

Lecture 21

①

(21.0) Recall that in the previous two lectures we proved two useful theorems.

- (Weierstrass) If $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly (rel. to compact sets) (here, $f_n, f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$) then

(1) Continuity of f_n , $\forall n$, implies continuity of f , in which case

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

(2) Holomorphicity of f_n $\forall n$, implies that of f , in which case

$$f'_n \rightarrow f' \text{ uniformly rel. to compact sets.}$$

- (Abel) Let $A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ be a power series ($a_n \in \mathbb{C} \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$).

Then there is a unique $R \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \cup \{\infty\}$ such that:

(1) The sequence of partial sums $\left\{ S_N(z) = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n z^n \right\}_{N=0}^{\infty}$ converges uniformly (rel. to compact sets) and absolutely on $D(0; R)$.

(2) If $|z| > R$, then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ is divergent.

Hence $A(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ defines a holomorphic function

$$A: D(0; R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

which can be termwise differentiated and integrated:

$$A'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n z^{n-1}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \frac{z^{n+1}}{n+1}: D(0; R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

an antiderivative of A .

The coefficients a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots of $A(z)$ can be recovered from the holomorphic function $D(0; R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ it defines, as follows: (2)

$a_0 = A(0)$, $a_1 = A'(0)$, and for any $m \geq 0$,

$$A^{(m)}(z) = \left(\frac{d}{dz} \right)^m (A(z)) = \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} (n+m)(n+m-1) \dots (n+1) a_{n+m} z^n$$

$$= \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} \frac{(n+m) \dots (n+1) \cdot n(n-1) \dots 1}{n(n-1) \dots 1} a_{n+m} z^n = \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} \frac{(n+m)!}{n!} z^n a_{n+m}$$

Hence $A^{(m)}(0) = m! a_m$ i.e. $a_m = \frac{A^{(m)}(0)}{m!}$.

(21.1) Taylor Series expansion of a holomorphic function.

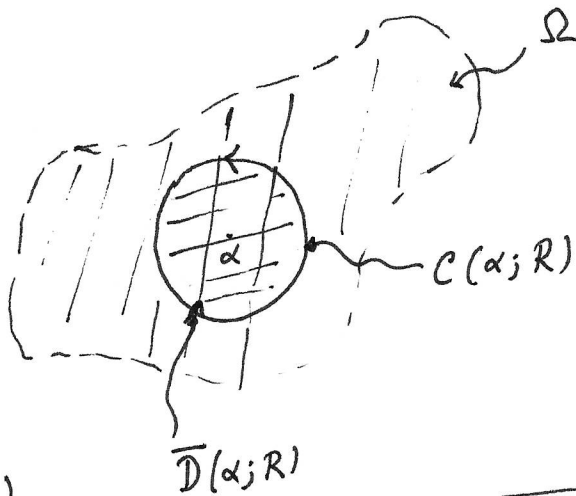
Conversely, assume that $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a holomorphic function, where $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is an open set. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ and let $R \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ be such that $\overline{D}(\alpha; R) \subset \Omega$.

Theorem*. There is a unique power series centered at α , of radius of convergence $\geq R$, $F(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z-\alpha)^n$ s.t.

$f(z) = F(z)$ for every $z \in D(\alpha; R)$.

The coefficients c_0, c_1, \dots are given by:

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C(\alpha; R)} \frac{f(z)}{(z-\alpha)^{n+1}} dz$$



* Brook Taylor (1685-1731) obtained this formal series in his book Methodus incrementorum dated 1715. The theorem as stated here, and its proof are due to Cauchy - Cours d'Analyse 1822.

Proof. - Define $c_n := \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!}$ ($n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$) and consider

the power series $F(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z-\alpha)^n$. We will now show that

the radius of convergence of $F(z)$ is at least R . So, let $r \in [0, R)$.

As in the proof of Abel's Theorem, we will show that there is

a constant $M \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ s.t. $|c_n| \cdot r^n < M \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

Let $C_r = C(\alpha; r)$ be the counterclockwise circle of radius r , centered at α , and take $M > \max \{ |f(z)| : z \in C_r \}$. By Cauchy's

integral formula

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

$$\Rightarrow |c_n| = \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(z)}{(z-\alpha)^{n+1}} dz \right| < \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{M}{r^{n+1}} \cdot 2\pi r = \frac{M}{r^n}$$

$\Rightarrow |c_n| \cdot r^n < M$ for every n , as claimed.

Hence the power series $F(z)$ defines a holomorphic function

$$F : D(\alpha; R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}.$$

We will now prove that $F(w) = f(w) \quad \forall w \in D(\alpha; R)$.

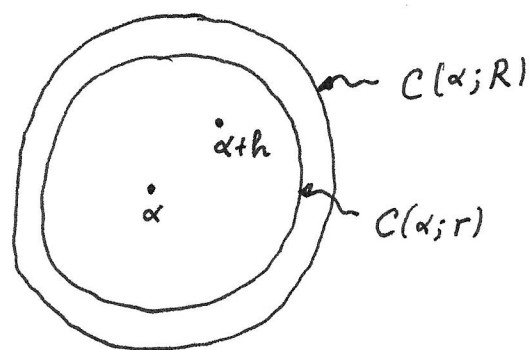
To see this, let us write $w = \alpha + h$ (so $|h| < R$).

