# 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


## Overview of Chap 6

- 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 $\left\{z_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}=z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, \ldots$ is said to have a limit complex number $A$ or converge to $A$, and written as

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}=A \text { or } z_{n} \rightarrow A, \quad \text { when } n \rightarrow \infty
$$

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

$$
\left|z_{n}-A\right| \leq \epsilon \quad \text { for all } \quad n \geq N
$$

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) $\lim \left(z_{n} \pm w_{n}\right)=\lim z_{n} \pm \lim w_{n}=A \pm B$,
(b) $\lim \left(z_{n} w_{n}\right)=\left(\lim z_{n}\right)\left(\lim w_{n}\right)=A B$,
(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 $\left\{u_{n}(z)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}=u_{1}(z), u_{2}(z), u_{3}(z), \ldots$, denote a sequence of functions of $z$ defined on a region $\Omega$ of the complex plane. The sequence $\left\{u_{n}(z)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is said to have a limit complex function $U(z)$ or converges to $U$, and written as

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} u_{n}(z)=U(z) \text { or } u_{n}(z) \rightarrow U(z), \quad \text { when } n \rightarrow \infty
$$

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

$$
\left|u_{n}(z)-U(z)\right| \leq \epsilon \quad \text { for all } \quad n \geq N
$$

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:

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} u_{n}(z)=U(z) \text { or } u_{n}(z) \rightarrow U(z), \quad \text { when } \quad n \rightarrow \infty
$$

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

$$
\left|u_{n}(z)-U(z)\right| \leq \epsilon \quad \text { for all } \quad n \geq N
$$

- If $N=N(\epsilon)$, i.e. $N$ depends only on $\epsilon$ and not on $z \in \Omega$, we say that $\left\{u_{n}(z)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges uniformly, or is uniformly convergent, to $U(z)$ for all $z$ in $\Omega$.


## Series of Complex Numbers

- The infinite series of complex numbers

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_{n}=z_{1}+z_{2}+z_{3}+\cdots+z_{n}+\cdots
$$

with $z_{n}=x_{n}+i y_{n}$, is said to be convergent if the sequence of partial sums

$$
S_{1}=z_{1}, \quad S_{2}=z_{1}+z_{2}, \quad S_{3}=z_{1}+z_{2}+z_{3}, \quad \ldots
$$

form a converging sequence.

- If $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n}=S$, then $S$ is the called the sum of the series and we write

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_{n}=S
$$

- If the sequence $\left\{S_{n}\right\}$ does not posses a limit, we say that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_{n}$ diverges.


## Divergence Test \& Geometric Series

Theorem (Divergence Test)
If $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}$ 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 $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} c r^{n}$ converges if and only if $|r|<1$. For $|r|<1$

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

## Absolute Convergence Test

Theorem
If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left|z_{n}\right|$ 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

$$
\left|z_{n+1}+z_{n+2}+\cdots+z_{m}\right|<\epsilon
$$

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

## Ratio Test

Theorem (Ratio Test)
Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_{n}$ be a series of complex numbers with $z_{n} \neq 0$ for $n \geq 1$ and that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|\frac{z_{n+1}}{z_{n}}\right|=r \quad(\text { possibly } \infty)
$$

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.

## Root Test

## Theorem (Root Test)

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

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\left|z_{n}\right|}=r \quad(\text { possibly } \infty) .
$$

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

$$
\left\{u_{n}(z)\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}=u_{1}(z), u_{2}(z), u_{3}(z), \ldots,
$$

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 $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n}(z)=f(z)$,then $f$ is the called the sum of the series and we write

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

## Uniform Convergence and Weierstrass M-Test

- If the sequence of partial sums $\left\{S_{n}(z)\right\}$ converges uniformly in $\Omega$, we say that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{n}(z)$ converges uniformly, or is uniformly convergent, to $f(z)$ for all $z$ in $\Omega$.
- The following test is often adequate for proving the uniform convergence of some series.

Theorem (Weierstrass M-Test)
If $\left|u_{n}(z)\right| \leq M_{n}$ 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 $|z| \leq \rho<1$.


## 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 $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{n}^{\prime}(z)=g(z)$ uniformly in $\Omega$.
Then

$$
\frac{d}{d z} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{n}(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{n}^{\prime}(z)=f^{\prime}(z)=g(z)
$$

## 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

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

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

## Power Series

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 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}$, 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 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}$, there exists a real number $R(0 \leq R \leq \infty)$, which depends only on the coefficients $a_{n}$, such that one of the following cases holds:
(a) The series converges for $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=R=0$, i.e. only for $z=z_{0}$.
(b) The series converges for $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=R=\infty$, i.e. for all values of $z$.
(c) For $0<R<\infty$, the series converges for $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$ and diverges for $\left|z-z_{0}\right|>R$, while for $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=R$ it may or may not converge.

