

# Chapter V. Singularities

## V.1. Classification of Singularities

**Note.** In this section, we define various types of singularities of a function and develop the idea of a Laurent series.

**Definition.** A function  $f$  has an *isolated singularity* at  $z = a$  if there is an  $R > 0$  such that  $f$  is defined and analytic in  $B(a; R) \setminus \{a\}$ , but not in  $B(a; R)$ . Point  $a$  is a *removable singularity* if there is an analytic function  $g : B(a; R) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $g(z) = f(z)$  for  $0 < |z - a| < R$ .

**Example.** Functions  $f_1(z) = 1/z$  and  $f_2(z) = \sin z/z$ , and  $f_3(z) = \exp(1/z)$  each have isolated singularities at  $z = 0$ . As shown in Exercise V.1.1,  $f_2(z) = \sin z/z$  has a removable singularity.

**Theorem V.1.2.** If  $f$  has an isolated singularity at  $a$  then  $z = a$  is a removable singularity if and only if  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a)f(z) = 0$ .

**Definition.** If  $z = a$  is an isolated singularity of  $f$  then  $a$  is a *pole* of  $f$  if  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} |f(z)| = \infty$ . If an isolated singularity is neither a pole nor a removable singularity it is called an *essential singularity*.

**Example.** Function  $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-a)^m}$  for  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  has a pole at  $z = a$ . Function  $g(z) = \exp(z^{-1})$  has an essential singularity at  $z = 0$ . In fact, a function with a pole at  $z = a$  has a well defined form, as given next.

**Proposition V.1.4.** If  $G$  is a region with  $a \in G$ , and if  $f$  is analytic in  $G \setminus \{a\}$  with a pole at  $z = a$ , then there is a positive integer  $m$  and an analytic function  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = \frac{g(z)}{(z-a)^m}$ .

**Definition.** If  $f$  has a pole at  $z = a$  and  $m$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $f(z)(z-a)^m$  has a removable singularity at  $z = a$ , then  $f$  has a *pole of order  $m$*  at  $z = a$ . A pole of order 1 is called a *simple pole*.

**Note.** If  $f$  has a pole of order  $m$  at  $z = a$ , then  $f(z) = g(z)/(z-a)^m$  where  $g$  is analytic in  $B(a; R)$  (for some  $R > 0$ ), so

$$g(z) = A_m + A_{m-1}(z-a) + \cdots + A_1(z-a)^{m-1} + (z-a)^m \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-a)^k$$

and

$$f(z) = \frac{A_m}{(z-a)^m} + \frac{A_{m-1}}{(z-a)^{m-1}} + \cdots + \frac{A_1}{(z-a)} + g_1(z)$$

where  $g_1$  is analytic in  $B(a; R)$  and  $A_m \neq 0$ .

**Definition.** If  $f$  has a pole of order  $m$  at  $z = a$  and  $f$  satisfies

$$f(z) = \frac{A_m}{(z-a)^m} + \frac{A_{m-1}}{(z-a)^{m-1}} + \cdots + \frac{A_1}{(z-a)} + g_1(z)$$

then

$$\frac{A_m}{(z-a)^m} + \frac{A_{m-1}}{(z-a)^{m-1}} + \cdots + \frac{A_1}{(z-a)}$$

is called the *singular part* of  $f$  at  $z = a$ .

**Note.** We will see that an essential singularity behaves rather like a pole of infinite order. This then produces an infinite singular part. First, some definitions.

**Definition V.1.10.** If  $\{z_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a doubly infinite sequence of complex numbers, then  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n$  is *absolutely convergent* if both  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{-n}$  are absolutely convergent. If these series are absolutely convergent then define

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} z_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} z_{-n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z_n.$$

If  $u_n$  is a function on a set  $S$  for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} u_n(s)$  is absolutely convergent for every  $s \in S$ , then the convergence is *uniform* over  $S$  if both  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{-n}$  converge uniformly on  $S$ .

**Definition.** If  $0 \leq R_1 < R_2 \leq \infty$  and  $a$  is any complex number, define

$$\text{ann}(a; R_1, R_2) = \{z \mid R_1 < |z - a| < R_2\}.$$

**Note.** We now deal with a series representation of a function analytic on an annulus.

**Theorem V.1.11. Laurent Series Development.**

Let  $f$  be analytic in  $\text{ann}(a; R_1, R_2)$ . Then

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

where the convergence is absolute and uniform over the closure of  $\text{ann}(a; r_1, r_2)$  if  $R_1 < r_1 < r_2 < R_2$ . The coefficients  $a_n$  are given by

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz \quad (1.12)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the circle  $|z-a|=r$  for any  $r$  with  $R_1 < r < R_2$ . Moreover, this series is unique.

**Note.** The [proof of Theorem V.1.11](#) is in a, sort of, self contained [supplement](#). The Laurent series allows us to classify isolated singularities.

**Corollary V.1.18.** Let  $z = a$  be an isolated singularity of  $f$  and let  $f(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$  be its Laurent expansion in  $\text{ann}(a; 0, R)$ . Then

- (a)  $z = a$  is a removable singularity if and only if  $a_n = 0$  for  $n \leq -1$ ,
- (b)  $a = z$  is a pole of order  $m$  if and only if  $a_{-m} \neq 0$  and  $a_n = 0$  for  $n \leq -(m+1)$ ,  
and
- (c)  $z = a$  is an essential singularity if and only if  $a_n \neq 0$  for infinitely many negative integers  $n$ .

**Note.** If  $f$  has an essential singularity at  $z = a$ , then  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} |f(z)|$  does not exist. The text says: “This means that as  $z$  approaches  $a$  the values of  $f(z)$  must wander through  $\mathbb{C}$ .” The following result shows that this wandering is very intense.

**Theorem V.1.21. Casorati-Weierstrass Theorem.**

If  $f$  has an essential singularity at  $z = a$  then for every  $\delta > 0$ ,  $\{f(\text{ann}(a; 0, \delta))\}^- = \mathbb{C}$ .

**Note.** A more general result concerning the behavior of  $f$  near an essential singularity is in Chapter XII (the last chapter of the text, page 300):

**Great Picard Theorem.**

Suppose an analytic function has an essential singularity at  $z = a$ . Then in each neighborhood of  $a$ ,  $f$  assumes each complex number, with one possible exception, an infinite number of times.

**Note.** Function  $f(z) = \exp(1/z)$  is such a function, and it clearly does not take on the value 0.

**Note.** For the record, from page 297 we have:

**Little Picard Theorem.**

If  $f$  is an entire function that omits two values, then  $f$  is a constant.

**Note.** Of course,  $f(z) = e^z$  is an example of a function omitting one value.