1)^2} \cdot 2\pi R \quad (\text{note it's } R^2 - 1, \text{ not } R^2 + 1,) \\
 &\xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

So letting $R \rightarrow \infty$ and combining these calculations gives

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{(x^2 + 1)^2} dx = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left(\int_{\partial D_R} f(z) dz - \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz \right) = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Problem 4. (10 points) For each of the following functions, describe the Taylor series expansion about the indicated point, and compute the radius of convergence.

- (a) $f(z) = \log(z)$ centered at $z_0 = 2$.
 (b) $f(z) = \frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$ centered at $z_0 = 0$.

Solution. In general the Taylor series expansion of $f(z)$ centered at a is

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

Each part of this problem can be done by computing the derivatives at the indicated point. Alternatively, one can use related series and differentiate or integrate them.

(a) We have $f'(z) = \frac{1}{z}$, so

$$f'(z) = \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{2+(z-2)} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\frac{z-2}{2}}.$$

Now we can expand using the geometric series to get

$$f'(z) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \left(\frac{z-2}{2}\right)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{k+1}} (z-2)^k.$$

Integrating gives

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(k+1)2^{k+1}} (z-2)^{k+1} + C.$$

The constant is obtained by setting $z = 2$, so $\log(2) = f(2) = C$. Finally, relabeling, we get

$$f(z) = \log(z) = \log(2) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k2^k} (z-2)^k.$$

The radius of convergence ρ may be computed using the ratio test or the root test. The latter gives

$$\rho^{-1} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k2^k} \right|^{1/k} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2k^{1/k}} = \frac{1}{2},$$

so $\rho = 2$.

(b) Again, it's not very hard to compute the derivatives. But even easier to note that $f(z)$ is the derivative of $\frac{1}{1-z}$, which is just a geometric series. So

$$f(z) = \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{1}{1-z} \right) = \frac{d}{dz} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k z^{k-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1) z^k.$$

The radius of convergence is

$$\rho = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(k-1)^{1/k}} = 1.$$

Problem 5. (10 points) Let

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

- (a) Find the Laurent series of $f(z)$ centered at 0 in the domain $|z| < 2$.
 (b) Find the Laurent series of $f(z)$ centered at 0 in the domain $|z| > 2$.

Solution. (a) We note that $f(z)$ has a pole at $z = 0$, but that's okay. The partial fraction expansion of $f(z)$ is

$$f(z) = \frac{1/2}{z-2} - \frac{1/2}{z}.$$

We leave the second term alone and expand the first using the geometric series

$$\frac{1/2}{z-2} = -\frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z}{2}} = -\frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{-1}{2^{n+2}} z^n.$$

This converges on $|z| < 2$. Further, if we also include $n = -1$, we get the other term, so the Laurent series of f on the domain $|z| < 2$ is

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-1}^{\infty} \frac{-1}{2^{n+2}} z^n.$$

- (b) For $|z| > 2$, we want an expansion in the variable $1/z$, so

$$\frac{1/2}{z-2} = \frac{1}{2z} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{2}{z}} = \frac{1}{2z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{z}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{n-1}}{z^{n+1}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{n-2}}{z^n}.$$

This gives

$$f(z) = -\frac{1}{2z} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{n-2}}{z^n}.$$

We can simplify by noting that the $n = 1$ term cancels the $-1/2z$, so

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{2^{n-2}}{z^n}.$$

Problem 6. (15 points) Let D be a bounded domain with nice boundary.

- (a) Suppose that $f(z)$ is analytic on D , continuous on $D \cup \partial D$, and does not vanish on $D \cup \partial D$. Let

$$m = \inf_{z \in \partial D} |f(z)|$$

be the *smallest* value of $|f(z)|$ on the boundary of D . Prove that

$$|f(z)| \geq m \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

(This is a *minimum principle* that complements the maximum principle.)

