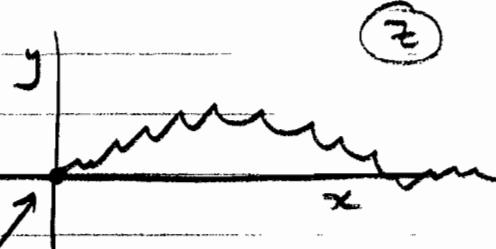


1. (a) A branch point and a simple pole are each singularities, about which no Taylor series exists.

### Branch point

e.g.  $f(z) = z^{1/2}$   
 branch points at  $z=0$  and  $z=\infty$ .



The function is multi-valued about a branch point.

e.g. write  $z = r e^{i\theta}$  then  $z^{1/2} = r^{1/2} e^{i\theta/2}$

A branch cut is arranged between 2 branch points.

A simple pole at  $z=z_0$  behaves locally like  $f(z) = \frac{A}{z-z_0}$ . A is the residue at the pole

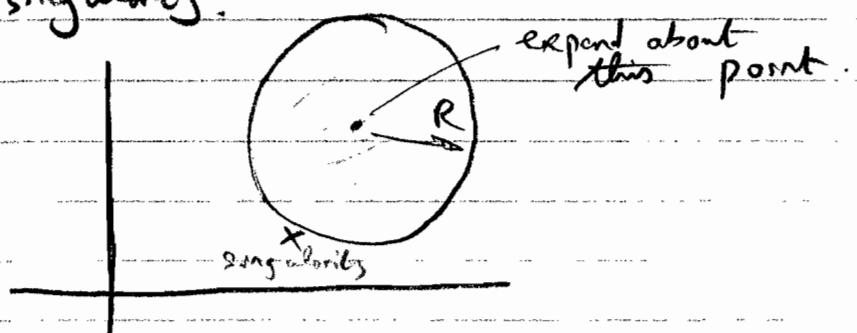
$$\text{Example: } f(z) = \frac{3}{z-4} + \sin z$$

The function can be expanded locally by a Laurent series expansion:

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + \dots$$

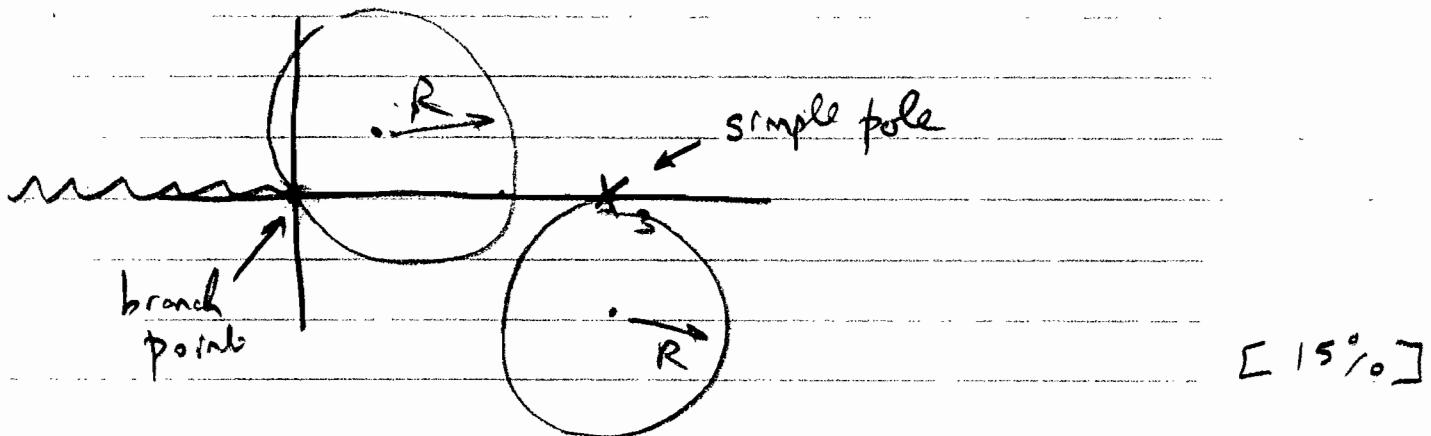
(25%)

- (b) Expand a function about an ordinary point (a good point). The function fails to converge at the nearest singularity.



1. (b) contd.