Geometrically the equation $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=R$, 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 $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=R$ 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 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}$ has radius of convergence $R>0$. If $0<\rho<R$, then the power series converges uniformly and absolutely in $\left|z-z_{0}\right| \leq \rho$.

- 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 $f(z)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}$, for $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$, is analytic in $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$ and its derivatives can be obtained by differentiating term-by-term, i.e.

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n-1}=f^{\prime}(z)
$$

and this is valid in the same circle as the original series, i.e. $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$.

- 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 $a_{n}$ of the power series and its sum $f(z)$ ?


## Taylor Series

Theorem (Taylor Series Theorem)
Suppose $f(z)$ is analytic in the region $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$. Then $f$ has the Taylor series expansion

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

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
e^{z} & =1+z+\frac{z^{2}}{2!}+\cdots=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{n}}{n!}, \quad|z|<\infty \\
\sin z & =z-\frac{z^{3}}{3!}+\frac{z^{5}}{5!}+\cdots=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1} \frac{z^{2 n-1}}{(2 n-1)!}, \quad|z|<\infty \\
\cos z & =1-\frac{z^{2}}{2!}+\frac{z^{4}}{4!}+\cdots=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{z^{2 n}}{(2 n)!}, \quad|z|<\infty \\
\log z & =(z-1)-\frac{(z-1)^{2}}{2}+\frac{(z-1)^{3}}{3}+\cdots \\
& =\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n+1} \frac{(z-1)^{n}}{n}, \quad|z-1|<1
\end{aligned}
$$

## 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 $z_{0}$ to an annulus centered at $z_{0}$, then the analyticity of $f$ at $z_{0}$ is immaterial. What then is the possible series expansion of $f$ analytic in an annulus about $z_{0}$ ?
- 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 $0 \leq r<R \leq \infty$. If $f$ is analytic in the annulus
$r<\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$, then $f$ has the Laurent series expansion

$$
f(z)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}, \quad r<\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R
$$

where

$$
a_{n}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\left|w-z_{0}\right|=\rho} \frac{f(w)}{\left(w-z_{0}\right)^{n+1}} d w, \quad n=0 \pm 1 \pm 2, \ldots
$$

for $r<\rho<R$.

## Remarks on Laurent Series

- 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 $a_{n}$ 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

$$
f\left(z_{0}\right)=\cdots=f^{(m-1)}\left(z_{0}\right)=0, f^{(m)}\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0
$$

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

$$
f(z)=\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{m} g(z)
$$

where $g$ is analytic at $z_{0}$ and $g\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0$.

## Singularities of Analytic Functions

Suppose $f(z)$ is not analytic at $z_{0}$ but analytic in the puntured disk $0<\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$. 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 $\left(z-z_{0}\right)$ :

$$
f(z)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{-n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{-n}+\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}
$$

Hence the Laurent series is decomposed into two parts:
(a) The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{-n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{-n}$ which is analytic in $\left|z-z_{0}\right|>0$. This series which contains only the negative powers of $z-z_{0}$ is called the principal part of $f$ at $z=z_{0}$.
(b) The series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}$ which is analytic in $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<R$. This series which contains only the nonnegative powers of $z-z_{0}$ is called the regular part of $f$ at $z=z_{0}$.

## 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 $n=1,2,3, \ldots$ 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 $z-z_{0}$, i.e. $a_{-m} \neq 0$ for some positive integer $m$ but $a_{-n}=0$ for all $n>m$. In this case, we say $z_{0}$ is a pole of order $m$ for $f$. If $m=1$, we called $z_{0}$ 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 $z_{0} \Leftrightarrow$ $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)$ 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 $z_{0} \Leftrightarrow$ $\lim _{z \rightarrow z_{0}} f(z)=\infty \Leftrightarrow f$ can be rewritten as $f(z)=g(z) /\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{m}$ where $g$ is analytic at $z_{0}$ with $g\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0$.
(c) $z_{0}$ is an essential singularity $\Leftrightarrow|f|$ neither is bounded near $z_{0}$ nor goes to infinity as $z \rightarrow z_{0}$.

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 $z_{0}$.