Problem 6. (continued)

- (b) Let D be the unit disk. Find a function that is analytic on $D \cup \partial D$ and satisfies $f(0) = 0$, and such that f does *not* satisfy the minimum principle.
- (c) Suppose that $f(z)$ is analytic and non-constant on D and continuous on $D \cup \partial D$. Assume further that $|f(z)|$ is constant for $z \in \partial D$. Prove that $f(z)$ must have a zero in D .

Solution. (a) For any function h , we write

$$M(h) = \sup_{z \in \partial D} |h(z)| \quad \text{and} \quad m(h) = \inf_{z \in \partial D} |h(z)|.$$

Since $f(z)$ does not vanish on D , we know that $g(z) = 1/f(z)$ is analytic on D . So we can apply the maximum principle to $g(z)$ to conclude that

$$|g(z)| \leq M(g) \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

Since $g = 1/f$, this implies that

$$\frac{1}{|f(z)|} \leq M(1/f) \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

But if T is any set of positive real numbers, we have

$$\sup \left\{ \frac{1}{t} : t \in T \right\} = \frac{1}{\inf \{t : t \in T\}}.$$

This implies that $M(1/f) = 1/m(f)$. Substituting this in above gives

$$m(f) \leq |f(z)| \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

(b) The simplest example is $f(z) = z$. Then $m(f) = 1$, but $|f(z)|$ is not larger than $m(f)$. In fact, we have $|f(z)| < m(f)$ for all z in the unit circle.

(c) The maximum principle says that

$$|f(z)| \leq M(f) \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

Suppose that f does not vanish. Then the minimum principle (proven in (a)) says that

$$|f(z)| \geq m(f) \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

However, we're given that $|f(z)|$ is constant for $z \in \partial D$, so $m(f) = M(f)$ directly from the definitions of $m(f)$ and $M(f)$. So our two inequalities imply that

$$|f(z)| = M(f) = m(f) \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

In particular, there are points $z \in D$ for which $|f(z)| = M(f)$, so the other half of the maximum principle tells us that f is constant.

Problem 7. (10 points) Let $f(z)$ be the polynomial

$$f(z) = z^4 + 5z + 1.$$

- (a) Prove that $f(z)$ has exactly one root inside the disk $|z| < 1$.
- (b) How many roots does $f(z)$ have inside the annulus $1 < |z| < 2$?
Prove that your answer is correct.

Solution. (a) For $|z| = 1$ we have

$$|5z| = 5 \geq 2 = |z^4| + 1 \geq |z^4 + 1|.$$

So from Rouché's theorem, the polynomial $f(z)$ and the polynomial $5z$ have the same number of zeros in the disk $|z| < 1$. Since $5z$ clearly has one zero in the disk, so does $f(z)$.

(b) On the circle $|z| = 2$ we have

$$|z^4| = 16 \geq 6 = |5z| + 1 \geq |5z + 1|,$$

so $f(z)$ and z^4 have the same number of zeros in the disk $|z| < 2$. Since z^4 has four zeros (counted with multiplicity), so does $f(z)$. That's the number of zeros in the disk $|z| < 2$, and we know from (a) that there is one zero in the disk $|z| < 1$, so $f(z)$ has three zeros in the annulus $1 < |z| < 2$.

Problem 8. (10 points) Let $f(z)$ be analytic in a domain D , and suppose that f satisfies

$$\operatorname{Re}(f(z)) = \operatorname{Im}(f(z)) \quad \text{for all } z \in D.$$

Prove that f is constant in D .

Solution. There are probably lots of ways to do this problem. Here's one. Write $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ as usual. The assumption that $\operatorname{Re}(f(z)) = \operatorname{Im}(f(z))$ says that

$$u(x, y) = v(x, y).$$

Now the Cauchy–Riemann equations yield

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} && \text{(Cauchy–Riemann equation)} \\ &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} && \text{(since } v = u) \\ &= -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} && \text{(Cauchy–Riemann equation)} \\ &= -\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} && \text{(since } v = u). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0.$$

A similar calculation gives

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0.$$

Alternatively, we can use $u_x = 0$ and compute

$$0 = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}.$$

Thus $u_x = 0$ and $u_y = 0$, which implies that u is a constant. And since $v = u$, we find that $f = u + iv$ is also a constant.