Example :  $f(z) = \frac{\sqrt{z}}{z-3}$



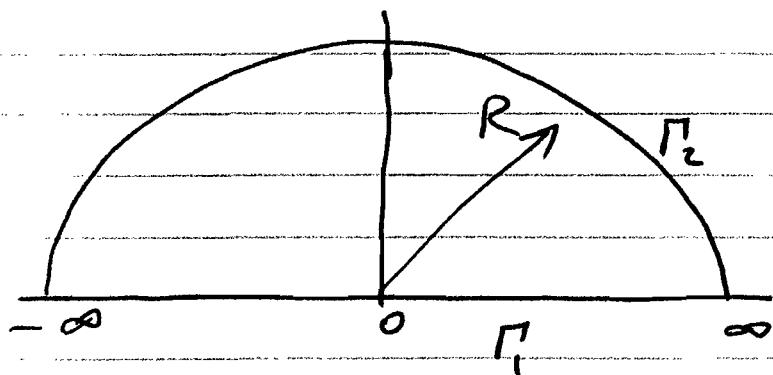
A1.  $I = \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x^4 + a^4} = ?$

Note: integral exists and is well-behaved for  $x \approx 0$  and for  $x \approx \infty$ .

Also the integrand is an even power of  $x$ , and so

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^4 + a^4}$$

Consider  $J = \frac{1}{2} \oint_C \frac{dz}{z^4 + a^4}$



The contribution to the integral on  $\Gamma_2$  is of order  $\frac{1}{R^3}$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , and so this contribution vanishes. Hence  $J \equiv I$ .

But we can use the residue theorem to evaluate  $J$ . In order to determine the singularities of the integrand, consider the denominator,  $f(z) = z^4 + a^4$ .

Zeros of  $f(z)$  give poles of the integrand.

A1. (b) contd.

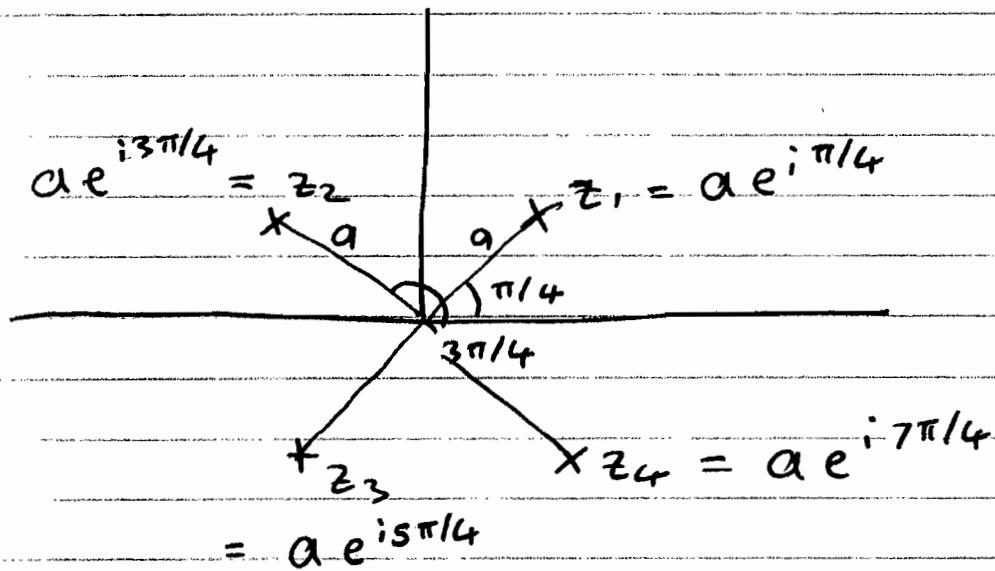
Now  $f(z)$  has simple zeros at  $z^4 + a^4 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow z^4 + a^4 e^{i2n\pi} = 0 \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow z^4 = a^4 e^{i(2n+1)\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow z = a e^{i \frac{(2n+1)}{4}\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow z = a e^{i\pi/4}, a e^{i3\pi/4}, a e^{i5\pi/4}, a e^{i7\pi/4}$$



The singularities at  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  are contained within  $\Gamma$  and their respective residues contribute to the integral.

