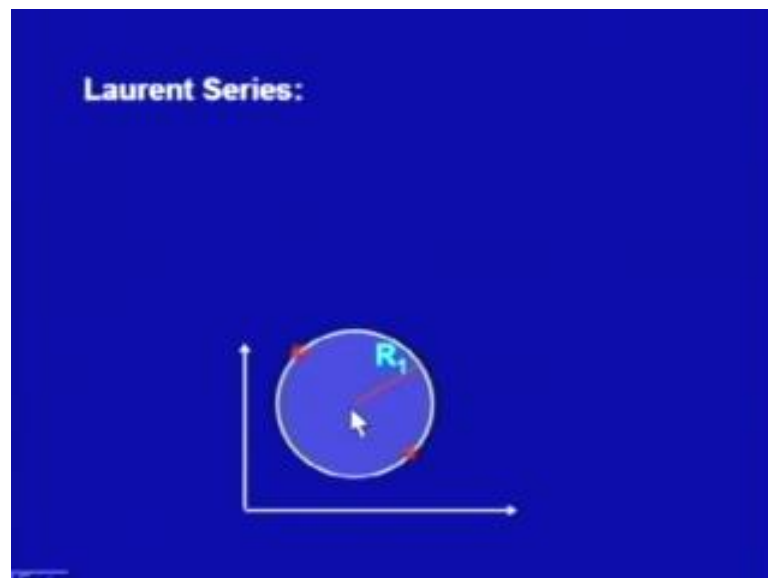


Mathematics - II
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Lecture - 22
Laurent Series

A welcome viewer, today's topic is Laurent Series. Viewers, we have learnt that, a function f of a complex variable z can be represented as a power series, when the function is analytic in a domain.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:48)



Let us say d , in the domain d . We can draw a circle of radius R_1 centred at say z is equal to a . Then, we represent this function f of z in powers of z minus a . And we can say that, this series converges in and its radius of convergence is R . And in this circle, there is no point where function is not analytic. But what happens, if the function is analytic at some points in this domain. Can we represent still, this function f of z as a power series? So, this is the question we are going to answer today. Now, let us say we have a function f of z , which is analytic in two concentric circles c_1 and c_2 , with centre at z is equal to a .


(Refer Slide Time: 01:40)

Laurent Series:

Consider $f(z)$ be analytic on two concentric circles C_1 and C_2 with centre at $z = a$

$f(z)$ is analytic on $|z-a|=R_1, |z-a|=R_2$

$f(z)$ is analytic on $R_2 < |z-a| < R_1$



The idea here is that this function $f(z)$ may not be analytic at some points, inside the bigger circle of radius R_1 . Then, all those points can be enclosed in the circle smallest circle of radius R_2 . And then it is the function will be analytic, throughout in this annular region. That is why we say, if $f(z)$ is analytic on two circles C_1 and C_2 with centre at z is equal to a .

And in other words, we can write it as, that function is analytic on $|z-a| = R_1$. It is a circle of radius R_1 centre at z is equal to a . And another concentric circle, centred at the same point a and of radius R_2 . And together with this, $f(z)$ is analytic inside this annular region.

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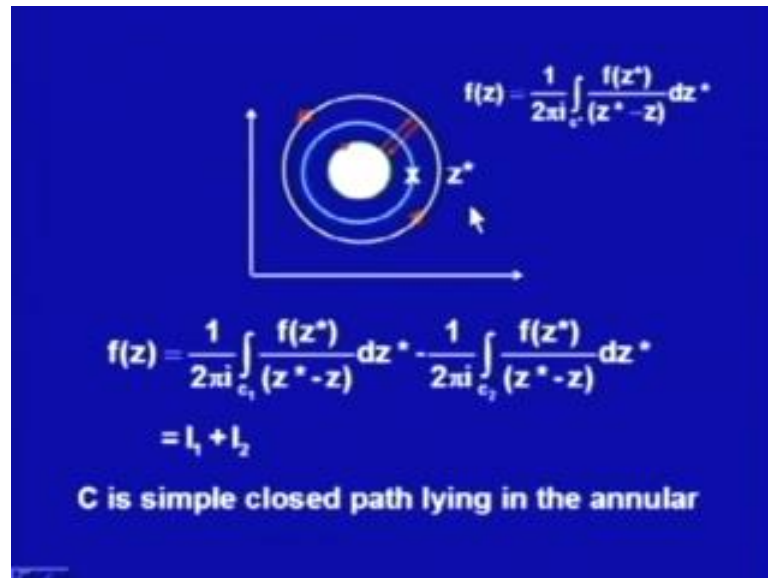
$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{(z-a)^n} \\ &= b_0 + b_1(z-a) + b_2(z-a)^2 + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{c_1}{(z-a)} + \frac{c_2}{(z-a)^2} + \dots \\ b_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^*-a)^{n+1}} dz^* \\ c_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c (z^*-a)^{n-1} f(z^*) dz^* \end{aligned}$$

Then, $f(z)$ can be represented as sum of these two series. The first series is in powers of z minus a and power n , this n is positive. While, in the second series, it is in powers of z minus a , n being negative. So, first series n varies from 0 to infinity. While, in the second series n varies from 1 to infinity. In the first series z minus a appear in the numerator. And here, it appears in the denominator.

And with this, in the expanded form the function $f(z)$ can be expressed as b_0 plus $b_1(z-a)$, plus $b_2(z-a)^2$ plus, and so on. And the second series, will look like as c_1 divided by z minus a , plus c_2 divided by z minus a square, and so on. Here the coefficients b_n . They are expressed as $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ integral over c , a close curve and the integrand is $f(z^*)$ divided by z^* minus a raise to power n plus 1 into dz^* .

Here, z^* is a point on this close curve c . While, the coefficients c_n in the second series. They are obtained as $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ integral over the close contour. And the integrand is $(z^*-a)^{n-1} f(z^*) dz^*$. Here again, this point z^* will lie on the close curve c .

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Now, to prove this result. We consider the function $f(z)$ as analytic inside this annular region. So, we consider a close curve c star s . This outer circle in the anticlockwise sense and in a circle in the clockwise sense. And then we join these two circles by cut. And there are two lines parallel to each other. The one going in the forward direction, another in the backward direction.

And accordingly, the c star will be, if we start from this point, will look like a close curve starting from this point, moving along this line. Then, moving along the outer circle in anticlockwise direction. Then, coming back to this point along this line, but opposite to this. And then moving along the inner circle in clockwise direction. So, this makes the curve c star.

It is a closed curve. This being a cut and function is analytic throughout in this region. With this definition to c star, we can apply Cauchy integral formula. And according to this, the analytic function $f(z)$ in this domain is $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c \text{ star}} \frac{f(z^*)}{z^* - z} dz^*$. And the integrand is $f(z^*)$ divided by $z^* - z$ dz^* , where z is any point inside this region, where $f(z^*)$ is analytic. And it is inside the closed curve c star.

To simplify this expression, we consider c star, to be consisting of the four curves, c_1 these two straight lines and c_2 . So, expressing this c star in these four curves will have four such integrals, but integral corresponding to these two straight lines. They will cancel out each other, because the orientation of the curve is just opposite. So, we will be

having only two integrals. One along this outer curve in anticlockwise direction. And another along this inner circle in clockwise direction.

