

# **Chap 6: Complex Series**

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# **Chap 6: Complex Series**

#### Outline:

- Convergence Tests
- Power Series
- Taylor Series
- Laurent Series
- Zeroes and Singularities of Analytic Functions





- In calculus, several convergence tests for real series have been studied: divergence test, integral test, comparison test, ratio test, root test.
- The notions of power series and Taylor series for representing real functions are also discussed in calculus.
- This chapter shall extend these ideas to series of complex numbers or functions of complex variables.
- The complex Taylor series for representing analytic functions has generalization to Laurent series which has no analogue in calculus.
- Based on Laurent series, several facts on the zeros and singularities of analytic functions can be established.
- Knowledge of Laurent series is necessary in developing a powerful technique for evaluating complex integrals (Chap 7).





## **Sequence of Complex Numbers**

## Definition

A sequence of complex numbers  $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = z_1, z_2, z_3, \dots$  is said to have a limit complex number *A* or **converge** to *A*, and written as

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} z_n = A \quad \text{or} \quad z_n \to A, \quad \text{when} \quad n\to\infty$$

if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer N such that

$$|z_n - A| \le \epsilon$$
 for all  $n \ge N$ .

A sequence that does not converge is said to be **divergent**.





## **Theorem on Limits of Sequences**

#### Theorem

If 
$$\lim z_n = A$$
 and  $\lim w_n = B$ , then  
(a)  $\lim(z_n \pm w_n) = \lim z_n \pm \lim w_n = A \pm B$ ,  
(b)  $\lim(z_n w_n) = (\lim z_n)(\lim w_n) = AB$ ,  
(c)  $\lim \frac{z_n}{w_n} = \frac{\lim z_n}{\lim w_n} = \frac{A}{B}$ , provided  $B \neq 0$ .

The definition for sequence of complex numbers can be extended to sequence of functions of a complex variable as shown next.





## **Sequence of Complex Functions**

## Definition

Let  $\{u_n(z)\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = u_1(z), u_2(z), u_3(z), \ldots$ , denote a sequence of functions of *z* defined on a region  $\Omega$  of the complex plane. The sequence  $\{u_n(z)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is said to have a limit complex function U(z) or **converges** to *U*, and written as

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} u_n(z) = U(z) \quad \text{or} \quad u_n(z) \to U(z), \quad \text{when} \quad n\to\infty$$

if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N(\epsilon, z)$  such that

$$|u_n(z) - U(z)| \le \epsilon$$
 for all  $n \ge N$ .

A sequence that does not converge at some point  $z \in \Omega$  is said to be **divergent** at *z*.





# **Uniform Convergence**

• Recall the definition of convergence:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} u_n(z) = U(z) \quad \text{or} \quad u_n(z) \to U(z), \quad \text{when} \quad n\to\infty$$

if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N(\epsilon, z)$  such that

$$|u_n(z) - U(z)| \le \epsilon$$
 for all  $n \ge N$ .

If N = N(ε), i.e. N depends only on ε and not on z ∈ Ω, we say that {u<sub>n</sub>(z)}<sup>∞</sup><sub>n=1</sub> converges uniformly, or is uniformly convergent, to U(z) for all z in Ω.





# **Series of Complex Numbers**

• The infinite series of complex numbers

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n = z_1 + z_2 + z_3 + \dots + z_n + \dots$$

with  $z_n = x_n + iy_n$ , is said to be **convergent** if the sequence of partial sums

$$S_1 = z_1, \quad S_2 = z_1 + z_2, \quad S_3 = z_1 + z_2 + z_3, \quad \dots$$

form a converging sequence.

• If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} S_n = S$ , then *S* is the called the **sum of the series** and we write

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

 If the sequence {S<sub>n</sub>} does not posses a limit, we say that the series ∑<sub>n=1</sub><sup>∞</sup> z<sub>n</sub> diverges.





# **Divergence Test & Geometric Series**

## Theorem (Divergence Test)

If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} z_n$  is different from zero (or does not exist), then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  diverges.

## Theorem (Geometric Series Theorem)

Let r be any complex number, and let  $c \neq 0$  and  $m \geq 0$ . Then the geometric series  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} cr^n$  converges if and only if |r| < 1. For |r| < 1

$$\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} cr^n = \frac{cr^m}{1-r}.$$





## **Absolute Convergence Test**

#### Theorem

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |z_n|$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges (absolutely).

