

Lecture (12) : Sequences & Series of Complex functions.

25/3/19

§(12.1) Fundamental ideas of seq. & series in \mathbb{C} .
We say $f_n(z)$ converges to $f(z)$ on a suitable subset $R \subset \mathbb{C}$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) = f(z)$.

Just like in the reals, we can establish an ϵ - δ definition of above.

Moreover, just like in the reals, we can define an infinite series as an infinite sequence of partial sums.

$$S_n(z) = \sum_{j=1}^n b_j(z)$$

$$S(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j(z).$$

This is basically a unification (equivalence) of the ideas of series & sequences in mathematics, there is no real distinction between the same.

Uniform convergence : - $S_n(z) \xrightarrow{\text{unif}} S(z)$ if

$$|S_n(z) - S(z)| < \epsilon$$

eg. $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{n^z}$; $n=1, 2, \dots$

$f_n \rightarrow 0$ uniformly in $1 \leq |z| \leq 2$ b/c

for some apriori chosen $\epsilon > 0$ & $\forall n > \underline{N=N(\epsilon)}$ & $\forall z \in R \subset \mathbb{C}$.

$$|f_n(z) - f(z)| = \left| \frac{1}{n^z} - 0 \right| = \frac{1}{n|z|} < \epsilon$$

$$\forall n > N(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{\epsilon}.$$

"N does NOT depend on z ".

eg $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{nz}$; $n=1, 2, \dots$

converges to 0 (but not uniformly) on $0 < |z| \leq 1$

b/c $|f_n - 0| < \epsilon$ only if $n > N(\epsilon, z) = \frac{1}{\epsilon|z|}$ in $0 < |z| \leq 1$.

"Uniform convergence" (if there is one) is a very powerful & useful condition

Th^m (12.1) : - Let $f_n(z) \in \mathcal{C}(R)$ $\forall n \in \mathbb{I}$ & $f_n(z) \xrightarrow{\text{unif.}} f(z)$ in R

then, $f(z) \in \mathcal{C}(R)$

and

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

for any finite contour C in R .

No proof req'd!

The ratio test is a corollary to this Th^m. #

Th^m (12.2) ("Weierstrass M-test")

Let $|b_j(z)| \leq M_j$ in a region R w/
 M_j constant.

if $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} M_j$ converges ($< \infty$); then the series
 $S(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j(z)$ converges "uniformly"
in R .

Pg (2)

Examples & Applications

In this section we will consider 2 cases; the first is an example of a f^n sequence that does not conv. uniformly to its limit & the 2nd is an application of the Weierstrass M-test.

eg ①: - Sequence of partial sums comprising the geometric series.

$$\text{Recall that } S_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n z^k \longrightarrow S(z) = \frac{1}{1-z}$$

$$\forall z \in D_1(0) \\ (\text{i.e. } |z| < 1)$$

$$\therefore \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$$

We restrict our analysis to $z \in \mathbb{R}$,
whence $D_1(0) \equiv (-1, 1)$

$$\& |S_n(z) - S(z)| < \epsilon$$

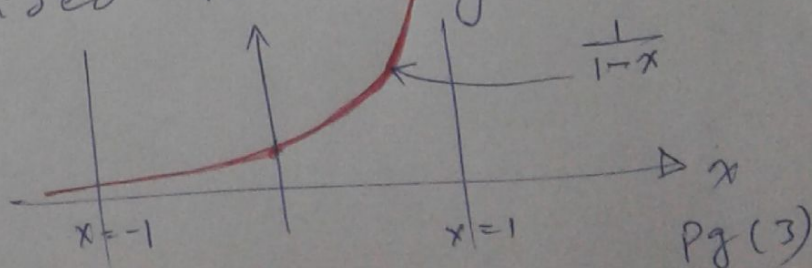
$$\equiv |S_n(x) - S(x)| < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow -\epsilon < S_n(x) - S(x) < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow S(x) - \epsilon < S_n(x) < S(x) + \epsilon$$

This means if $S_n(x)$ unif. $\rightarrow S(x)$ then $S_n(x)$ is w/in an ϵ bandwidth of $S(x)$ $\forall x \in (-1, 1)$ provided n is large.

$\frac{1}{1-x}$ looks like



But $B_n(x) := |s_n(x) - s(x)|$

$$= \left| \sum_{k=0}^n x^k - \frac{1}{1-x} \right| = \left| \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n (x - x^{k+1}) - 1}{1-x} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{|x|^{n+1} - 1}{1-x} \right| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow 1$$

for fixed but large n .