And because of this, will have a negative sign here. This is positive direction is taken as anticlockwise direction and the negative direction is taken as this clockwise direction. So, will represent $f(z)$ in these two integrals. And accordingly, we write $f(z)$ as sum of these two integrals I_1 plus I_2 . Now, we consider c is simple closed path lying along this annular and z is a point on this.

Now, we will not consider these two integrals along this curve or this curve. Rather we will consider these integrals along this curve. The idea is, you can contract you can shrink this outer circle to this, since there is no point, where function is analytic. So, integral along this curve is the same as integral on this curve. And similarly, you can expand this inner circle come to this circle.

And since there are no points, where this function ceases to be analytic. So, you can expand this to this curve c . I call this curve as c . So now onwards, we evaluate these 2 integrals on this curve c .

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$$\frac{1}{z-z^*} = \frac{1}{z^*-a-(z-a)} = \frac{1}{(z^*-a) \left[1 - \frac{z-a}{z^*-a} \right]}$$

$$I_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c_1} \frac{f(z^*)}{z^*-z} dz^* \quad \left| \frac{z-a}{z^*-a} \right| < 1$$

$$\frac{1}{z-z^*} = \frac{1}{(z^*-a)} \left[1 + \frac{z-a}{z^*-a} + \left(\frac{z-a}{z^*-a} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{z-a}{z^*-a} \right)^3 + \dots \right]$$

$$I_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{z^*-a} dz^* + \frac{(z-a)}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^*-a)^2} dz^* + \dots$$

$$+ \frac{(z-a)^n}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^*-a)^{n+1}} dz^* + R_n(z)$$

Now, to evaluate these 2 integrals, i will write 1 upon z minus z^* , 1 upon z^* minus a minus z minus a by adding and subtracting a in the denominator. And then z^* minus a is taken outside, and will have 1 minus z minus a divided by z^* minus a .

Now, on the integral I_1 , where we are integrating over the outer curve c_1 . One may notice that, z minus a divided by z^* minus a , its magnitude is less than 1.

Because, z lies in the annular part and z^* lies on the outer boundary, so z^* will be far away than z . So, z minus a over z^* minus a modulus is less than 1. So, if this is the case, then the integrand 1 upon z minus z^* can be expanded in the, can be expanded by the geometrical series, as 1 over z^* minus a into 1 plus z minus a over z^* minus a , plus z minus a divided by z^* minus a whole square and so on.

So, here we have expanded this function in powers of z minus a divided by z^* minus a , z minus a over z^* minus a modulus being less than 1. So, this series is convergent. So, we are writing this integral. This part of the integrand 1 upon z minus z^* is this. So, this will be substituted in the integral I_1 . So, we multiply this series by $f(z^*)$ integrate over the curve c_1 and then multiply by 1 upon $2\pi i$.

This we do for each and every term. So, first term will give me 1 upon $2\pi i$. And integrand is $f(z^*)$ over z^* minus a $d z^*$ integrated over c , plus z minus a into $2\pi i$. And then the integrand is $f(z^*)$, z^* minus a whole square $d z^*$ and so on. Here, we have assumed that, when we take integral of this, then we can actually integrate it term wise. So, it is this integral is an infinite series. And when we integrate, then integrand can be in a integrated term wise. Of course, we have not proved this so far, but at the moment we are taking it for granted. So, if we express, I_1 in this form. Then, these are the first terms.

(Refer Slide Time: 11:47)

$$R_n(z) = \frac{(z-a)^{n+1}}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^*-a)^{n+1}(z^*-z)} dz^*$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(z) = 0$$

$$I_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{z^*-a} dz^* + \frac{(z-a)}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^*-a)^2} dz^* + \dots$$

$$I_1 = b_0 + b_1(z-a) + b_2(z-a)^2 + \dots + b_n(z-a)^n + \dots$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^*-a)^{n+1}} dz^*$$

And then after n terms remaining terms are represented as $R_n(z)$, where $R_n(z)$ is $(z-a)^{n+1}$ over $2\pi i$ integral c of $f(z^*)$ divided by $(z^*-a)^{n+1}(z^*-z)$ into dz^* . Now, as we have done in the case of Taylor series. This expression will tend to 0 as n will tend to infinity.

And accordingly, I_1 will be $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{z^*-a} dz^*$, plus $(z-a)$ divided by $2\pi i$ integral c of $f(z^*)$ divided by $(z^*-a)^2$ into dz^* and so on. So, in this way, if we express this coefficient as b_0 and this the second coefficient of, the coefficient in the second term is $(z-a)$ and we represent it as b_1 and so on.

So, I_1 will be $b_0 + b_1(z-a) + b_2(z-a)^2 + \dots + b_n(z-a)^n + \dots$ and the n th term being $b_n(z-a)^n$ and so on. So, this is an infinite series, $R_n(z)$ being tending to 0. Here the general term b_n can be given by the formula, $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^*-a)^{n+1}} dz^*$. Here, I am writing the contour integral over c . Because, I am replacing c_1 by c , the expression is given earlier.

(Refer Slide Time: 13:34)

$$I_2 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_2} \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^* - z)} dz^*, \quad \left| \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right| < 1$$

$$\frac{1}{z^* - z} = \frac{1}{z^* - a - (z - a)} = \frac{-1}{(z - a) \left[1 - \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right]}$$

$$\frac{1}{z - z^*} = -\frac{1}{(z - a)} \left[1 + \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} + \left(\frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right)^n + \dots \right]$$

Then, we have to evaluate I_2 . Now to evaluate I_2 , which is $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ integral over C_2 of $f(z^*)$ over $z^* - z$ dz^* . And here, I will consider $z^* - a$ over $z - a$ magnitude is less than 1. Because, C_2 is the inner curve and $z^* - a$ will be smaller than the point in the annulus region $z - a$. So, $z^* - a$ divided by $z - a$ modulus is less than 1.

So, assuming this, I can expand $\frac{1}{z^* - z}$ the part of this integrand. As $\frac{1}{z^* - z} = \frac{-1}{(z - a) \left[1 - \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right]}$ and then $z - a$ can be taken out. And this will be $-\frac{1}{z - a} \left[1 - \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right]^{-1}$. So, this minus will be observed with I_2 .

And accordingly, if we expand it in geometric progression, we will have $\frac{1}{z - z^*} = -\frac{1}{z - a} \left[1 + \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} + \left(\frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right)^n + \dots \right]$ into $1 + \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} + \left(\frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right)^2 + \dots$ and so on. And, n th term is $\frac{z^* - a}{z - a}$ raised to the power n . And this series is a geometric series, which will be convergent under this given condition.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:21)

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_2 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{c_2} \frac{f(z^*)}{z^* - z} dz^* \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[\frac{1}{z - a} \int_{c_2} f(z^*) dz^* + \frac{1}{(z - a)^2} \int_{c_2} (z^* - a) f(z^*) dz^* + \dots \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \frac{1}{(z - a)^{n+1}} \int_{c_2} (z^* - a)^n f(z^*) dz^* + R_n^*(z) \right] \\
 R_n^*(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i (z - a)^{n+1}} \int_{c_2} (z^* - a)^n \frac{f(z^*)}{z^* - z} dz^*
 \end{aligned}$$

So, once we have done this, then we can again move. We can again proceed in the similar manner. That is, I multiply that expression by 1 upon by 2 pi i and f z star. And then integrate over the curve c 2. And, if you proceed in this particular manner will have I 2 is equal to 1 upon 2 pi i, and 1 upon z minus a will be taken out. And will have f z star d z star as the first term, plus in the second term.

