

Form of Analytic Functions

A series of analytic functions $f(z)$ is analytic if it satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann conditions

If $f(z)$ is analytic then it can be written as a power series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n \quad \text{where } a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$$

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1(z-a) + a_2(z-a)^2 + \dots + a_n(z-a)^n + \dots$$

The point a is said to have a zero of order m if $f(a) = f'(a) = \dots = f^{(m-1)}(a) = 0$ but $f^{(m)}(a) \neq 0$

It may also be seen that $f(z) = (z-a)^m \phi(z)$ where $\phi(z)$ is analytic and $\phi(a) \neq 0$

$$f(z) = f'(z) = \dots = f^{(m-1)}(z) = 0 \quad \text{but } f^{(m)}(z) \neq 0$$

The form of the zero $z=a$ of order m in the function $f(z)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= a_m (z-a)^m + a_{m+1} (z-a)^{m+1} + \dots \\ &= (z-a)^m [a_m + a_{m+1}(z-a) + \dots] \\ &= (z-a)^m \phi(z) \end{aligned}$$

where $\phi(z) = a_m + a_{m+1}(z-a) + \dots$ is analytic and non-zero at and in the neighborhood of the zero $z=a$.

SINGULAR POINT

A point z_0 is called a singular point of a function f if f fails to be analytic at z_0 but is analytic at some point in every neighborhood of z_0 .

A singular point z_0 is said to be isolated if, in addition, there is some neighborhood of z_0 throughout which f is analytic except at the point itself, otherwise it is called non isolated.

For example, ① $f(z) = \frac{z+1}{z(z-2)}$ is analytic

everywhere except at $z=0$ and $z=2$, which are isolated singular points.

② considers the function

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\tan(\pi/z)} \quad \text{This}$$

function is not analytic at the points

where $\tan(\pi/z) = 0$ i.e. at the points $\pi/z = n\pi$

or $z = \frac{1}{n} (1, 2, 3, \dots)$. Thus $z = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots$

--- $z=0$ are singularities of the function

all of which are isolated except $z=0$

because there is no neighborhood of $z=0$ where are infinite number of other singularities $z = \frac{1}{n}$.

Kind of Singularities =

We have seen if a function $f(z)$ has an isolated singular point z_0 , then f can be represented by Laurent's series

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^n + \frac{b_1}{z-z_0} + \frac{b_2}{(z-z_0)^2} + \dots + \frac{b_m}{(z-z_0)^m}$$

in a domain $0 < |z-z_0| < R_1$ centred at that point.

The portion of the series involving negative ^{power} of $z-z_0$ is called the principal part of f at z_0 . We now use the principal part to distinguish between three types of isolated singular points. The behaviour of f near z_0 is fundamentally different in each case.

① - Removable Singularity

When all the coeffs b_n in the principal part of f at an isolated singular point z_0 are zero, the point z_0 is called removable singular point of f . In this case Laurent's series contains only non-negative powers of $z-z_0$ and the series is in fact, a power series. Note that residual at a removable singular point is always zero. If we define $f(z)$ as a_0 at z_0 the function becomes analytic at z_0 . Thus a function with a removable singular point can be made analytic at that point by assigning a suitable value to the function there.

(Ex.) Consider the function

$$f(z) = \frac{e^z - 1}{z} = \frac{1}{z} \left(1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots - 1 \right)$$

Alternative def - An singularity $z=a$ is called a removable singularity of $f(z)$ if $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z)$ exist finitely.

Example - Suppose $f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z}$ then

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin z}{z} = 1.$$

Again

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sin z}{z} &= \frac{1}{z} \left(z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \dots \right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{z^2}{3!} + \frac{z^4}{5!} - \dots \end{aligned}$$

Since no negative powers occurs. Hence z is a removal singularity of $f(z)$.

① Pole - If the principal part contains a finite number of terms, say m , then the singularity $z=a$ is called a pole of order m of $f(z)$. Then $f(z)$ will have the expansion of form

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n + \sum_{n=1}^m b_n (z-a)^{-n}$$

Alternative def -

If there exist a +ve integer $s.t.$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)^n f(z) = A \quad A \neq 0$$

Then $z=a$ is called pole of order n .

Example - if $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-5)^3 (z-4)^2}$ then

$z=5$ is pole of order 3 and $z=4$ is pole of order 2.

Essential singularity -

If principal part contains infinite number of terms i.e. if series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n (z-a)^{-n}$ contains an infinite number of terms ~~the series~~ then singularity $z=a$ is called an essential singularity.

Alternative def. - If there exist no finite value of n s.t.

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)^n f(z) = c \text{ finite \& non zero const.}$$

then $z=a$ is called an essential singularity

Example $z=0$ is an essential singularity of $e^{1/z}$ since the expansion of $e^{1/z}$

$$e^{1/z} = 1 + \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{z^2 2!} + \frac{1}{z^3 3!} + \dots$$

is an infinite series of negative powers of z .

