

ZEROES AND SINGULARITIES

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A complex function f may be analytic over a domain, but be undefined at one or more isolated points. Such points are called *isolated singularities* and come in several forms. The details are given in Saff and Snider, section 5.6, so we'll summarize the essentials here.

Let f have an isolated singularity at z_0 , and suppose that f has a Laurent series given by

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k \quad (1)$$

Then:

- If $a_k = 0$ for all $k < 0$, that is, the series has no terms with negative exponents, then f has a *removable singularity* at z_0 , and its series is an ordinary Taylor series.
- If $a_{-m} \neq 0$ for some positive integer m , but $a_k = 0$ for all $k < -m$, that is, the series has a finite but non-zero number of terms with negative exponents, then the function has a *pole* of order m at z_0 . A pole of order 1 is a *simple pole*.
- If $a_k \neq 0$ for an infinite number of negative values of k , then f has an *essential singularity* at z_0 .

There are several other ways of detecting singularities which are given in Saff and Snider, but the essential idea is that a removable singularity is one where the function can be redefined (or defined, if it wasn't originally) at z_0 to make it analytic, a pole is a singularity where the function blows up to $\pm\infty$, and an essential singularity which has rather bizarre properties which we outlined in a previous post.

A function has a *zero of order m* at z_0 if the lowest non-zero a_k is when $k = m$. In other words, the Taylor series about $z = z_0$ has no constant term and has the form

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k \quad (2)$$

From this form, we see that for a zero of order m , the function's first $m - 1$ derivatives are zero at z_0 .

Here are some examples of singularities of functions.

Example 1. $f(z) = \frac{z^3+1}{z^2(z+1)}$. The function as it stands is undefined at $z = 0$ and $z = -1$. We can factor the numerator to get

$$f(z) = \frac{(z+1)(z^2 - z + 1)}{z^2(z+1)} \quad (3)$$

The $z + 1$ factor can be cancelled, so f has a removable singularity at $z = -1$, and a pole of order 2 at $z = 0$. The Laurent series about $z = 0$ is (using Maple)

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} - \frac{1}{z} + 1 \quad (4)$$

This also shows the pole of order 2 at $z = 0$.

The series about $z = -1$ is a Taylor series:

$$f(z) = 3 + 3(z+1) + 4(z+1)^2 + 5(z+1)^3 + 6(z+1)^4 + \dots \quad (5)$$

which means this is a removable singularity.

Example 2. $f(z) = z^3 e^{1/z}$. We've shown before that $e^{1/z}$ has an essential singularity at $z = 0$, so this function also has an essential singularity here. This also arises from the Laurent series which is

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^3 \frac{1}{k! z^k} \quad (6)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k! z^{k-3}} \quad (7)$$

There are an infinite number of negative exponents in the series, so we have an essential singularity.

Example 3. $f(z) = \frac{\cos z}{z^2+1} + 4z$. The $\cos z$ is analytic over the entire plane, as is $4z$, so the only singularities are due to the $z^2 + 1$, which factors into $(z+i)(z-i)$. Thus we have simple poles at $z = \pm i$.

Example 4. $f(z) = \frac{1}{e^z - 1}$.

The denominator is zero when $z = 0$ and at $z = 2k\pi i$ for integer k . Near $z = 0$, we have

$$\frac{1}{e^z - 1} = \frac{1}{1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots - 1} \quad (8)$$

$$= \frac{1}{z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots} \quad (9)$$

$$= \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{z}{2!} + \frac{z^2}{3!} + \dots} \quad (10)$$

For $|z|$ near zero, we can rewrite the reciprocal of the series as

$$\frac{1}{1 + \frac{z}{2!} + \frac{z^2}{3!} + \dots} = 1 - \frac{z}{2!} + \mathcal{O}(z^2) \quad (11)$$

so we have

$$\frac{1}{e^z - 1} = \frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{2} + \mathcal{O}(z) \quad (12)$$

Since the Laurent series contains z^{-1} as its only negative power, we have a simple pole at $z = 0$.