Near  $z = z_1$  :  $f(z) \sim 0 + (z - z_1) f'(z_1) + \dots$

$$f(z) = z^4 + a^4 \Rightarrow f'(z) = 4z^3$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) \sim (z - z_1) \cdot 4z_1^3 + \dots$$

$\therefore$  Residue  $R_1$  at  $z = z_1$  is  $2\pi i \cdot \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4z_1^3}$

$$z_1 = a e^{i\pi/4}$$

$$\Rightarrow R_1 = \frac{\pi i}{4a^3} e^{-i3\pi/4}$$

Residue  $R_2$  at  $z = z_2 = a e^{i3\pi/4}$  is

$$R_2 = \frac{\pi i}{4a^3} e^{-i9\pi/4}$$

$$R_1 + R_2 = \frac{\pi i}{4a^3} (e^{-i3\pi/4} + e^{-i\pi/4})$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}a^3}$$

$$\text{So } I \equiv J = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}a^3}$$

[60%]

2. (a) Taylor series for  $f(z)$  about  $z_0$  reads

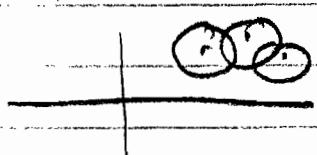
$$f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \frac{1}{2!} f''(z_0)(z - z_0)^2 + \dots$$

Can expand about an ordinary point.

Use a Laurent series to expand about a pole of order  $N$  at  $z = z_0$ :

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-N}}{(z - z_0)^N} + \frac{a_{-1-N}}{(z - z_0)^{N-1}} + \dots a_0 + a_1(z - z_0) + \dots$$

The residue is  $a_{-1}$ .

 Analytic continuation  
of  $f(z)$  to cover the plane. [30%]

(G1) (i)  $f(z) = \frac{(z+1) z^{1/3}}{(z-1)(z-2)}$

So, simple pole at  $z = 2$ .

Branch cut at  $z = 0$ .

Residue at  $z = 2$  is  $2^{1/3}$ .

[20%]

(ii)  $f(z) = \frac{z \ln z}{\sin z}$

At  $z=0$   $f(z) \sim \frac{z \ln z}{z - \frac{1}{3} z^3 + \dots} \sim \ln z$

so a branch point at  $z = 0$ .

At  $z = \pm\pi, \pm 2\pi, \dots = \pm n\pi$

where

$n$  is an integer, we have a simple pole  
but not = 0

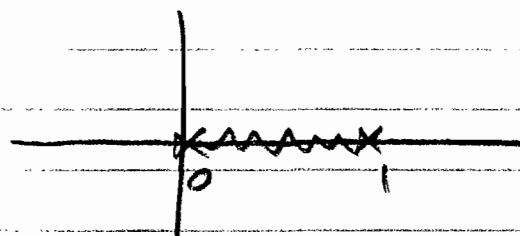
Residue is

$$\frac{n\pi \ln n\pi}{(-1)^n}$$

[30%]

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

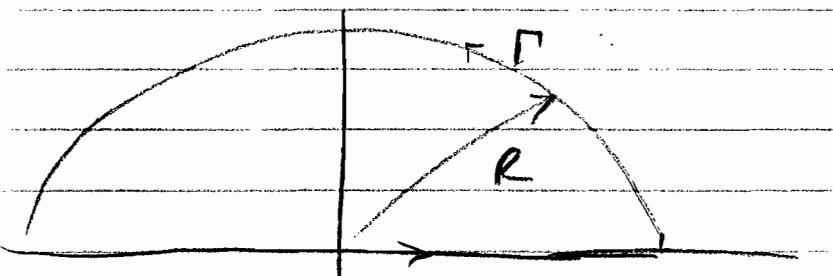
Branch points at  $z=0, 1$ .



(b) Jordan's lemma :

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Gamma} f(z) e^{iaz} dz \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for } a > 0,$$

provided  $f(z) \rightarrow 0$  at  $\infty$ .



Hence  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{iaz} f(z) dz = \oint e^{iaz} f(z) dz$

Useful for Fourier Transforms.

