

### Maximum - Modulus Theorem/Principle: (Version - 1):

If a function  $f$  is analytic and non-constant in a domain (= open, connected set)  $D$ , then

$|f(z)|$  has NO MAXIMUM value in  $D$ .

That is, there is NO POINT  $z_0$  in the domain  $D$  such that  $|f(z)| \leq |f(z_0)|$  for all  $z \in D$ .

### Version - 2: (Max. Modulus Theorem).

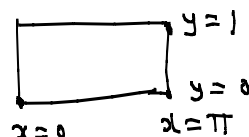
Suppose that a function  $f$  is continuous in a closed, bounded (= compact) region  $S$  and that  $f(z)$  is analytic and non-constant in the interior of  $S$ . Then, the maximum value of  $|f(z)|$  in  $S$  which is always reached, occurs somewhere on the boundary of  $S$  and never in the interior of  $S$ .

Example:  $R = \{z = x + iy \mid 0 \leq x \leq \pi, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ ,  $f(z) = \sin(z)$

$$|f(z)| = \sqrt{\sin^2 x + \sinh^2 y}$$

By the maximum-modulus theorem, the maximum value of  $|f(z)|$  will attain only on the boundary  $\partial R$  of  $R$ .

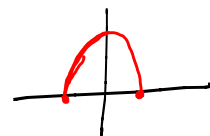
Maximum is reached at the point  $(\frac{\pi}{2}, 1)$ .



Note: For a real valued function  $f: [a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $|f(x)|$  may attain its maximum value at the interior of  $[a, b]$ .

Example:  $f(x) = 1 - x^2$  for  $x \in [-1, 1]$

$\text{Max } |f(x)| = 1$  and it is reached at  $x = 0$ .



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### Minimum - Modulus theorem:

Let  $f$  be a continuous function in a closed, bounded region  $S$  and let  $f$  be analytic and non-constant in the interior of  $S$ . Further  $f(z) \neq 0$  for all  $z$  in  $S$ . Then,  $|f(z)|$  has a minimum value in  $S$  which occurs on the boundary of  $S$  and never in the interior of  $S$ .

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## SEQUENCES and SERIES

Now, Recall: Sequence of real/complex numbers  
Series of real/complex numbers ] from MA101

Also Recall: Sequences of functions  
Series of functions  
Power Series ]

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Sequence  $\{a_n\}$  where  $a_n$ 's are complex numbers

Sequence is a function from  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$  (or  $\mathbb{R}$ ) defined by  $a(n) = a_n$ .

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Question: As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , what is the behaviour of  $a_n$ ?  
(Long term behaviour)

Does it approach any values, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ? (CONVERGENCE).

Definition:

Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence of complex numbers.

If there exists a complex number  $a^*$  such that for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a natural number  $N_0$  such that

$$|a_n - a^*| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N_0, \quad \text{then}$$

we say that  $\{a_n\}$  converges to  $a^*$ .

$a^*$  is called the limit of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ .

We write it as

$$\boxed{\{a_n\} \rightarrow a^* \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty} \quad (\text{or}) \quad \boxed{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a}$$

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Properties: ① If  $\{a_n\}$  converges then the limit of  $\{a_n\}$  is unique.

② If  $\{a_n\}$  converges then the set  $\{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is bounded.

③ If  $\{a_n\}$  converges then  $\{|a_n|\}$  converges. But converse is not true. For example,  $a_n = (-1)^n$ .

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Examples:  $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$  is convergent.  $\{\frac{1}{n}\} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

$\{2n\}$  is not convergent. (diverges)  $\{(-1)^n\}$  is not convergent. (diverges)

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Let  $a_n \in \mathbb{C}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$\{a_n\} \rightarrow a^*$  iff  $\{\operatorname{Re}(a_n)\} \rightarrow \operatorname{Re}(a^*)$  and  $\{\operatorname{Im}(a_n)\} \rightarrow \operatorname{Im}(a^*)$ .

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Recall: Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence of real numbers.

Define

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \inf \{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\} \right]$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \sup \{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\} \right]$$

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Alternate notation:  $\liminf \equiv \underline{\lim}$ ,  $\limsup \equiv \overline{\lim}$

The concepts of limit inferior and limit superior are defined ONLY for sequence of real numbers.

