# Chennai Mathematical Institute B.Sc Physics 

# Mathematical methods <br> Lecture 12: Complex analysis: applications-I 

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### 1.1 The Riemann Zeta function

- Let $s$ be a complex variable with $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1$. The comparison test shows that the infinite series,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta(s)=\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{s}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

converges absolutely. Since each of its terms, $e^{-s \ln n}$ is an entire function of $s$, the series defines a holomorphic function in the $s$-plane to the right of $s=1$.

- The Riemann Zeta function has many remarkable properties and still poses major puzzles to mathematicians! It is intimately connected with prime numbers as the following infinite product representation due to Euler shows:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{\zeta(s)} & =\left(1-\frac{1}{2^{s}}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{3^{s}}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{5^{s}}\right) . .\left(1-\frac{1}{P_{n}^{s}}\right) . . \\
& =\Pi_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-\frac{1}{P_{n}^{s}}\right) \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

where $P_{n}$ is the nth prime number: $P_{1}=2, P_{2}=3, P_{3}=5, .$.

### 1.2 Zeta function: properties

P Proof of Euler's product: If $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1$, the infinite series, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{P_{n}^{s}}$ is absolutely convergent, being a "sub-series" of $\zeta(s)$ itself! Hence the infinite product is absolutely convergent. Every factor is non-vanishing. Note that,

$$
\zeta(s)\left(1-\frac{1}{2^{s}}\right) \quad=\quad 1+\frac{1}{3^{s}}+\frac{1}{5^{s}}+. .
$$

where the RHS has no terms involving multiples of $1 / 2^{s}$. Similarly, $\zeta(s)\left(1-\frac{1}{2^{s}}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{3^{s}}\right)$ has no multiples of $1 / 3^{s}$, etc. Since the product is convergent, $\zeta(s) \prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(1-\frac{1}{P_{n}^{s}}\right)=1$. Here we use the fundamental theorem of Euclid: every integer is expressible uniquely, apart from order, as a product of powers of prime numbers.

- Einstein's radiation integral: Consider the integral $(\operatorname{Re}(s)>1)$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
E(s) & =\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{s-1}}{e^{x}-1} d x \quad\left(=\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{s} e^{-x}}{1-e^{-x}} \frac{d x}{x}\right) \\
& =\int_{0}^{\infty} x^{s-1}\left(\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-n x}\right) d x=\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(s)}{n^{s}} \\
& =\zeta(s) \Gamma(s) \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

where we set $n x=u$ and invert the order of summation and integration and use the definitions of Gamma and Zeta functions.

## H.3 Hankeis inteqrais

- Consider the contour integral,

$$
\begin{equation*}
H(z ; R)=\int_{C_{R}} e^{-t}(-t)^{z-1} d t \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $-t$ is positive on the negative real axis and $-\pi \leq \operatorname{Arg}(-t) \leq \pi$. The contour $C_{R}$ runs from $R>0$ on the positive real axis and approaches the origin from the right in the upper half-plane, winds once around the origin anti-clockwise and then returns to $R$ in the lower half-plane.

- The integrand is analytic except at the origin and along the cut taken from 0 to $\infty$ along the positive real axis. We may write it as, $e^{-t+(z-1) \ln (-t)}$, choosing the principal branch, as indicated. We may deform the contour to go along the "upper lip" of the real line to $|t|=\rho<R$ and then describe this circle anti-clockwise once and then return to $R$ along the lower real axis.
- Along upper lip, integrand is: $e^{-t+(z-1) \ln |t|-i \pi(z-1)}$

Along lower lip, it is: $e^{-t+(z-1) \ln |t|+i \pi(z-1)}$
On the circle, $-t=\rho e^{i \phi}$

## Hankel's formula for the Gamma functic

$$
\begin{aligned}
H(z ; R)= & \int_{R}^{\rho} e^{-t+(z-1) \ln |t|-i \pi(z-1)} d t+\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\left(\rho e^{i \phi}\right)^{z-1} e^{\rho e^{i \phi}} \rho e^{i \phi} i d \phi \\
& +\int_{\rho}^{R} e^{-t+(z-1) \ln |t|+i \pi(z-1)} d t \\
= & -2 i \sin \pi z \int_{\rho}^{R} e^{-t} t^{z-1} d t+i \rho^{z} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i z \phi+\rho\left(e^{i \phi}\right)} d \phi
\end{aligned}
$$

