

# 1 Complex Numbers

**Definition 1.1** (Complex Numbers). Complex numbers are numbers of the form  $z = x + iy$  with  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . We denote the set of complex numbers by  $\mathbb{C} := \{x + iy \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . For  $z = x + iy$ , we can call  $x$  the **real part** of  $z$  and  $y$  the **imaginary part**. We usually write

$$x = \Re z, \quad y = \Im z$$

If  $y = 0$ , then  $z$  is real. If  $x = 0$ , then  $z$  is purely imaginary. It is obvious that  $\mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$ . Two complex numbers are equal if and only if their real parts and imaginary parts are both equal.

**Definition 1.2** (Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication). For  $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1$  and  $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2$ , we define

- Addition/Subtraction:  $(x_1 + iy_1) + (x_2 + iy_2) = (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)$
- Multiplication:  $(x_1 + iy_1) \cdot (x_2 + iy_2) = (x_1x_2 - y_1y_2) + i(x_1y_2 + y_1x_2)$ .

**Theorem 1.1.** For any  $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{C}$ , we have

- Commutative law:  $z_1 + z_2 = z_2 + z_1, z_1 \cdot z_2 = z_2 \cdot z_1$ .
- Associative law:  $(z_1 + z_2) + z_3 = z_1 + (z_2 + z_3), (z_1 \cdot z_2) \cdot z_3 = z_1 \cdot (z_2 \cdot z_3)$ .

**Definition 1.3** (Division). For  $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1$  and  $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2 \neq 0$ , we have

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{x_1x_2 + y_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} + i \frac{y_1x_2 - x_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

**Definition 1.4** (Modulus). The modulus  $|z|$  of a complex number  $z = x + iy$  is the distance of  $z$  from the origin 0 in the complex plane:

$$|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

**Remark:**

- $|z| \geq 0; |z| = 0 \Leftrightarrow z = 0$ .
- $|\Re z| \leq |z|, |\Im z| \leq |z|$ .
- Distance between  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  is  $|z_1 - z_2|$ .

**Definition 1.5** (Complex Conjugate). The **complex conjugate**  $\bar{z}$  of a complex number  $z = x + iy$  is defined by

$$\bar{z} = x - iy$$

**Theorem 1.2** (Consequences involving Complex Conjugate).

$$\Re z = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}.$$

$$\Im z = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$$

$$\overline{z_1 + z_2} = \bar{z}_1 + \bar{z}_2.$$

$$\overline{z_1 \cdot z_2} = \bar{z}_1 \cdot \bar{z}_2.$$

$$\overline{\frac{z_1}{z_2}} = \frac{\bar{z}_1}{\bar{z}_2}.$$

$$z\bar{z} = |z|^2.$$

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{z_1\bar{z}_2}{|z_2|^2}$$

**Theorem 1.3.**  $|z_1 z_2| = |z_1| \cdot |z_2|$ .

**Theorem 1.4** (Triangle Inequality).

$$||z_1| - |z_2|| \leq |z_1 \pm z_2| \leq |z_1| + |z_2|$$

**Definition 1.6** (Polar Form, Exponential Form). Let  $z = x + iy$ . Then, with  $(r, \theta)$  satisfying  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$ , we can write

$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

We call the above expression **polar form** of  $z$ . We define  $e^{i\theta} := \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ . So we have

$$z = r e^{i\theta}$$

We call the above expression the **exponential form** of  $z$ . Here,  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ ,  $\theta = \arctan \frac{y}{x} + (2n + 1)\pi$ .

**Definition 1.7** (Argument). Any real value that makes the polar form holds is called the **argument** of  $z$ . We have

$$\arg z = \theta + 2n\pi, n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Due to this result, we define the general polar form of  $z$  to be

$$z = r[\cos(\theta + 2n\pi) + i \sin(\theta + 2n\pi)], n = 0, \pm 1, \dots$$

and general exponential form as

$$z = r \exp[i(\theta + 2n\pi)], n = 0, \pm 1, \dots$$

**Definition 1.8** (Principal Argument).  $\text{Arg } z = \{x \mid x \in \arg z, -\pi < x \leq \pi\}$ .

**Theorem 1.5.**  $\arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$

**Theorem 1.6** (De Moivre's Formula).  $(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta$

**Definition 1.9** (Principal  $n$ th root). Principle  $n$ th root is the  $n$ th root of the principle argument.

## 2 Analytic Functions

**Definition 2.1** (Polynomial). A polynomial in  $z$  is a function of the form

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1z + \cdots + a_nz^n$$

with each  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 2.2** (Rational Function). A rational function in  $z$  is a function of the form  $f(z) = \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$ , where  $p, q$  are polynomial in  $z$ .

