## LECTURE-14

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## Isolated Singularities

A punctured domain is an open set with a point removed. For $p \in \Omega$, we use the notation

$$
\Omega_{p}^{*}=\Omega \backslash\{p\},
$$

or simply $\Omega^{*}$ for $\Omega \backslash\{0\}$, if $0 \in \Omega$ or when there is no confusion about the point removed. The aim of this lecture is to study functions that are holomorphic on punctured domains. The puncture, that is the point $p$ in the above case, is called an isolated singularity. These come in three types -

- Removable singularities
- Poles
- Essential singularities


## Removable singularities

A holomorphic function $f \in \mathcal{O}\left(\Omega_{p}^{*}\right)$ is said to have a removable singularity at $p$ if there exists a holomorphic function $\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{O}(\Omega)$ such that

$$
\left.\tilde{f}\right|_{\Omega_{p}^{*}}=f .
$$

Theorem 0.1. Let $f \in \mathcal{O}\left(\Omega_{p}^{*}\right)$. Then the following are equivalent.
(1) $f$ has a removable singularity at $p$.
(2) f can be extended to a continuous function on $\Omega$.
(3) $f$ is bounded in a neighborhood of $p$.
(4) $\lim _{z \rightarrow p}(z-p) f(z)=0$.

Proof. The implications (1) $\Longrightarrow(2) \Longrightarrow(3) \Longrightarrow(4)$ are trivial. To complete the proof, we need to show that $(4) \Longrightarrow$ (1).

For convenience, suppose $p=0$. So suppose $f(z)$ satisfies

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow 0} z f(z)=0,
$$

and define a new function

$$
g(z)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
z^{2} f(z), z \neq 0 \\
0, z=0
\end{array}\right.
$$

Claim 1. $g(z)$ is holomorphic on $\Omega$ and moreover, $g^{\prime}(0)=0$.

[^0]Clearly $g(z)$ is holomorphic on $\Omega^{*}$. So we only need to prove holomorphicity at $z=0$. Let us compute the difference quotient. Since $g(0)=0$, $g^{\prime}(0)$ if it exists is equal to

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(h)}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} h f(h)=0
$$

by hypothesis. This proves the claim. By analyticity, $g(z)$ has power series expansion in a neighborhood of $z=0$. That is, there is a small disc $D_{\varepsilon}(0)$ such that for all $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(0)$,

$$
g(z)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!} z^{n} .
$$

Now, since $g(0)=g^{\prime}(0)=0$,

$$
g(z)=z^{2} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!} z^{n-2} .
$$

By comparing to the definition of $g(z)$ we see that for $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(0) \backslash\{0\}$,

$$
f(z)=\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!} z^{n-2} .
$$

and so we define

$$
\tilde{f}(z)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!} z^{n-2}, z \in D_{\varepsilon}(0) \\
f(z), z \in \Omega^{*} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

This is a well defined function, since on the intersection $\Omega^{*} \cap D_{\varepsilon}(0), f(z)$ is equal to the infinite series. $\tilde{f}$ is clearly holomorphic on $\Omega^{*}$ since it equals $f(z)$ in this region. Moreover, since it is a power series in a neighborhood of $z=0$, it is also holomorphic at $z=0$. Hence $\tilde{f}$ satisfies all the properties in (1), and this completes the proof.

Remark 0.1. Recall that in lecture-7 we proved that Goursat's theorem was valid for functions that are holomorphic at all but one point in a domain, so long as they are bounded near that point. In view of the above theorem, such a result is not surprising, since the function does extend to a holomorphic function on the entire domain, to which Goursat's theorem applies.

Example 0.1. Consider the holomorphic function $S i: \mathbb{C}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by

$$
\operatorname{Si}(z)=\frac{\sin z}{z} .
$$

Then clearly

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow 0} z \cdot \operatorname{Si}(z)=\lim _{z \rightarrow 0} \sin z=0 .
$$

Hence by the theorem, $\mathrm{Si}(z)$ has a removable singularity at $z=0$ and hence can be extended to an entire function. It is instructive to look at the power
series of $\sin z$. Recall that

$$
\sin z=z-\frac{z^{3}}{3!}+\frac{z^{5}}{5!}+\ldots
$$

and so dividing by $z$, we see that for $z \neq 0$,

$$
\operatorname{Si}(z)=1-\frac{z^{2}}{3!}+\frac{z^{4}}{5!}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{z^{2 n}}{(2 n+1)!} .
$$

The power series on the right clearly defines an entire function (an is in particular also defined at $z=0$ ), and hence $\operatorname{Si}(z)$ defines an entire function.