#### Theorem

The infinite series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges if and only if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an integer N such that

$$|z_{n+1}+z_{n+2}+\cdots+z_m|<\epsilon$$

for all  $m \ge n \ge N$ .



## **Ratio Test**

## Theorem (Ratio Test)

Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  be a series of complex numbers with  $z_n \neq 0$  for  $n \ge 1$  and that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\left|\frac{z_{n+1}}{z_n}\right|=r \quad (possibly \ \infty).$$

Then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges if r < 1 and diverges if r > 1. If r = 1, then from this test alone we cannot draw any conclusion about the convergence of the series.





#### Theorem (Root Test)

Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  be a series of complex numbers and that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\sqrt[n]{|z_n|}=r \quad (possibly \ \infty).$$

Then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_n$  converges if r < 1 and diverges if r > 1. If r = 1, then from this test alone we cannot draw any conclusion about the convergence of the series.





# **Series of Complex Functions**

The definition of series of complex numbers can be extended to series of functions of complex variable z. Let

$$\{u_n(z)\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = u_1(z), u_2(z), u_3(z), \dots,$$

denote a sequence of functions of *z* defined in a region  $\Omega$  of the complex plane. The infinite series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(z) = u_1(z) + u_2(z) + u_3(z) + \cdots + u_n(z) + \cdots$$

is said to be **convergent** in  $\Omega$  if the sequence of partial sums

 $S_1(z) = u_1(z), \quad S_2(z) = u_1(z) + u_2(z), \quad S_3(z) = u_1(z) + u_2(z) + u_3(z)$ form a converging sequence in  $\Omega$ . If  $\lim_{n \to \infty} S_n(z) = f(z)$ , then *f* is the called the **sum of the series** and we write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(z) = f(z).$$



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# **Uniform Convergence and Weierstrass M-Test**

- If the sequence of partial sums {S<sub>n</sub>(z)} converges uniformly in Ω, we say that the series ∑<sub>n=1</sub><sup>∞</sup> u<sub>n</sub>(z) converges uniformly, or is uniformly convergent, to f(z) for all z in Ω.
- The following test is often adequate for proving the uniform convergence of some series.

## Theorem (Weierstrass M-Test)

If  $|u_n(z)| \leq M_n$  where  $M_n$  is a positive constant independent of z in a region  $\Omega$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} M_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n(z)$  is uniformly convergent in  $\Omega$ .

 By applying Weierstrass M-Test, it can be shown that the geometric series converges uniformly in every closed disk |z| ≤ ρ < 1.</li>





## **Benefits of Uniform Convergence**

#### Theorem

Suppose  $u_n(z)$  is analytic in a region  $\Omega$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(z) = f(z)$  uniformly in  $\Omega$ . Then f(z) is analytic in  $\Omega$ .

## Theorem (Differentiation Term-by-Term)

Suppose  $u_n(z)$  is continuously differentiable in a region  $\Omega$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(z) = f(z)$  in  $\Omega$ , and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u'_n(z) = g(z)$  uniformly in  $\Omega$ . Then

$$\frac{d}{dz}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}u_n(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}u'_n(z)=f'(z)=g(z).$$





# Another Benefit of Uniform Convergence

## Theorem (Integration Term-by-Term)

Suppose  $u_n(z)$  is continuous in a region  $\Omega$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(z) = f(z)$  uniformly in  $\Omega$ . Then f(z) is continuous in  $\Omega$  and

$$\int_{\Gamma} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(z) \right) \, dz = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{\Gamma} u_n(z) \, dz = \int_{\Gamma} f(z) \, dz,$$

where  $\Gamma$  is a curve in  $\Omega$ .





The geometric series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$  is a special case of a general type of series known as the power series.

## Definition

A series of the form  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-z_0)^n$ , where  $z_0$ ,  $a_n$  are complex constants, is called the power series. The constants  $a_n$  are called the coefficients of the power series.

Given a power series, several questions arise naturally:

- Does it converge?
- If so, where?
- Now for each fixed *z*, a power series is an infinite series of complex contants. So whatever we know about infinite series in the previous section applies.