$s_n(x) \xrightarrow{\text{unif}} s(x)$ on a compact subset of $(-1, 1)$

We show this next!

eg(2) Application of Weierstrass M-test.

Let $[a, b]$ be a compact subset of $(-1, 1)$.

Choose $q \in (0, 1)$ s.t. $-1 < -q \leq a < b \leq q < 1$.

if $x \in [a, b] \Rightarrow |x| \leq q$

$\Rightarrow |x^n| = |x|^n \leq q^n \left(\equiv M_n \text{ of Weierstrass M-test} \right)$

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} q^n < \infty$

$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ converges uniformly in $[a, b]$ by the Weierstrass M-test. #

\$ (12.2) Taylor Series (review of basic ideas)

Power Series: $f(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j (z - z_0)^j$

If $z_0 = 0$
 $f(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j (z)^j \leftarrow (12.2.1)$

Uniform convergence of this series

Th^m (12.3) :- If the series in (12.2.1) converges for some $z_* \neq 0$, then it converges $\forall z$ in $|z| < |z_*|$.
Moreover, it converges uniformly in $|z| \leq R$, for $R < |z_*|$.

Proof not req'd!

Th^m (12.4) (Taylor series for analytic f 's & uniform convergence).

Let $f(z)$ be analytic for $|z - z_0| \leq R$.
then $f(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j (z - z_0)^j$ where $b_j = \frac{f^{(j)}(z_0)}{j!}$.

converges "uniformly" in $|z - z_0| \leq R, R < R$
#.

proof: - We will prove this th^m for $z_0 = 0$ WLOG.

Cauchy integral formula from Lecture (11) states

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)} d\xi$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi} \left(1 - \frac{z}{\xi}\right)^{-1} d\xi \quad \text{where } C \text{ is a circle of radius } R$$

This is true b/c $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} z^j = \frac{1}{1-z}$ is a uniformly convergent series $\forall |z| < 1$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{\xi}\right)^j d\xi$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(\xi) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^j}{(\xi)^{j+1}} d\xi$$

Note that the conv. of this series was absolutely essential in this step. w/o the integral become unbounded.

Here, since z is interior to $C \Rightarrow |z/\xi| < 1$.

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi)^{j+1}} d\xi \right) z^j$$

Call this b_j

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j z^j ; \text{ where } b_j = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{\xi^{j+1}} d\xi = \frac{f^{(j)}(0)}{j!}$$

Q) Why is this step valid?

Ans: - $g(z, \xi) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{z^j}{\xi^{j+1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(z, \xi)$ & then apply th^m (12.1). Pg (6)

Why? #
Hint:
 $f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\xi)}{(\xi - z)^{n+1}} d\xi$
from Cauchy int. - c from

example of th^m (12.4)

Find the Taylor series representation of $f(z) = e^{z^2}$.

Ans:- We will first consider

$\tilde{f}(z) = e^z$ which is analytic in \mathbb{C} .

\Rightarrow \exists a Taylor series form.

$$\tilde{f}(z) = e^z = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j z^j$$

$$\text{where } b_j = \frac{f^{(j)}(0)}{j!}$$

$$= \frac{1}{j!} \quad \text{b/c } e^0 = 1$$

infinite R.O.C.

*This is called
Hadamard's
formula.*

$$\therefore \tilde{f}(z) = e^z = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^j}{j!}$$

$$\forall |z| < \infty$$

b/c Ratio test

implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{z^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{z^n}{n!}} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{z}{n+1} \right|$$

$$= 0 \neq 1$$

Replace z by z^2 to get
 $f(z) = e^{z^2} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2j}}{j!}$ Pg (7)

Radius of Convergence (R.O.C)

The largest no. R for which the power series in th^m (12.4) converges inside the disk $|z| < R$ is called

R.O.C. (R may be 0, ∞ or finite non-zero)

Alternatively, $R := \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{m \geq n} |a_m|^{\frac{1}{m}} \right)^{-1}$

* Termwise integration & differentiation of Taylor series is valid (with uniform convergence holding in each case).

* product of 2 convergent series.

$$\underbrace{f(z)}_{\sum_j a_j z^j} \underbrace{g(z)}_{\sum_j b_j z^j} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} C_j z^j \quad \text{where } C_j = \sum_{k=0}^j b_k a_{j-k}$$

* the comparison test (as w/ the reals) also applies in \mathbb{C} .