**Definition 2.3** (Limits). We write  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w_0$  if the following condition is satisfied: For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta = \delta(\epsilon) > 0$  such that

$$|f(z) - w_0| < \epsilon \text{ whenever } 0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$$

**Theorem 2.1** (Limit of Real/Imaginary-Part Separable Function). If  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ ,  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$  and  $w_0 = u_0 + iv_0$ , then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w_0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} u(x, y) = u_0, \\ \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} v(x, y) = v_0 \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 2.2.** If there are two curves  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  passing through  $z_0$  such that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0 \text{ along } C_1} f(z) \neq \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0 \text{ along } C_2} f(z)$$

then  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)$  does not exist.

**Theorem 2.3.** If  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = w_1$  and  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} g(z) = w_2$ , then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} [f(z) + g(z)] = w_1 + w_2, \quad \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) \cdot g(z) = w_1 \cdot w_2$$

and

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} = \frac{w_1}{w_2} \text{ if } g(z), w_2 \neq 0$$

### 2.1 Infinity

**Definition 2.4** (Extended Complex Plane).  $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  is called the extended complex plane.

Definitions of limits involving infinity is similar to that of real limits, and is omitted.

### 2.2 Continuity

**Definition 2.5** (Continuous). A complex-valued function  $f(z)$  is continuous at  $z_0$  if and only if  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$ .

**Theorem 2.4** (Some consequence). • If  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ , then  $f(z)$  is continuous if and only if  $u, v$  are continuous.

• If  $f(z), g(z)$  are continuous, then  $f(z) \pm g(z), f(z) \cdot g(z)$  are continuous at  $z_0$ .

• Also,  $\frac{f}{g}(z)$  is continuous at any  $z_0$  where  $g(z_0) \neq 0$ .

### 2.3 Differentiation

**Definition 2.6** (Derivative). The derivative of  $f$  at  $z_0$  is defined as

$$\frac{d}{dz} f(z)|_{z=z_0} = f'(z_0) := \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0}$$

If  $f'(z_0)$  exists, then we say  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$ .

**Theorem 2.5.** If  $f(z)$  is differentiable at  $z_0$ , then  $f(z)$  is continuous at  $z_0$ .

The differentiation rule of complex functions are similar to that of real functions.

### 2.4 Cauchy Riemann Equations

**Theorem 2.6** (A necessary condition for differentiability). If  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  is differentiable at  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ , then  $u$  and  $v$  satisfy Cauchy Riemann equations at  $(x_0, y_0)$  i.e.,

$$f'(z_0) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

**Theorem 2.7** (A Sufficient Condition for Differentiability). Let  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  be defined near the point  $z_0 = x_0 + iy_0$ . Suppose

1.  $u, v$  satisfies CR equations at  $(x_0, y_0)$ :

$$u_x = v_y, u_y = -v_x$$

2.  $u_x, u_y, v_x, v_y$  continuous at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Then  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0$ .

### 2.5 Analytic Functions

**Definition 2.7** (Analytic Function). We say  $f$  is analytic at point  $z_0$  if  $f(z)$  differentiable everywhere in some open set  $U$  containing  $z_0$ .

We say  $f$  is analytic in an open set  $U$  if  $f$  is differentiable everywhere in  $U$ .

**Theorem 2.8.** If  $f, g$  are analytic in open set  $U$ , so are  $f + g, f - g, f \times g$ , and  $\frac{f}{g}$ , with  $U \setminus \{z \in U \mid g(z) = 0\}$ .

**Definition 2.8** (Entire function). An **entire** function is a function which is analytic in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Theorem 2.9** (Constant Analytic Function). Let  $f(z)$  be analytic in domain  $D$ . If  $f'(z) = 0$  on  $D$ , then  $f(z)$  is constant in  $D$ .

## 2.6 Harmonic Function

**Definition 2.9** (Laplace Equation). Let  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  be **analytic** in domain  $D$ . Then  $u, v$  satisfies Laplace equation:

$$\begin{aligned}u_{xx} + u_{yy} &= 0 \\v_{xx} + v_{yy} &= 0\end{aligned}$$

on  $D$ .

**Definition 2.10** (Real Harmonic Function). Let  $D$  be a domain in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . A function  $u : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be **harmonic** in  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  if

1.  $u$  has continuous first and second partial derivative
2.  $u$  satisfies Laplace equation in  $D$ .

**Definition 2.11** (Harmonic Conjugate). Let  $u, v$  be two harmonic functions in a domain  $D$ . We say  $v$  is a **harmonic conjugate** of  $u$  if

$$u_x = v_y \text{ and } u_y = -v_x \text{ on } D$$

**Theorem 2.10** (Harmonic Conjugate composing Analytic Function). Let  $u$  be a harmonic function in domain  $D$ . Let  $v$  be a harmonic conjugate of  $u$ . Then  $f(z) = u + iv$  is an analytic function in  $D$ .

