## 6. SERIES

## Convergence of series

A sequence $z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}, \ldots$ has limit $z$ if for all $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $N: n>N \Rightarrow\left|z_{n}-z\right|<\varepsilon$.

That is, we can make $z_{n}$ arbitrarily close to $z$ by taking $n$ sufficiently large.
This definition is formally the same as for the real case. Of course, here the points of the sequence lie in the complex plane, rather than on the real line.

The limit, if it exists, is unique.
We say the sequence converges to $z_{0}$ and write $z_{n} \rightarrow z$ or $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}=z$.

If there is no limit, we say that the sequence diverges.


## A First Convergence Theorem

Theorem 6.1 If $z_{n}=x_{n}+i y_{n}(n=1,2, \ldots)$ and $z=x+i y$, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}=z \Leftrightarrow \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n}=x \quad$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n}=y$.

Proof
$(\Rightarrow)$ Given $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $N: n>N \Rightarrow\left|x_{n}+i y_{n}-(x+i y)\right|<\varepsilon$.
Hence $n>N \Rightarrow\left|x_{n}-x\right|<\varepsilon$ and $\left|y_{n}-y\right|<\varepsilon$.
i.e. $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n}=x \quad$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n}=y$.
$(\Leftarrow)$ Given $\varepsilon>0$ there exist $N_{1}, N_{2}$ :
$n>N_{1} \Rightarrow\left|x_{n}-x\right|<\varepsilon / 2, n>N_{2} \Rightarrow\left|y_{n}-y\right|<\varepsilon /{ }_{2}$.
So $n>\max \left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right) \Rightarrow\left|x_{n}-x\right|+\left|y_{n}-y\right|<\varepsilon$.
Now $\left|x_{n}+i y_{n}-(x+i y)\right| \leq\left|x_{n}-x\right|+\left|y_{n}-y\right|<\varepsilon$.
So $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}=z$.

## Infinite Series and Partial Sums

The expression

$$
z_{1}+z_{2}+z_{3}+\ldots
$$

is an infinite series.

The set

$$
S_{N}=z_{1}+z_{2}+\ldots+z_{N}
$$

is a partial sum of the series.
If the sequence $S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{N}, \ldots$ converges to limit $S$ we write $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}=S$, and $S$ is the sum of the series. In this cae we say that the infinite series converges.

The sum, when it exists, is unique.
When a series does not converge, it diverges.

## Convergence of Complex Series

Theorem 6.2 Suppose that $z_{n}=x_{n}+i y_{n}(n=1,2, \ldots)$ and $S=X+i Y$.

Then

$$
\sum_{1}^{\infty} z_{n}=S \Leftrightarrow \sum_{1}^{\infty} x_{n}=X \quad \text { and } \sum_{1}^{\infty} y_{n}=Y .
$$

Proof Let $S_{N}=X_{N}+i Y_{N}$ denote the $N$ th partial sum, where $\quad X_{N}=\sum_{1}^{N} x_{n}$ and $Y_{N}=\sum_{1}^{N} y_{n}$.

Now

$$
\sum_{1}^{\infty} z_{n}=S \Leftrightarrow \lim _{N \rightarrow \infty} S_{N}=S \Leftrightarrow \lim _{N \rightarrow \infty} X_{N}=X \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{N \rightarrow \infty} Y_{N}=Y
$$

by Theorem 6.1.
Since $X_{N}, Y_{N}$ are the partial sums of $\sum_{1}^{\infty} x_{n}$ and $\sum_{1}^{\infty} y_{n}$, the result follows.

## Remainder and Power Series

In establishing that a given series has sum $S$, we define the remainder after $N$ terms to be:

$$
R_{N}=S-S_{N} .
$$

Since $\left|S-S_{N}\right|=\left|R_{N}-0\right|$, we have $S_{N} \rightarrow S$ iff $R_{N} \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$.
Hence, a series converges to sum $S \Leftrightarrow$ the sequence of remainders converges to 0 .
We shall be particularly concerned with power series.
A power series is a series of the form

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

where $z_{0}$ and the $a_{n}$ are complex constants, and $z$ is any number (variable) in a stated region.