[20%]

## SECTION 3

Q3

$$(a) \frac{\partial f}{\partial V} = 1 - \frac{4 \times 10^5}{V^3 C}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial C} = 4 \times 10^3 - \frac{2 \times 10^5}{V^2 C^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial V^2} = \frac{12 \times 10^5}{V^4 C}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial V \partial C} = \frac{4 \times 10^5}{V^3 C^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial C^2} = \frac{4 \times 10^5}{V^2 C^3}$$

For minimum  $\nabla f = 0$  and  $\nabla^2 f$  is +ve definite

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial V} = 0 \Rightarrow V^3 C = 4 \times 10^5 \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial C} = 0 \Rightarrow V^2 C^2 = 50 \quad (2)$$

$$(1) \Rightarrow V^6 C^2 = 16 \times 10^{10} \quad (3)$$

$$(3) \div (2) \Rightarrow V^4 = 3.2 \times 10^9 \Rightarrow V = \underline{\underline{237.8 \text{ kV}}}$$

$$\therefore (1) \Rightarrow C = \underline{\underline{0.029735}}$$

For these values  $\nabla^2 f = \begin{bmatrix} 0.01261 & 33.72 \\ 33.72 & 269185 \end{bmatrix}$

$$|\nabla^2 f| = 2257$$

The top-left entry of  $\nabla^2 f$  is also  $> 0$  (0.01261)

$\therefore \nabla^2 f$  is +ve definite.

[25%]

$$(b) \text{ For } \underline{x}_0 = (100, 0.1)^T$$

$$\nabla f_0 = \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 2000 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow d_0 = -\nabla f_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2000 \end{pmatrix}$$

Q3 (cont.)

$$\underline{H}_0 = \nabla^2 \underline{f}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.12 & 40 \\ 40 & 40000 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\alpha_0 = \underline{d}_0^T \underline{d}_0 / \underline{d}_0^T \underline{H}_0 \underline{d}_0$$

$$\underline{d}_0^T \underline{d}_0 = 4.0 \times 10^6$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{d}_0^T \underline{H}_0 \underline{d}_0 &= (3 - 2000) \begin{pmatrix} 0.12 & 40 \\ 40 & 40000 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2000 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (3 - 2000) \begin{pmatrix} -8 \times 10^4 \\ -8 \times 10^7 \end{pmatrix} = 1.6 \times 10^{-11} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \alpha_0 = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \underline{x}_1 &= \underline{x}_0 + \alpha_0 \underline{d}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0.1 \end{pmatrix} + 2.5 \times 10^{-5} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2000 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0.05 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \nabla \underline{f}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -7 \\ -4000 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \underline{d}_1 = -\nabla \underline{f}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 4000 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{H}_1 = \nabla^2 \underline{f}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.24 & 160 \\ 160 & 3.2 \times 10^5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{d}_1^T \underline{d}_1 = 16 \times 10^6$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{d}_1^T \underline{H}_1 \underline{d}_1 &= (7 - 4000) \begin{pmatrix} 0.24 & 160 \\ 160 & 3.2 \times 10^5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 4000 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (7 - 4000) \begin{pmatrix} 6.4 \times 10^5 \\ 1.28 \times 10^9 \end{pmatrix} = 5.12 \times 10^{12} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \alpha_1 = 3.125 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$\therefore \underline{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0.05 \end{pmatrix} + 3.125 \times 10^{-6} \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 4000 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0.0625 \end{pmatrix}$$

Q3 (cont.).

- (c) The Steepest Descent Method is clearly struggling to make adequate progress.

The convergence ratio for the SDM depends on the eigenvalues of the Hessian. Ideally the eigenvalues are large and close in value. In this case they are vastly different: for  $\underline{H}_0$  they are 40000 and 0.08; for  $\underline{H}_1$ , they are  $3.2 \times 10^5$  and 0.16. These result in a very low convergence ratio and therefore very slow convergence.

There are also potential problems using the formula for  $\alpha_k$  if the function is not well approximated by a quadratic. This can lead to overshooting of the minimum in the direction of search. This has happened here:  $f_0 = 700$ ,  $f_1 = 700$ ,  $f_2 = 670$ . These points are all on the same line ( $V=100$ ) so the search has overshot the linesearch minimum on the first iteration.

[20%]

- (d) Newton's Method offers quadratic (rather than linear) convergence, but needs the Hessian to be computed and inverted, which can prove difficult for problems with many control variables. There can also be difficulties of convergence if the function is not well modelled as a quadratic.

The Conjugate Gradient Method needs the Hessian but not its inverse. It offers only linear convergence but with smaller convergence ratios than for the SDM. Restarting overcomes problems associated with the "quadraticness" of the objective function.

[15%]

Q4.

