

## Sequences and Series of Complex Functions

Let  $f_n(z), n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  be a sequence of complex functions on a region  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

Ex.  $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{nz} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots; \quad z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ .

$$f_1(z) = \frac{1}{z}$$

$$f_2(z) = \frac{1}{2z}$$

$$f_3(z) = \frac{1}{3z}$$

$\vdots$

Def. We say  $f_n(z)$  **converges pointwise to**  $f(z)$  on  $D$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) = f(z)$  for each point  $z \in D$ .

This means for each  $z \in D$ , given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  depending on  $\epsilon$  and  $z$ , such that whenever  $n \geq N$ ,  $|f_n(z) - f(z)| < \epsilon$ .

If the limit doesn't exist (or is infinite) we say the sequence **diverges** for those values of  $z$ .

Ex. Prove that the  $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{nz}$  converges pointwise to  $f(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ .

To prove this we must show that for each point  $z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ , given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  depending on  $\epsilon$  and  $z$ , such that whenever  $n \geq N$ ,

$$\left| \frac{1}{nz} - 0 \right| < \epsilon.$$

We start with the  $\epsilon$  statement and try to work “backwards” by solving for  $n$  to find a  $N$  that will work.

$$\left| \frac{1}{nz} \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} \right| < \epsilon |z|$$

$$\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon |z| \quad \text{since } n > 0$$

$$n > \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|}.$$

$$\text{Let } N > \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|}.$$

Now let's show that  $N > \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|}$  works, i.e. forces the  $\epsilon$  statement to be true.

If  $N > \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|}$  then  $n \geq N$  means

$$n \geq N > \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|}$$

$$n|z| > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$$

$$\frac{1}{|nz|} < \epsilon$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{nz} - 0 \right| < \epsilon.$$

Thus  $f_n(z) = 1/nz$  converges pointwise to  $f(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ .

Notice that the  $N$  we found depended on both  $\epsilon$  and  $z$ .

An infinite series of function,  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} g_j(z)$ , where  $g_j(z)$  is a complex function, can be viewed as a limit of an infinite sequence of partial sums  $\{S_n(z)\}$ , where:

$$S_n(z) = \sum_{j=1}^n g_j(z).$$

We say  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} g_j(z)$  converges to a function  $S(z)$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(z) = S(z)$ .

Ex.  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^j}{j!} = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots$

In this case:  $g_j(z) = \frac{z^j}{j!}$  and  $S_n(z) = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{z^j}{j!} = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{z^n}{n!}$ .

Notice that if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(z) = S(z)$ , that is, the series does converge, then

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(z) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n(z) - S_{n-1}(z)) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(z) - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1}(z) \\ &= S(z) - S(z) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, just as is true for the convergence of an infinite sum of real numbers, the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term must go to 0 for all values of  $z$  for which the series converges.

Def. We say a sequence of functions,  $S_n(z)$ ,  $z \in D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ , **converges uniformly** to  $S(z)$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N$  (which depends just on  $\epsilon$  and not  $z$ ) such that if  $n \geq N$ , then  $|S_n(z) - S(z)| < \epsilon$  for all  $z \in D$ .

Thus for a sequence of functions to converge uniformly in  $D$ , we must be able to find a single  $N$  that forces the  $\epsilon$  statement to be true for all  $z \in D$ . In other words,  $N$  does NOT depend on which point  $z$  we are at.

Note: Uniform convergence implies pointwise convergence, but pointwise convergence does not imply uniform convergence.

Ex. The sequence  $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{nz}$  converges pointwise to  $f(z) = 0$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ , but not uniformly.

When we showed the pointwise convergence we found that the  $\epsilon$  statement

$$\left| \frac{1}{nz} - 0 \right| < \epsilon$$

was equivalent to:  $n > \frac{1}{\epsilon|z|}$ .

But for any fixed  $\epsilon$ ,  $|z|$  can be arbitrarily close to 0 so  $N$  would need to grow toward  $\infty$  and hence  $N$  would have to depend on  $z$ . Thus  $\{f_n(z)\}$  does not converge uniformly to  $f(z) = 0$ .

