# $\mathbb{C}\mathsf{omplex} \text{ Analysis TSC}$

## Aryaman Maithani https://aryamanmaithani.github.io/tuts/ma-205

**IIT** Bombay

### Autumn Semester 2020-21



Hi,

Aryaman Maithani Complex Analysis TSC

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You can find a link to this document on **bit.ly/ca-205**. Both with and without pauses. You may keep it open alongside for quick reference.

This is primarily going to be a quick recap of the facts important.

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## Lecture 1

## Definition 1 (Some notation)

Given  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $\delta > 0$ , the  $\delta$ -neighbourhood of  $z_0$ , denoted by  $B_{\delta}(z_0)$  is the set

$$B_{\delta}(z_0) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < \delta\}.$$

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#### Definition 2 (Open sets)

A set  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$  is said to be open if: for *every*  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , there exists *some*  $\delta > 0$  such that

 $B_{\delta}(z_0) \subset U.$ 

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#### Definition 3 (Path-connected sets)

A set  $P \subset \mathbb{C}$  is said to be path-connected if any two points in P can be joined by a path in P. (A continuous function from [0,1] to P.)

Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open. Let

 $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{C}$ 

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exists. In this case, it is denoted by  $f'(z_0)$ .

A function f is said to be holomorphic on an open set  $\Omega$  if it is differentiable at every  $z_0 \in \Omega$ .

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For sets, however, there is no difference.

Any questions?

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From this point on,  $\Omega$  be always denote an open subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ . Whenever I write some complex number z as  $z = x + \iota y$ , it will be assumed that  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Similarly for  $f(z) = u(z) + \iota v(z)$ . Let  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function. We can decompose f as

$$f(z) = u(z) + \iota v(z),$$

where  $u, v : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  are real valued functions.
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The idea now is to consider u and v as functions of two variables. We can do so by simply considering  $u(x, y) = u(x + \iota y)$  and similarly for v. Let  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function. We can decompose f as

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The idea now is to consider u and v as functions of two variables. We can do so by simply considering  $u(x, y) = u(x + \iota y)$  and similarly for v. Now, if we know that f is holomorphic, then we have the following result.

## Theorem 1 (CR equations)

Let  $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  be differentiable at a point  $z_0 \in \Omega$ . Let  $z_0 = x_0 + \iota y_0$ .

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$$u_x(x_0, y_0) = v_y(x_0, y_0)$$
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Note the subscript is x for both in the above. Also note that all the equalities are only at the point  $z_0$ . In particular, we are only assuming differentiability at  $z_0$ .

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An example for you to check is

$$f(z) := \begin{cases} \frac{\overline{z}^2}{z} & z \neq 0, \\ 0 & z = 0. \end{cases}$$

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Check that u and v satisfy the CR equations at (0,0) but f is not differentiable at  $0 + 0\iota$ . (Page 23 of slides.)

Definition 6 (Total derivative)

If  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  is a function, we may view it as a function

 $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}^2.$ 

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$$\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)}\frac{\left\|f(x_0+h,y_0+k)-f(x_0,y_0)-A\begin{bmatrix}h\\k\end{bmatrix}\right\|}{\|(h,k)\|}=0.$$

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The matrix A was called the *total derivative of f at*  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

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Once again, this is only talking about differentiability at a point. The converse is again not true. Take the example  $f(z) = \overline{z}$ .

If f is (complex) differentiable at a point  $z_0 = x_0 + \iota y_0$ , then f is real differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

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Take the example  $f(z) = \overline{z}$ . Thus, we have seen two sufficient conditions for complex differentiability so far. Neither is individually sufficient.

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Take the example  $f(z) = \overline{z}$ . Thus, we have seen two sufficient conditions for complex differentiability so far. Neither is individually sufficient. However, together, they are.

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Let  $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function and let  $z_0 = x_0 + \iota y_0 \in \Omega$ . If the CR equations hold at the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  and if f is real differentiable at the point  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then f is complex differentiable at the point  $z_0$ .

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Suppose *u* and *v* are harmonic on  $\Omega$ . *v* is said to be a harmonic conjugate of *u* if  $f = u + \iota v$  is holomorphic on  $\Omega$ .