Problem 9. (10 points) Prove that there exists a function $f(z)$ with the following properties:

- $f(z)$ is meromorphic on \mathbb{C} .
- $f(z)$ has simple poles at the points $\{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ and no other poles.
- For $k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, the residue of $f(z)$ at k is equal to k .

Be sure to prove that the function that you define is meromorphic, as well as having the indicated poles and residues.

Solution. We'd like to use

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{z-k},$$

but it doesn't converge. The function $k/(z-k)$ looks like -1 when k is large, so we might try summing

$$\frac{k}{z-k} + 1 = \frac{z}{z-k}.$$

But $z/(z-k)$ looks like $-z/k$ when k is large, so its sum won't converge, either. So we add on z/k to compensate,

$$\frac{k}{z-k} + 1 + \frac{z}{k} = \frac{z}{z-k} + \frac{z}{k} = \frac{z^2}{(z-k)k}.$$

Note that this calculation shows that $z^2/((z-k)k)$ has a simple pole at $z = k$ with residue k .

Then we define

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{k}{z-k} - 1 - \frac{z}{k} \right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^2}{(z-k)k}.$$

The usual argument shows that f is meromorphic with the correct poles. We briefly indicate. Choose any R (not an integer) and break up f as

$$f(z) = f_1(z) + f_2(z) = \sum_{k < 2R} \frac{z^2}{(z-k)k} + \sum_{k > 2R} \frac{z^2}{(z-k)k}.$$

Let $D_R = \{|z| < R\}$ be a disk of radius R . Then $f_1(z)$ is meromorphic on D_R with simple poles at the integers $k < R$ and residue k at k . On the other hand, for $z \in D_R$ and $k > 2R$ we have

$$\left| \frac{z^2}{(z-k)k} \right| \leq \frac{R^2}{(k-R)k},$$

so

$$\sum_{k > 2R} \left| \frac{z^2}{(z-k)k} \right| \leq \sum_{k > 2R} \frac{R^2}{(k-R)k} < \infty.$$

The Weierstrass M -test implies that the series defining $f_2(z)$ converges to an analytic function on D_R . Hence $f(z)$ is meromorphic on D_R with the desired poles and residues at $\{k < R\}$. Since R is arbitrary, this shows that $f(z)$ is entire with the desired poles and residues.

Problem 10. (10 points) Let $f(z)$ be an analytic function that maps the unit disk conformally to a domain D . In other words, if we denote the unit disk by $\mathbb{D} = \{|z| < 1\}$, then

$$f : \mathbb{D} \longrightarrow D \quad \text{is analytic, one-to-one, and onto.}$$

Also let

$$m = \inf_{w \in \partial D} |f(0) - w|$$

be the distance from $f(0)$ to the boundary of D . Prove that

$$|f'(0)| \geq m.$$

(*Hint.* Consider the inverse function $f^{-1} : D \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$, note that the disk around $f(0)$ of radius m is contained in D , and use Schwarz's lemma.)

Solution. We consider the inverse function

$$f^{-1} : D \rightarrow \mathbb{D}.$$

Our choice of m tells us that the disk

$$B = \{w \in \mathbb{C} : |f(0) - w| < m\}$$

is contained in D , so f^{-1} is analytic on B ; and since the image of f^{-1} is in \mathbb{D} , we know that

$$|f^{-1}(w)| \leq 1 \quad \text{for all } w \in D.$$

We want to shift B to be the unit disk. The map $z \mapsto mz + f(0)$ send the unit disk to B , so we should look at the function

$$g(z) = f^{-1}(mz + f(0)).$$

Then $g : \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ with $g(0) = 0$, so the derivative version of Schwarz's lemma says that $|g'(0)| \leq 1$. Note that

$$g'(0) = (f^{-1})'(f(0))m.$$

So we find that

$$|(f^{-1})'(f(0))| \leq \frac{1}{m}.$$

Okay, now we differentiate the identity

$$f^{-1}(f(z)) = z$$

to get

$$(f^{-1})'(f(z)) \cdot f'(z) = 1.$$

Evaluating at $z = 0$ gives

$$(f^{-1})'(f(0)) \cdot f'(0) = 1.$$

So

$$(f^{-1})'(f(0)) = \frac{1}{f'(0)},$$

and substituting this above gives

$$\left| \frac{1}{f'(0)} \right| \leq \frac{1}{m}.$$

Cross-multiplying gives

$$m \leq |f'(0)|,$$

which is the desired result.