Ex. Show that the sequence  $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{nz}$  converges uniformly to  $f(z) = 0$  in the annulus,  $D$ ,  $1 \leq |z| \leq 10$ .

We must show given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N$ , which depends only on  $\epsilon$  (and not on the point  $z$ ) such that if  $n \geq N$  then

$$\left| \frac{1}{nz} - 0 \right| < \epsilon.$$

Notice that in this case where  $1 \leq |z| \leq 10$  the smallest  $|z|$  can be is 1. That wasn't the case in our previous example where  $z \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$ .

So now if we solve the  $\epsilon$  inequality we get:

$$\left| \frac{1}{nz} \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} \right| < \epsilon |z|$$

$$\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon |z| \quad \text{since } n > 0$$

$$n > \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|}.$$

$$\text{But since } 1 \leq |z| \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|} \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon}.$$

So now if we choose  $N > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ , the  $\epsilon$  inequality should work.

(Notice that  $N$  only depends on  $\epsilon$  and not  $z$ ).

Now let's show that this  $N$  forces the  $\epsilon$  inequality to work.

If  $n \geq N > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  then

$$n > \frac{1}{\epsilon} \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon |z|} \quad \text{because } 1 \leq |z|, \text{ so}$$

$$\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon |z| \quad \text{since both sides are positive.}$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} \right| < \epsilon |z| \quad \text{because } n > 0, \text{ so } \frac{1}{n} = \left| \frac{1}{n} \right|.$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{nz} \right| < \epsilon \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left| \frac{1}{nz} - 0 \right| < \epsilon.$$

Thus we have  $f_n(z) = \frac{1}{nz}$  converges uniformly to  $f(z) = 0$  in the annulus,  $D$ ,  $1 \leq |z| \leq 10$ .

Theorem: let  $f_n(z)$  be a sequence of continuous functions that converges uniformly to  $f(z)$  in  $D$ . Then  $f(z)$  is continuous and for any finite contour  $C$

inside of  $D$ : 
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_C f_n(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz.$$

Proof: We must show that given any point  $a \in D$ , that for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $|z - a| < \delta$  then  $|f(z) - f(a)| < \epsilon$  (here the  $\delta$  can depend on the point  $a$ ).

Choose any point  $a \in D$ , and fix an  $\epsilon > 0$ .

By the triangle inequality we know that:

$$|f(z) - f(a)| \leq |f(z) - f_n(z)| + |f_n(z) - f_n(a)| + |f_n(a) - f(a)|.$$

Now let's show that each expression on the RHS can be made less than  $\frac{\epsilon}{3}$ .

Since  $f_n(z)$  converges uniformly to  $f(z)$  in  $D$ , we know there exists a  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that if  $n \geq N$  then  $|f(z) - f_n(z)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$  for any  $z \in D$ .

Thus the first and third expressions on the RHS can be made less than  $\frac{\epsilon}{3}$  by choosing  $n \geq N$ .

Since  $f_n(z)$  is continuous at  $z = a$  we know there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $|z - a| < \delta$  then  $|f_n(z) - f_n(a)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ . Thus with this  $\delta$

$$|f(z) - f(a)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon, \text{ and } f(z) \text{ is continuous at } z = a.$$

To show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_C f_n(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz$ , we must show given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that if  $n \geq N$  then

$$\left| \int_C f_n(z) dz - \int_C f(z) dz \right| < \epsilon.$$

But since  $f_n(z)$  converges uniformly to  $f(z)$  in  $D$  we know that given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that if  $n \geq N$  then  $|f_n(z) - f(z)| < \frac{\epsilon}{L}$ , for all  $z \in C$  and  $L = \text{length of } C$ .

So for  $n \geq N$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_C f_n(z) dz - \int_C f(z) dz \right| &= \left| \int_C (f_n(z) - f(z)) dz \right| \\ &\leq \int_C |f_n(z) - f(z)| |dz| \\ &\leq \left( \frac{\epsilon}{L} \right) (L) = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_C f_n(z) dz = \int_C f(z) dz$ .