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Check the second last slide of this lecture to find the algorithm for finding a harmonic conjugate.

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Any questions?

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# Lecture 3: Power Series

## Definition 8 (Convergence of series)

A series of the form



 $\sum_{n=0}a_n$ 

$$s_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$$

converges (to a finite complex number).

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"Divergent" is simply used to mean "not convergent." Check that  $\sum (-1)^n$  and  $\sum n$  both diverge.

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If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$  itself exists, then it equals the lim sup as well.

We will be interested in discussing radius of convergence of *power* series. We all know what that is. It is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}a_n(z-z_0)^n\qquad(*)$$

where  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and each  $a_n \in \mathbb{C}$ .

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What is the radius of convergence, though? (The definition, that is.)

Theorem 4 (Radius of convergence)

Given any power series as (\*), there exists  $R \in [0, \infty]$  such that (\*) converges for any z with  $|z - z_0| < R$ 

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#### Theorem 4 (Radius of convergence)

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What is the radius of convergence, though? (The definition, that is.)

#### Theorem 4 (Radius of convergence)

Given any power series as (\*), there exists  $R \in [0, \infty]$  such that (\*) converges for any z with  $|z - z_0| < R$ , and (\*) diverges for any z with  $|z - z_0| > R$ . This R is called the radius of convergence.

#### Note the brackets.



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We have another test. This is simpler (to calculate) but mightn't always work.

Theorem 6 (Ratio test)

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$$R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|$$

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Note that I'm not taking any inverse here but also note the way the ratio is taken. We have  $a_n/a_{n+1}$ .

Differentiability of power series is what one should expect.

### Theorem 7 (Differentiability)

Let  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  be a power series with radius of convergence R > 0. On the open disc of radius R, let f(z) denote this sum. Then, on this disc, we have

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Note that this is again a power series with the same radius of convergence. Thus, we may repeat the process indefinitely. In other words, power series are infinite differentiable.

Any questions?

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I shall just recall the facts from the lecture.

Definition 10 (Exponential function)

The power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$$

converges on all of  $\mathbb{C}$ . This sum is denoted by  $\exp(z)$ .

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Theorem 10 (Final fact)

Let  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ , then

$$\exp(z+w)=\exp(z)\cdot\exp(w).$$

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The above is saying that around every zero of f, we can draw a (sufficiently small) circle such that f has no other zero in that disc. This is the same as saying that the set of zeroes is *discrete*.

Any questions?

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#### Definition 12

Let  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be a piecewise continuous function. Writing  $f = u + \iota v$  as usual, we define

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t) \mathrm{d}t := \int_{a}^{b} u(t) \mathrm{d}t + \iota \int_{a}^{b} v(t) \mathrm{d}t.$$

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Existence of a primitive is a strong condition, by the way. A holomorphic function need not have a primitive on all of  $\Omega$ .

Theorem 14 (Cauchy's Theorem)

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If  $\Omega$  is simply-connected, then the interior condition is automatically met. This gives us the next result.

## Theorem 15 ("General" Cauchy Theorem)

Let  $\Omega$  be a simply-connected domain. Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$  be a simple, closed contour and  $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  holomorphic. Then,

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) \mathrm{d} z = 0.$$

Any questions?

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$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi\iota} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} \mathrm{d}z$$

We then saw a consequence of CIF which I state as a theorem below.

Theorem 17 (Holomorphic  $\implies$  Analytic)

Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  be open and  $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{C}$  be holomorphic. Pick any  $z_0 \in \Omega$ .

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$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi\iota} \int_{|w-z_0|=r} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^{n+1}} \mathrm{d}w.$$

The above also gives us (what I call) the "generalised" Cauchy Integral Formula.

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$$\int_{|w-z_0|=r} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^{n+1}} \mathrm{d}w = \frac{2\pi\iota}{n!} f^{(n)}(z_0),$$

where f is a function which is holomorphic on an open disc  $B_R(z_0)$ and r < R.

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where f is a function which is holomorphic on an open disc  $B_R(z_0)$ and r < R.

#### Remark 3

Note that, as usual, we require f to be holomorphic within the circle as well.