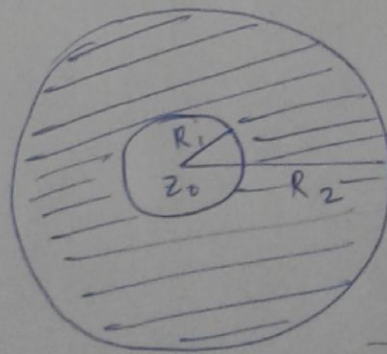
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§(12.3) Laurent Series

Q) Why do we need a new type of power series when we have our famous Taylor series?

Ans :- In many applications we encounter f^n 's that are "not" analytic at some pts or in some regions of the complex plane & hence Taylor expansions cannot be employed in the neighborhood of such points. Laurent series is often the answer.

Laurent series involves both +ve and -ve powers of $(z - z_0)$. Such a series is valid for those f^n 's that are analytic in & on a circular annulus $R_1 \leq |z - z_0| \leq R_2$.



Shaded region is region of analyticity of $f(z)$; hence $f(z)$ has a valid Laurent series.

Th^m (12.5) (Laurent series & unif. convergence)

A fⁿ f(z) which is analytic in an annulus $R_1 \leq |z - z_0| \leq R_2$ may be represented by the power series expansion

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n (z - z_0)^n, \quad \text{--- (12.3.1)}$$

in the region $R_1 < R_2 \leq |z - z_0| \leq R_2 < R_2$,

$$\text{where } C_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz, \quad \text{--- (12.3.2)}$$

C is a Jordan contour in the region of analyticity enclosing the inner bdy $|z - z_0| = R_1$.

Moreover, The Laurent series of f(z) given by (12.3.1) & (12.3.2) in the annulus mentioned above converges "uniformly" to f(z)

for $R_1 \leq |z - z_0| \leq R_2$ where $R_1 < R_1$ & $R_2 < R_2$. #

Proof:- We will present a proof of this important th^m in the next lecture!

* Open, while writing the Laurent series expansion of a fⁿ f(z); we "rarely" use eq (12.3.2) to find the coefficients C_n. Instead the coeff. follow naturally by other considerations as will be demonstrated in the examples that follow.

Some important notes About-Lorent Series.

* Residue of $f(z)$ = C_{-1} (i.e. the coeff. of $\frac{1}{z-z_0}$)
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) dz$$

* Principal part of $f(z)$ = the -ve powers of the Laurent series.

* Laurent Series $\xrightarrow{\text{Conv. to}}$ Taylor Series
if $f(z)$ is
Analytic inside
 $|z-z_0| = R_1$
b/c by Cauchy's
th^m $C_n = 0$ \forall $n \leq -1$.

* Laurent Series $\rightarrow \sum_{n=-\infty}^0 C_n (z-z_0)^n$ if $f(z)$
is analytic
outside the
circle
 $|z-z_0| = R_2$
This can be shown by
substituting $t = \frac{1}{z}$.

* Laurent Series is a unique power series.

§(12-3.1) Examples of Laurent Series

eg (12-3.1(a)) :- Find the Laurent series of $f(z) = \frac{1}{1+z}$
for $|z| > 1$.

Soln:- We know by Taylor Series:
$$\frac{1}{1-z} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n \quad \text{for } |z| < 1. \quad \text{--- (12-3.1) Pg (11)}$$

Now $\frac{1}{1+z} = \frac{1}{z(1+\frac{1}{z})} = \frac{1}{z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{z^n}$ (replace z by $-1/z$ in eq (12.3.1)) & this is legit b/c $|z| > 1 \Rightarrow |-1/z| < 1$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{z^{n+1}}$$

$$\frac{1}{1+z} = \frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z^3} - \dots$$

Laurent series
of $\frac{1}{1+z}$ for $|z| > 1$.

Also for $|z| < 1$, $\frac{1}{1+z} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n z^n$.

Thus there are different series expansions of $\frac{1}{1+z}$ in different regions of the complex plane,

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{1}{1+z} = \begin{cases} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n z^n & ; |z| < 1 \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n z^{-(n+1)} & ; |z| > 1 \end{cases}$$

#

example (12.3.1(b))

Q) Find the Laurent expansion of
 $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)}$ for $1 < |z| < 2$

Soln:- Using method of partial fractions

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

By taking a line from the previous example, we write $f(z)$ in this form

$$= -\frac{1}{z} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{z}} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1 - z/2} \right)$$

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

for $1 < |z| < 2$
i.e. $|\frac{1}{z}| < 1$

for $|z/2| < 1$

$$= -\left(\frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z^3} + \dots \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{z}{2} + \left(\frac{z}{2} \right)^2 + \dots \right)$$

$$\therefore f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)(z-2)} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n z^n \text{ where } c_n = \begin{cases} -1 & ; n \leq -1 \\ \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} & ; n \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

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