A corollary of this theorem is that if the partial sums of a series:

$$S_n(z) = \sum_{j=1}^n g_j(z)$$

are continuous and converge uniformly to  $S(z)$  then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \int_C g_j(z) dz = \int_C \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} g_j(z) dz = \int_C S(z) dz.$$

Def. A sequence of complex numbers  $\{z_n\}$  is called a **Cauchy sequence** if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that if  $m, n \geq N$  then  $|z_n - z_m| < \epsilon$ .

Theorem: If  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is a Cauchy sequence for each  $z \in D$ ,  $D$  a region in  $\mathbb{C}$ , then there is a function  $f(z)$  such that  $\{f_n(z)\}$  converges to  $f(z)$ .

The above theorem follows from the fact that every Cauchy sequence of real numbers converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ , and the following:

$$f_n(z) = u_n(x, y) + iv_n(x, y)$$

$$|u_n(x, y) - u_m(x, y)| \leq |f_n(z) - f_m(z)| < \epsilon$$

$$|v_n(x, y) - v_m(x, y)| \leq |f_n(z) - f_m(z)| < \epsilon.$$

This says that if  $\{f_n(z)\}$  is a Cauchy sequence then so are  $\{u_n(x, y)\}$  and  $\{v_n(x, y)\}$ . Hence  $\{u_n(x, y)\}$  converges to  $u(x, y)$  and  $\{v_n(x, y)\}$  converges to  $v(x, y)$ .

Thus  $\{f_n(z)\}$  converges to  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ .

The next theorem gives us a powerful tool to prove that a series of functions converges uniformly in a region  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$



Theorem (Weierstrass  $M$  test): Let  $|g_j(z)| \leq M_j$  in a region  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ , with  $M_j \in \mathbb{R}$  constants. If  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} M_j$  converges, then the series  $S(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} g_j(z)$  converges uniformly in  $D$ .

Proof: Let  $n > m$  and  $S_n(z) = \sum_{j=1}^n g_j(z)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |S_n(z) - S_m(z)| &= \left| \sum_{j=m+1}^n g_j(z) \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{j=m+1}^n |g_j(z)| \\ &\leq \sum_{j=m+1}^n M_j \leq \sum_{j=m+1}^{\infty} M_j \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} M_j$  converges we know there's an  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that if  $m \geq N$ ,  $\sum_{j=m+1}^{\infty} M_j < \epsilon$ .

Thus  $\{S_n(z)\}$  converges uniformly to  $S(z)$  in  $D$ .

Ex. Prove that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n\sqrt{n+1}}$  converges uniformly for  $|z| \leq 1$ .

For  $|z| \leq 1$  we have:  $\left| \frac{z^n}{n\sqrt{n+1}} \right| \leq \left| \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n+1}} \right| \leq \left| \frac{1}{n^2} \right| = \frac{1}{n^2}$ .

Notice that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges because it's a  $p$ -series with  $p = \frac{3}{2} > 1$ .

So if we let  $M_j = \frac{1}{j^2}$  then we have:

$|g_j(z)| \leq M_j$  (here  $g_j(z) = \frac{z^j}{j\sqrt{j+1}}$ ) and  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} M_j$  converges.

So by the Weierstrass  $M$  test  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n\sqrt{n+1}}$  converges uniformly for  $|z| \leq 1$ .

Ex. Show  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ze^{-nz}$  converges uniformly on  $1 \leq |z| \leq 4$  and  $\operatorname{Re}(z) \geq 3$ .

$$|ze^{-nz}| = |z||e^{-nz}| \leq 4|e^{-nz}| \quad \text{because } |z| \leq 4.$$

$z = x + iy$  thus:

$$4|e^{-nz}| = 4|e^{-n(x+iy)}| = 4|e^{-nx}e^{-nyi}| = 4|e^{-nx}|;$$

$x = \operatorname{Re}(z) \geq 3$ ; so

$$|ze^{-nz}| \leq 4|e^{-nz}| = 4|e^{-nx}| \leq 4e^{-3n}$$

Thus we have:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 4e^{-3n} = 4[e^{-3} + e^{-6} + e^{-9} + \dots] = 4\left(\frac{e^{-3}}{1-e^{-3}}\right)$$

(Geometric series).