## Poles

Let $f \in \mathcal{O}\left(\Omega_{p}^{*}\right)$. We say that $p$ is a pole if

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow p}|f(z)|=\infty .
$$

Theorem 0.2. Let $f \in \mathcal{O}\left(\Omega_{p}^{*}\right)$. Then the following are equivalent.
(1) $f$ has a pole at $p$.
(2) There exists a small disc $D_{\varepsilon}(p)$ and a holomorphic function $h$ : $D_{\varepsilon}(p) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $h(p)=0$ and $h(z) \neq 0$ for any other $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(p)$, and

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{h(z)}
$$

for all $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(p) \backslash\{p\}$.
(3) There exists a holomorphic function $g: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $g(p) \neq 0$, and an integer $m \geq 1$ such that for all $z \in \Omega_{p}^{*}$,

$$
f(z)=\frac{g(z)}{(z-p)^{m}}
$$

(4) There exists a $M>1$ and integer $m \geq 1$ such that on some disc $D_{\varepsilon}(p)$ around $p$, we have the estimates

$$
\frac{1}{M|z-p|^{m}} \leq|f(z)| \leq \frac{M}{|z-p|^{m}} .
$$

Note that the integer $m$ in (3) and (4) above has to be the same, and is called the order of the pole at $p$, and written as $\nu_{f}(p)$.

Proof. Again for convenience, lets assume $p=0$, and we denote $\Omega_{p}^{*}=\Omega^{*}$. Suppose $|f(z)| \rightarrow \infty$ as $z \rightarrow 0$. Then clearly there is a small disc $D_{\varepsilon}(0)$ on which $f$ does not have a zero. Then $h(z)=1 / f(z)$ is holomorphic in the punctured disc $D_{\varepsilon}(0)^{*}$. Moreover,

$$
\lim _{z \rightarrow 0}|h(z)|=\frac{1}{\lim _{z \rightarrow 0}|f(z)|}=0
$$

and hence in particular is bounded near $z=0$. By Theorem $0.1, h(z)$ actually extends to a holomorphic function to the entire disc $D_{\varepsilon}(0)$, which
we continue to call $h(z)$, and from the limit it is clear that $h(p)=0$. So $h(z)$ atisfies all the conditions in (2), and this proves that $(1) \Longrightarrow$ (2).

To show that $(2) \Longrightarrow(3)$, note that by the theorem on zeroes, since $h$ is not identically zero, there exists an integer $m$ such that for all $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(0)$,

$$
h(z)=z^{m} g_{1}(z),
$$

where $g_{1}(p) \neq 0$. Moreover, since $h(p)=0$, we must necessarily have $m \geq 1$. Now consider the function

$$
g(z)=z^{m} f(z)
$$

holomorphic on $\Omega^{*}$. Then on $D_{\varepsilon}(0) \backslash\{0\}, g(z)=1 / g_{1}(z)$. Since $g_{1}(p) \neq 0$ and $g_{1}$ is holomorphic on $D_{\varepsilon}(0)$, we see that $1 / g_{1}(z)$ is bounded on $D_{\varepsilon}(0)$. Hence by the removable singularity theorem, $g(z)$ extends to a holomorphic function on all of $\Omega$, and satisfies all the conditions in (3).

To show that $(3) \Longrightarrow(4)$, note that since $g$ is holomorphic near $z=0$, it will in particular be bounded in a neighborhood. So there exists $M>0$ such that for all $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(0)$,

$$
|g(z)| \leq M
$$

On the other hand, since $g(p) \neq 0$, by continuity, for the $\varepsilon>0$ above, there exists a $\delta$ such that

$$
|g(z)| \geq \delta
$$

for all $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(0)$. Take $M$ large enough so that $1 / M<\delta$, then we see that on $D_{\varepsilon}(0)$,

$$
\frac{1}{M} \leq|g(z)| \leq M
$$

and this proves (4).
$(4) \Longrightarrow(1)$ also holds trivially, thus completing the proof of the Theorem.