Taking $\operatorname{Re}(z)>0$, and the limits, $R \rightarrow \infty, \rho \rightarrow 0$, we see that, the $\rho$-integral vanishes and the other two combine to give the Gamma integral:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma(z)=-\frac{1}{2 i \sin \pi z} \int_{C} e^{-t}(-t)^{z-1} d t \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Here, $C$ is a contour starting from $+\infty$ and running along in the upper half-plane, circling the origin counter-clockwise once and running back to infinity in the lower half plane. It follows that (from Lec 11, Eq.(5) and $z \rightarrow 1-z$ ):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\Gamma(z)}=\frac{i}{2 \pi} \int_{C} e^{-t}(-t)^{-z} d t \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

# Analytic continuation of the Zeta functio 

- Riemann followed the Hankel procedure for the Gamma function to derive a formula for the Zeta function which will be valid everywhere in the complex plane, apart from a simple pole at $s=1$. Thus, consider:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=\int_{C} \frac{(-t)^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} d t \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where $C$ is Hankel's contour, starting at $+\infty$, running in the upper half $t$-plane, circling the origin once anti clockwise and returning to infinity parallel to the real axis in the lower half plane, avoiding the poles of the denominator. As before, for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1$,

$$
\begin{align*}
e^{(s-1) \ln (-t)} & =e^{(s-1) \ln |t|-i \pi(s-1)} ; \quad \operatorname{Im}(t)=\epsilon>0 ; \operatorname{Arg}(-t)=-i \pi \\
e^{(s-1) \ln (-t)} & =e^{(s-1) \ln |t|+i \pi(s-1)} ; \quad \operatorname{Im}(t)=\epsilon<0 ; \\
R & =-e^{-i \pi s} \int_{+\infty}^{\rho} \frac{t^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} d t-e^{i \pi s} \int_{\rho}^{+\infty} \frac{t^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} d t+i \rho^{s} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{e^{i s \phi} d \phi}{e^{\rho e^{i \phi}}-1} \\
& =-2 i \sin \pi s \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} d t \quad \text { thus, taking } \rho \rightarrow 0 \\
\zeta(s) & =-\frac{\Gamma(1-s)}{2 \pi i} \int_{C} \frac{(-t)^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} d t \quad=\frac{\Gamma(1-s)}{2 \pi i} \int_{C} \frac{(-t)^{s}}{e^{t}-1} \frac{d t}{t} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

### 1.6 Some deductions

- Gamma function: Although Eqs. $(5,6)$ were derived for $\operatorname{Re}(z)>0$, the contour integrals in them actually converge for all $z$ and in Eq.(6), the RHS is an entire function. Thus we conclude that $\frac{1}{\Gamma(z)}$ is an entire function. This also shows that $\Gamma(z)$ cannot have any zeros. From the infinite product formulae (Lec. 11, Eqs.(11, 12))) we know that $\Gamma(z)$ must have simple poles at $z=0,-1,-2, \ldots$
- Zeta function: The contour integral in Eq.(8) is valid for all $s$. Hence, the formula represents the Zeta function everywhere. It is clear that at $s=1,2, \ldots, \Gamma(1-s)$ has poles. It follows from Cauchy's theorem that for $s=2,3$, .. the contour integral vanishes. Hence, the Zeta function has no singularities there, as also shown by the Einstein integral Eq.(3). Putting $s=1$ in the integral in Eq.(8), from the Residue theorem,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{C} \frac{(-t)}{e^{t}-1} \frac{d t}{t} & =-1 \\
\operatorname{Lim}_{s \rightarrow 1} \frac{\zeta(s)}{\Gamma(1-s)} & =-1
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\Gamma(1-s)$ has a simple pole at $s=1$ with residue $-1, \zeta(s)$ must have also have simple pole there with residue 1 . This shows that $(s-1) \zeta(s)$ is an entire function.

- The Euler product, Eq.(2) shows that for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1, \zeta(s)$ does not have any zeros.