We will use the notation $S(z), S_{N}(z), R_{N}(z)$ for the sum, partial sum and remainder respectively.

## QUIZ 6.1A

1. If $z_{n}=2+i / n$ then sequence $\left(z_{n}\right)$ converges.
(a) True
$\checkmark$;
(b) False $\square$
2. If $z_{n}=x_{n}+i y_{n}$ and $\Sigma z_{n}$ converges, then $\Sigma x_{n}$ must converge.
(a) True
$\checkmark$;
(b) False $\square$
3. If $z_{n}=x_{n}+i y_{n}$ and $\Sigma x_{n}$ converges, then $\Sigma z_{n}$ must converge.
(a) True

(b) False $\square$
4. If $\Sigma z_{n}=S$, then $\Sigma \operatorname{Re}\left(z_{n}\right)=\operatorname{Re}(S)$.
(a) True $\boxed{\checkmark}$;
(b) False $\quad \square$

## QUIZ 6.1B

Theorem 6.1 If $z_{n}=x_{n}+i y_{n}(n=1,2, \ldots)$ and $z=x+i y$, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}=z \Leftrightarrow \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n}=x$ and $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n}=y$.

Proof
$(\Leftarrow)$ Given $\varepsilon>0$ there exist $N_{1}, N_{2}$ :

So $\{3\} \Rightarrow\left|x_{n}-x\right|+\left|y_{n}-y\right|<\varepsilon$.
Now $\left|x_{n}+i y_{n}-(x+i y)\right| \leq\{4\}<\varepsilon$.
So $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{n}=z$.
Match the above boxes $1,2,3,4$ with the selections
(a) $n>N_{1}$,
(b) $n>\max \left(N_{1}, N_{2}\right)$,
(c) $\left|y_{n}-y\right|<\varepsilon / 2$,
(d) $\left|x_{n}-x\right|+\left|y_{n}-y\right|$.

My solutions: 1. $\square$ 2. $\square$ 3. $\square$
$\square$

## Taylor Series

Theorem 6.3 (Taylor) Let $f$ be analytic everywhere inside the circle $C_{0}:\left|z-z_{0}\right|=r_{0}$. Then at each point $z$ inside $C_{0}$

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(z)=f\left(z_{0}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)\left(z-z_{0}\right)+f^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{0}\right) / 2!\cdot\left(\mathrm{z}-z_{0}\right)^{2}+ \\
\ldots+f^{(n)}\left(z_{0}\right) / n!\cdot\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}+\ldots .
\end{gathered}
$$

That is, the power series converges to $f(z)$ when
 $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<r_{0}$.

## Notes

(1) This is the Taylor series expansion about point $z_{0}$.
(2) If all terms are real, we get the real Taylor series.
(3) The proof of Taylor's Theorem we give is remarkably 'natural', and is one of the rewards in our study of complex functions.

## Proof of Taylor's Theorem (I)

Proof Let $z$ be any fixed point inside $C_{0}$ and set $\left|z-z_{0}\right|=r$ ( so $r<r_{0}$ ). Let $C_{1}$ be a circle centred at $z_{0}$ and having radius $r_{1}: 0<r<r_{1}<r_{2}$. Let $\zeta$ (zeta) be any point on this circle; i.e. $\left|\zeta-z_{0}\right|=r_{1}$.

Now $z$ lies inside $C_{1}$, and $f$ is analytic in and on $C_{1}$, so by the Cauchy integral formula

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z} d \zeta
$$

where $C_{1}$ is taken in the positive sense. Now

$$
\frac{1}{\zeta-z}=\frac{1}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)-\left(z-z_{0}\right)}=\frac{1}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{\left(z-z_{0}\right)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)}}
$$