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Result: ①  $\{a_n\}$  is a sequence of real numbers.  $\limsup a_n$  and  $\liminf a_n$  always exist.

It may be  $-\infty$  or  $+\infty$  also.

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \boxed{\liminf a_n \leq \limsup a_n}$$

③ If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists then

$$\boxed{\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}$$

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### Series of Numbers:

Let  $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of complex numbers. Then,

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots$  is called an (infinite) series of complex numbers.

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When the sum of series can be computed?  
Equivalent to say: When the series converges?

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### Convergence of Series:

Let  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series of complex numbers. Define

the sequence of partial sums as follows.

$$s_1 = a_0$$

$$s_2 = a_0 + a_1$$

$$s_3 = a_0 + a_1 + a_2$$

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$$s_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{n-1}, \text{ and so on.}$$

If there exists a complex number  $s$  such that the sequence  $\{s_n\}$  of partial sums converges to  $s$  then we say that the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  converges and its sum is equal to  $s$ . In this case, we write it as

$$\boxed{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = s}$$

$$\text{Here } s = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n.$$

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Note: If the sequence of partial sums does not converge then we say the series  $\sum a_n$  diverges (= does not converge).

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Examples:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n \text{ converges} \quad \& \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \text{ converges}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \text{ does not converge.}$$

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Result: If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  converges then  $a_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .  
(That is,  $n^{\text{th}}$  term tends to zero)

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Absolute Convergence:

We say that the series  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely if  $\sum |a_n|$  converges.

Example:  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges absolutely.

$\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  converges, but not absolutely.

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Result: If  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely then  $\sum a_n$  converges.

But converse of this result is not true. For example,  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ .

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## Sequences of Functions:

Let  $f_n : D \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ .

Let  $z_0 \in D$ .

Consider the sequence  $\{f_n(z_0)\}$ . It is just a sequence of numbers.

Suppose  $\{f_n(z_0)\}$  converges to a number  $w_0$ .

Define a new function  $g$  at  $z_0$  by

$$g(z_0) = w_0.$$

If  $\{f_n(z_0)\}$  does not converge, then leave it. Take another point.

Similarly, vary the point  $z_0$  in  $D$  and repeat the above process.

Formulating the above idea into a mathematical definition.

(Pointwise) Convergence: Let  $f_n : D \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We say that the sequence  $\{f_n(z)\}$  of functions converges (pointwise) to a function  $g(z)$ , say, in  $D$ , if for each point  $z_0 \in D$  and for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a natural number  $N_0$  (that depends on  $\epsilon$  and may depend on the point  $z_0$  also) such that  $|f_n(z_0) - g(z_0)| < \epsilon$  for  $n \geq N_0$ .

In this case, we write it as

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) = g(z) \text{ for } z \in D$$

(or)

$$\{f_n\} \rightarrow g \text{ on } D$$

$$\text{(or)} \quad \{f_n(z)\} \rightarrow g(z) \text{ for } z \in D.$$

Example:

$$f_n : [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$f_n(x) = x^n \text{ for } x \in [0, 1]$$

Then,

$$f_n(x) \rightarrow g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$f_n: [-1, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f_n(x) = x^n \text{ for } x \in [-1, 1]$$

$$\text{Then, } f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } -1 < x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Note that  $\{f_n\}$  does not converge at the point  $x = -1$ .

Note: In  $\{f_n\} \rightarrow g$  on  $D$ , It may happen that

for a given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N_0$  which depends only on  $\varepsilon$  and not on the points  $z_0$  such that  $|f_n(z_0) - g(z_0)| < \varepsilon$  for  $n \geq N_0$  and for all points  $z_0$  in  $D$

That is, for all points  $z_0$ , the same  $N_0$  will do.

This situation of convergence on the set  $D$  is described as **UNIFORM CONVERGENCE** on the set  $D$ .