## 3 Elementary Functions

### 3.1 Exponential Function

**Definition 3.1** (Exponential Function). Let  $z = x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$e^z = e^x(\cos y + i \sin y) = e^x e^{iy}$$

It is worth noting  $e^{2\pi i} = 1$ , so the exponential function is periodic with period  $2\pi i$ .

**Theorem 3.1.**

$$e^{z_1+z_2} = e^{z_1}e^{z_2}$$

**Theorem 3.2** (Modulus and Argument of Exponential Function).  $|e^z| = e^x$ , and  $\arg(e^z) = y + 2n\pi, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

### 3.2 Logarithmic Function

**Definition 3.2** (Logarithmic Function). We define, for  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ ,

$$\log z = \ln |z| + i \arg z$$

**Definition 3.3** (Principal Logarithmic Function).

$$\text{Log } z = \ln |z| + i \text{Arg } z$$

$\text{Log } z$  has image  $\{x + yi \mid x \in \mathbb{R}, y \in (-\pi, \pi]\}$ .

Note, that  $\text{Log } z$  is continuous on the **cut complex plane**  $\mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$ .

**Theorem 3.3** (Principal Log is analytic on cut complex plane). The function  $\text{Log } z$  is analytic on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$ , and

$$\frac{d}{dz} \text{Log } z = \frac{1}{z}$$

for all  $z$  in cut complex plane.

**Theorem 3.4.**

$$\log(z_1 z_2) = \log z_1 + \log z_2$$

**Definition 3.4** (Complex Exponents). For  $z, c \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $z \neq 0$ ,

$$z^c := e^{c \log z}$$

Note,  $z^c$  is a multivalued function. So we define the **principal value of**  $z^c$  to be  $P.V.z^c = e^{c \text{Log } z}$ .

### 3.3 Trigonometric Function

**Definition 3.5** (Sine, Cosine). For  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \quad \sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$$

We have, for  $z = x + iy$ ,  $|\sin z|^2 = \sinh^2 y + \sin^2 x$ , and  $|\cos z|^2 = \sinh^2 y + \cos^2 x$ .

We have  $\sin(z + \pi) = -\sin z$ ,  $\cos(z + \pi) = -\cos z$ , and  $\tan(z + \pi) = \tan z$ .

**Definition 3.6** (Hyperbolic Sine, Hyperbolic Consine). For  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

$$\cosh x = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2} \quad \sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}$$

We have,  $\sinh z = i \sin(-iz)$ ,  $\cosh = \cos(-iz)$ ,  $\cosh^2 z - \sinh^2 z = 1$ .

**Definition 3.7** (Inverse Trigonometric Function).

$$\cos^{-1} z = -i \log(z + (z^2 - 1)^{1/2})$$

$$\sin^{-1} z = -i \log(iz + (1 - z^2)^{1/2})$$

$$\tan^{-1} z = \frac{i}{2} \log \frac{i+z}{i-z}$$

We have

$$\frac{d}{dz} \cos^{-1} z = \frac{z}{(1 - z^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \sin^{-1} z = \frac{1}{(1 - z^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \tan^{-1} z = \frac{1}{1 + z^2}$$

# 4 Contour Integration

**Definition 4.1** (Integration of Complex Function of a real variable). Let  $w : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , and  $t \in [a, b]$ . Let  $w(t) = u(t) + iv(t)$ .

- If  $u'(t)$  and  $v'(t)$  both exist, then we define

$$\frac{d}{dt}w(t) = w'(t) := u'(t) + iv'(t)$$

- If  $u$  and  $v$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then we define

$$\int_a^b w(t)dt = \int_a^b u(t)dt + i \int_a^b v(t)dt$$

**Theorem 4.1.** Let  $w, w_1, w_2 : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ .

- $\frac{d}{dt}[w_1(t) + w_2(t)] = w_1'(t) + w_2'(t)$
- $\frac{d}{dt}[z_0 w(t)] = z_0 w'(t)$
- $\int_a^b [w_1(t) + w_2(t)]dt = \int_a^b w_1(t)dt + \int_a^b w_2(t)dt$
- $\int_a^b z_0 w(t)dt = z_0 \int_a^b w(t)dt$

**Theorem 4.2.** If  $w : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , then

$$\left| \int_a^b w(t)dt \right| \leq \int_a^b |w(t)|dt$$

**Theorem 4.3** (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus). Suppose  $F(t)$  and  $f(t)$  continuous such that

$$F'(t) = f(t) (a \leq t \leq b)$$

Then

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt = F(b) - F(a)$$

**Definition 4.2** (Curve). A **curve** in the complex plane is a continuous function

$$\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

That is if we write  $\gamma(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$ , then  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  are continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

The set of points on  $\gamma$  is called the **track** of  $\gamma$ .

**Definition 4.3** (Simple, Closed, and Simple Closed curve).

$\gamma$  is simple if  $t_1 \neq t_2 \implies \gamma(t_1) \neq \gamma(t_2)$ .