### Theorem 20 (Liouville's Theorem)

Aryaman Maithani Complex Analysis TSC

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Suppose that f is holomorphic on  $|z - z_0| < R$ 

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An easy application of this give us:

# Theorem 20 (Liouville's Theorem) Let $f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ be holomorphic. If f is bounded, then f is constant!

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Any questions?

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We discuss logarithm a bit.

Definition 14 (Branch of the logarithm)

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The previous theorem talked about uniqueness of branches (up to a constant) assuming the existence of such a branch. Now, we see when a branch is actually possible.

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The above is saying that "f is holomorphic on some *punctured disc* around  $z_0$ ." Compare this "isolation" with what we saw earlier when we said that "zeroes are isolated."

### Definition 17 (Non-isolated singularity)

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#### Remark 4

The above classification is only for isolated singularities.

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Theorem 23 (Riemann's Removable Singularity Theorem)

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

defined on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  has 0 as a removable singularity.

Definition 19 (Pole)

An isolated singularity  $z_0$  is said to be a pole if

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An isolated singularity  $z_0$  is a pole of f iff  $\lim_{z \to z_0} \frac{1}{f(z)} = 0$ .

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#### Theorem 25 (Order of a pole)

If  $z_0$  is a pole of f, then there exists an integer m > 0 such that

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^{-m} f_1(z)$$

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If  $z_0$  is a pole of f, then there exists an integer m > 0 such that

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on a punctured neighbourhood of  $z_0$ , for some function  $f_1$  which is holomorphic on the complete neighbourhood.

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## Definition 20 (Essential singularity)

An isolated singularity is called an essential singularity if it is neither a removable singularity nor a pole.

Theorem 26 (Casorati-Weierstrass Theorem)

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An isolated singularity is called an essential singularity if it is neither a removable singularity nor a pole.

## Theorem 26 (Casorati-Weierstrass Theorem)

If  $z_0$  is an isolated singularity, then it is essential iff the values of f come arbitrarily close to every complex number in a neighborhood of  $z_0$ .

Any questions?

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$$A = \{ z : r < |z - z_0| < R \},\$$

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$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi\iota} \int_{|w-z_0|=R'} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} \mathrm{d}w$$

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$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi\iota} \int_{|w-z_0|=R'} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} \mathrm{d}w - \frac{1}{2\pi\iota} \int_{|w-z_0|=r'} \frac{f(w)}{w-z} \mathrm{d}w,$$

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where r < r' < |z| < R' < R.

Just like how the usual CIF gave us the power series, this CIF gives us the Laurent series.

## Lecture 9: Laurent Series

Allowing deformations and assuming  $0 < r < R < \infty$ , here's the general picture to keep in mind:



With the same setup as earlier, for  $z \in A$ , we can write f(z) as

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where  $r < r_0 < R$ .

Note that the above is valid for n < 0 as well.

### Definition 21 (Laurent series expansion at $z_0$ )

If  $z_0$  is an isolated singularity of f, then f is holomorphic in an annulus  $\{z : 0 < |z - z_0| < r\}$  for some r > 0. The Laurent series expansion on this annulus is called the Laurent series expansion **at**  $z_0$ .

## Definition 22 (Principal part)

Let 
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n$$
 be the Laurent series expansion at  $z_0$ . Its principal part is
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-1} a_n (z - z_0)^n.$$

The most interesting coefficient of the principal part is the  $-1^{st}$  one.

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This is what is usually called the *residue* and written as

The most interesting coefficient of the principal part is the  $-1^{st}$  one. When we integrate a Laurent series along a circle centered at  $z_0$  (which contains no other singularity), only  $a_{-1}$  remains (with a factor of  $2\pi\iota$ ). This is given by

$$a_{-1}=\frac{1}{2\pi\iota}\int_{|z-z_0|=r_0}f(w)\mathrm{d}w.$$

This is what is usually called the *residue* and written as

$$a_{-1} = \operatorname{Res}(f; z_0).$$

With residues, calculation of integrals becomes easier.

### Theorem 29 (Cauchy's Residue Theorem)

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Note that the above is implicitly implying that f is holomorphic at all other points within  $\gamma$ .
Recall that given an isolated singularity, we can expand the function as a Laurent series *around* that point on a punctured neighbourhood.