### 1.7 Riemann's functional equation

- We apply the Residue theorem to the single-valued function $\frac{(-t)^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} ; \operatorname{Re}(s)<0$ in the slit region $R_{N}$, where $N$ is a large integer. $R_{N}$ is bounded by the circle, $K_{N}:|t|=(2 N+1) \pi$ and the "Hankel" contour $C_{N}$ from $t=(2 N+1) \pi$, circling the origin as usual. We suppose that $R_{N}$ contains all the poles, $t= \pm 2 n \pi i ; n=1,2 . ., N$, where the residues are: $r_{n}$ of the integrand in its interior. Then,

$$
\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \oint_{K_{N}} \frac{(-t)^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} d t+\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \oint_{C_{N}} \frac{(-t)^{s-1}}{e^{t}-1} d t=\sum_{n=1}^{N}\left(r_{n}+r_{-n}\right)
$$

Note: $(-t)^{s-1}=e^{(s-1) \ln |t|+i(s-1) \operatorname{Arg}(-t)}$ and, $\operatorname{Arg}(-t)=-\pi / 2$ at $t=2 n \pi i ; n>0$. Hence,

$$
r_{n}+r_{-n}=(2 n \pi)^{s-1} 2 \sin (\pi s / 2)
$$

Taking the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$, we see that the integral over $K_{N}$ vanishes (show this!) and we obtain Riemann's functional equation for $\zeta(s)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\zeta(s)}{\Gamma(1-s)}=\frac{2^{s} \sin \left(\frac{s \pi}{2}\right)}{\pi^{1-s}} \zeta(1-s) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 1.8 Legendre's "duplication formula"

- We next obtain an important functional equation for the Gamma function:

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{2 z-1} \Gamma(z) \Gamma\left(z+\frac{1}{2}\right) \quad=\quad \pi^{1 / 2} \Gamma(2 z) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: We use the Euler product formula for the Gamma function:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!n^{z}}{z(z+1) . .(z+n)}=\Gamma(z) \quad \text { then, } \\
& \Gamma(z) \Gamma\left(z+\frac{1}{2}\right)=\operatorname{Lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n!)^{2} n^{2 z+1 / 2}}{[z(z+1) . .(z+n)][(z+1 / 2)(z+3 / 2) . .(z+n+1 / 2)]} \\
&= \operatorname{Lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^{2 z} n^{1 / 2}(n!)^{2} 2^{2 n+2}}{2 z(2 z+1)(2 z+2) . .(2 z+2 n+1)} \\
&= 2^{-2 z} \Gamma(2 z) \operatorname{Lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^{1 / 2}(n!)^{2} 2^{2 n+2}}{(2 n+1)!}
\end{aligned}
$$

The last term is independent of $z$ and hence constant. Putting $z=1 / 2$ and using $\Gamma(1 / 2)=\pi^{1 / 2} ; \Gamma(1)=1 ; \Gamma(2)=1$, we obtain Legendre's formula.

### 1.9 Riemann's "reflection formula"

- If we make use of the Legendre duplication formula for the Gamma function and Riemann's functional equation for the Zeta function, we obtain a symmetrical form of the latter called the "reflection formula":

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\zeta(s)}{\Gamma(1-s)} & =\frac{2^{s} \sin \left(\frac{s \pi}{2}\right)}{\pi^{1-s}} \zeta(1-s) \\
\zeta(s) \Gamma(s) \cos \left(\frac{s \pi}{2}\right) & =2^{s-1} \pi^{s} \zeta(1-s) \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

But, $\pi^{1 / 2} \Gamma(s)=2^{s-1} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right) ; \Gamma\left(\frac{1+s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{1-s}{2}\right)=\frac{\pi}{\cos \left(\frac{\pi s}{2}\right)}$.

- Substitution gives Riemann's beautiful Reflection formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi^{-s / 2} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \zeta(s) \quad=\quad \pi^{-\left(\frac{1-s}{2}\right)} \Gamma\left(\frac{1-s}{2}\right) \zeta(1-s) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Although Eq.(9) was derived for $\operatorname{Re}(s)<0$, by analytic continuation principles it is valid everywhere except at $s=1$. For $\operatorname{Re}(s)>1, \zeta(s) \Gamma(s)$ has no zeros. Hence the only zeros of $\zeta(1-s)$ for $\operatorname{Re}(1-s)<0$ are at $s=3,5, \ldots$

- Riemann conjectured that all the other zeros of the Zeta function are on the "half-line", $\operatorname{Re}(s)=\frac{1}{2}$. Although it is known that there are an infinity of zeros on it, the Riemann Hypothesis is still unproved!.