Also for any complex $c \neq 1$,

$$
\frac{1}{1-c}=1+c+c^{2}+\ldots+c^{N-1}+\frac{c^{N}}{1-c}
$$

## Proof of Taylor's Theorem (II)

So

$$
\frac{1}{\zeta-z}=\frac{1}{\zeta-z_{0}}\left[1+\frac{z-z_{0-}}{\zeta-z_{0}}+\ldots+\left(\frac{z-z_{0}}{\zeta-z_{0}}\right)^{N-1}+\frac{\left(\frac{z-z_{0-}}{\zeta-z_{0}}\right)^{N}}{1-\left(\frac{z-z_{0-}}{\zeta-z}\right)}\right]
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z}=\frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z_{0}}+\frac{f(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{2}}\left(z-z_{0}\right)+\ldots+\frac{f(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{N}}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N+1}+\frac{f(\zeta)\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N}}{(\zeta-z)\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{N}}
$$

We next integrate each term anticlockwise around $C_{1}$, divide by $2 \pi i$, and substitute the Cauchy integral formula and the Derivative formulae:

$$
f^{(n)}\left(z_{0}\right)=\frac{n!}{2 \pi i} \int_{c} \frac{f(z)}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n+1}} d z, n=0,1,2, \ldots .
$$

## Proof of Taylor's Theorem (III)

So $\quad f(z)=f\left(z_{0}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)\left(z-z_{0}\right)+\ldots+\frac{f^{(N-1)}\left(z_{0}\right)}{(N-1)!}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N-1}+R_{N}(z)$
where

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{N}(z)=\frac{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N}}{2 \pi i} \int_{c_{1}} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{(\zeta-z)\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{N}} \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|z-z_{0}\right|=\mathrm{r},\left|\zeta-z_{0}\right|=r_{1}(>r), \\
& |\zeta-z| \geq\left|\zeta-z_{0}\right|-\left|z-z_{0}\right|=r_{1}-r .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus if $M$ denotes the maximum value of $\left|f\left(\zeta^{\prime}\right)\right|$ on $C_{1},\left(^{*}\right) \Rightarrow$

$$
\left|R_{N}(z)\right| \leq \frac{r^{N}}{2 \pi} \cdot \frac{M \cdot 2 \pi r_{1}}{\left(r_{1}-r\right) r_{1}^{N}}=\frac{M r_{1}}{\left(r_{1}-r\right)}\left(\frac{r}{r_{1}}\right)^{N} .
$$

Since $r / r_{1}<1, \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} R_{N}(z)=0$.
So for each $z$ interior to $C_{0}$, the Taylor series for $f$ converges to $f(z)$.

## Special Case and Observations

Let us seek the Maclaurin expansion for $f(z)=e^{z}$.
We have $f^{(n)}(z)=e^{z}$, so $f^{(n)}(0)=1$.
Also, $e^{z}$ is analytic for all $z$, so

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

Similarly

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\sin z=z-z^{3} / 3!+z^{5} / 5!-\ldots, & & |z|<\infty . \\
\cos z=1-z^{2} / 2!+z^{4} / 4!-\ldots, & & |z|<\infty . \\
\sinh z=z+z^{3} / 3!+z^{5} / 5!+\ldots, & & |z|<\infty . \\
\cosh z=1+z^{2} / 2!+z^{4} / 4!+\ldots, & & |z|<\infty .
\end{array}
$$

## Geometric Series

Let us try to find the Maclaurin series for the function

$$
f(z)=\frac{1+2 z}{z^{2}+z^{3}}
$$

Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(z)=\frac{1+2 z}{z^{2}+z^{3}} & =\frac{1}{z^{2}}\left(2-\frac{1}{1+z}\right)=\frac{1}{z^{2}}\left(1+z-z^{2}+z^{3}-\ldots\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{z^{2}}+\frac{1}{z}-1+z-\ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

This is not a Maclaurin series: the first two terms are unexpected, and the function $f$ has a singularity at $z=0$.

Question Perhaps there are other interesting series to investigate?

## QUIZ 6.2

1. In the Taylor series for $f, z-z_{0}$ has coefficient
(a) $f\left(z_{0}\right) \quad \square \quad$; (b) $f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right) \quad \square$;
(c) $f^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{0}\right) / 2$ !