Example 0.2. The function

$$
\cot z=\frac{\cos z}{\sin z} .
$$

has poles at all the zeroes of $\sin z$ (since $\cos z$ and $\sin z$ do not share any zeroes, there is no "cancellation" of the poles). Let us find the order of the zero at $z=0$. Near $z=0, \sin z \approx z$. More precisely,

$$
z \cot z=\frac{z \cos z}{\sin z}=\frac{\cos z}{\operatorname{Si}(z)}
$$

where $\operatorname{Si}(z)$ is the function from the last section. Then we saw from the power series expansion, that $\operatorname{Si}(0)=1$ and hence $\cos z / \operatorname{Si}(z) \rightarrow 1$ as $z \rightarrow 0$. In particular, for a small $\varepsilon>0,1 / 2<|\cos z / \operatorname{Si}(z)|<2$, and hence

$$
\frac{1}{2 z} \leq \frac{\cos z}{\sin _{4} z} \leq \frac{2}{z}
$$

and so $z=0$ is a pole of order $m=1$. It is once again instructive to look at an expansion near $z=0$. For $z \neq 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\cos z}{\sin z} & =\frac{1-z^{2} / 2+\cdots}{z-z^{3} / 6+\cdots} \\
& =\frac{1}{z} \cdot \frac{1-z^{2} / 2+\cdots}{1-z^{2} / 6+\cdots} \\
& =\frac{1}{z}\left(1-\frac{z^{2}}{2}+\cdots\right)\left(1+\frac{z^{2}}{6}+\cdots\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{z}-\frac{z}{3}+\cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

From this it is clear that cot $z$ has a pole of order $z=0$.
Remark 0.2. The idea of an expansion for a singular function near it's pole can be generalized. Let $p$ be a pole for $f: \Omega_{p}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Then from the theorem, we can write

$$
f(z)=\frac{g(z)}{(z-p)^{m}}
$$

for some holomorphic $g: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with $g(p) \neq 0$. By analyticity, in a neighborhood of $p$ we can write

$$
g(z)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}(z-p)^{n}
$$

with $a_{0} \neq 0$. Hence for $z \neq p$, we have the expansion
$f(z)=\frac{a_{0}}{(z-p)^{m}}+\frac{a_{1}}{(z-p)^{m-1}}+\cdots+a_{m}+a_{m+1}(z-p)+a_{m+2}(z-p)^{2}+\cdots$.
Such an expansion is called a Laurent series expansion, which we will study in greater detail in the next lecture. The part with the negative powers is called the principal part of $f$ near $p$. In fact, if we denote by

$$
Q_{p}(w):=a_{0} w^{m}+\cdots+a_{m-1} w
$$

then we can write

$$
f(z)=Q_{p}\left(\frac{1}{z-p}\right)+h_{p}(z)
$$

where $h_{p}$ extends to a holomorphic function across $p$.

## EsSEntial SINGULARITIES

If $f: \Omega_{p}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is holomorphic, then $p$ is called an essential singularity if it is neither a removable singularity nor a pole. Unlike in the case of removable singularities and poles, the function behaves rather erratically in any neighborhood around an essential singularity.

Theorem 0.3 (Casorati-Weierstrass). The following are equivalent.
(1) $f$ has an essential singularity at $p$.
(2) For any disc $D_{\varepsilon}(p), f\left(D_{\varepsilon}(p)\right)$ is dense in $\mathbb{C}$, that is for any disc $D_{\varepsilon}(p)$ and any $a \in \mathbb{C}$, there exists a sequence $\left\{z_{n}\right\} \in D_{\varepsilon}(p)$ such that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} f\left(z_{n}\right)=a .
$$

Proof. We first show that $(2) \Longrightarrow(1)$. If $p$ is a removable singularity, then for some disc $D_{\varepsilon}(p), f\left(D_{\varepsilon}(0)\right)$ is a bounded set in $\mathbb{C}$, and so cannot be dense. On the other hand if $p$ is a pole, then $|f(z)| \rightarrow \infty$ as $z \rightarrow p$. In particular, there is a disc $D_{\varepsilon}(p)$ such that for all $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(p)$,

$$
|f(z)|>1,
$$

and hence once again $D_{\varepsilon}(p)$ cannot be dense in $\mathbb{C}$. This forces $p$ to be an essential singularity.