Problem 11. (10 points) Compute the value of the integrals

$$\int_0^\infty \cos(x^2) dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_0^\infty \sin(x^2) dx$$

Hint #1. Integrate the function $f(z) = e^{iz^2}$ around the boundary of the region

$$D_R = \left\{ re^{i\theta} : 0 < r < R \text{ and } 0 < \theta < \frac{\pi}{4} \right\}.$$

Hint #2. The following integral from 3rd semester calculus may be useful:

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-t^2} dt = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}.$$

Warning. Don't spend too much time on this problem until you've worked on the other problems.

Solution. The function $f(z) = e^{iz^2}$ is entire, so Cauchy's theorem tells us that

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

The boundary of D_R consists of 3 pieces:

$$L_1 = \{x : 0 \leq x \leq R\},$$

$$L_2 = \{t\sqrt{i} : 0 \leq t \leq R\} \quad (\text{in reverse direction}),$$

$$\Gamma_R = \{Re^{i\theta} : 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/4\}.$$

Here \sqrt{i} is the square root in the first quadrant, i.e., $\sqrt{i} = \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}}$.

The integral along L_1 gives the integrals that we're trying to compute,

$$\int_{L_1} f(z) dz = \int_0^R e^{ix^2} dx = \int_0^R \cos(x^2) dx + i \int_0^R \sin(x^2) dx.$$

For L_2 , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{L_2} f(z) dz &= \int_R^0 e^{i(\sqrt{i}t)^2} d(\sqrt{i}t) \\ &= -\sqrt{i} \int_0^R e^{-t^2} dt \\ &= -\frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} \int_0^R e^{-t^2} dt. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{L_2} f(z) dz = -\frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} \int_0^\infty e^{-t^2} dt = -\frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}.$$

Finally, for Γ_R we use Jordan's lemma, which says that if C_R is the semicircle of radius R in the upper halfplane, then

$$\int_{C_R} |e^{iz}| |dz| < \pi.$$

Our curve Γ_R is not equal to C_R . By making the change of variables $w = z^4$, we could map Γ_R to C_R , but then we wouldn't get the integral in Jordan's Lemma. So instead we use the change of variables $w = z^2$, which maps Γ_R to the quarter-circle

$$B_R = \{Re^{i\theta} : 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2\}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz &= \int_{B_R} f(w^{1/2}) d(w^{1/2}) \\ &= \int_{B_R} e^{iw} \frac{dw}{2w^{1/2}}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Gamma_R} f(z) dz \right| &= \left| \int_{B_R} e^{iw} \frac{dw}{2w^{1/2}} \right| \\ &\leq \int_{B_R} |e^{iw}| \frac{|dw|}{2|w^{1/2}|} \\ &= \frac{1}{2R^{1/2}} \int_{B_R} |e^{iw}| |dw|. \end{aligned}$$

In order to use Jordan's lemma, we note that C_R is the union of the quarter-circle B_R and the quarter-circle $B'_R = \{-\bar{z} : z \in B_R\}$. In other words, the map $z \rightarrow -\bar{z}$ maps B_R to B'_R . We also note that if $z = x + iy \in B_R$, then $-\bar{z} = -x + iy$, so

$$|e^{-\bar{z}i}| = |e^{(-x+iy)i}| = |e^{-y-ix}| = e^{-y} = |e^{(x+iy)i}| = |e^{zi}|,$$

and similarly

$$|d(-\bar{z})| = |dz|,$$

so

$$\int_{B_R} |e^{iz}| |dz| = \int_{B'_R} |e^{iz}| |dz|.$$