$\gamma$  is closed if  $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$ .

$\gamma$  is a simple closed curve if it is closed and  $a \leq t_1 < t_2 < b \implies \gamma(t_1) \neq \gamma(t_2)$

**Definition 4.4** (Smooth curve). A curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is smooth if

- $\gamma'(t) = x'(t) + iy'(t)$  exists and is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and
- $\gamma'(t) \neq 0$  for all  $t \in [a, b]$ .

**Definition 4.5** (Length of Curve). Length of  $\gamma$  equals

$$\int_a^b |\gamma'(t)|dt$$

**Definition 4.6** (Integral of  $f$  along  $\gamma$ ). The integral of  $f$  along  $\gamma$  is defined by

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t))\gamma'(t)dt$$

**Theorem 4.4** (Reparametrization does not change integral value). Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a smooth curve, and let  $\phi : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$  such that

- $\phi'(t)$  exists and is continuous on  $[c, d]$ , and
- $\phi(c) = a, \phi(d) = b$

Define  $\alpha(t) = \gamma(\phi(t)), c \leq t \leq d$ , then for any function  $f$  continuous on  $\alpha = \gamma$ ,

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = \int_{\alpha} f(z)dz$$

**Definition 4.7** (Opposite curve). Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a curve. Define opposite curve  $-\gamma$  by

$$(-\gamma)(t) = \gamma(-t), -b \leq t \leq -a$$

We have, for any smooth curve  $\gamma$ ,  $\int_{-\gamma} f(z)dz = - \int_{\gamma} f(z)dz$

**Definition 4.8** (Contour Integral). If  $f$  is continuous on  $\gamma$ , then we define contour integral of  $f$  along  $\gamma$  to be

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{\gamma_j} f(z)dz$$

**Theorem 4.5** (ML Inequality). Suppose that  $f$  is continuous on an open set containing the track of a contour  $\gamma$ , and

$$|f(z)| \leq M \text{ for all } z \in \gamma$$

Then

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z)dz \right| \leq ML$$

where  $L$  is the length of  $\gamma$ .

### 4.1 Antiderivatives

**Definition 4.9** (Antiderivative). Let  $f$  be a continuous function on a domain  $D$ . A function  $F$  such that

$$F'(z) = f(z) \text{ for all } z \in D$$

is called an **antiderivative** of  $f$  in  $D$ .

**Theorem 4.6** (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus For Contour Integrals). Suppose  $f$  has antiderivative  $F$  on a domain  $D$ .

1. If  $z_1, z_2 \in D$  and  $\gamma$  a contour in  $D$  joining  $z_1$  to  $z_2$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = F(z_2) - f(z_1)$$

This indicate the contour integral of such  $f$  is path independent.

2. In particular, if  $\gamma$  is closed in  $D$ , then  $\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = 0$ .

**Theorem 4.7.** Let  $f$  be continuous on a domain  $D$ . The following are equivalent:

1.  $f$  has an antiderivative in  $D$
2. For any closed contour  $\gamma$  in  $D$ ,  $\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = 0$ .
3. The contour integral of  $f$  are independent of paths in  $D$ , that is if  $z_1, z_2 \in D$ , and  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  are contours in  $D$  joining  $z_1$  to  $z_2$  then

$$\int_{\gamma_1} f(z)dz = \int_{\gamma_2} f(z)dz$$

### 4.2 Cauchy-Goursat Theorem

**Theorem 4.8** (Jordan Curve Theorem). Any simple closed contour  $\gamma$  separates the plane into two domains, each having  $\gamma$  as its boundary.

**Definition 4.10.** A simple closed contour  $\gamma$  is positively oriented if the interior domain lies ot the left of an observer tracing out the points in order.

**Theorem 4.9** (Cauchy Goursat). If a function  $f$  is analytic at all points interior to and on a simple closed contour  $\gamma$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = 0$$

**Theorem 4.10.** Let  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  be positively oriented simple closed contours with  $\gamma_2$  interior to  $\gamma_1$ . If  $f$  is analytic on the closed region containing  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  and the points between them, then

$$\int_{\gamma_1} f(z)dz = \int_{\gamma_2} f(z)dz$$

**Definition 4.11** (Simple Connected Domain). A domain  $D$  is **simply connected** if every simple closed contour in  $D$  encloses only points in  $D$ .

**Theorem 4.11** (Cauchy Roursat Theorem For Simply Connected Domain). If  $f$  is analytic is a simply connected domain  $D$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = 0$$

for every closed contour  $\gamma$  in  $D$ .