### 2.1 Transform methods

- Complex analysis provides a very powerful tool for solving many problems in physics and engineering using "transform methods". We take a brief look at these techniques to give you a feel for what is involved.
- Definition 12.1: Laplace transform: Suppose $f(t)$ is a complex function of the real variable $t \in[0, \infty)$, such that for a complex $s$, the integral,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{f}(s)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} f(t) d t \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

is defined. Then $\hat{f}(s)$ is called the Laplace transform of $f(t)$. We term the function, $f(t)$ the inverse transform of $\hat{f}(s)$. ( $\mathbf{N b}$. Some texts use the variable $p$ instead of $s!$ )
Ex. 1: Find the Laplace transform of $e^{\lambda t}$, where $\lambda$ is any complex number.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{f}(s) & =\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} e^{\lambda t} d t \\
& =\frac{1}{s-\lambda}
\end{aligned}
$$

The integral converges for all $\operatorname{Re}(s)>\operatorname{Re}(\lambda)$. Sometimes we may write the result as, $L\left(e^{\lambda t}\right)=\frac{1}{s-\lambda}$. Taking $\lambda=0$, we see that $L(1)=\frac{1}{s}$. Clearly, $L^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{s-\lambda}\right)=e^{\lambda t}$.

### 2.2 Laplace transform theory

O Theorem 12.1: Let $f(t), g(t)$ be arbitrary functions defined on $[0, \infty)$ having Laplace transforms, $L(f), L(g)$. Then, if $a, b, c$ are any constants, and $f^{\prime}(t)$ is the derivative of $f$ then:

$$
\begin{align*}
L(a f)+L(b g) & =L(a f+b g)  \tag{14}\\
L\left(t^{c}\right) & =\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} t^{c} d t \\
& =\frac{\Gamma(c+1)}{s^{c+1}}  \tag{15}\\
L\left(\frac{d f}{d t}\right) & =\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} f^{\prime}(t) d t \\
& =-f(0)+s \hat{f}(s)  \tag{16}\\
L\left(\frac{d^{2} f}{d t^{2}}\right) & =\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} \frac{d^{2} f}{d t^{2}} d t \\
& =-f^{\prime}(0)-s f(0)+s^{2} \hat{f}(s) \tag{17}
\end{align*}
$$

The first equation says that the Laplace transfor is a linear transformation. The second is based on the Gamma function and demonstrates that large $t$ behaviour of $f(t)$ is related to small $s$ behaviour of $\hat{f}(s)$. The third and fourth equations say that differentiation w.r.t $t$ is related to multiplication by $s$ and involves "initial values".

### 2.3 More about Laplace transforms

- The differentiation operator on $f(t)$ (in the "t"-domain) transforms into a multiplication of $\hat{f}(s)$ (in the "s"-domain) by $s$. It is this property which makes Laplace transforms useful in many problems. The following theorem concerns the analyticity of $\hat{f}(s)$.
- Theorem 12.2: Suppose $f(t)$ is a function such that $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\sigma t} f(t) d t$ exists. Then, $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} f(t) d t$ exists as an analytic function of $s$ for all $\operatorname{Re}(s)>\operatorname{Re}(\sigma)$.
- Proof: Consider $I(T)=\int_{0}^{T} e^{-s t} f(t) d t=\int_{0}^{T} e^{-(s-\sigma) t} e^{-\sigma t} f(t) d t$. Then,

$$
I(T)=(s-\sigma) \int_{0}^{T} e^{-(s-\sigma) t} \phi(t) d t+e^{-(s-\sigma) T} \phi(T)
$$

where, $\int_{0}^{T} e^{-\sigma t} f(t) d t=\phi(T)$. and upon integrating by parts. Now, since the integral for $\phi$ converges as $T \rightarrow \infty,|\phi(t)|$ is bounded and the integral on the RHS absolutely is convergent for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>\operatorname{Re}(\sigma)$. For the same reason, the second term goes to zero. The absolute and uniform convergence in this right half-plane guarantees analyticity in $s$. Thus, Laplace transforms have a typical abscissa of convergence. Although the integral is defined for certain $s$, the transform function may be analytically continued for other values.