2. A Maclaurin series is a special type of Taylor series.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False $\square$ .
3. $\sin z=1-z^{2} / 2!+z^{4} / 4!-\ldots$.
(a) True $\quad \square$; (b) False $\square$
4. $\quad 1 /\left(1-w^{2}\right)=1+w^{2}+w^{4}+\ldots \quad$ if $|w|<1$.
(a) True $\quad \square \quad$; (b) False $\quad \square$

## Laurent's Theorem

Let $C_{1}, C_{2}$ be concentric circles, centre $z_{0}$, with radii $r_{1}, r_{2}\left(r_{1}>r_{2}\right)$.
Theorem 6.4 (Laurent) If $f$ is analytic on $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ and throughout the annulus between these two circles, then at each point in this domain, $f(z)$ is represented by the expansion $f(z)=\Sigma_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}+\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_{n}}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}} \quad(*)$
where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{n}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c_{1}} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{n+1}} \quad(n=0,1,2, \ldots), \\
& b_{n}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c_{2}} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{-n+1}} \quad(n=1,2, \ldots),
\end{aligned}
$$

each path of integration taken counter-clockwise.
The series (*) is a Laurent series.


## Notes on Laurent's Theorem (I)

(1) If $f$ is analytic at all points in and on $C_{1}$ except at $z_{0}$, we can take $r_{2}$ (radius of $C_{2}$ ) to be arbitrarily small.

Then (*) above is valid for $0<\left|z-z_{0}\right|<r_{1}$.
(2) If $f$ is analytic at all points in and on $C_{1}$, then $f(z) /\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{-n+1}$ is analytic in and on $C_{2}$ (since $-n+1 \geq 0$ ).

So integral $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ is zero, and $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ reduces to the Taylor
 series.

## Notes on Laurent's Theorem (II)

(3) Since $f(z) /\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n+1}$ and $f(z) /\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{-n+1}$ are analytic throughout the annular region $r_{2} \leq\left|z-z_{0}\right| \leq r_{1}$, we can replace $\int_{C_{1}}$ and $\int_{C_{2}}$ by $\int_{C}$ where $C$ is any closed contour around the annulus in the positive direction.

This means that $(*)$ can be written

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(z)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} & c_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n} \\
& r_{2}<\left|z-z_{0}\right|<r_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
c_{n}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{C} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{n+1}} \quad(n=1,2, \ldots)
$$

$$
(* * *)
$$



## Notes on Laurent's Theorem (III)

(4) In practice, some, or even many of the coefficients may be zero.

Example Consider $f(z)=1 /(z-1)^{2}$ where $|z-1|>0$.
Here $z_{0}=1, \mathrm{c}_{-2}=1$, and all the other coefficients are zero.

Using $\left({ }^{* * *}\right)$, we observe that

$$
c_{-2}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{C} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{-1}}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{C} \frac{d \zeta}{\zeta-z_{0}}=1
$$

## Notes on Laurent's Theorem (IV)

(5) For particular examples we usually do not find the coefficients of an expansion using the formula. In other words, the general formula is useful more as an existence formula.

Example Find the Laurent series (with $z_{0}=0$ ) for $f(z)=e^{z} / z^{2}$.
Using the Maclaurin expansion for $e^{z}$, we obtain:

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{z^{2}}+\frac{1}{z}+\frac{1}{2!}+\frac{z}{3!}+\frac{z^{2}}{4!}+\ldots . \quad(z \neq 0)
$$

Example Find the Laurent series (with $z_{0}=0$ ) for $f(z)=e^{(1 / z)}$.
Using the Maclaurin expansion for $e^{z}$ with a change of variable, we obtain:

$$
f(z)=1+\frac{1}{z}+\frac{1}{2!z^{2}}+\ldots+\frac{1}{n!z^{n}}+\ldots . \quad(z \neq 0)
$$

## Proof of Laurent's Theorem (I)

If $z$ lies in the annular region, then

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{C_{1}} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\zeta-z}-\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{C_{2}} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\zeta-z}
$$

This is the Cauchy integral formula extended to a multiply-connected domain.

To show this explicitly in this special case, we take a small anti-clockwise directed circle $K$ with centre $z$, lying within the domain. Then

$$
\int_{C_{1}} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\zeta-z}-\int_{C_{2}} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\zeta-z}-\int_{K} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\zeta-z}=0
$$

Notice that by the Cauchy integral formula,

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{K} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{\zeta-z} .
$$



Comparing this equation with equation $(\dagger)$, the validity of $(\dagger)$ is confirmed.