So if we let  $M_j = 4e^{-3j}$ , then  $|g_j(z)| \leq M_j$  (here  $g_j(z) = ze^{-jz}$ ) and  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} M_j$  converges.

Thus the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ze^{-nz}$  converges uniformly on  $1 \leq |z| \leq 4$  and  $\operatorname{Re}(z) \geq 3$  by the Weierstrass  $M$  test.

Ex. Show that the Riemann Zeta function  $\zeta(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-z}$ , converges uniformly for  $\operatorname{Re}(z) \geq 1 + \alpha$ , for any  $\alpha > 0$ .

Let  $z = x + iy$ , then we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |n^{-z}| &= |e^{-z \log n}| \\
 &= |e^{-(x+iy) \log n}| \\
 &= |e^{-x \log n}| |e^{-iy \log n}|; && (|e^{iA}| = 1, A \in \mathbb{R}) \\
 &= |e^{-x \log n}| \\
 &= |n^{-x}| \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^x} \leq \frac{1}{n^{1+\alpha}} = M_n.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1+\alpha}} \quad \text{which converges because it's a } p\text{-series with}$$

$$p = 1 + \alpha > 1.$$

Thus  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-z}$  converges uniformly for  $\operatorname{Re}(z) \geq 1 + \alpha$ , for any  $\alpha > 0$  by the Weierstrass  $M$  test.

A corollary of the Weierstrass  $M$  test is the Ratio Test for a complex series.

Theorem: Suppose  $|g_1(z)|$  is bounded for  $z \in D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  and

$$\left| \frac{g_{j+1}(z)}{g_j(z)} \right| \leq M < 1, \quad j > 1$$

Then the series:  $S(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} g_j(z)$  is uniformly convergent in  $D$ .

Proof: We can write:  $g_n(z) = g_1(z) \left( \frac{g_2(z)}{g_1(z)} \right) \left( \frac{g_3(z)}{g_2(z)} \right) \dots \left( \frac{g_n(z)}{g_{n-1}(z)} \right)$ .

Since  $|g_1(z)|$  is bounded we can say:  $|g_1(z)| \leq K$ .

Since  $\left| \frac{g_{j+1}(z)}{g_j(z)} \right| \leq M < 1, \quad j > 1$  we have

$$|g_n(z)| \leq KM^{n-1}.$$

Thus  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |g_j(z)| \leq K \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} M^{j-1} = \frac{K}{1-M}$  (geometric series).

So by the Weierstrass  $M$  test  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} g_j(z)$  converges uniformly to  $S(z)$  in  $D$  since

$$|g_j(z)| \leq KM^{j-1} = M_j \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} M_j = \frac{K}{1-M} \text{ converges.}$$

Def. The largest  $R$  for which a power series  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j z^j$  converges inside the disk  $|z| < R$  is called the **radius of convergence** of the power series.

The radius of convergence of a power series can turn out to be  $0$ ,  $\infty$ , or any positive real number.

Ex. Find the radius of convergence,  $R$ , of:

a.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$ ,   b.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n!)z^n$ ,   c.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!} z^{2n}$ .

By the ratio test we need to find where:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{g_{n+1}(z)}{g_n(z)} \right| < 1$ .

a.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{z^{n+1} n!}{(n+1)! z^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{z}{n+1} \right| = 0 < 1$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Thus  $R = \infty$ .

b.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)! z^{n+1}}{(n!) z^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |(n+1)z| = \infty$  unless  $z = 0$ .

Thus  $R = 0$ .

c.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} z^{2(n+1)} \frac{n!}{n^n z^{2n}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{n^n} \frac{1}{n+1} z^2 \right|$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^n}{n^n} z^2 \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \left( \frac{n+1}{n} \right)^n z^2 \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n z^2 \right|$$

$$= e |z^2| < 1$$

$$|z|^2 < \frac{1}{e}$$

$$|z| < \frac{1}{\sqrt{e}}$$

So  $R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{e}}$ .