# **Convergence & Divergence of Power Series**

## Theorem

For any power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-z_0)^n$ , there exists a real number R ( $0 \le R \le \infty$ ), which depends only on the coefficients  $a_n$ , such that one of the following cases holds:

- (a) The series converges for  $|z z_0| = R = 0$ , i.e. only for  $z = z_0$ .
- (b) The series converges for  $|z z_0| = R = \infty$ , i.e. for all values of *z*.
- (c) For  $0 < R < \infty$ , the series converges for  $|z z_0| < R$  and diverges for  $|z z_0| > R$ , while for  $|z z_0| = R$  it may or may not converge.

Geometrically the equation  $|z - z_0| = R$ , for  $0 < R < \infty$ , decribes a circle of radius *R* with center at  $z = z_0$ . For this reason, *R* is called the **radius of convergence** and the circle  $|z - z_0| = R$  is called the **circle of convergence**.



# **Uniform Convergence of Power Series**

By Weierstrass M-Test, one can established the uniform convergence of power series.

## Theorem

Suppose the power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-z_0)^n$  has radius of convergence R > 0. If  $0 < \rho < R$ , then the power series converges uniformly and absolutely in  $|z - z_0| \le \rho$ .

- A power series converges uniformly and absolutely in any region entirely inside its circle of convergence.
- A power series can be differentiated and integrated term-by-term inside its circle of convergence, as long as the curve of integration lies inside the circle of convergence.





## **Power Series and Analytic Function**

## Theorem

The power series  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - z_0)^n$ , for  $|z - z_0| < R$ , is analytic in  $|z - z_0| < R$  and its derivatives can be obtained by differentiating term-by-term, i.e.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n (z - z_0)^{n-1} = f'(z)$$

and this is valid in the same circle as the original series, i.e.  $|z - z_0| < R$ .

- A power series can be differentiated as many times as we like and all results in power series which converge in the same circle as the original series.
- Is there a formula between the coefficients a<sub>n</sub> of the power series and its sum f(z)?



# **Taylor Series**

## Theorem (Taylor Series Theorem)

Suppose f(z) is analytic in the region  $|z - z_0| < R$ . Then f has the Taylor series expansion

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z-z_0)^n, \quad |z-z_0| < R.$$

The Taylor series converges to f(z) for any z in the largest open disk centered at  $z_0$  for which f is analytic.

- This formula clearly resembles the Taylor series studied in calculus.
- This shows that a converging power series is a Taylor series of its sum.





## **Taylor Series Expansions of Elementary Functions**

$$e^{z} = 1 + z + \frac{z^{2}}{2!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{n}}{n!}, \quad |z| < \infty$$
  

$$\sin z = z - \frac{z^{3}}{3!} + \frac{z^{5}}{5!} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{z^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!}, \quad |z| < \infty$$
  

$$\cos z = 1 - \frac{z^{2}}{2!} + \frac{z^{4}}{4!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n} \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}, \quad |z| < \infty$$
  

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

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{(z - 1)^{n}}{n}, \quad |z - 1| < 1$$





# Is Series Expansion About A Singular Point Possible?

- If *f* is analytic at  $z_0$ , then the series expansion of *f* analytic in the neighborhood of  $z_0$  is the Taylor series.
- If we replaced the region of analyticity of *f* from the disk centered at *z*<sub>0</sub> to an annulus centered at *z*<sub>0</sub>, then the analyticity of *f* at *z*<sub>0</sub> is immaterial. What then is the possible series expansion of *f* analytic in an annulus about *z*<sub>0</sub>?
- The search of a series expansion of a function *f* about a point, which may or not be a singular point of *f*, leads to a generalization of the Taylor series known as the Laurent series due to Pierre Alphonse Laurent (1813-1854, French).





## Laurent Series Expansion

## Theorem (Laurent Series Theorem)

Let  $0 \le r < R \le \infty$ . If f is analytic in the annulus  $r < |z - z_0| < R$ , then f has the Laurent series expansion

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^n, \quad r < |z-z_0| < R,$$

where

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|w-z_0|=\rho} \frac{f(w)}{(w-z_0)^{n+1}} \, dw, \quad n = 0 \pm 1 \pm 2, \dots$$
  
for  $r < \rho < R$ .





- The Laurent series includes the Taylor series as a special case.
- Knowledge of Laurent series is necessary for our discussion on residue theory for evaluating integrals in Chapter 7.
- Sometimes the coefficients *a<sub>n</sub>* in the Laurent series can be calculated by manipulation of known series and partial fractions.
- The Laurent series may contain an infinite number of both negative and positive powers.
- In some cases, the Laurent series may contain a finite number of negative powers but infinite number of positive powers.
- Yet in another instance, a Laurent series may contain an infinite number of negative powers but finite number of positive powers.