### 2.4 Important special cases

- Definition 12.2: Let $\delta(t-a)$ be the Dirac delta function: thus, by definition, $\delta(t-a)=0$ for $t \neq a$ and $\delta(0)=\infty$ in such a way that $\int_{c}^{d} f(t) \delta(t-a) d t=f(a)$, if $a \in(c, d)$ and zero if $a$ is outside the interval of integration. It is not really a "function" but a "distribution" or linear functional. The Heaviside function is defined by,

$$
\begin{align*}
H(x) & =0,(x<0) \\
& =1,(x>1) \tag{18}
\end{align*}
$$

Then, it follows that, $\int_{-\infty}^{x} \delta(u) d u=H(x)$. Furthermore, $H(0)$ can be defined as $1 / 2$.

- Theorem 12.3: We have the following formal results ( $a \geq 0$; proofs are exercises!):

$$
\begin{align*}
L(\delta(t-a)) & =\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} \delta(t-a) d t=e^{-a s}  \tag{19}\\
L(H(t-a)) & =\int_{a}^{\infty} e^{-s t} d t=\frac{e^{-a s}}{s}  \tag{20}\\
L\left(e^{c t} f(t)\right) & =\hat{f}(s-c)  \tag{21}\\
L(f(t-a) H(t-a)) & =e^{-a s} \int_{a}^{\infty} f(t-a) d t=e^{-a s} \hat{f}(s)  \tag{22}\\
L\left(f\left(\frac{t}{a}\right)\right) & =a \hat{f}(a s) \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

### 2.5 Laplace inversion formula

- Consider the function, $\hat{f}(s)=\frac{a}{s-b}$, where $a, b$ are arbitrary complex constants. Let us try to find its inverse transform. This means: we must find $f(t)$ such that $f(t)=0 ; t<0$ and $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} f(t) d t=\hat{f}(s)$.
- Bromwich contour integral: Note that $\hat{f}(s)$ has a simple pole at $s=b$. Let $c$ be any real number such that $c>\operatorname{Re}(b)$, and $\lambda>0$ is any positive number and $t$ is real. Let us consider the integral,

$$
I_{c, \lambda}(t)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \lambda}^{c+i \lambda} e^{t s} \frac{a}{s-b} d s
$$

Note that the integral is taken on a line parallel to the imaginary axis is the $s$-plane to the right of the singularity of the integrand at $s=b$.

- Now suppose $t<0$. We close the contour with a semi-circle centre $s=c$, and radius $\lambda$, running from $c-i \lambda$ to $c+i \lambda$ to the right of the line of integration. Evidently the integrand is analytic in the region bounded by the vertical line $\operatorname{Re}(s)=c$ and the semi-circle. By Cauchy's theorem it vanishes. If now we let $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$, it is easy to see that $\left|e^{t s}\right|=e^{-|t| R \cos \theta} \rightarrow 0 ; R \simeq \lambda ; \cos \theta>0$ on the semi-circle. Hence, defining $f(t)=\operatorname{Lim}_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \lambda}^{c+i \lambda} e^{s t} \hat{f}(s) d s$, we see that $f(t)=0$ for $t<0$, as required!


### 2.6 The inverse transform

- Next we consider what happens when $t>0$. Since in this case, $e^{s t}$ would tend to zero for $s$ on the semi-circle closing the contour in the left half plane, we consider the contour integral,

$$
I_{c, \lambda}^{-}(t)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \oint_{C_{-}} e^{t s} \frac{a}{s-b} d s
$$

where $C_{-}$is the contour including the straight line from $c-i \lambda$ to $c+i \lambda$ as before, but closed this time by the semi-circle on the left. This contour includes the pole at $s=b$ in its interior. Hence, by the Residue Theorem, we have, making use of the fact that the integrand goes to zero on the semi-circle as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(t) & =\operatorname{Lim}_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} I_{c, \lambda}^{-}(t) \\
& =\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \infty}^{c+i \infty} e^{t s} \frac{a}{s-b} d s \\
& =a e^{b t}
\end{aligned}
$$

Of course, we can check this Bromwich prescription for getting the inverse transform is correct by directly taking the Laplace transform of $f(t)$ and verifying that indeed we get back the given $\hat{f}(s)$.

