

## Lecture 20

①

(20.0) Recall - last time we proved a very important theorem due to Weierstrass. Given  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  (open, connected) and a sequence  $\{f_n: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of functions, converging uniformly relative to compact sets, to  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  (meaning: for every compact set  $K \subset \Omega$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find  $N > 0$  such that  $|f_n(z) - f(z)| < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq N \text{ \& } z \in K$ .) we have:

(1)  $f_n$  is continuous  $\forall n$   $\Rightarrow$   $f$  is continuous. In this case

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\gamma} f_n(z) dz = \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \quad \text{for any piecewise smooth } \gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \Omega.$$

(2)  $f_n$  is holomorphic  $\forall n$   $\Rightarrow$   $f$  is holomorphic. Moreover,  $\{f_n'\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges uniformly (rel. to compact sets) to  $f'$ .

i.e.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n' = f'$ .

Remark. - (1) is true over  $\mathbb{R}$  as well, but (2) is not. For example

consider  $f_n(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + \frac{1}{n}}$ . Each  $f_n$  is differentiable, but

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = |x| \text{ is not.}$$

Even more, by Weierstrass' approximation theorem, any continuous function on  $[0, 1]$  can be obtained as a uniform limit of polynomials.

(20.1) Power Series. - A power series is a special kind of series of functions :  $A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  ; where  $a_0, a_1, \dots \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Thus sequence of partial sums of  $A(z)$  are polynomials :

$$\left\{ S_N(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots + a_N z^N \right\}_{N=0}^{\infty}, \text{ which are}$$

holomorphic functions  $S_N : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . The derivative of  $S_N$  is given by :  $S'_N(z) = a_1 + 2a_2 z + 3a_3 z^2 + \dots + Na_N z^{N-1}$  ( $N \geq 1$ )  
 $S'_0(z) = 0$ .

(20.2) Abel's Theorem\* (radius of convergence of a power series).

Given a power series  $A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ , there is a unique

$R \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \cup \{\infty\}$  such that  $A(z)$  converges uniformly (rel. to compact sets) on  $D(0; R)$  and if  $|z| > R$ ,  $A(z)$  diverges. Moreover, for  $|z| < R$ , the convergence of  $A(z)$  is absolute.

Proof. - Consider the set  $I = \{r \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} : \text{there exists } M \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \text{ so that } |a_n| \cdot r^n < M \forall n\}$ .

(same argument as in Cauchy's root test).

- $I \neq \emptyset$  ( $0 \in I$ ).
- $I$  is an interval. Clearly if  $t \in I$  and  $s < t$ , then  $s \in I$ .

Take  $R = \sup(I)$ . Note :  $R$  could be  $\infty$  if  $I = [0, \infty)$ .

\*Niels Henrick Abel (05/08/1802 - 06/04/1829)

If  $|z| > R$ , then  $A(z)$  diverges. By construction, if  $|z| > R$ ,

then  $\{|a_n| \cdot |z|^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an unbounded sequence. In particular

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n z^n \neq 0$ . Hence  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  is divergent.

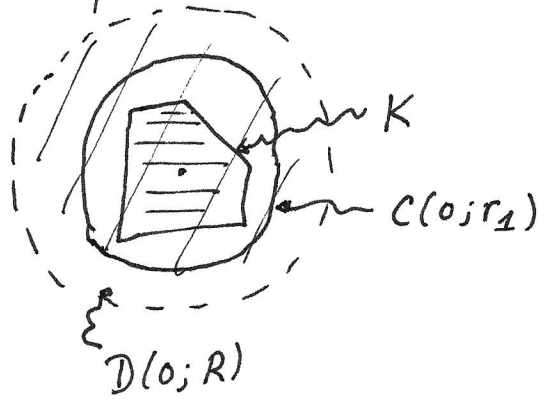
$A(z)$  converges uniformly on  $D(0; R)$ : (rel. to compact sets) If  $R = 0$ ,  $D(0; R) = \emptyset$  and there is nothing to prove.

Assume  $R > 0$ . Let  $K \subset D(0; R)$  be a compact set.

As  $K$  is bounded, there exists  $r_1 < R$  s.t.  $|z| \leq r_1 \forall z \in K$ .

Choose  $r_2 \in (r_1, R)$ . By construction, there exists a constant  $M \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  s.t.

$$|a_n| \cdot r_2^n < M \text{ for every } n.$$



Thus, for  $z \in K$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{n=0}^N a_n z^n \right| &\leq \sum_{n=0}^N |a_n| \cdot |z|^n \quad (\text{by triangle inequality}) \\ &< \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{M}{r_2^n} \cdot r_1^n = M \cdot \frac{1-t^{N+1}}{1-t} \quad (t = \frac{r_1}{r_2} < 1) \\ &< \frac{M}{1-t} \quad \left( \text{sum of geometric series} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  converges uniformly and absolutely. In more explicit terms

given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $N$  large enough so that  $t \frac{N+1}{1-t} M < \varepsilon$ . (4)

Then  $\forall n \geq N$  and  $p \geq 0$ , the modulus of the partial sum

$$|S_{n+p}(z) - S_n(z)| = \left| \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+p} a_k z^k \right| \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+p} |a_k| |z|^k$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+p} \frac{M}{r_2^k} r_1^k < t^{n+1} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} M \cdot t^l < \frac{t^{n+1} \cdot M}{1-t} < \varepsilon.$$

□

(for every  $z \in K$ )

(20.3) Remarks. - (1) Combining Abel's and Weierstrass' Theorems, we get that (if  $R > 0$ ),  $A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  defines a

holomorphic function  $D(0; R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , being a uniform limit

of polynomial functions  $\left\{ S_N(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n z^n \right\}_{N=0}^{\infty}$ . Moreover

$$A'(z) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n z^{n-1}, \text{ i.e. } \underline{\text{power series}}$$

can be termwise differentiated within its disc of convergence.