We can take, 1 upon z minus a square, outside the integral sign. Because, we are integrating, with respect to z star and this does not involve z star. So, this can be taken out and will have integrand of the second term is z star minus a into f z star d z star. And again, we have replaced this curve c 2 by c. So, this way we can have general term as this. And the remaining term are observed, in the remainder R n star z. The reminder term R n star z is written as this.

(Refer Slide Time: 16:32)

The value of the integral is not altered by replacing C_2 by C

$$I_2 = \frac{c_1}{z-a} + \frac{c_2}{(z-a)^2} + \dots + \frac{c_n}{(z-a)^n} + \dots$$

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C (z^* - a)^{n-1} f(z^*) dz^*$$

$$R_n^*(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i (z-a)^{n+1}} \int_C (z^* - a)^{n+1} \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^* - z)} dz^*$$

$$\left| \frac{f(z^*)}{z - z^*} \right| < M \quad f(z) \text{ is analytic on } C_2$$

Now, the value of the integral is not, altered by replacing c_2 by c . This I have already explained. And then I_2 will be represented as, c_1 divided by z minus a , plus c_2 divided by z minus a square and n th term being z minus a raised to the power n , c_n divided by z minus a raised to the power n and so on where the coefficients c_1, c_2, c_n 's. They are given by this general formula, that is c_n is equal to 1 upon $2\pi i$, integral over C . And, the integrand is z star minus a raised to the power n minus 1 , if the value 1 and $f(z)$ star, $d z$ star. So, this is my c_n and then $R_n^*(z)$. As we have expressed it as this. And from here, one may notice that $f(z)$ star divided by z minus z star modulus is less than M , $f(z)$ being analytic on the curve C_2 .

(Refer Slide Time: 17:36)

$$\left| R_n^*(z) \right| < \frac{1}{2\pi |z-a|^{n+1}} |z^* - a|^{n+1} ML$$

$$= M \left| \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right|^{n+1}$$

$$\left| \frac{z^* - a}{z - a} \right| < 1$$

$$R_n^*(z) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

And modulus of $R_n \star z$ will be less than modulus of $1 \text{ upon } 2 \pi i$, which is 2π . And then z modulus of $z \text{ minus } a$ raise to power $n \text{ plus } 1$ multiplied by $z \text{ star minus } a$ raise to power $n \text{ plus } 1$ into $M \text{ times } L$. And L happens to be 2π . So, we will have this integral is $M \text{ times } z \text{ star minus } a$ divided by $z \text{ minus } a$ raise to power $n \text{ plus } 1$. And since this term is less than 1, this modulus is less than 1.

So, as n tending to infinity, this term will become smaller and smaller and ultimately. $R_n \star z$ will tend to 0 as n tending to infinity. With this, we have been able to represent the function $f(z)$ in powers of $z \text{ minus } a$. And in this series, we have both positive powers of $z \text{ minus } a$, as well as negative powers of $z \text{ minus } a$. So, let us illustrate this, with the help of an example.

(Refer Slide Time: 18:47)

Example: Find Laurent series of given function with center at $z=1$

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

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1-z^2} = -\left[\frac{1}{1+z} \cdot \frac{1}{z-1} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{1+z} = \frac{1}{2+(z-1)} = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{z-1}{2} \right) \right]^{-1}$$

$$|(z-1)/2| < 1 \text{ or } |z-1| < 2$$

$$\frac{1}{1+z} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z-1}{2} \right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} (z-1)^n$$

So here, we have to find the Laurent series for the given function $f(z)$ is equal to $1 \text{ upon } 1 \text{ minus } z \text{ square}$ with centre at z is equal to 1. One may notice that this function $f(z)$ has this function $f(z)$ is not analytic at z is equal to 1. We can express this function $f(z)$ in the form $1 \text{ upon } 1 \text{ plus } z$ into $1 \text{ upon } z \text{ minus } 1$. And I have taken minus, outside to make it $1 \text{ minus } z \text{ square}$. So, this function is not analytic at z is equal to 1.

As well as at z is equal to minus 1. But, since we have to find Laurent expansion about z is equal to 1. So, we are concerned about, it is analyticity, at z is equal to 1. Now, this is already in powers of $z \text{ minus } 1$. So, if we express $1 \text{ upon } 1 \text{ plus } z$ in powers of $z \text{ minus } 1$. Then, we are through. So, to express this in powers of $z \text{ minus } 1$, we rewrite $1 \text{ upon } 1$

plus z as 1 divided by 2 plus z minus 1 . And then two can take out and will have 1 minus z minus 1 divided by 2 raise to the power minus 1 .

And assuming z minus 1 divided by 2 is less than 1 , or z minus 1 modulus is less than 2 . Then, this term will be, less than it is modulus will be less than 1 . And then we will be able to expand it in power series, in powers of z minus 1 . So, to do this, we write, 1 upon 1 plus z is equal to half of minus minus times z minus 1 divided by 2 raise to the power n , n takes values from 0 to infinity. So we have expressed this, in compact form. And this way, we will simplify it to be n is equal to 0 to infinity summation minus 1 raise to the power n 2 divided by n plus 1 , and here we have z minus 1 raise to the power n .

(Refer Slide Time: 20:56)

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1-z^2} = -\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} (z-1)^n \frac{1}{z-1} \right]$$

The region of convergence of the series is $0 < |z-1| < 2$

And this gives me, the $f(z)$ representation of 1 upon 1 minus z square s minus summation n is equal to 0 to infinity minus 1 raise to the power of n , 2 raise to the power n plus 1 in the denominator. And z minus 1 raise to the power n , multiplied by 1 upon z minus 1 . So, this is in powers of z minus 1 , the region of convergence of this series is modulus z minus 1 , lying between, 0 to 2 .

Because, there is another point which is at a distance 2 from z minus 1 , where function ceases to be analytic and that point is minus 1 . Therefore, we consider modulus of z minus 1 is less than 2 modulus of z minus 1 is greater than 0 is will take care. That z is equal to 1 is not included in the annulus, where the function needs to be analytic. And only then Laurent series will be applicable.

So, the real of convergence of this series is modulus of z minus 1 lying between 0 and 2. That is, what has been shown here, now at z is equal to 1 and z is equal to minus 1. The given function is not analytic. And that is, why we enclose this point by this z minus 1 modulus greater than 0 this circle. And this is the point, where function is not analytic. So, this distance is 2. So, in this annulus region function is a represented by this series. And, this is a region of convergence.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:45)

$$\begin{aligned}
 & |2/(z-1)| < 1 \text{ or } |z-1| > 2 \\
 & \frac{1}{1+z} = \frac{1}{2+(z-1)} = \frac{1}{z-1} \left[1 + \left(\frac{2}{z-1} \right) \right]^{-1} \\
 & = \frac{1}{z-1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{2}{z-1} \right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-2)^n}{(z-1)^{n+1}} \\
 & \text{This series is convergent in disk } |z-1| > 2 \\
 & \text{The Laurent series expansion is} \\
 & \frac{-1}{(z-1)(z+1)} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{2^{n+1}} (z-1)^{n-1} \text{ for } 0 < |z-1| < 2 \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-2)^n}{(z-1)^{n+2}} \text{ for } |z-1| > 2 \end{array} \right.
 \end{aligned}$$

In the outer part, when z minus 1 is greater than 2. There is no singular point outside this. And we can write down to upon z minus 1, modulus is less than 1. And in this region, we can expand 1 over 1 plus z in this form. Here, 2 upon z minus 1 is less than 1. So, we can again expand in power series and will have 1 upon z minus 1.