For $z = 2k\pi i$, we set

$$w = z - 2k\pi i \quad (13)$$

so near the singularity, $|w|$ is very small. Also, we have

$$e^z = e^{w+2k\pi i} = e^w \quad (14)$$

so we can expand the exponential in terms of w instead of z , getting exactly the same series as above. Thus there are also simple poles at all $z_0 = 2k\pi i$.

Example 5. $f(z) = \tan z$. We have

$$\tan z = \frac{\sin z}{\cos z} \quad (15)$$

so the singularities are at the zeroes of $\cos z$ which are at $(n + \frac{1}{2})\pi$. The zeroes are all simple order 1 zeroes since the derivative is $-\sin z$ which is nonzero at $(n + \frac{1}{2})\pi$. Therefore $\tan z$ has simple poles at $z_0 = (n + \frac{1}{2})\pi$.

Example 6. $f(z) = \cos\left(1 - \frac{1}{z}\right)$. The definition of cosine

$$\cos w = \frac{e^{iw} + e^{-iw}}{2} \quad (16)$$

so here we have

$$\cos\left(1 - \frac{1}{z}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(e^i e^{-i/z} + e^{-i} e^{i/z} \right) \quad (17)$$

The factors $e^{\pm i}$ are well defined in terms of \cos and \sin . As we approach $z = 0$ along the positive or negative imaginary axis, $e^{-i/z}$ and $e^{i/z}$ behave like $e^{\pm 1/z}$. Because we know that $e^{1/z}$ has an essential singularity at $z = 0$, $\cos\left(1 - \frac{1}{z}\right)$ also has an essential singularity there.

Example 7. $f(z) = \frac{\sin(3z)}{z^3} - \frac{3}{z}$. We expand in series form:

$$\frac{\sin(3z)}{z^2} - \frac{3}{z} = \frac{1}{z^2} \left(3z - \frac{(3z)^3}{3!} + \frac{(3z)^5}{5!} + \dots \right) - \frac{3}{z} \quad (18)$$

$$= -\frac{9}{2}z + \frac{81}{40}z^3 + \mathcal{O}(z^5) \quad (19)$$

This is a Taylor series, so we have a removable singularity at $z = 0$.

Example 8. $f(z) = \cot \frac{1}{z}$. We have

$$\cot \frac{1}{z} = \frac{\cos 1/z}{\sin 1/z} \quad (20)$$

so there are singularities at $z = 0$ and any values where $\sin 1/z = 0$. Because of the definition of $\sin w$ in terms of complex exponentials, there is an essential singularity at $z = 0$ (using the same argument as in Example 6 above). The other zeroes of $\sin 1/z$ occur at

$$\frac{1}{z} = k\pi \quad (21)$$

or, for $k \neq 0$

$$z = \frac{1}{k\pi} \quad (22)$$

To explore the behaviour near these points, we define

$$w = \frac{1}{z} - k\pi \quad (23)$$

Then

$$\sin \frac{1}{z} = \sin(w + k\pi) \quad (24)$$

$$= \sin w \cos k\pi + \sin k\pi \cos w \quad (25)$$

$$= (-1)^k \sin w \quad (26)$$

For z near $1/k\pi$, $|w|$ is very small, so we have

$$\sin w \approx w \quad (27)$$

and

$$\cot \frac{1}{z} = \frac{\cos w}{\sin w} \quad (28)$$

$$\approx \frac{(-1)^k}{w} \quad (29)$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^k}{\frac{1}{z} - k\pi} \quad (30)$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^{k+1} z/k\pi}{z - 1/k\pi} \quad (31)$$

$$= (-1)^{k+1} \left[\frac{1}{k^2\pi^2} \left(z - \frac{1}{k\pi} \right)^{-1} + \frac{1}{k\pi} \right] \quad (32)$$

where the last step can be verified by putting the two terms over a common denominator of $z - \frac{1}{k\pi}$. Thus $\cot \frac{1}{z}$ has a Laurent series with a single negative exponent, so it has simple poles at $z_0 = \frac{1}{k\pi}$ for $k \neq 0$, and an essential singularity at $z_0 = 0$.

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