### 4.3 Cauchy Integral Formula

**Definition 4.12** (Cauchy Integral Formula). Let  $\gamma$  be a positively oriented simple closed contour and let  $f$  be analytic everywhere within and on  $\gamma$ . Then for any  $z_0$  interior to  $\gamma$ ,

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz$$

**Theorem 4.12** (Cauchy Integral Formula for Derivatives). Let  $f(z)$  be analytic everywhere inside and on a positively oriented simple closed contour  $\gamma$ . Then for any  $z_0$  inside  $\gamma$ , and any integer  $n \geq 1$ ,  $f^{(n)}(z_0)$  exists, and

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$

**Theorem 4.13.** If  $f$  is analytic in domain  $D$ , then all its derivative exists and are analytic in  $D$ .

**Theorem 4.14** (Morera). If  $f$  continuous on a domain  $D$ , and

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z)dz = 0$$

for every closed contour  $\gamma$  in  $D$ , then  $f$  is analytic in  $D$ .

### 4.4 Cauchy's Inequality

**Theorem 4.15** (Cauchy's Inequality). Let  $f(z)$  be analytic within and on the circle  $\gamma_R$  centred at  $z_0$  and of radius  $R(R > 0)$ . Write  $M_R = \max_{z \in \gamma_R} |f(z)|$ . Then for any integer  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!M_R}{R^n}$$

**Definition 4.13** (Bounded). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{C}$ . A function  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is **bounded** if there exists some  $K > 0$  such that

$$|f(z)| \leq K \text{ for all } z \in S$$

**Definition 4.14** (Liouville). If an entire function  $f$  is bounded, then it must be a constant function.

**Theorem 4.16** (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). If  $p(z) = z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0$ , then  $p(z) = 0$  has a solution in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 4.15.** • A subset  $S$  of  $\mathbb{C}$  is said to be closed if  $\mathbb{C} \setminus S$  is open.

- A subset  $S$  of  $\mathbb{C}$  is said to be bounded if there exists a number  $K > 0$  such that

$$|z| \leq K \text{ for all } z \in S$$

**Theorem 4.17** (Extreme Value Theorem). Let  $S$  be a non-empty closed bounded subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $g : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Then there exists  $z_1, z_2 \in S$  such that  $g(z_1) \leq g(z) \leq g(z_2)$  for all  $z \in S$ .

## 5 Series Representation of Analytic Functions

### 5.1 Sequences and Series of Complex Numbers

A sequence of complex number is an ordered list of complex numbers, denote dby  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

**Definition 5.1** (Limit of Sequence). A sequence  $\{z_n\}$  has a limit  $z$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N = N(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|z_n - z| < \epsilon \text{ whenever } n \geq N$$

In this case, we say  $\{z_n\}$  converges to  $z$ .

If  $\{z_n\}$  has no limit, then  $\{z_n\}$  diverges.

**Theorem 5.1.** If  $z_n = x_n + iy_n$  for all  $n$  and  $z = x + iy$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y$$

**Theorem 5.2.** A convergent sequence  $\{z_n\}$  has a unique limit.

**Theorem 5.3.** Let  $\{z_n\}$  and  $\{w_n\}$  be two convergent sequences of complex numbers, and let  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} w_n = w$ , then

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (z_n + w_n) = z + w$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (z_n - w_n) = z - w$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (z_n \cdot w_n) = zw$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{z_n}{w_n} = \frac{z}{w}$  if  $w \neq 0$  and each  $w_n \neq 0$ .

**Definition 5.2** (Cauchy Sequence). A sequence  $\{z_n\}$  is called a Cauchy sequence if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N = N(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|z_n - z_m| < \epsilon \text{ whenever } n, m \geq N$$

**Theorem 5.4** (Cauchy Criterion). A sequence  $\{z_n\}$  is convergent if and only if  $\{z_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence.

**Definition 5.3** (Series). A series of complex numbers is of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$$

We define  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n z_k$  to be the  $n$ th partial sum of the series, and we say  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges to  $S$ , if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$ .

If  $\{S_n\}$  diverges, the the series diverges.

**Theorem 5.5.** •  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n = S$  if and only if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n = X$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} y_n = Y$  where  $z_n = x_n + iy_n$  and  $S = X + iY$ .

- That  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges implies  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = 0$
- If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n \neq 0$ , or does not exist, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  diverges.

**Definition 5.4** (Absolute Convergence). If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n|$  converges, we say that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges absolutely.

**Theorem 5.6.**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges absolutely implies  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges.

### 5.2 Sequence and Series of Functions

A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  defined a set  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$  in an ordered list of functions, where each  $f_i : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 5.5** (Pointwise Convergence). Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of functions. Suppose for each  $z \in D$ , the sequence of complex numbers  $f_n(z)$  converges. Then we can define a function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  given by

$$f(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) \text{ for all } z \in D$$

And we say that  $f_n$  **converges pointwise** to  $f$  on  $D$ .