Summation n is equal to 0 to infinity. And here, we have minus 2 upon z minus 1 raise to the power n. And the series will be minus 2 raise to power n divided by z minus 1 raise to power n plus 1. Summation will take values from 0 to infinity. So, this series is convergent in the disk, when z minus 1 is greater than 2. So, we have one representation inside the z minus 1 less than 2. And this is the representation when z minus 1 is greater than 2.

So, we have two representations and the Laurent expansion. This way is given as minus 1 over z minus 1 multiplied by z plus 1 is represented by this power series in this region

$z - 1$ lying between 0 to 2 and when modulus of $z - 1$ is greater than 2. Then, we got this expansion.

(Refer Slide Time: 24:15)

Example: Expand in power series $f(z) = \frac{z+1}{z-1}$

- > Analytic at $z=0$
- > Not analytic at $z=1$
- > Functions can be expressed in power series about $z=0$

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

This series is convergent for $|z| < 1$

So this is one example. In the next example, we consider function $f(z)$ as $z + 1$ divided by $z - 1$. When we notice that this is analytic at $z = 0$. It is not analytic at $z = 1$. And function can be expressed in power series about $z = 0$. Because, a function is analytic at $z = 0$. This will be the Taylor series representation of this function.

So, $f(z)$ will be given by $1 - \frac{2}{1-z}$, and this $\frac{1}{1-z}$ can be expressed in powers of z . And we will have this expansion and accordingly, we will have this after simplification. And finally, we will have $f(z) = -1 - 2z + 2z^2 - 2z^3 + \dots$ and so on which will be convergent for modulus $z < 1$. Because about $z = 0$, if we draw circle, then if the radius becomes 1. Then $z = 1$ will be a singularity lying on the circle. And then series will not be convergence. So we say this series is convergent for modulus $z < 1$.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:33)

Power series for $|z| > 1$ will be obtained as
Laurent Series

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{z+1}{z\left(1-\frac{1}{z}\right)} = \left(1+\frac{1}{z}\right)\left(1+\frac{1}{z}+\frac{1}{z^2}+\frac{1}{z^3}+\dots\right) \\ &= 1+\frac{1}{z}+\frac{1}{z^2}+\frac{1}{z^3}+\dots+\left(\frac{1}{z}+\frac{1}{z^2}+\frac{1}{z^3}+\dots\right) \\ &= 1+\frac{2}{z}+\frac{2}{z^2}+\frac{2}{z^3}+\dots, \quad |z| > 1 \end{aligned}$$

But, power series for modulus z greater than 1 will be obtained as Laurent series. And for this, we write down the denominator in the form. As this, I have taken z outside. So, it is 1 minus 1 upon z in the denominator. And here, we expand this, this also z can be taken out. So, it is 1 plus 1 upon z the numerator and in the denominator is expanded as this. And what we have $f(z)$ if you multiply these terms will be simplifying to this series.

And further simplification will give me, 1 plus 2 upon z , plus 2 upon z square, plus 2 upon z cube and so on modulus z is greater than 1. And here, you may notice that the terms are appearing in the denominator or that we have negative powers of z . So, it is a Laurent series, Laurent series expansion of the function. But, it is valid for modulus z greater than 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:37)

Power series in powers of $(z-2)$ $f(z) = \frac{z+1}{z-1}$
Analytic at $z=2$
Taylor series can be used to expand the function
$$f(z) = \frac{z+1}{z-1} = \frac{z+1}{z-2+1} = \frac{z+1}{1+(z-2)}$$
$$= (z+1)[1 - (z-2) + (z-2)^2 - \dots], |z-2| < 1$$
At $z=1$, function $f(z)$ is not analytic
The distance between center $z=2$ and $z=1$ is 1
Radius of convergence for the series is $R=1$

The power series in if we have to express the same function, but now in powers of z minus 2. Then we may notice that, this function is analytic at z is equal to 2. So, Taylor series can be used to expand this function. And again, we simplify this term, so that we can expand in powers of z minus 2. So, we write down the function in this manner. And then expand the denominator in powers of z minus 2 provided z minus 2 is less than 1.

Otherwise, this will not be convergent. And then at z is equal to 1 function $f z$ is not analytic. So, the distance between centre z is equal to 2. And the point, where function is not analytic is 1. So that is why we say the radius of convergence for the series is R is equal to 1 and we have Taylor series expansion.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:38)

For $|z-2|>1$, Laurent series can be obtained

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

Let $q=1/(z-2)$, $|1/(z-2)|<1$

$$= \frac{z+1}{z-2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{1}{z-2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{z-2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{z-2}\right)^3 + \dots \right)$$
$$= (z+1) \left[\frac{1}{z-2} - \left(\frac{1}{z-2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{z-2}\right)^3 - \dots \right] \quad |z-2|>1$$

But, for modulus z minus 2 greater than 1, Laurent series can be obtained. And we have f as z plus 1 divided by z minus 1. We again rewrite it and since our domain is modulus z minus 2 is greater than 1. So, we will now take z minus 2. Outside and will have 1 upon z minus 2 in the denominator. So simplifying this taking q as 1 upon z minus 2 and modulus of q is less than 1.

And, expanding it, it is z plus 1 divided by z minus 2 in powers of 1 upon z minus 2. This is the geometric series. And simplifying it, it is z plus 1 multiplied by 1 upon z minus 2 minus 1 upon z minus 2 whole square and so on. And the region is z minus 2 is greater than 1, because after that there is no point, where function is not analytic. So this is the region of, convergence for the Laurent series.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:48)

Example: Laurent expansion of $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z^2}$
 $f(z)$ is not analytic at $z=0$

Consider the circle $C: |z| < 1$

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{(z-a)^n}$$
$$b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z^*)}{(z^* - a)^{n+1}} dz^*$$
$$c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C (z^* - a)^{n-1} f(z^*) dz^*$$

Now, this example is slightly different. So far, we have function which we can use. We have functions and we are using geometric series expansion for obtaining the Laurent series. But in this example, we will be using and the Laurent series expansion. And the formulae, which we have derived just now so let us, consider $f(z)$ as $\sin z$ upon z square and since $f(z)$ is not analytic at z is equal to 0.