## Proof of Laurent's Theorem (II)

The first integral of $(\dagger)$ will give the Taylor series part, so as before

$$
\frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z}=\frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z_{0}}+\frac{f(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{2}}\left(z-z_{0}\right)+\ldots+\frac{f(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{N}}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N-1}+\frac{f(\zeta)\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N}}{(\zeta-z)\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{N}}
$$

For the second integral of $(\dagger)$ we note that

$$
\frac{-1}{\zeta-z}=\frac{1}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)-\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)}=\frac{1}{z-z_{0}} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\frac{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)}}
$$

Multiplying through by $f(\zeta)$, and expanding the last quotient as a geometric series gives

$$
\frac{-f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z}=\frac{f(\zeta)}{z-z_{0}}+\frac{f(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{2}}+\ldots+\frac{f(\zeta)}{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{-N+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N}}+\frac{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{N}}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N}} \cdot \frac{f(\zeta)}{(z-\zeta)}
$$

## Proof of Laurent's Theorem (III)

So from $(\dagger)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(z)=\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} & a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}+R_{N}(z) \\
& +\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{b}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}}+Q_{N}(z)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a_{n}, b_{n}$ are as given in the statement of the theorem, $R_{N}(z)$ is as before, and $R_{N}(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Also,

$$
Q_{N}(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{N}} \int_{c_{2}} \frac{\left(\zeta-z_{0}\right)^{N} f(\zeta)}{z-\zeta} d \zeta
$$

If $r=\left|z-\mathrm{z}_{0}\right|$, and $r_{2}$ is the radius of $C_{2}$, then $r_{2}<r$.
Let $M$ be the maximum of $|f(\zeta)|$ on $C_{2}$. Then

$$
\left|Q_{N}(z)\right| \leq \frac{1}{2 \pi r^{N}} \cdot \frac{r_{2}^{N} M \cdot 2 \pi r_{2}}{r-r_{2}}=\frac{M r_{2}}{r-r_{2}} \cdot\left(\frac{r_{2}}{r}\right)^{N} \rightarrow 0 \text { as } N \rightarrow \infty .
$$

This completes the proof of the theorem.

## QUIZ 6.3

1. A Laurent series is a special type of Taylor series.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False $\square$
2. The general coefficient in the Laurent expansion of $f$ about $z_{0}$ is
(a) True $\checkmark$
; (b) False $\square$
3. The Laurent series for $f(z)=z e^{(1 / z)}$ about $z=0$ is $z+1+z / 2!+z^{2} / 3!+\ldots$.
(a) True $\checkmark$; (b) False

4. The Laurent series for $f(z)=\sinh (-1 / z)$ about $z=0$ is $1 / z-1 / 3!\cdot{ }^{1 /} z^{3}+1 / 5!\cdot 1 / z^{5}-\ldots$.
(a) True

; (b) False


## Further Properties of Series

There are many parallels with real series. This follows from the fact that $\Sigma z_{n}$ is convergent if and only if $\Sigma x_{n}$ and $\Sigma y_{n}$ are convergent.

Now if $\Sigma x_{n}$ and $\Sigma y_{n}$ are convergent, then $x_{n} \rightarrow 0, y_{n} \rightarrow 0$.
We deduce that $\Sigma z_{n}$ convergent $\Rightarrow \quad z_{n} \rightarrow 0$. Of course, the converse is false!!
So the terms of a convergent complex sequence are bounded:
that is, there exists $M:\left|z_{n}\right|<M$ for all $n$.
We say that $\Sigma z_{n}$ is absolutely convergent (AC) if the series $\Sigma\left|z_{n}\right|=\Sigma \sqrt{ }\left(x_{n}{ }^{2}+y_{n}{ }^{2}\right)$ is convergent.

In this case, by the Comparison Test for real series, $\Sigma\left|x_{n}\right|$ and $\Sigma\left|y_{n}\right|$ are convergent. Thus $\Sigma x_{n}, \Sigma y_{n}$ are AC and so convergent. It follows that $\Sigma z_{n}$ is convergent.