Choose r to lie between $|h|$ and R ($|h| < r < R$). (4)

and as before let $C_r = C(\alpha; r)$.

Again by Cauchy's integral formula

$$f(\alpha+h) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(z)}{z-\alpha-h} dz.$$



For $z \in C_r$; $|z-\alpha| = r > |h|$. Hence we have

$$\frac{1}{z-\alpha-h} = \frac{1}{z-\alpha} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{h}{z-\alpha}} = \frac{1}{z-\alpha} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{h^n}{(z-\alpha)^n} \quad (*)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(\alpha+h) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h^n \frac{f(z)}{(z-\alpha)^{n+1}} \right) dz$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h^n \left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_r} \frac{f(z)}{(z-\alpha)^{n+1}} dz \right)$$

[Valid by uniform convergence of geometric series (*)]

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h^n \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n (w-\alpha)^n = F(w) \quad (\text{recall: } w = \alpha+h).$$

□

(21.2) Examples. (1) $e^z = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots$

Since for $f(z) = e^z$, we have $f^{(n)}(z) = e^z \forall n \geq 0$, we get the coefficients of the Taylor Series $C_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} = \frac{1}{n!}$. Hence

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!} \quad \text{on } D(0; \infty) = \mathbb{C}.$$

(2) $\sin(z) = z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k z^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \quad (\forall z \in \mathbb{C}).$

Method 1: for $f(z) = \sin(z)$, $f'(z) = \cos(z)$, $f''(z) = -\sin(z)$, ...

i.e. $f^{(2k)}(z) = (-1)^k \sin(z) \Rightarrow f^{(2k)}(0) = 0$
 $f^{(2k+1)}(z) = (-1)^k \cos(z) \Rightarrow f^{(2k+1)}(0) = (-1)^k.$

Method 2: $\sin(z) = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1 - (-1)^n) (iz)^n}{2i n!}$ (from Example (1))

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{2i} i^{2k+1} \frac{z^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k z^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$

(3) Take $\frac{d}{dz}$ of (2): $\cos(z) = 1 - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k z^{2k}}{(2k)!}$

for every $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

(4) Geometric Series.

$$\frac{1}{1-z} = 1 + z + z^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n \quad \forall z \in D(0;1)$$

Note: while the left-hand side is defined $\forall z \in \mathbb{C} - \{1\}$, this identity only makes sense within the disc of convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$; i.e. $D(0;1)$.

In the proof of Taylor's theorem, for $f(z) = \frac{1}{1-z}$ and $\alpha=0$, we can only take $R < 1$ since f is not defined at $z=1$.

(5) Taking antiderivative of (4) we get

$$-\log(1-z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{n+1}}{n+1} \quad \forall z \in D(0;1)$$

(Note: $\log(1) = 0$; so the choice of constant disappears)

or,

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

or,

$$\log(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(z-1)^{n+1}}{n+1} \quad \forall z \in D(1;1)$$

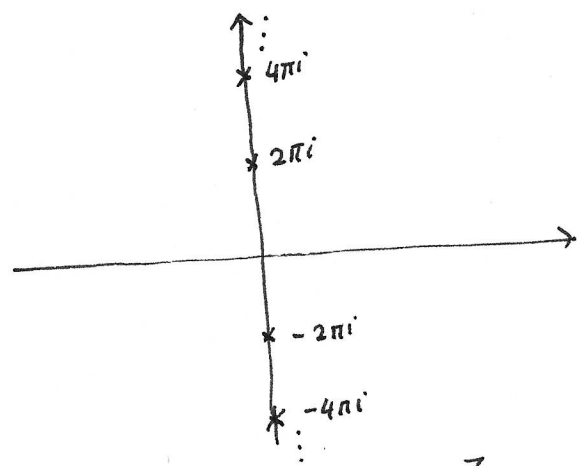
(21.3) Bernoulli Numbers. Let $f(z) = \frac{z}{e^z - 1}$. Note that

$$f(0) = 1 \quad \left(\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{z}{e^z - 1} = 1 \right). \quad \text{The nearest (to 0) } \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$$

for which $f(z)$ is not defined is $z = \pm 2\pi i$. Since the domain of f is $\mathbb{C} - \{z \neq 0: e^z = 1\}$ i.e. $\mathbb{C} - 2\pi i \mathbb{Z}_{\neq 0}$

Consider the Taylor Series expansion of f near 0.

[its radius of convergence = 2π]



$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$$

$$\text{Domain of } f(z) = \frac{z}{e^z - 1}$$

$$\bullet f(-z) = \frac{-z}{e^{-z} - 1} = \frac{-z e^z}{1 - e^z} = \frac{z e^z}{e^z - 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(-z) - f(z) = \frac{z(e^z - 1)}{e^z - 1} = z$$

i.e. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ((-1)^n c_n - c_n) z^n = z$. Thus $c_1 = -\frac{1}{2}$; $c_3 = c_5 = \dots = 0$. We already know that $c_0 = 1$.

Bernoulli numbers can be defined as

$$\frac{z}{e^z - 1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n \frac{z^n}{n!}$$

Thus $B_0 = 1$, $B_1 = -\frac{1}{2}$; $B_{2k+1} = 0 \quad \forall k \geq 1$.

Ex.

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+1}{k} B_k = 0$$

(recursive formula for Bernoulli numbers)