So, we consider the circle, c modulus z is less than 1. Then in this circle, we can write down $f(z)$ as $b_n z$ minus a raise to the power n , plus summation n is equal to 1 to infinity $c_n z$ minus a raise to the power of n . So, this is a negative power of n and this series in positive powers of z minus a . And here we have to consider that $\text{mod } z$ is positive. And the formulae for b_n and c_n , they are obtained as we have already done it.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:54)

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore f(z) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{z^n} \\ b_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{\sin z}{z^{n+3}} dz \\ c_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c z^{n-1} \frac{\sin z}{z^2} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c z^{n-3} \sin z dz \\ \text{Since } \sin z \text{ is analytic, } c_n &= 0 \text{ for } n \geq 3. \\ c_1 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c z^{-2} \sin z dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \times \frac{2\pi i (\sin z)' \big|_{z=0}}{1!} = 1 \\ c_2 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c z^{-1} \sin z dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \times \frac{2\pi i \sin(0)}{0!} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, let us, use this formulae to obtain, b_n and c_n . So accordingly, it is $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ integral sign z divided by z raise to power $n+3$ dz . So, this is the formula for b_n and for c_n the formula is $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ z into n z raise to the power $n-1$ multiplied by $\sin z$ divided by z square. This is by function $f(z)$. So this simplifies to integrand, z raise to power $n-3$ $\sin z$ dz and $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ has to be multiplied.

So this, the formula for b_n and c_n , since $\sin z$ is analytic. So, c_n is equal to 0 for n greater than equal to 3. So if n is greater than equal to 3. So these terms will not be appearing. And all c_n 's will be 0 for n greater than equal to 3. So, we need to calculate only c_1 , c_2 , c_3 etcetera. They are going to be 0. So c_1 is given by $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ z raise to the power minus 2 $\sin z$ dz .

And this is equal to $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ into $2\pi i$ $\sin z$ derivative divided by factorial 1. So, this is the formula, which I will be making use of. And this derivative is evaluated at z is equal to 0. So, if you simplify, this comes out to be 1. This and this will get cancelled and derivative of $\sin z$ is $\cos z$, which is the evaluated z is equal to 0 gives me 1. So, this is c_1 .

Similarly, c_2 will be z raise to minus 1 $\sin z$ dz . And according to the formula, we have $\frac{1}{2\pi i}$ into $2\pi i$ \sin function evaluated at z is equal to 0 divided by factorial 0. And this comes $\sin 0$ being 0. This comes out to be 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:58)

$$\begin{aligned}b_0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{\text{Sin}z}{z^3} dz = \frac{(\text{sin}z)''|_{z=0}}{2!} = 0 \\b_1 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{\text{Sin}z}{z^4} dz = \frac{(\text{sin}z)'''}{3!}|_{z=0} = -\frac{1}{6} \\b_2 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{\text{Sin}z}{z^5} dz = \frac{(\text{sin}z)^{(4)}|_{z=0}}{4!} = 0 \\b_3 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{\text{Sin}z}{z^6} dz = \frac{(\text{sin}z)^{(5)}|_{z=0}}{5!} = \frac{1}{120} \\ \therefore f(z) &= \frac{1}{z} - \frac{z}{6} + \frac{z^3}{120} - \dots |z| > 0\end{aligned}$$

So, this is c_1 and c_2 ((Refer Time: 31:58)) is 0, so will have z cube over 120 and so on. And it is convergent for modulus z greater than 0. So, this is Laurent series expansion for the given function $f(z)$. Now, we come to uniform convergence up to this point. We are using number of results. We are term by term multiplying series. We are integrating terms of this series and so on.

Without bothering, whether this is possible or not. But here, I will discuss uniform convergence of the series first. And then we will see that for power series. This term by term differentiation and integration is possible.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:55)

Uniform convergence
Consider a series
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z) = f_0(z) + f_1(z) + f_2(z) + \dots + f_n(z) + \dots$$
Let the sum converges for all z in a region G.
S(z) is the sum and S_n(z) is nth partial sum
Convergence of series means we can find N
for every given $\epsilon > 0$ such that
$$|S(z) - S_n(z)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall n > N(\epsilon, z)$$
Note that N depends upon both z as well as ϵ

So, to define uniform convergence, consider a series of functions of z . And so, we have n is equal to 0 to infinity. Summation f and z , which is $f_0(z) + f_1(z) + f_2(z) + \dots + f_n(z)$ and so on. So this series is considered. Let the sum converges for all z in a region G . And $S(z)$ be the sum of this series. And $S_n(z)$ is the n th partial sum of this series.

Then convergence of series means that we can find N for every given ϵ greater than 0 such that $|S(z) - S_n(z)| < \epsilon$. For all $n > N$, capital N , which will depend upon the ϵ we choose. And the point z at which the convergence of the function is convergence of the series is considered. This is the meaning of convergence. Note that N depends upon both z as well as ϵ .

(Refer Slide Time: 34:05)

If we can find N for independent of z for every given $\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$|S(z) - S_n(z)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall n > N(\epsilon) \text{ for all } z \in G$$

Then series is uniformly convergent

- > Convergence is pointwise
- > Uniform convergence is for a domain

However, if we can find capital N which is independent of z for every given epsilon greater than 0 such that the difference between $S(z)$ and $S_n(z)$. Its modulus is less than epsilon. For all n independent of z , it is a function of epsilon only. Then we say that, the series is uniformly convergent. So accordingly, convergence is point wise that means we say, the series is convergent at z is equal to a . And uniform convergence, is for a domain. So, ((Refer Time: 34:45)) we can find the capital N irrespective of z . In that domain, so uniform convergence is for a domain.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:56)

Theorem: Consider the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$$

Let it has a radius of convergence $R > 0$.
Then it is uniformly convergent in the domain $|z-a| \leq r < R$

Proof: $S_n(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a_n (z-a)^n$

Since each term in the series is continuous in $|z-a| \leq r$

$$\begin{aligned} & |a_{n+1}(z-a)^{n+1} + a_{n+2}(z-a)^{n+2} + \dots + a_{n+p}(z-a)^{n+p}| \\ & \leq |a_{n+1}|r^{n+1} + |a_{n+2}|r^{n+2} + \dots + |a_{n+p}|r^{n+p} \end{aligned}$$

Now, we establish a theorem, regarding power series. We say that if we have this power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$, z minus a raised to the power n , n is varying from 0 to infinity. That is a power series centre at z is equal to a . Then, it has a radius of convergence R greater than 0. So, this power series will have a radius of convergence. R greater than zero, if this is true then this is uniformly convergent in the domain z minus a , which is less than equal to r .

For some r , which will be smaller than capital R that is the region of convergence. So, the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n$ will always be uniformly convergent in this domain. Now to prove this, let us consider S_n z partial sum as $\sum_{n=0}^N a_n (z-a)^n$. It is a sum of n terms, so it is 0 to N minus 1. So, this is partial sum.

Since each term in the series is continuous in z minus a less than equal to r . Because, each term of this series is a power in z . So, each term will be continuous in this region. So, we can say that $a_{n+1} (z-a)^{n+1} + a_{n+2} (z-a)^{n+2} + \dots + a_{n+p} (z-a)^{n+p}$ multiplied by z minus a raised to power n plus.

So this is sum of p terms after a_n this is less than $a_{n+1} r^{n+1} + a_{n+2} r^{n+2} + \dots + a_{n+p} r^{n+p}$ multiplied by r raised to the power n plus 1. This being less than r plus $a_{n+2} r^{n+2} + \dots + a_{n+p} r^{n+p}$ modulus. These may be these coefficients may be imaginary. So, we have to consider modulus here and r raised to the power n plus 2 plus. And the last term is $a_{n+p} r^{n+p}$ modulus into r raised to the power n plus p . So this sum is less than sum of these terms. so, the triangular inequality is applied.