**Definition 5.6** (Uniform Convergence). We say a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $D$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N = N(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that

$$|f_n(z) - f(z)| < \epsilon \text{ for all } n > N \text{ and all } z \in D$$

**Theorem 5.7.** Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  and  $g$  bounded on  $D$ . Then  $\{f_n \cdot g_n\}$  converges uniformly to function  $f \cdot g$ .

**Theorem 5.8** (Cauchy Criterion). A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on  $D$  if and only if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N = N(\epsilon)$  such that

$$|f_n(z) - f_m(z)| < \epsilon \text{ for all } z \in D \text{ and all } m, n \geq N$$

Note, here  $N$  does not depend on  $z$ .

**Theorem 5.9.** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ , and  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of functions on  $D$  such that each  $f_n$  is continuous on  $D$ . If  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $D$  then  $f$  is also continuous on  $D$ .

**Theorem 5.10.** Let  $\gamma$  be a contour and let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of continuous functions on the track of  $\gamma$ . If  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $\gamma$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} f_n(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$$

**Theorem 5.11.** Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of analytic functions on a domain  $D$ . If  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $D$ , then  $f$  is also analytic on  $D$ . Moreover,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n^*(z) = f'(z) \text{ for all } z \in D$$

**Definition 5.7** (Series of Functions). Let  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ . An expression of the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(z) = f_1(z) + \cdots, z \in D$$

with each  $f_k : D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , is said to be a **series of functions** on  $D$ .

**Definition 5.8** (Partial Sum of Series of Functions). The partial sum  $\{S_n\}$  is given by

$$S_n(z) = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k(z)$$

We say that the series of fuctions **converges pointwise (resp. uniformly)** to a function  $S$  on  $D$  if its sequence of partial sums  $\{S_n\}$  converges pointwise to  $S$  on  $D$ .

**Theorem 5.12.** Let  $\gamma$  be a contour and let  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(z)$  be a series of continuous functions converging uniformly on  $\gamma$ , then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{\gamma} f_n(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(z) dz$$

**Theorem 5.13.** Let  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(z)$  be a series of analytic functions converging uniformly to some function  $S(z)$  on a domain  $D$ . Then  $S(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(z)$  is also analytic on  $D$ , and we have

$$\frac{d}{dz} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(z) \right) = S'(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f'_k(z) \text{ for all } z \in D$$

**Theorem 5.14** (Weierstrass M-test). Consider a series of functions  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k$  on a set  $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ . Suppose that

- $|f_k(z)| \leq M_k$  for all  $z \in D$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  and
- $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} M_k$  converges

Then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k$  converges uniformly on  $S$ .

### 5.3 Power Series

An expression of the form  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$  is called a **power series** in  $z$ .

We can also form a power series in  $z - z_0$ .

**Theorem 5.15** (Radius of Convergence). Given any power series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$ , there is an associated number  $R$ ,  $0 \leq R \leq \infty$ , called the radius of convergence, with the following properties:

- The series of numbers  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$  converges absolutely at each  $z \in B(z_0, R)$ .
- $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$  diverges at each  $z$  satisfying  $|z - z_0| > R$
- The series of of functions  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$  converges uniformly on the closed ball  $\overline{B}(z_0, \rho)$ , for any  $\rho$  satisfying  $0 < \rho < R$ .

Moreover,  $R$  is given by

$$R = \frac{1}{\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_k|^{1/k}}$$

and is also given by

$$R = \frac{1}{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_{k+1}|}{|a_k|}} \text{ if } \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_{k+1}|}{|a_k|} \text{ exists}$$

**Theorem 5.16.** Given a power series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$  with radius of convergence  $R$ , we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k \begin{cases} \text{converges pointwise} & \text{on } B(z_0, R) \\ \text{diverges} & \text{whenever } |z - z_0| > R \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 5.17.** Let  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$  be a power series with radius of convergence  $R$ . Then

1.  $S(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$  is an analytic function on  $B(z_0, R)$ .

2. Term by term differentiation:

$$S'(z) = \frac{d}{dz} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k a_k (z - z_0)^{k-1} \text{ on } B(z_0, R)$$

3. Term by term integration: If  $\gamma$  a contour in  $B(z_0, R)$  and  $g(z)$  continuous on  $\gamma$  then

$$\int_{\gamma} g(z) S(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} g(z) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k dz = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \int_{\gamma} g(z) (z - z_0)^k dz$$

### 5.4 Taylor Series

**Theorem 5.18** (Taylor Theorem). Suppose  $f(z)$  is analytic in  $B(z_0, R)$ . Then

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!} (z - z_0)^k, z \in B(z_0, R)$$

The power series is called the Taylor series of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$ , and coefficients Taylor coefficients.

When  $z_0 = 0$ , Taylor series becomes the Maclaurin series of  $f(z)$ .

When  $f(z)$  entire,  $R = \infty$ .

It follows that Taylor series has radius of convergence at least  $R$ , and it converges uniformly on the closed ball  $\overline{B(z_0, \rho)}$  to  $f$ , whenever  $0 < \rho < R$ .