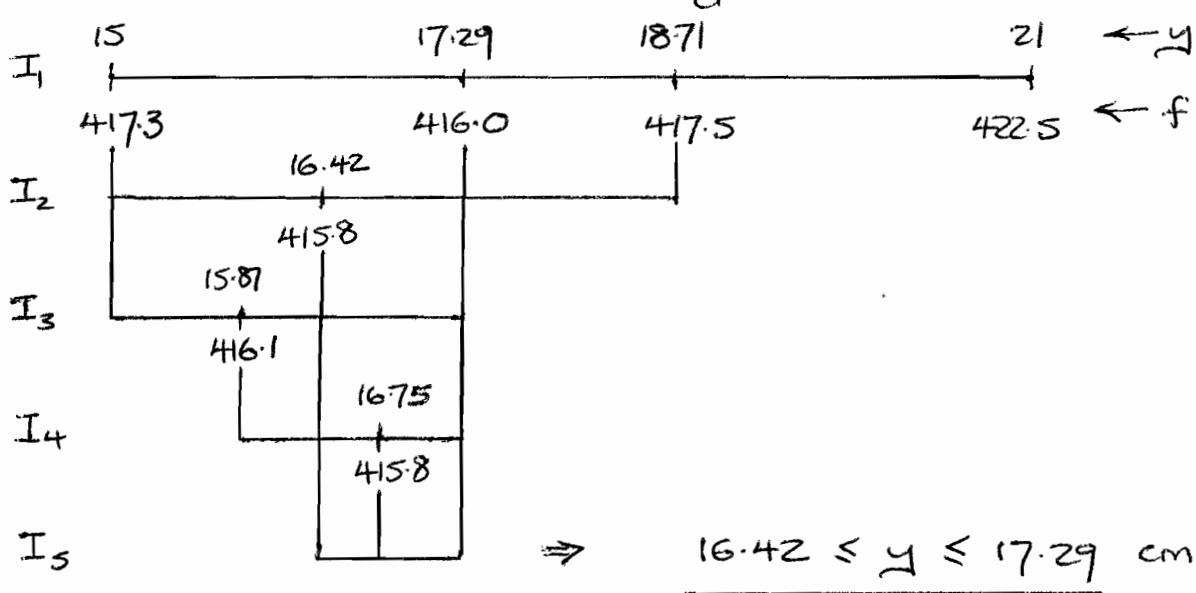
(a) (i) Minimise  $f = xy$   
subject to  $(x-6)(y-4) \geq 240$  [5%]

(ii) If the constraint is active

$$x = 6 + \frac{240}{y-4}$$

$$\therefore f = y \left( 6 + \frac{240}{y-4} \right) = 6y \frac{(y+36)}{(y-4)} \quad [10\%]$$

(iii) For the GSLS method  $\frac{\Delta y}{d} = 0.382$



[35%]

(b) In standard form the problem is

$$\text{Minimise } f = xy$$

$$\text{subject to } g_1 = 240 - (x-6)(y-4) \leq 0$$

$$\therefore L = f + \mu g_1 = xy + \mu (240 - (x-6)(y-4))$$

K-T conditions are

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} : y + \mu(4-y) = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial y} : x + \mu(6-x) = 0 \quad (2)$$

Q4 (cont.)

$$\text{and } \mu(240 - (x-6)(y-4)) = 0 \quad (3)$$

If constraint is inactive  $\mu = 0$ 

$$\therefore (1) \Rightarrow y = 0$$

$$(2) \Rightarrow x = 0$$

But if  $x=y=0$   $g_1$  is violated $\therefore$  constraint must be active

[20%]

(c) If  $\mu \neq 0$ 

$$(1) \Rightarrow y = \mu(y-4)$$

$$(2) \Rightarrow x = \mu(x-6)$$

$$\therefore \frac{y}{x} = \frac{y-4}{x-6}$$

$$\therefore x - 6y = x - 4x \Rightarrow x = 1.5y$$

If constraint is active

$$240 - (x-6)(y-4) = 0$$

$$\therefore 240 = (1.5y - 6)(y - 4) \quad \text{as } x = 1.5y$$

$$\therefore 160 = (y-4)^2$$

$$\therefore y = 4 + \sqrt{160} = \underline{\underline{16.649 \text{ cm}}}$$

$$\therefore x = 1.5y = \underline{\underline{24.974 \text{ cm}}}$$

To confirm minimum need to check  $\mu$ 

$$\text{from (1)} \quad \mu = \frac{y}{(y-4)} = \underline{\underline{1.316}}$$

As  $\mu > 0$  this is a minimum.

The GSLS has successfully identified the vicinity of the optimal value of  $y$  quite quickly. It is an efficient line search method.

[30%]