# Zeros and Singularities of Analytic Functions

Based on Taylor series and Laurent series, several facts on the zeros and singularities of analytic functions can be established.

## Definition

A point  $z_0$  is called a **zero of order** *m* for *f* if *f* is analytic at  $z_0$  and

$$f(z_0) = \cdots = f^{(m-1)}(z_0) = 0, f^{(m)}(z_0) \neq 0.$$

If m = 1, then  $z_0$  is called a **simple zero** for *f*.

#### Theorem

A function f has a zero of order m if and only if

$$f(z)=(z-z_0)^mg(z),$$

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





# **Singularities of Analytic Functions**

Suppose f(z) is not analytic at  $z_0$  but analytic in the puntured disk  $0 < |z - z_0| < R$ . Thus *f* has an isolated singularity at  $z_0$ . Recall that the Laurent series expansion of a function *f* around  $z_0$  may contains both negative and positive powers of  $(z - z_0)$ :

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{-n} (z-z_0)^{-n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^n$$

Hence the Laurent series is decomposed into two parts:

(a) The series ∑<sub>n=1</sub><sup>∞</sup> a<sub>-n</sub>(z - z<sub>0</sub>)<sup>-n</sup> which is analytic in |z - z<sub>0</sub>| > 0. This series which contains only the negative powers of z - z<sub>0</sub> is called the **principal part** of f at z = z<sub>0</sub>.
(b) The series ∑<sub>n=0</sub><sup>∞</sup> a<sub>n</sub>(z - z<sub>0</sub>)<sup>n</sup> which is analytic in |z - z<sub>0</sub>| < R. This series which contains only the nonnegative powers of z - z<sub>0</sub> is called the **regular part** of f at z = z<sub>0</sub>.





# **Three Types of Isolated Singularity**

The singularity of f at  $z_0$  is clearly reflected in the principal part. The principal part has three possibilities which gives rise to three types of isolated singularity of f at  $z_0$ :

- (a) The principal part did not appear, i.e.  $a_{-n} = 0$  for n = 1, 2, 3, ... In this case, we say  $z_0$  is a **removable singularity** for *f*.
- (b) The principal part has a finite number of negative powers of *z* − *z*<sub>0</sub>, i.e. *a*<sub>-*m*</sub> ≠ 0 for some positive integer *m* but *a*<sub>-*n*</sub> = 0 for all *n* > *m*. In this case, we say *z*<sub>0</sub> is a **pole of order** *m* for *f*. If *m* = 1, we called *z*<sub>0</sub> as a **simple pole** for *f*.
- (c) The principal part has an infinite number of negative powers of  $z z_0$ , i.e.  $a_{-n} \neq 0$  for an infinite number positive integer values of *n*. In this case, we say  $z_0$  is an **essential singularity** for *f*.





## Theorem

Suppose f has an isolated singularity at  $z_0$ . Then

- (a)  $z_0$  is a removable singularity  $\Leftrightarrow |f|$  is bounder near  $z_0 \Leftrightarrow \lim_{z \to z_0} f(z)$  exists  $\Leftrightarrow f$  can be redefined at  $z_0$  so that f is analytic at  $z_0$ .
- (b)  $z_0$  is a pole of order  $m \Leftrightarrow |f|$  is unbounded near  $z_0 \Leftrightarrow \lim_{z \to z_0} f(z) = \infty \Leftrightarrow f$  can be rewritten as  $f(z) = g(z)/(z z_0)^m$  where g is analytic at  $z_0$  with  $g(z_0) \neq 0$ .
- (c)  $z_0$  is an essential singularity  $\Leftrightarrow |f|$  neither is bounded near  $z_0$  nor goes to infinity as  $z \to z_0$ .





The following theorem relates the concepts of zeros and poles of a function with its reciprocal.

#### Theorem

If f has a zero of order m at  $z_0$ , then 1/f has a pole of order m at  $z_0$ . If f has a pole of order m at  $z_0$ , then 1/f has a zero of order m at  $z_0$ . If f has a removable singularity at  $z_0$ , then 1/f also has a removable singularity at  $z_0$ .