(Refer Slide Time: 37:25)

**Absolutely convergence in $|z-a| = r < R$
 $\Rightarrow N(\epsilon)$ can be chosen for given $\epsilon > 0$, such
that**

$$|a_{n+1}|r^{n+1} + |a_{n+2}|r^{n+2} + L + |a_{n+p}|r^{n+p} < \epsilon, \text{ for } n > N(\epsilon)$$
$$\Rightarrow |a_{n+1}(z-a)^{n+1} + a_{n+2}(z-a)^{n+2} + L + a_{n+p}(z-a)^{n+p}| < \epsilon$$

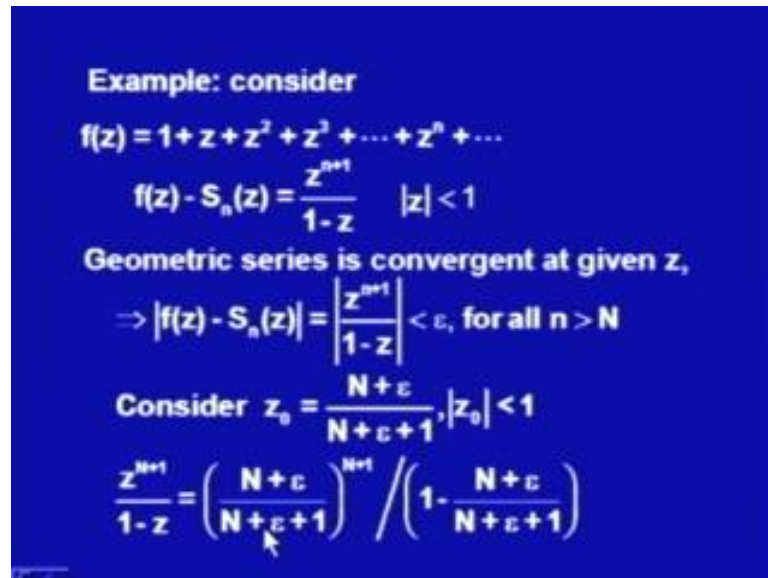
**For all z in the disk $|z-a| \leq r$ and every $n > N(\epsilon)$
and $p=1,2,\dots$**

**Since $N(\epsilon)$ is independent of z , this shows
the uniform convergence of power series**

So, absolute convergence in z minus a is equal to r , which is less than R . So, we can say that, N epsilon can be chosen for given epsilon positive, such that this condition is satisfied. For n greater than N epsilon; that means, we can find epsilon such that this condition is satisfied. We can find n such that this condition is satisfied. So, this is true.

For all z in this disk, z minus a modules less than equal to r and for every n greater than N epsilon and for p is equal to 1 2 and so on. So, we can say that since N epsilon is independent of z . This follows the uniform convergence of power series. So, it does not depend upon z and the series is uniformly convergent. So, power series is uniformly convergent.

(Refer Slide Time: 38:31)



Example: consider

$$f(z) = 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots + z^n + \dots$$
$$f(z) - S_n(z) = \frac{z^{n+1}}{1-z} \quad |z| < 1$$

Geometric series is convergent at given z,

$$\Rightarrow |f(z) - S_n(z)| = \left| \frac{z^{n+1}}{1-z} \right| < \epsilon, \text{ for all } n > N$$

Consider $z_0 = \frac{N+\epsilon}{N+\epsilon+1}, |z_0| < 1$

$$\frac{z^{N+1}}{1-z} = \left(\frac{N+\epsilon}{N+\epsilon+1} \right)^{N+1} / \left(1 - \frac{N+\epsilon}{N+\epsilon+1} \right)$$

Now, we consider this power series 1 plus z Plus z square plus z cube. This is geometric series and we know that this f z minus S n z, that is partial sum. The difference between f z and partial sum is z raise to the power n plus 1 over 1 minus z, modulus z is less than 1. This is the result, which we have already established. And the geometric series is convergent at any given z.

So we can say that, modulus of minus S n z is equal to modulus of z raise to the power n plus 1 over 1 minus z less than epsilon. For all n greater than N, so this is for a given z. Now we say that, if we consider z naught as slightly different point. N plus epsilon divided by N plus epsilon plus 1. So, we can notice that still z nought is less than 1. But for this z naught, we can say that z raise to the power n plus 1 over 1 minus z. If you simplify this expression this comes out to be this.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:39)

$$\frac{z^{N+1}}{1-z} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{N+\epsilon+1}\right)^{N+1} / \left(\frac{1}{N+\epsilon+1}\right)$$

Since $(1-x)^n > 1-nx$ for $0 < x < 1$

$$\frac{z^{N+1}}{1-z} > \left(1 - \frac{N+1}{N+\epsilon+1}\right) / \left(\frac{1}{N+\epsilon+1}\right)$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{z^{N+1}}{1-z} > \epsilon \quad \therefore |f(z) - S_n(z)| = \left|\frac{z^{N+1}}{1-z}\right| > \epsilon$$

Geometric series is not uniformly convergent when z close to 1

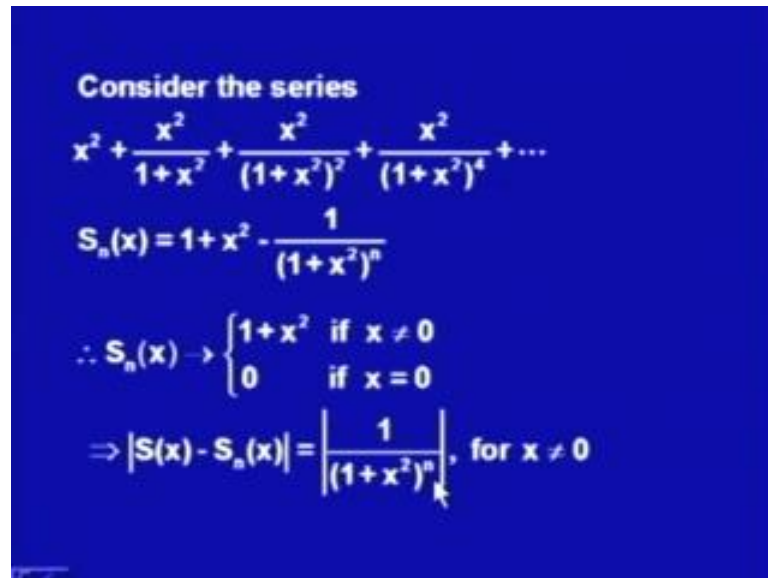
Geometric series is uniformly convergent in $|z| < r < 1$

And further simplification, yields this and from here, we may notice that 1 minus x raise to power n is greater than 1 minus n x. When x lies between 0 to 1 and this gives me z raise to the power n plus 1 upon 1 minus z is greater than this expression. Or if we further simplify, we say z raise to the power n plus 1 over 1 minus z is greater than epsilon; that means, the N which we have consider will not work for this specially. When we are when z is very close to 1.

So, $f(z) - S_n(z)$ is equal to z raise to the power n plus 1 over 1 minus z greater than epsilon. So geometric series is not uniformly convergent. When z is very close to 1, so there is a neighbourhood, there is a region very close to z, is equal to 1, where this condition is satisfied. And whatever n we have computed. For given x will not work for a different z. So this means that it is not uniformly convergent.