Uniform Convergence: Let  $f_n: D \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We say that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  of functions converges uniformly to a function  $g(z)$  on the set  $D$ , if for each  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a natural number  $N^*$  that depends only on  $\varepsilon$  such that

$$|f_n(z) - g(z)| < \varepsilon \text{ for } n \geq N^* \text{ and } \underline{\text{for all } z \text{ in } D}.$$

In this case, we write it as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(z) = g(z)$  uniformly on  $D$

$$\{f_n\} \rightrightarrows g \text{ on } D. \quad (\text{or}) \quad \{f_n\} \xrightarrow{\text{uniformly}} g \text{ on } D$$

$$(\text{or}) \quad \{f_n\} \rightarrow g \text{ (uniformly) on } D.$$



Example:  $f_n(x) = \frac{1}{x+n}$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Set  $g(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $N^* > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ . For example,  $N^* = \text{Integral part of } \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) + 1 \right\} > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ .  
Note  $N^*$  does not depend on the points  $x$ .

Then,  $\left| f_n(x) - g(x) \right| = \left| \frac{1}{x+n} - 0 \right| = \left| \frac{1}{x+n} \right| < \epsilon$  for  $n \geq N^*$   
and for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

Reason:  $n \geq N^* > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ .

Since  $x \geq 0$ ,  $x+n \geq n > \frac{1}{\epsilon} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x+n} < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

Therefore,  $\{f_n\} \rightarrow g$  uniformly on  $[0, 1]$ .

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Absolute Convergence: Let  $f_n: D \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We say that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  of functions converges absolutely in  $D$  if for each point  $z$  in  $D$ , the sequence  $\{|f_n(z)|\}$  converges.

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Example:  $f_n(x) = x^n$  for  $x \in (-1, 1)$  Converges absolutely in  $(-1, 1)$ .  
where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

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Important Note:

Uniform convergence is needed to do the following:

$$\lim \left( \int f_n \right) = \int \left( \lim f_n \right)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n(x) \right)$$

If  $\{f_n\}$  does not converge uniformly, the above identities need not be true.

For details: Read from any Real Analysis Book

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## Series of Functions:

Consider  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z)$ .

Let  $f_n: D \subseteq \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  where  $n=0, 1, \dots$

Define sequence of partial sums functions

$$s_1(z) = f_0(z)$$

$$s_2(z) = f_0(z) + f_1(z)$$

$$s_3(z) = f_0(z) + f_1(z) + f_2(z)$$

$$s_n(z) = f_0(z) + f_1(z) + \dots + f_{n-1}(z), \text{ and so on.}$$

We say that  $\sum f_n(z)$  converges at a point  $z_0$  if the sequence  $\{s_n(z_0)\}$  of partial sums at  $z_0$  converges.

We say that  $\sum f_n(z)$  converges on the set  $D$  if for each point  $z$  in  $D$ , the sequence  $\{s_n(z)\}$  of partial sums converges.

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$$\text{Let } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n(z) = s(z) \text{ for } z \in D.$$

Then, we write it as

$$\boxed{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z) = s(z)} \text{ for } z \in D \text{ and}$$

the function  $s(z)$  is called the sum function of the series  $\sum f_n(z)$ .

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Example:  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}$  for  $x \in (-1, 1)$ .

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$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n = \frac{1}{1-z} \text{ for } |z| < 1$$

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Let  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z)$  be a series of functions.

Let  $\{s_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f_k(z)\}$  be its sequence of partial sums.

If  $\{s_n(z)\}$  converges (pointwise) to  $s(z)$  on  $D$  then we say that the series  $\sum f_n(z)$  converges (pointwise) on  $D$  and we write it as  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z) = s(z)$  for  $z \in D$ .

If  $\{s_n(z)\}$  converges uniformly to  $s(z)$  on the set  $D$  then we say that the series  $\sum f_n(z)$  converges uniformly on  $D$  and we write it as  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z) = s(z)$  for  $z \in D$  (uniformly).

If  $\{t_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} |f_k(z)|\}$  converges (pointwise) on  $D$  then we say that the series  $\sum f_n(z)$  converges absolutely on  $D$ .

### Brief Summary:

Sequence of real/complex Numbers/  
Series of real/complex Numbers

(ordinary)  
Convergence

Absolute  
convergence

Sequence of Functions/  
Series of Functions (and hence for Power Series)

Ordinary/Pointwise  
Convergence

Uniform convergence  
on the set  $D$

Absolute  
Convergence