Thus $\Sigma z_{n}$ absolutely convergent $\Rightarrow \Sigma z_{n}$ is convergent.

## Absolute Convergence of Power Series

We now prove an important result for power series. Analogues of the next results hold for $\Sigma a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n}$, but we give this proof for $z_{0}=0$.

Theorem 6.5 If a power series $\Sigma a_{n} z^{n}$ converges when $z=z_{1}(\neq 0)$, then it is A.C. for all $z:|z|<\left|z_{1}\right|$.

Proof Since $\Sigma a_{n} z_{1}{ }^{n}$ is convergent, for some $M$ we have $\left|a_{n} z_{1}{ }^{n}\right|<M$ for all $n$. We write $|z| /\left|z_{1}\right|=k(<1)$.
Then

$$
\left|a_{n} z^{n}\right|=\left|a_{n} z_{1}^{n}\right| .\left.|z| z_{1}\right|^{n}<M k^{n} .
$$

Now the series with terms $M k_{n}(k<1)$ is a real, convergent, geometric series. So by the Comparison Test,

$$
\Sigma a_{n} z^{n} \text { is convergent. }
$$

## Circle of Convergence

Our previous result shows that the set of all points inside some circle centred at the origin is a region of convergence for $\Sigma a_{n} z^{n}$.
The largest such circle is the circle of convergence.
We note that by the theorem, the series cannot converge at any point $z_{2}$ outside this circle. Similarly, if the series $\Sigma b_{n} / z^{n}$ converges for $z=z_{1}$, then it is absolutely comvergent at every point $z$ exterior to the circle centre $O$ passing through $z_{1}$. The exterior of some circle centred at $O$ is therefore a region of convergence.

## Functions defined by Power Series

The theory starts to get a bit solid (boring!) here, so we settle for some stated results. Nevertheless, these results are important.

Let $S(z)=\Sigma a_{n} z^{n}$ over some circle of convergence $C_{1}$. Thus $S$ is the function defined by the convergent power series.

## Some Stated Results (I)

Then
(1) Function $S(z)$ is continuous at each $z$ interior to $C_{1}$.
(2) Function $S(z)$ is analytic at each $z$ interior to $C_{1}$.
(3) If $C$ is any contour interior to $C_{1}$, then the power series can be integrated term by term, i.e.

$$
\int_{c} S(z) d z=\sum_{0}^{\infty} a_{n} \int_{c} z^{n} d z
$$

[If $C$ is a closed contour, then of course we get the value 0 on both sides.]
(4) The power series can be differentiated term by term.

Thus for each $z$ inside $C_{1}$,

$$
S^{\prime}(z)=\sum_{0}^{\infty} n a_{n} z^{n-1} .
$$

## Some Stated Results (II)

(5) The Taylor / Laurent series about $z_{0}$ for a given function is unique.

## Illustration

$$
\sin \left(z^{2}\right)=z^{2}-\frac{z^{6}}{3!}+\frac{z^{10}}{5!} \cdots
$$

Even though this series is obtained by substituting $z^{2}$ in the series for $\sin z$, it will be the same as the Maclaurin series for $\sin \left(z^{2}\right)$.
(6) Let $f(z)=\Sigma a_{n} z^{n}, \quad g(z)=\Sigma b_{n} z^{n}$.

If we formally multiply these series together and collect the coefficients of like powers of $z$, we get the Cauchy Product of the two series:
$f(z) . g(z)=a_{0} b_{0}+\left(a_{0} b_{1}+a_{1} b_{0}\right) z+\left(a_{0} b_{2}+a_{1} b_{1}+a_{2} b_{0}\right) z^{2}+\ldots+\left(\Sigma_{k} a_{k} b_{n-k}\right) z^{n}+\ldots$.
We now have:
The Cauchy Product of two power series converges to the product of their sums at all points interior to their circles of convergence.

