

Lecture 8

①

(8.0) Recall: last time we introduced the notion of uniform convergence of a sequence of functions $\{f_n\}$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$$

uniformly on a set A .

means

$$\text{for every } \epsilon > 0, \text{ there is } N > 0 \text{ such that}$$
$$|f_n(z) - f(z)| < \epsilon \text{ for every } n \geq N \text{ and for every } z \in A$$

(8.1) Series. The notions of convergence / uniform convergence of a series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \text{ are the same for the sequence } \left\{ S_n = c_1 + c_2 + \dots + c_n \right\}_{n=1,2,3,\dots}$$

Just to spell it out:

A series of complex numbers $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$ converges if for every $\epsilon > 0$ we can find $N > 0$ such that

$$|\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} c_k| < \epsilon \text{ for every } n \geq N \text{ and every } p \geq 0.$$

(This is just Cauchy's Criterion for convergence of corresponding sequence of partial sums $\{S_n = c_1 + c_2 + \dots + c_n\}_{n=1,2,3,\dots}$. Namely for every $\epsilon > 0$

there is $N > 0$ such that $|S_{n+p} - S_n| < \epsilon$ for every $n \geq N$ and $p \geq 0$.

$$\text{And } S_{n+p} - S_n = c_{n+1} + c_{n+2} + \dots + c_{n+p}$$

Recall from Calculus II: ratio test and root test for convergence

of a series.

(2)

Ratio test : if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} < 1$ then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$ converges.

Root test : if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |c_n|^{\frac{1}{n}} < 1$ then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$ converges.

An example of non-convergent (= divergent) series : $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$

Proof. Take ϵ to be less than $\frac{1}{2}$. Then no matter which N we pick

$$c_{N+1} + c_{N+2} + \dots + c_{2N} = \frac{1}{N+1} + \frac{1}{N+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2N}$$

$$> \frac{1}{2N} + \frac{1}{2N} + \dots + \frac{1}{2N} = \frac{1}{2} > \epsilon. \quad \square$$

(8.2) Let $D \subset \mathbb{C}$ be a non-empty open set and $c_n: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ functions. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n(z)$ is said to converge

• Pointwise : if for every $z_0 \in D$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$ such that

$$|c_{N+1}(z_0) + \dots + c_{N+p}(z_0)| < \epsilon \quad \text{for every } n \geq N \text{ and } p \geq 0.$$

• Uniformly (on a subset $A \subset D$) : if for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$

such that $|c_{n+1}(z) + \dots + c_{n+p}(z)| < \epsilon$ for every $n \geq N$, $p \geq 0$ and $z \in A$.

(8.3) An example of non uniform convergence. Consider the series

$$x^2 + \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} + \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^2} + \dots + \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^n} + \dots$$

$S_n(x)$ = sum of first n terms

$$= x^2 [1 + (1+x^2)^{-1} + (1+x^2)^{-2} + \dots + (1+x^2)^{-n+1}]$$

$$= x^2 \left[\frac{1 - (1+x^2)^{-n}}{1 - (1+x^2)^{-1}} \right] = x^2 \frac{(1+x^2) \left((1+x^2)^n - 1 \right)}{x^2 (1+x^2)^n}$$

$$= \frac{(1+x^2)^n - 1}{(1+x^2)^{n-1}} = 1 + x^2 - \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^{n-1}}$$

For x real, $x \neq 0$ $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(x) = 1 + x^2$
For $x = 0$, $S_n(0) = 0$ and hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(0) = 0$ } discontinuous at 0.

(8.4) Some examples of uniformly convergent series

Definition A series of the form $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ is called a power series.
(here $c_n \in \mathbb{C}, n=0,1,2,\dots$)

Abel's Theorem. Let $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ be a power series. Then there exists $R \geq 0$ (R could possibly be ∞), such that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ is convergent for

$|z| < R$ and divergent for $|z| > R$.