(2)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  is often called power series centered at 0. A bit more generally, power series centered at  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  is of the form  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-\alpha)^n$ .

(3) In practice we compute the radius of convergence of a given power series using ratio/root tests. (5)

Root test formula (Hadamard):  $\frac{1}{R} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n}$ .

Ratio test is a bit more restrictive. Assuming  $a_n \neq 0 \forall n$  and

$l = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$  exists, we get  $R = \frac{1}{l}$ . ( $R = \infty$  if  $l = 0$ ).

(20.4) Examples. - (1)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$ . Using ratio test,

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \cdot n! \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} = 0$ . Hence its radius of convergence

is  $\infty$ .

(2)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$  has radius of convergence = 1.

(3)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^k z^n$  ( $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ ) has radius of convergence = 1.

(4)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! z^n$  has radius of convergence = 0.

(5) (Exercise) If  $R > 0$  is the radius of convergence of  $A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ , then  $R$  is also the radius of convergence of  $A'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n z^{n-1}$  and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \frac{z^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

(termwise antiderivative of  $A(z)$ ).

(6)

(20.5) Algebraic operations on power series.

(1) Addition:

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} \text{Radii of conv.} \\ A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n; \quad R_1 \\ B(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n; \quad R_2 \\ \text{assume } R_1, R_2 > 0. \end{array}}$$

$$A(z) + B(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) z^n \text{ has radius of convergence} \\ \geq \text{Min} \{R_1, R_2\}.$$

(Proof. - if  $t < \text{Min} \{R_1, R_2\}$ , then  $\exists M_1, M_2 \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  s.t.

$$\begin{array}{l} |a_n| t^n < M_1 \quad \forall n. \quad \text{Hence } |a_n + b_n| \cdot t^n \leq (|a_n| + |b_n|) t^n \\ |b_n| t^n < M_2 \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad < M_1 + M_2. \end{array}$$

By the construction given in the proof of Abel's Theorem - we get that the radius of convergence of  $A(z) + B(z)$  is at least  $\text{Min} \{R_1, R_2\}$   $\square$ )

(2) Multiplication:

$$A(z) \cdot B(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_0 b_n + a_1 b_{n-1} + \dots + a_n b_0) z^n.$$

radius of convergence  $\geq \text{Min} \{R_1, R_2\}$ .

(Proof. - Let  $|z| = r < \text{Min} \{R_1, R_2\}$ . Then  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k| r^k = \alpha$  and

$\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} |b_l| r^l = \beta$  are convergent series. Now it is easy to

see that  $|(a_0 b_n + a_1 b_{n-1} + \dots + a_n b_0)| \cdot r^n < \alpha \cdot \beta \quad \forall n \quad \square$ )

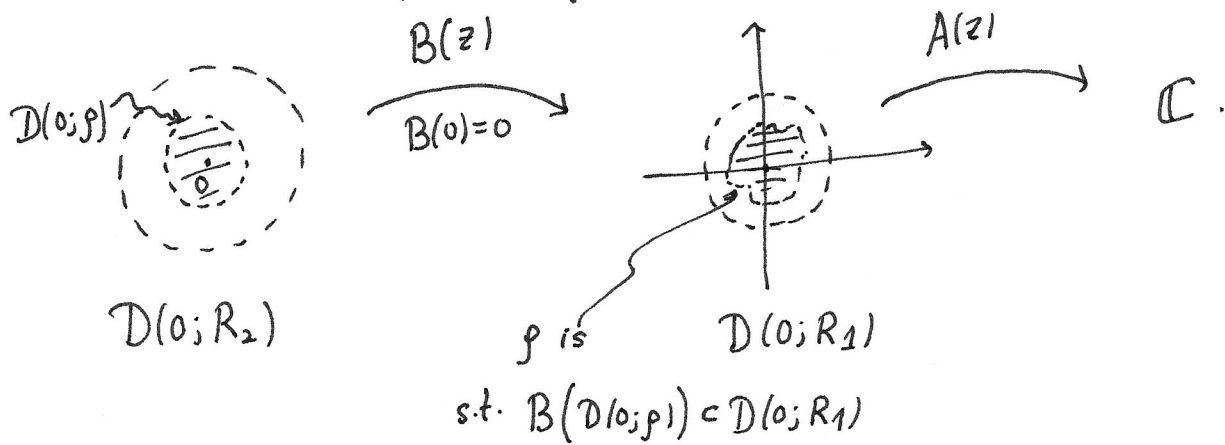
(3) Composition. Assume  $b_0 = 0$  (i.e.,  $B(0) = 0$ ) and (7)

define  $C(z) = A(B(z)) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n B(z)^n$  (composition of  $A$  and  $B$ ).

As  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |b_k| r^k \rightarrow 0$  as  $r \rightarrow 0$ ; we can find  $\rho > 0$  s.t.

$\forall r < \rho : \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |b_k| r^k < R_1$  (radius of convergence of  $A(z)$ )

Hence radius of convergence of  $C(z)$  is  $\geq \rho$  is non-zero.



(4) Exercise. Use (3) to prove that - if  $A(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \dots$  has non-zero radius of convergence and  $a_0 \neq 0$ ; then the algebraic inverse of  $A(z)$  (i.e. a power series  $C(z)$  s.t.  $A(z) \cdot C(z) = 1$ ) exists and has non-zero radius of convergence.