## QUIZ 6.4A

1. If $z_{n} \rightarrow 0$, then $\Sigma z_{n}$ must be convergent.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False $\square$
2. If $\Sigma z_{n}$ is absolutely convergent, then it must be convergent.
(a) True $\square$ ; (b) False $\square$
3. If $\Sigma b_{n} / z^{n}$ is convergent for $z=z_{1}$. and $\left|z_{2}\right|>\left|z_{1}\right|$, then $\Sigma b_{n} / z_{2}^{n}$ is convergent.
(a) True

; (b) False

4. The Cauchy product of the series for $\sin z$ and $\cos z$ is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S=z-4 z^{3} / 3!+16 z^{5} / 5!+\ldots \\
& \text { (a) True } \quad v \quad \text {; (b) False } \square
\end{aligned}
$$

## QUIZ 6.4B

Theorem 6.5 If a power series $\Sigma a_{n} z^{n}$ converges when $z=z_{1}(\neq 0)$, then it is A.C. for all $z:|z|<\left|z_{1}\right|$.

Proof Since $\Sigma a_{n} z_{1}{ }^{n}$ is convergent, for some $M$ we have $\{\mathbb{1}\}$ for all $n$. We write $\{2\}$. Then

$$
\left|a_{n} z^{n}\right|=\{3\}<M k^{n} .
$$

Now the series with terms \{ 4$\}$ is a real, convergent, geometric series.
So by the Comparison Test,

$$
\Sigma a_{n} z^{n} \text { is convergent. }
$$

Match the above boxes $1,2,3,4$ with the selections
(a) $M k^{n}(k<1) ;$ (b) $\left|a_{n} z_{1}{ }^{n}\right| .\left|z / z_{1}\right|^{n}$;
(c) $\left|a_{n} z_{1}{ }^{n}\right|<M$; (d) $|z| /\left|z_{1}\right|=k \quad(<1)$.

My solutions:
(1) $\square$ (2) $\square$ (3)
(4) $\square$ CHECK

## Laurent's Theorem: Example I

For the next examples, set

$$
f(z)=\frac{-1}{(z-1)(z-2)}=\frac{1}{(z-1)}-\frac{1}{(z-2)}
$$

This function is analytic everywhere except at $z=1$ and $z=2$.
Find the Maclaurin series for $f(z)$ valid in $|z|<1$.
Now

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{(2-z)}-\frac{1}{(1-z)}=\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-z / 2}-\frac{1}{(1-z)}
$$

Also $|z|<1 \Rightarrow|z / 2|<1$. Hence
$f(z)=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{z}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{z^{2}}{4}+\ldots-1-z-\mathrm{z}^{2}-\ldots=\sum_{0}^{\infty}\left[\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^{n}-z^{n}\right]$
valid for $|z|<1$.
Thus this is the Maclaurin series for $f(z)$ over the given domain.

## Laurent's Theorem: Example II

We are given

$$
f(z)=\frac{-1}{(z-1)(z-2)}=\frac{1}{(z-1)}-\frac{1}{(z-2)} .
$$

Find the Maclaurin series for $f(z)$ valid in $1<|z|<2$.
In this case we have $|1 / z|<1$ and $|z / 2|<1$.
Now

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{z} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-1 / z)}+\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(1-z_{2}\right)}
$$

So
$f(z)=\frac{1}{z}+\frac{1}{z^{2}}+\frac{1}{z^{3}}+\ldots+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{z}{4}+\frac{z^{2}}{8}+\ldots=\sum_{0}^{\infty}\left[\frac{1}{z^{n+1}}+\frac{z^{n}}{2^{n+1}}\right]$
valid for $1<|z|<2$.
This is the required Laurent expansion.
We observe here that $c_{-1}\left(\right.$ or $\left.b_{1}\right)=1$.

## Evaluation of Integrals

We noted in the previous calculation that $c_{-1}\left(\right.$ or $\left.b_{1}\right)=1$.
Recall that

$$
c_{n}=-\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c} \frac{f(\zeta) d \zeta}{(\zeta-z)^{n+1}}
$$

Thus

$$
c_{-1}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c} f(\zeta) d \zeta=1
$$

where $C$ is any simple closed contour around the annulus (taken in the positive direction).
That is,

$$
\int_{c} f(\zeta) d \zeta=2 \pi i
$$

This suggests the use of the Laurent series for the evaluation of integrals.