**Theorem 5.19** (Uniqueness of Taylor Series). Let  $f(z)$  be an analytic function on some domain containing  $B(z_0, R)$ , where  $R > 0$ . If

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$$

for all  $z \in B(z_0, R)$ , then that power series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k$  is the Taylor series of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$ , i.e.,

$$a_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!}$$

for all  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

**Theorem 5.20** (Multiplication/Division of Power Series). Suppose

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n \text{ and } g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n \text{ for } |z| < R$$

then

- $f(z) \cdot g(z) = (a_0 + a_1 z + \dots)(b_0 + b_1 z + \dots)$
- If  $g(0) \neq 0$ , we may use long division to find maclaurin series of  $\frac{f}{g}$ .

### 5.5 Laurent Series

We introduce  $\text{Ann}(z_0, R_1, R_2) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid R_1 < |z - z_0| < R_2\}$ , and  $\overline{\text{Ann}}(z_0, R_1, R_2) := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid R_1 \leq |z - z_0| \leq R_2\}$ .

**Theorem 5.21** (Laurent Theorem). Suppose  $f(z)$  analytic in the annulus  $\text{Ann}(z_0, R_1, R_2)$ , then

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{(z - z_0)^n}, z \in \text{Ann}(z_0, R_1, R_2)$$

where

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(s)}{(s - z_0)^{n+1}} ds$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(s)}{(s - z_0)^{-n+1}} ds$$

**Theorem 5.22** (Uniqueness of Laurent Series Representation). If an analytic function  $f$  in the annulus  $\text{Ann}(z_0, R_1, R_2)$ , has its Laurent series, then the expression in previous theorem is the unique Laurent series of  $f(z)$  for the annulus  $\text{Ann}(z_0, R_1, R_2)$ .

## 6 Residues and Poles

### 6.1 Residue

**Definition 6.1** (Residue). A point  $z_0$  is said to be a singular point of a function  $f$  if

- $f$  is not analytic at  $z_0$ , but
- $f$  is analytic at some point in  $B(z_0, \epsilon)$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$

A singular point  $z_0$  of  $f$  is isolated if there exists  $R > 0$  such that  $f$  is analytic in  $B(z_0, R) \setminus \{z_0\}$ .

The residue of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$  is

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = b_1$$

**Theorem 6.1.** If  $f$  analytic in  $B(z_0, R) \setminus \{z_0\}$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i b_1 = 2\pi i \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z)$$

where  $\gamma$  is any positively oriented simple closed contour around  $z_0$  in  $B(z_0, R) \setminus \{z_0\}$ .

### 6.2 Cauchy's Residue Theorem

**Theorem 6.2** (Cauchy's Residue Theorem). If  $\gamma$  is a positively oriented simple closed contour and  $f(z)$  is analytic everywhere inside and on  $\gamma$  except for a finite number of singular points  $z_k$  inside  $\gamma$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^n \lim_{z \rightarrow z_k} f(z)$$

### 6.3 Classification of Isolated Singular Points

**Definition 6.2** (Principal Part). Suppose  $f(z)$  has an isolated singular point at  $z_0$ . Consider Laurent series of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$ :

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{(z - z_0)^n}, 0 < |z - z_0| < R$$

The second part  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{(z - z_0)^n}$  is called the **principal part** of  $f(z)$  at  $z_0$ .

We classify isolated singular points into 3 kinds:

- Removable singular points. If  $b_n = 0$  for all  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , we say that  $z_0$  is a **removable singular points** of  $f(z)$ . In this case,  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = 0$ .



- Essential singular points. If  $b_n \neq 0$  for infinitely many  $n$ , then we say  $z_0$  is an essential singular point of  $f(z)$ .
- Pole. If there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $b_m \neq 0$  but  $b_n = 0$  for all  $n > m$ , then we say that  $z_0$  is a **pole of order  $m$**  for  $f(z)$ .

**Theorem 6.3** (Behaviour near Removable Singluar Point). Suppose  $f$  has removable singular point at  $z_0$ . We will have

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = a_0$$

**Theorem 6.4** (Behaviour near Pole). Suppose  $f$  has a pole of order  $m$  at  $z_0$ . Then

1. There exists  $R > 0$  such that

$$f(z) = \frac{\phi(z)}{(z - z_0)^m} \text{ for } 0 < |z - z_0| < R$$

where  $\phi(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0$  and  $\phi(z_0) \neq 0$ .