However, if we apply the result of earlier theorem then geometric series is uniformly convergent, in z modulus z less than r. So, there exist some r which will be in which the geometric series will be uniformly convergent. But, it will not be convergent throughout modulus z less than 1. There has to be some r in which this series is uniformly convergent.

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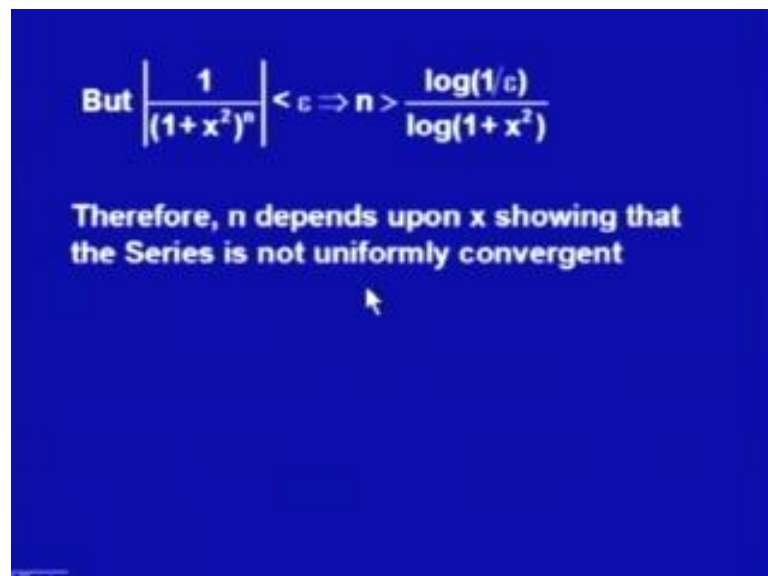
A blue slide with white text. It starts with "Consider the series" followed by the series $x^2 + \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} + \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^2} + \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^3} + \dots$. Below that is the partial sum $S_n(x) = 1+x^2 - \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^n}$. Then it shows the limit $\therefore S_n(x) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 1+x^2 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$. Finally, it shows the error term $\Rightarrow |S(x) - S_n(x)| = \left| \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^n} \right|, \text{ for } x \neq 0$.

Consider the series

$$x^2 + \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} + \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^2} + \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^3} + \dots$$
$$S_n(x) = 1+x^2 - \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^n}$$
$$\therefore S_n(x) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 1+x^2 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$
$$\Rightarrow |S(x) - S_n(x)| = \left| \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^n} \right|, \text{ for } x \neq 0$$

Now, if we consider different series which is x square, plus x square over 1 plus x square plus x square over 1 plus x square whole square and so on. Then for this series, S n x some partial sum is 1 plus x square minus 1 over 1 plus x square raise to the power n. Then we can notice that, S n x tends to, 1 plus x square. If x is not equal to 0 and will tend to 0, if x is equal to 0; that means, S x, that is sum of this infinite series minus the partial sum is equal to 1 over 1 plus x square raise to power n, for x is not equal to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:02)

A blue slide with white text. It shows the inequality $\text{But } \left| \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^n} \right| < \epsilon \Rightarrow n > \frac{\log(1/\epsilon)}{\log(1+x^2)}$. Below that, it says "Therefore, n depends upon x showing that the Series is not uniformly convergent".

But $\left| \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^n} \right| < \epsilon \Rightarrow n > \frac{\log(1/\epsilon)}{\log(1+x^2)}$

Therefore, n depends upon x showing that the Series is not uniformly convergent

But we know that $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$ raised to power n modulus is less than ϵ . This implies that n must be greater than $\frac{\log 1/\epsilon}{\log 1+x^2}$. And; that means, this n we can choose for a given ϵ and this depends upon x . And therefore, n depends upon x showing that the series is not uniformly convergent, so this series which is not a power series. So, this is not uniformly convergent.

But the earlier series was a power series, it will be uniformly convergent. But, it is not uniformly convergent in a small neighbourhood about z about modulus z is equal to 1. Now, if the series is uniformly convergent. Then, we try a term by term differentiation of Power series.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:58)

Term by term Differentiation of Power Series
 Let $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(z-a)^n$ be a power series with
 Non zero radius of convergence then
 f is analytic in open disk $N(a, R)$
 and $f'(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n c_n(z-a)^{n-1}$

So for this, we have a result, which states that let $f(z)$ is equal to a power series in powers of z minus a , with non zero radius of convergence. Then, f is analytic in a disk which is centred at a and of radius R . Then, $f'(z)$ is equal to summation n is equal to 0 to infinity n times c_n into z minus a raised to power n minus 1. So, if we term by term differentiate this series. We will get this and this series is converging to the derivative of this function f of z . So, term by term differentiate is possible.

(Refer Slide Time: 43:50)

Term by term Integration of Power Series

Let $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z)$ be a uniformly convergent power series of continuous functions within a region G . Let C is a contour in G , then

$$\int_C f(z) dz = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_C f_n(z) dz$$

Similarly, term by term integration of power series is also possible. Let $f(z)$ is equal to summation and n is equal to 0 to infinity, f and z be uniformly convergent power series of continuous functions, within a region in G . And, let C is a contour in G . Then, $f(z) dz$ over integral over C is equal to summation, n is equal to 0 to infinity and integral of $f_n(z) dz$. So, this is the meaning of term by term integration.

(Refer Slide Time: 44:25)

Proof:

Let the series $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z)$ be uniformly convergent in a region G and each term $f_n(z)$ is continuous at point z_0 in G , then the function $f(z)$ is continuous at z_0

Let $s_n = f_0 + f_1 + \dots$, $R_n = f_{n+1} + f_{n+2} + \dots$

Since the series converges uniformly, we can find $n=N(\epsilon)$ for given $\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$|R_n(z)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}, \text{ for all } z \text{ in } G$$

Now, let us prove this. Let the series $f(z)$ is equal to summation n is equal to 0 to infinity $f_n(z)$ be uniformly convergent in a region G . And each term $f_n(z)$ is continuous at point z

naught in G . Then, the function $f(z)$ is continuous at z_0 . So, we first prove this result. And then we will prove the term by term integrability. So let us consider, S_n is equal to f_0 plus f_1 and so on. That is sum of first n terms and remainder term is f_{n+1} plus f_{n+2} and so on.

Since, the series converges uniformly that is been given to us. We can find n which is a function of ϵ . For given $\epsilon > 0$ such that $R_N(z)$ modulus of this is less than $\epsilon/3$. For all z in G , so I have taken arbitrary value as $\epsilon/3$. So this is by definition of convergence.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:30)

Since s_N is sum of finitely many functions which are continuous at z_0 , this sum is continuous at z_0 . Therefore we can find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|s_N(z) - s_N(z_0)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}, \text{ for all } z \text{ in } G, |z - z_0| < \delta$$

$$|f(z) - f(z_0)| = |s_N(z) + R_N(z) - [s_N(z_0) + R_N(z_0)]|$$

$$\leq |s_N(z) - s_N(z_0)| + |R_N(z)| + |R_N(z_0)|$$

$$< \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$$

Hence $f(z)$ is continuous at z_0

And, since S_N is sum of finitely many functions which are continuous at z_0 , this sum is continuous at z_0 . Therefore, we can find δ greater than 0 such that $S_N(z) - S_N(z_0)$ is less than $\epsilon/3$. So, this is S_N is the value at z . And this is at z_0 . This can be made smaller than $\epsilon/3$. For all z in G provided we can find δ such that $|z - z_0| < \delta$.