Moreover if $R \neq 0$, the convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ on $\{w \in \mathbb{C} \text{ such that } |w| < R\}$ is uniform (on each compact subset of $D_R(0)$).

This number R is called the radius of convergence. Thus a power

series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ defines a holomorphic function from $D_R(0)$ to \mathbb{C} .

(being a uniformly convergent limit of polynomial functions $\{c_0 + c_1 z + \dots + c_n z^n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$)

Proof of Abel's Theorem.

Consider the set $S = \{ r \geq 0 \text{ such that there is } M > 0 \text{ with } |c_n| r^n \leq M \text{ for every } n \}$

S is a non-empty subset of the set of ~~positive~~ real numbers
non-negative
(because $0 \in S$)

and if $r \in S$ and $r' < r$ then $r' \in S$ (so S is an interval)

Let $R \geq 0$ be such that $S = [0, R]$ or $[0, R)$.

(1) if $|z| > R$ then $|c_n| |z|^n$ is not bounded. Meaning if we pick an $\epsilon > 0$, there will be infinitely many n 's with $|c_n| |z|^n > \epsilon$.

Hence $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ is divergent.

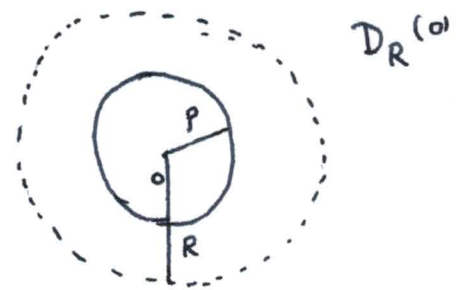
(2) Now ~~let~~ $R > 0$. We want to prove that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ converges

uniformly on each compact set $K \subset D_R(0) = \{ w \in \mathbb{C} \text{ such that } |w| < R \}$

Pick $0 < \rho < R$ such that

$$K \subset \{ w \in \mathbb{C} \text{ such that } |w| \leq \rho \}$$

and let r be a number $\rho < r < R$.



By definition there is $M > 0$ such that $|c_n| r^n \leq M$ for every n .

Hence for every $z \in K$, $|c_n z^n| \leq |c_n| \rho^n \leq \frac{M}{r^n} \rho^n = M \left(\frac{\rho}{r}\right)^n$

Since $\frac{\rho}{r} < 1$ we know that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} M \left(\frac{\rho}{r}\right)^n = \frac{M}{1 - \frac{\rho}{r}}$ converges.

$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ converges uniformly on K .

(5)

□

(8.5) Example 1. $1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots$ converges for $|z| < 1$ ($1 =$ radius of convergence)
diverges for $|z| > 1$.

Proof. Let $|z| = r < 1$. Then $|z^{n+1} + \dots + z^{n+p}| \leq r^{n+1} (1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^{p-1})$
(This is how ratio test works!) $= r^{n+1} \frac{(1-r^p)}{1-r} \leq \frac{r^{n+1}}{1-r}$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, pick $N > 0$ such that $r^{N+1} < \epsilon(1-r)$.

Then for every $n \geq N$ and $p \geq 1$ we get

$$|z^{n+1} + \dots + z^{n+p}| \leq \frac{r^{n+1}}{1-r} \leq \frac{r^{N+1}}{1-r} < \epsilon. \Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n \text{ converges for } |z| < 1$$

If $|z| = r > 1$, then take (for instance) $\epsilon = 1$. Now for every $n \geq 0$
 $|z|^n = r^n > \epsilon$ and hence $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$ diverges. □

(8.6) Example 2.

$$e^z := 1 + \frac{z}{1!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots \text{ converges for every } z.$$

(radius of convergence = ∞)

Proof

Let $R = |z|$.

$$\text{Ratio test: } \left| \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} \right| = \frac{|z|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \frac{n!}{|z|^n} = \frac{R}{n+1} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. (< 1)$$

Hence $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$ is convergent. □

(8.7) Example 3. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a holomorphic function.