Conversely, suppose $p$ is an essential singularity. We then have to show that (2) holds. If not, then there is a disc $D_{\varepsilon_{0}}(p)$ such that $f\left(D_{\varepsilon_{0}}(p) \backslash\{p\}\right)$ is not dense in $\mathbb{C}$. Hence there exists an $a \in \mathbb{C}$ and an $r>0$ such that

$$
|f(z)-a|>r
$$

for all $z \in D_{\varepsilon}(p) \backslash\{p\}$. Then define $g: D_{\varepsilon}(p) \backslash\{p\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by

$$
g(z)=\frac{1}{f(z)-a} .
$$

Since $f(z) \neq a$ on that punctured disc, $g(z)$ is holomorphic. Moreover $|g(z)| \leq 1 / r$ in $D_{\varepsilon}(p) \backslash\{p\}$, and hence by the removable singularity Theorem 0.1 , there exists an extension $\tilde{g}$ holomorphic on $D_{\varepsilon}(p)$. There are now two cases.

Case-1. $\tilde{g}(p) \neq 0$. Then by continuity, there is a smaller $r<\varepsilon$ and a $\delta>0$ such that $|\tilde{g}(z)|>\delta$ on $D_{r}(p)$. But away from $p$,

$$
f(z)=\frac{1}{g(z)}+a
$$

and so on $D_{r}(p) \backslash\{p\}$,

$$
|f(z)| \leq \frac{1}{|\tilde{g}(z)|}+|a|<\frac{1}{\delta}+|a|,
$$

and so $|f(z)|$ is bounded in a neighborhood of $p$. By the removable singularity theorem, $f$ must have a removable singularity at $z=p$ which is a contradiction.

Case-2. $\tilde{g}(p)=0$. Then for any $\varepsilon>0$, there exists a $r>0$ such that on $D_{r}$,

$$
|\tilde{g}(z)| \leq \varepsilon .
$$

So by triangle inequality, if $\varepsilon$ small enough so that $|a|<1 / 2 \varepsilon$, then on $D_{r}(p) \backslash\{p\}$ we have

$$
|f(z)|=\left|\frac{1}{g(z)}+a\right| \geq \left\lvert\, \frac{1}{\underset{6}{|g(z)|}-|a|\left|\geq \frac{1}{\varepsilon}-|a|>\frac{1}{2 \varepsilon}, ~\left(\frac{1}{6}\right.\right.}\right.
$$

for all $z \in D_{r}(p)$. This shows that $\lim _{z \rightarrow p}|f(z)|=\infty$, which is a contradiction, completing the proof of the theorem.

Remark 0.3. It is a theorem of Picard's that in any neighbourhood of an essential singularity, the image under $f$ is not only dense in $\mathbb{C}$ but misses at most one point of $\mathbb{C}$ !
Example 0.3. The function $f(z)=e^{1 / z}$, which is holomorphic on $\mathbb{C}^{*}$, has an essential singularity at $z=0$. To see this, we need to rule out the possibilities of $f$ having a removable singularity or a pole at $z=0$. Since

$$
f(1 / n)=e^{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \infty,
$$

$f(z)$ is not bounded in any neighborhood of $z=0$, and hence cannot have a removable singularity. On the other hand,

$$
f\left(\frac{1}{2 \pi n i}\right)=e^{2 \pi i n}=1
$$

Hence the limit $\lim _{z \rightarrow 0} f(z)$ cannot be infinity, and hence $f$ cannot have a pole at $z=0$. This shows that $f(z)$ has to have an essential singularity at $z=0$. Again looking at an expansion, we see that for $z \neq 0$,

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

So the expansion has infinitely many terms with negative powers of $z$. As we will see when we discuss Laurent series, this in fact characterizes essential singularities.
Remark 0.4. We finally remark that non-isolated singularities can exist. For instance the function

$$
f(z)=\tan \left(\frac{1}{z}\right)
$$

has singularities at 0 and points $p_{n}=2 / n \pi$ which converge to 0 . The analysis in the present lecture does not apply to such singularities.

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[^0]:    Date: 24 August 2016.