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In particular, the residue at a removable singularity is 0.

Now, we see how one can calculate residue at a pole.

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$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-m}}{(z-z_0)^m} + \cdots + \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + \cdots,$$

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is holomorphic at  $z_0$  (after redefining; note that  $z_0$  is a removable singularity for g) and

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$$a_{-1} = \frac{1}{(m-1)!}g^{(m-1)}(z_0).$$

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9 exp has an essential singularity at  $\infty$ .

We didn't define the residue at  $\infty$ . Check Wikipedia for what the definition is, if interested. It is not the same as the residue of f(1/z) at 0.

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An "application:" Suppose that f is defined on the closed unit disc such that it is continuous on the closed disc and holomorphic on the open disc. Since the closed disc is closed and bounded and f is continuous, |f| must attain a maximum on the closed disc. By MMT, this maximum must be on the boundary.
Any questions?

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Moreover, if |f(z)| = |z| for some  $z \in \mathbb{D} \setminus \{0\}$  or if |f'(0)| = 1, then  $f(z) = \lambda z$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $|\lambda| = 1$ .

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Theorem 33 (Open Mapping Theorem)

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for all z on the image of  $\gamma$ .

Then,

$$N_{\gamma}(f) = N_{\gamma}(g).$$

As before, note that the zeroes are counted with multiplicity. For example,  $z^{43}$  has 43 zeroes within the curve |z| = 1.

## Theorem 36 (Existence of harmonic conjugates)

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As a corollary, we had gotten that harmonic functions are infinitely differentiable since open discs are simply connected.

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Let  $w \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and u be a function harmonic on  $B_R(w)$  for some R > 0.

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$$u(w) = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} u(w + r e^{\iota heta}) \mathrm{d} heta.$$

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Note that in CIF, we had a z in the denominator. No such thing here. Moreover, we have  $2\pi$  instead of  $2\pi\iota$ .

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Note that in CIF, we had a z in the denominator. No such thing here. Moreover, we have  $2\pi$  instead of  $2\pi\iota$ . The latter is of course expected since everything is Real.

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Let *u* be a harmonic function on a domain  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ .

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#### Theorem 38 (Identity Principle for harmonic functions)

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#### Theorem 38 (Identity Principle for harmonic functions)

Let *u* be a harmonic function on a domain  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ . If u = 0 on a non-empty open subset  $U \subset \Omega$ , then u = 0 throughout  $\Omega$ .

Any questions?

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Aryaman Maithani Complex Analysis TSC

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In other words, if an entire function misses two points, then it must be constant.

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for all  $z \in C_R$ . Then,

$$\left| \int_{C_R} f(z) \mathrm{d}z \right| \leq rac{\pi}{a} \max_{ heta \in [0,\pi]} \left| g(Re^{\iota heta}) \right|$$

Let f, g be continuous complex valued functions defined on the upper semicircular contour  $C_R = \{Re^{\iota\theta} : \theta \in [0, \pi]\}$  for some R > 0. Assume that there exists a > 0 such that

$$f(z)=e^{\iota az}g(z),$$

for all  $z \in C_R$ . Then,

$$\left| \int_{C_R} f(z) \mathrm{d}z \right| \leq rac{\pi}{a} \max_{ heta \in [0,\pi]} \left| g(Re^{\iota heta}) \right|.$$

This is useful in the cases that the quantity on the right goes to 0 in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$ .

# Integration theorems

Theorem 41 (Fractional residue theorem)

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For r > 0, define  $\gamma_r(\theta) := z_0 + re^{\iota(\theta + \alpha_0)}$  for  $\theta \in [0, \alpha]$ . Then,

$$\lim_{r\to 0^+}\int_{\gamma_r}f(z)\mathrm{d} z=\alpha\iota\operatorname{\mathsf{Res}}(f;z_0).$$



Not exactly an integration theorem but something we saw in lectures that is helpful in computing integrals of rational functions.

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Usually, we will be interested in the upper half semi-circle. ML inequality will tell us that the integral over the semicircle goes to 0 in the limit  $R \rightarrow \infty$ .

Doubts?

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