So, for this, in this, this, this difference will be less than $\epsilon/3$. This is coming from the continuity. And, therefore, we can write down $f(z) - f(z_0)$ as $S_N(z) - S_N(z_0) + R_N(z) - R_N(z_0)$. This is for $f(z)$ and for $f(z_0)$ I write $S_N(z_0) + R_N(z_0)$. So, this will be less than $S_N(z) - S_N(z_0) + R_N(z) - R_N(z_0)$ modulus plus $R_N(z)$ modulus. Now this modulus is taken as less than $\epsilon/3$.

And this is uniformly convergent. So, it is again taken epsilon by 3 and for z naught also. We have also, we this also is less than epsilon by 3. And that makes f z minus f z not is less than epsilon. On this proves that the difference is as f z minus f z naught is less than epsilon and this proves that f z is continuous at z naught.

(Refer Slide Time: 47:01)

Now $\int_C f(z) dz = \int_C s_n(z) dz + \int_C R_n(z) dz$

Let L be the length of arc C . Since the series converges uniformly, we can find N such that for given $\epsilon > 0$

$$|R_n(z)| < \frac{\epsilon}{L}, \text{ for all } n > N \text{ and } z \text{ in } G$$

Also, $\left| \int_C R_n(z) dz \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{L} L = \epsilon$ for all $n > N$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \int_C f(z) dz - \int_C s_n(z) dz \right| < \epsilon$$

Once this is done, we write down integral f z over integral over the curve c is equal to S n z d z over c plus R n z d z over c, so integration over c. So this, we can write, let L be the length of arc C. Since, the series converges uniformly. We can find N such that for given epsilon greater than 0. R n z is less than epsilon by L. For all n greater N and z in G. This is due to uniform convergence which is being given to us.

So, R n z d z integral and then taken its modulus will be less than epsilon by L. This, we have taken and this is length of the curve c is L. So, this is less than epsilon for all n greater than N and this implies. That integral f z d z over the curve c minus S n z d z integral over c is less than epsilon. This proves our result that term by term integration is possible. On similar lines we can prove the result which we have already stated. But have not given the proof that is the term by term differentiation of the series. So, we can go about this proof and result can be reproduced. Now, we will discuss Weierstrass M-test for Uniform convergence.

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Weierstrass M-test

Let $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} M_n = M_0 + M_1 + \dots$ be a convergent series of positive numbers.

Let $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z) = f_0(z) + f_1(z) + f_2(z) + \dots$ be a series such that for all z in domain G

$$|f_n(z)| \leq M_n, \text{ for all } n$$

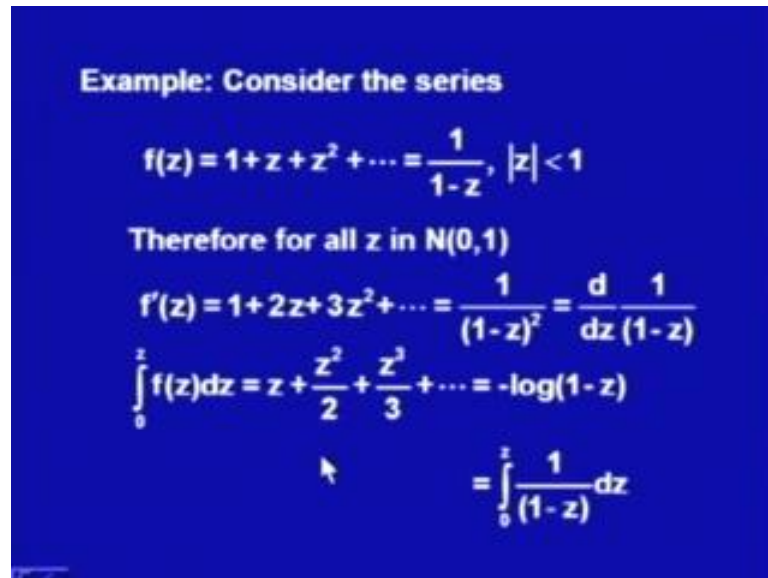
Then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(z)$ is uniformly convergent in G

So let us consider, a series of positive terms summation n is equal to 0 to infinity M_n . So, we have M_0 , plus M_1 plus M_2 series. We have convergent series then this series, of functions $f_n(z)$ n varies from 0 to infinity. That is $f_0(z)$ plus $f_1(z)$, plus $f_2(z)$, and so on. So, this is again, this is another series.

Now, we say that this series be a series such that for all z in a domain G satisfying this condition. That is $|f_n(z)| \leq M_n$ ((Refer Time: 49:17)), for all n . The idea is term by term. This term is smaller than this, $f_1(z)$ is smaller than M_1 and so on. So the term by term, if you compare then terms of this series are smaller than terms of this series. So if that is the case, then if this series convergent.

If this series is convergent, then this series will also be convergent. So accordingly, summation n is equal to 0 to infinity, $f_n(z)$ is uniformly convergent in G . So, if this is possible. Then the series is uniformly convergent in G . So this result can be used to establish the uniform convergence of given series. So, what we have to do is, we have to find out corresponding M_0 , M_1 etcetera, and if the resulting series is convergent, then this series is uniformly convergent. Once the series is uniformly convergent then term by term differentiation, integration etcetera are possible.

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Example: Consider the series

$$f(z) = 1 + z + z^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-z}, \quad |z| < 1$$

Therefore for all z in $N(0,1)$

$$f'(z) = 1 + 2z + 3z^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{(1-z)^2} = \frac{d}{dz} \frac{1}{1-z}$$
$$\int_0^z f(z) dz = z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{3} + \dots = -\log(1-z)$$
$$\uparrow = \int_0^z \frac{1}{1-z} dz$$

So let us, apply this. To this geometric series $f(z)$ is equal to $1 + z + z^2 + \dots$ and so on. And we know that this is $1/(1-z)$, when modulus z is less than 1. So therefore, for all z in this interval in this neighbourhood centred at z is equal to 0 and radius 1. We can find $f'(z)$ is equal to $1 + 2z + 3z^2 + \dots$. And we know that, this series is nothing but $1/(1-z)^2$.

And we know that this is nothing but d/dz of $1/(1-z)$. So, the idea is this series is being uniformly convergent. And if we term by term differentiate this series, and we get this sum of this series is this. We know from we can see that, this is converging to this series. And we also know that, this is nothing but derivative of this. So this establishes the term by term differentiation of uniformly convergent series.

Similarly, if we integrate this series term by term then on the right hand side will have this series. And we know that, this series is nothing but the series for $-\log(1-z)$. And if you take its integral it is nothing but $\int_0^z 1/(1-z) dz$. So this also establishes term by term integration for the given function $f(z)$.

Viewers, today we have discussed Laurent series representation of a function. If the function is analytic in a domain then we can represent this function in power series of z by Taylor series. But, if the function is not analytic at certain points in the domain then we can always enclose those points by a circle of some suitable radius. Then, in the annulus region, if the function remains analytic then we can represent this function by

Laurent series. So this is what we have done today and apart from this. We have discussed uniform convergence and term by term differentiation and integration of the series.

Thank you.