2. In particular  $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = \infty$ .

**Theorem 6.5** (Behaviour near Essential Singular Point(Casorati-Weierstrass)). Suppose  $f(z)$  has an essential singular point at  $z = z_0$ . Then for each small  $r > 0$ , the image  $f(B(z_0, r) \setminus \{z_0\})$  is dense in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

## 6.4 Pole Orders for Quotients of Analytic Functions

**Definition 6.3** (Zero of Order  $n$ ). We say analytic function  $f(z)$  has zero of order  $n$  at  $z_0$  if

$$f(z_0) = f^{(1)}(z_0) = \dots f^{(n-1)}(z_0) = 0 \text{ and } f^{(n)}(z_0) \neq 0$$

**Theorem 6.6.** Suppose  $f_z$  has zero of order  $n_1$  and  $f_2$  has zero of order  $n_2$  at some point  $z_0$ . Then the product  $f_1 \cdot f_2$  has zero of order  $n_1 + n_2$  at  $z_0$ .

**Theorem 6.7.** Suppose an analytic function  $f(z)$  has a zero of order  $m$  at  $z_0$ . Ten there exists an analytic function  $\phi(z)$  near  $z_0$  such that

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^m \phi(z) \text{ near } z_0, \text{ and } \phi(z_0) \neq 0$$

**Theorem 6.8.** Suppose  $p(z)$  and  $q(z)$  are analytic at  $z_0$ . Suppose that  $p(z)$  has a zero of order  $\alpha$  at  $z_0$ , and  $q(z)$  has a zero of order  $\beta$  at  $z_0$ . Consider the function

$$f(z) = \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$$

1. If  $\beta > \alpha$ , then  $\frac{p}{q}$  has a pole of order  $\beta - \alpha$  at  $z_0$ .
2. If  $\beta \leq \alpha$ , then  $\frac{p}{q}$  has a removable singular point at  $z_0$ .

In particular, one sees that quotients of analytic functions do not have essential singular points.

## 6.5 Methods for Computing Residues

**Theorem 6.9** (Method I). Suppose  $f(z)$  can be written in the form

$$f(z) = \frac{\phi(z)}{z - z_0} \text{ near } z_0$$

for some function  $\phi(z)$  analytic at  $z_0$ . Then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = \phi(z_0)$$

**Theorem 6.10** (Method II). Suppose  $f(z)$  can be written in the form

$$f(z) = \frac{\phi(z)}{(z - z_0)^m} \text{ near } z_0$$

for some function  $\phi(z)$  analytic at  $z_0$  and  $m \geq 1$ , Then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = \frac{\phi^{(m-1)}(z_0)}{(m-1)!}$$

**Theorem 6.11** (Method III). If  $p(z)$  and  $q(z)$  are analytic at  $z_0$ , and  $q(z)$  has a simple zero at  $z_0$ , then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{p(z)}{q(z)} = \frac{p(z_0)}{q'(z_0)}$$

## 7 Application of Residues

### 7.1 Evaluation of Improper Real Integrals

Recall the following definition of improper real integrals:

$$\int_0^\infty f(x)dx = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R f(x)dx$$

also,

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x)dx = \lim_{R_1 \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{R_1} f(x)dx + \lim_{R_2 \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R_2}^0 f(x)dx$$

There is also Cauchy Principle Value:

$$\text{P.V.} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x)dx = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R f(x)dx$$

Note, if the improper integral converges, cauchy principal values also converges, and they equal.

**Theorem 7.1.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an even function

$$f(-x) = f(x) \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

If P.V.  $\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x)dx$  converges, so does  $\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x)dx$  and we have

$$\int_0^\infty f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x)dx$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x)dx = \text{P.V.} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x)dx$$

**Theorem 7.2.** We describe a procedure to evaluate P.V.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$  where  $p, q$  are polynomials in  $x$  such that  $\deg q(x) \geq \deg p(x) + 2$ :

1. Replace  $x$  by  $z$  to get  $f(z) = \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}$
2. Write P.V.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R f(x) dx$
3. Draw a semi-circle  $C_R$  in the upper half plane centered at 0 and with diameter  $[-R, R]$ , and find singular points.
4. By residue theorem, we have  $\int_{-R}^R f(x) dx + \int_{C_R} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{z_k} f(z)$
5. Letting  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . Try to show  $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{C_R} f(z) dz = 0$  by using ML.
6. Obtain P.V.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  by letting  $R \rightarrow \infty$ .

## 7.2 Integrals of the form $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \cos ax dx$

We are interested in computing integrals of the form

$$\text{P.V.} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \cos ax dx \text{ or } \text{P.V.} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \sin ax dx$$

Instead of computing these integrals directly, we often consider

$$\text{P.V.} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{iax} dx$$

whose real and imaginary parts give values of the two improper integrals.

## 7.3 Definite Integrals Involving Sines and Cosines

We would like to compute integrals of the form

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) d\theta$$

We can make the substitution  $z = e^{i\theta}$ , so that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) d\theta = \int_{\gamma} f\left(\frac{z + z^{-1}}{2}, \frac{z - z^{-1}}{2i}\right) \frac{dz}{iz}$$

where  $\gamma$  is the positively oriented unit circle  $|z| = 1$ .