## Laurent's Theorem: Example III

Again,

$$
f(z)=\frac{-1}{(z-1)(z-2)}=\frac{1}{(z-1)}-\frac{1}{(z-2)}
$$

Find the Maclaurin series for $f(z)$ valid in $|z|>2$.
Here we have $|2 / z|<1$ and so $|1 / z|<1$.
Now

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{z} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-1 / z)}-\frac{1}{z} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-2 / z)}
$$

So
$f(z)=\frac{1}{z}+\frac{1}{z^{2}}+\frac{1}{z^{3}}+\ldots-\frac{1}{z}-\frac{2}{z^{2}}-\frac{2^{2}}{z^{3}}-\ldots=\sum_{0}^{\infty}\left[\frac{1}{z^{n+1}}+\frac{z^{n}}{2^{n+1}}\right]$ valid for $|z|>2$.

Note that the coefficient of $z^{-1}$ is zero. Hence $\int_{c} f(\zeta) d \zeta=0$ for any small contour $C$ about 0 and exterior to the circle $|z|=2$.
Note It is possible to develop the whole theory of analytic functions beginning with series, but there is no advantage. The proofs are not easy and motivation is lacking.

## Zeros of an Analytic Function (I)

If $f$ is analytic at $z_{0}$, there exists a circle centre $z_{0}$ within which $f$ is represented by a Taylor series:

$$
f(z)=a_{0}+\Sigma a_{n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n} \quad\left(\left|z-z_{0}\right|<r_{0}\right)
$$

where $a_{0}=f\left(z_{0}\right)$ and $a_{n}=f^{(n)}\left(z_{0}\right) / n!$. If $z_{0}$ is a zero of $f$, then $a_{0}=0$.
If in addition

$$
f^{\prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=0=f^{\prime \prime}\left(z_{0}\right)=\ldots=f^{(m-1)}\left(z_{0}\right)
$$

but $f^{(m)}\left(z_{0}\right) \neq 0$, then $z_{0}$ is a zero of order $\boldsymbol{m}$.
In this case,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(z) & =\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{m} \Sigma a_{m+n}\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{n} \quad\left(a_{m} \neq 0, \quad\left|z-z_{0}\right|<r_{0}\right) \\
& =\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{m} g(z) \text { say }
\end{aligned}
$$

where $g\left(z_{0}\right)=a_{m} \neq 0$.

## Zeros of an Analytic Function (II)

Thus $f(z)=\left(z-z_{0}\right)^{m} g(z)$ where $g\left(z_{0}\right)=a_{m} \neq 0$.
Since $g(z)$ is represented by a convergent power series, $g$ is continuous at $z_{0}$. That is, given $\varepsilon>0$, there exists a $\delta>0$ such that $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\delta \Rightarrow\left|g(z)-g\left(z_{0}\right)\right|<\varepsilon$. Now choose $\varepsilon=\left|a_{m}\right| / 2$.
Then there exists $\delta:\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\delta \Rightarrow\left|g(z)-a_{m}\right|<\left|a_{m}\right| / 2$.
It follows that $g(z) \neq 0$ at any point in neighbourhood $\left|z-z_{0}\right|<\delta$.
We have proved:
Theorem 6.6 Let $f$ be analytic at point $z_{0}$ which is a zero of $f$. Then there exists a neighbourhood of $z_{0}$ throughout which $f$ has no other zeros, unless $f \equiv 0$.

That is, the zeros of an analytic function are isolated.

## QUIZ 6.5

1. If $f(z)=1 /[z(1-2 z)]$ and $|z|<1 / 2$, then the coefficient of $z^{2}$ in the Laurent expansion for $f$ is :

2. If $f(z)=1 /[z(1-2 z)]]$ and $|z|>1 / 2$, then the coefficient of $1 / z^{2}$ in the Laurent expansion for $f$ is :

3. Function $f(z)=z^{3} \cos z$ has a zero at $z=0$ of order 3 .
(a) True
$\checkmark$
; (b) False $\square$
4. Function $f(z)=z^{3} \sin z$ has a zero at $z=0$ of order 3 .
(a) True
$\checkmark$ ; (b) False