### 2.7 The Bromwich contour integral

- The general formula for the Laplace inverse transform is stated below without proof.
- Laplace inversion formula: If $f(t)$ vanishes for $t<0$ and is suitably well-behaved, its direct Laplace transform $\hat{f}(s)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} f(t) d t$ exists as an analytic function, free of singularities for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>c$ (the abscissa of convergence). One can obtain $f(t)$ from $\hat{f}(s)$ by evaluating the Bromwich contour integral:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(t)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \infty}^{c+i \infty} e^{t s} \hat{f}(s) d s \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the contour is any curve lying to the right of all singularities of $\hat{f}(s)$. In particular, it may be chosen to be a vertical line, $\operatorname{Re}(s)=c$.

- Example 1: Suppose $\hat{f}(s)=\Sigma_{n=1}^{N} \frac{a_{n}}{s-b_{n}}$. Then, $f(t)=\Sigma_{n=1}^{N} a_{n} e^{b_{n} t} ; t>0$ and zero for negative $t$.
Example 2: Let $a_{n}, b_{n}$ be such that $\operatorname{Re}\left(b_{n}\right)<c ; n=1,2, .$. and $\hat{f}(s)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n}}{s-b_{n}}$ is a meromorphic function which is bounded as $s \rightarrow \infty$, then, $f(t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} e^{b_{n} t} ; t>0$.


### 2.8 Derivation of inversion formula

- The following argument (not rigorous!) shows how the inversion formula may be derived. Suppose $\hat{f}(s)$ is a given analytic function, with no singularities for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>c$, for some c. We also assume that $\hat{f}(s)$ behaves "suitably" at infinity. Then, by Cauchy's integral theorem we have:

$$
\hat{f}(s)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \oint_{C} \frac{\hat{f}(u)}{s-u} d u=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \infty}^{c+i \infty} \frac{\hat{f}(u)}{s-u} d u
$$

where $C$ is a contour composed of a vertical line to the right of $c$ and an infinitely large semi-circle. The integral is described in the clock-wise direction! Observe that for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>c, \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t(s-u)} d t=\frac{1}{s-u}$. Substituting this in the above integral relation and interchanging the order of integration, we obtain:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \infty}^{c+i \infty} \frac{\hat{f}(u)}{s-u} d u & =\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} d t\left[\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \infty}^{c+i \infty} e^{t u} \hat{f}(u) d u\right] \\
& =\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s t} f(t) d t, \quad \text { where } \\
f(t) & =\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \infty}^{c+i \infty} e^{t u} \hat{f}(u) d u \tag{25}
\end{align*}
$$

This is the required inversion formula. The vertical line can be replaced by any contour running to the right of $c$ from $-i \infty$ to $i \infty$.

### 2.9 Simplest application

- Consider a particle of mass $m$ dropped from a height $h$ above ground assuming a constant gravitational acceleration $-g \mathbf{e}_{z}$, and that the air resistance during its vertical motion is $-m \nu v_{z}$, where the constant $\nu$ is called the momentum relaxation rate and is a measure of the drag on the particle. Calculate the motion, given initial data $z(0)=h ; v_{z}(0)=0$ We have to solve Newton's equations of motion:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{d z}{d t} & =v_{z}  \tag{26}\\
m \frac{d v_{z}}{d t} & =-m \nu v_{z}-m g \tag{27}
\end{align*}
$$

To solve these equations, we take Laplace transforms of both equations. Using the rules and initial conditions we get (check for yourselves!):

$$
\begin{aligned}
-h+s \hat{z}(s) & =\hat{v_{z}}(s) \\
(\nu+s) \hat{v_{z}}(s) & =-\frac{g}{s}, \quad \text { whence, } \\
v_{z}(t) & =-g \frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-\infty}^{c+i \infty} \frac{e^{s t}}{s(s+\nu)} d s=\frac{g}{\nu}\left[e^{-\nu t}-1\right] \\
z(t) & =\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-\infty}^{c+i \infty} e^{s t}\left[\frac{h}{s}-\frac{g}{s^{2}(\nu+s)}\right] d s=h-\frac{g}{\nu}\left(t+\frac{e^{-\nu t}}{\nu}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