Theorem 1 If $f(z)$ has a pole at $z=a$ then

$$|f(z)| \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } z \rightarrow a$$

Suppose $f(z)$ has a pole of order m at $z=a$

To prove that

$$|f(z)| \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } z \rightarrow a$$

By assumption principal part contains only m terms so that

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n + \sum_{n=1}^m b_n (z-a)^{-n} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n + \frac{b_1}{(z-a)} + \frac{b_2}{(z-a)^2} + \dots + \frac{b_m}{(z-a)^m} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-a)^n + \frac{1}{(z-a)^m} \left[(z-a)^{m-1} b_1 + (z-a)^{m-2} b_2 + \dots + b_m \right] \end{aligned}$$

The expression within square bracket on R.H.S $\rightarrow \infty$ as $z \rightarrow a$ so that the whole R.H.S expression $\rightarrow \infty$ as $z \rightarrow a$

consequently $|f(z)| \rightarrow \infty$ as $z \rightarrow a$

Theorem (2) If an analytic function $f(z)$ has a pole of order m at $z=a$, then $\frac{1}{f(z)}$ has a zero of order m at $z=a$ and conversely.

Proof.

(p. 2/233)

Theorem (3) Zeros are isolated.

Proof. Let $z=a$ be zero of order m of an analytic function $f(z)$. Then we may write $f(z) = (z-a)^m \phi(z)$

where $\phi(z)$ is analytic and $\phi(a) \neq 0$

Evidently $(z-a)^m \neq 0$ at $z \neq a$

Now there exist no other point in the deleted neighborhood $|z-a| < r$ at which $f(z) = 0$

Hence the zero $z=a$ is an isolated singularity. This is true for every zero of $f(z)$. Therefore the zeros of $f(z)$ are isolated.

Theorem (4) Poles are isolated.

Proof.

Let $z=a$ be a pole of order m of the analytic function $f(z)$. Then $\frac{1}{f(z)}$ is an analytic and has a zero of order m at $z=a$. Since zeros are isolated and hence poles are isolated.

Solved Examples.

Ex 1

Find the singularity of the function $\frac{e^{c/(z-a)}}{e^{z/a} - 1}$, indicating the nature of each singularity.

$$\text{Let } f(z) = \frac{e^{\frac{c}{z-a}}}{e^{\frac{z}{a}} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{\exp\left(\frac{c}{z-a}\right)}{e^{\frac{z}{a}} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{e^{c/(z-a)}}{e^{z/a} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{e^{c/(z-a)}}{e^{z/a} - 1}$$

$$= -e^{c/a} \left[1 - e^{c(z-a)/a}\right]^{-1}$$

$$= -e^{c/(z-a)} \cdot \left[1 - e \left\{1 + \frac{z-a}{a} + \left(\frac{z-a}{a}\right)^2 \frac{1}{2!} + \dots\right\}\right]^{-1}$$

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

$$\times \left[1 + e \left\{1 + \frac{z-a}{a} + \left(\frac{z-a}{a}\right)^2 \frac{1}{2!} + \dots\right\}\right]$$

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

Clearly this expansion contains positive and negative

powers of $z-a$. In particular, terms containing

negative powers of $z-a$ are infinite in number.

Hence by def, $z=a$ is an essential singularity.

(ii)

$$f(z) = \frac{\exp\left(\frac{c}{z-a}\right)}{\exp\left(\frac{z}{a}\right) - 1}$$

Evidently denominator has zero of order 1 at

$$e^{z/a} = 1 = e^{2\pi i k}$$

i.e.

$$z = 2\pi i k$$

consequently $f(z)$ has a pole of order one at each point $z = 2n\pi i$ (where $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$)

Ex. 2

Show that the function e^z has an isolated essential singularity at $z = \infty$

Soln.

$$\text{Let } f(z) = e^z \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

The behaviour of $f(z)$ at $z = \infty$ is the same as the behaviour of $f(\frac{1}{z})$ at $z = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(1)} \Rightarrow f\left(\frac{1}{z}\right) &= e^{\frac{1}{z}} = 1 + \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{z^2} \cdot \frac{1}{2!} + \dots \\ &= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^n n!} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{or } f\left(\frac{1}{z}\right) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(z-0)^n n!}$$

This is Laurent's expansion of $f(\frac{1}{z})$ about the point $z = 0$. This expansion contains an infinite number of terms in the negative power of z . Hence by def. $z = 0$ is an essential singularity of $f(\frac{1}{z})$. Consequently $f(z)$ has essential singularity at $z = \infty$.

Imp Example. (1) The origin is a singular

point of $\log z$, but it is not an isolated singular point since every nbd of the origin contains points on the negative real axis and $\log z$ fails to be analytic at each of those points.

(2)

The function $\frac{1}{\sin \pi z}$

has the singular points $z = 0$ and $z = \frac{1}{n}$ ($n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$) all lying on the segment of the real axis from $z = -1$ to $z = 1$. Each singular point except $z = 0$ is isolated. The singular point