(6)

Let $a \in D$ and let $r > 0$ be such that

$$\{w \in \mathbb{C} \text{ such that } |w-a| \leq r\} \subset D.$$

Then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (z-a)^n$ has non-zero



radius of convergence ($\geq r$).

Proof. By Cauchy's formula $\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz$

Let $M > 0$ be such that $|f(z)| \leq M$ for every z on C . Then

$$\left| \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{M}{r^{n+1}} 2\pi r = \frac{M}{r^n}.$$

Hence, for z such that $|z-a| < \frac{r}{2}$, we get

$$\left| \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (z-a)^n \right| \leq M \left(\frac{r}{2}\right)^n \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} M \left(\frac{r}{2}\right)^n = \frac{M}{1 - r/2} \text{ converges}$$

□

(8.8) Algebraic operations on power series.

Let $c(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ and $d(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_n z^n$ be power

series with radii of convergence R_1 and R_2 respectively. Then

(1) $c(z) + d(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (c_n + d_n) z^n$ has radius of convergence $\geq \min(R_1, R_2)$

$$(2) \quad c(z) d(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (c_0 d_n + c_1 d_{n-1} + c_2 d_{n-2} + \dots + c_n d_0) z^n$$

(radius of convergence $\geq \min(R_1, R_2)$)

Example. $e^a e^b = e^{a+b}$

Proof. Recall the binomial expansion:

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} a^k b^{n-k} \quad \text{Using this we get}$$

$$\begin{aligned} e^a e^b &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{a^k}{k!} \frac{b^{n-k}}{(n-k)!} \right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} a^k b^{n-k} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (a+b)^n = e^{a+b} \end{aligned}$$

(8.9) Using the expansion of $\sin(x)$ and $\cos(x)$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ we get

$$e^{iy} = 1 + iy + \frac{(iy)^2}{2!} + \frac{(iy)^3}{3!} + \dots \quad (y \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$= 1 - \frac{y^2}{2!} + \frac{y^4}{4!} - \frac{y^6}{6!} + \frac{y^8}{8!} + \dots$$

$$+ i \left(y - \frac{y^3}{3!} + \frac{y^5}{5!} - \frac{y^7}{7!} + \dots \right)$$

$$= \cos(y) + i \sin(y)$$

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

e.g. $e^{\pi i} = -1$ $e^{2\pi k i} = 1$ for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. (8)

Definition of $\sin(z)$ and $\cos(z)$ - just by power series

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \cos(z) &:= 1 - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \frac{z^6}{6!} + \dots \\ \sin(z) &:= z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \frac{z^7}{7!} + \dots \end{aligned} \right\} \text{have } \infty \text{ radius of convergence}$$

Note: $\cos(z) = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}$ $\sin(z) = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}$

(8.10) Important consequence of Uniform Convergence and Abel's Theorem:

Power series can be differentiated and integrated termwise

Reason is simple. Clearly polynomials can be differentiated and integrated termwise. By Abel's Theorem, within its disc of convergence, a power series is a uniform limit of polynomials. By Theorem (7.3) it follows that power series can also be termwise differentiated and integrated:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n \right) &= \frac{d}{dz} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (c_0 + c_1 z + c_2 z^2 + \dots + c_n z^n) \\ &\stackrel{\text{uniform by Abel's Theorem}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{d}{dz} (c_0 + c_1 z + \dots + c_n z^n) = c_1 + 2c_2 z + 3c_3 z^2 + \dots \\ &\stackrel{\text{(Theorem (7.3))}}{=} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n z^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Summary: $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ defines a holomorphic function

on domain $D = \{w \in \mathbb{C} \text{ such that } |w| < R\}$

($R =$ radius of convergence)

Conversely a holomorphic function near $a \in \mathbb{C}$ admits power series representation (Taylor Series of f)

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (z-a)^n$$

(the radius of convergence of the right-hand side will be the largest number R such that the disc of radius R centered at a is contained in the domain of f).