

Lecture 9, August 1, 2006

Singularities, Laurent Series

If z_0 is a singularity of a function $f(z)$, it is obvious that we cannot expand $f(z)$ using Taylor Series at $z=z_0$ since $f(z_0)=\infty$ and $f(z_0)$ is the first term in the expansion

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} z^n.$$

However, if z_0 is an isolated singularity, i.e., $f(z)$ is only discontinuous at this point and analytic in any neighborhood of z_0 , then we can find a series expansion for $f(z)$. This is called the Laurent Series.

Say $f(z)$ is written as $\frac{g(z)}{z-z_0}$, i.e., it has a singularity at $z=z_0$. Assuming $g(z)$ is analytic at z_0 , we can expand $g(z)$ as

$$g(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!} (z-z_0)^k$$

Now,

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z-z_0} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(k)}(z_0)}{k!} (z-z_0)^k$$

or

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k$$

in general we may have many negative power terms, i. e.,

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \dots + \frac{a_{-2}}{(z-z_0)^2} + \frac{a_{-1}}{(z-z_0)} + a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + \dots \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{-k}}{(z-z_0)^k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k \end{aligned}$$

To clarify the idea consider the following example:

$$f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z^3}$$

This function is not analytic at $z=0$.

However, we have a Taylor series expansion for $\sin z$,

$$\sin z = z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \frac{z^7}{7!} + \dots$$

So

$$f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z^3} = \frac{1}{z^2} - \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{z^2}{5!} - \frac{z^4}{7!} + \dots$$

This series converges at all z except $z=0$
 i.e., it converges for $|z| > 0$.

In general,

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

Converges in a ring defined by $r < |z-z_0| < R$.

Theorem (Laurent Series):

Let f be analytic within an annular domain
 D defined by $r < |z-z_0| < R$.

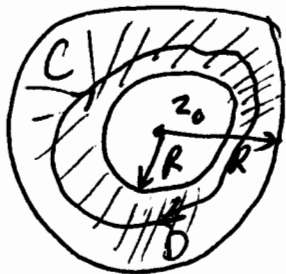
Then f has a Laurent series expansion

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

valid for $r < |z-z_0| < R$ where

$$a_k = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-z_0)^{k+1}} dz \quad k=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

where C is a simple closed contour that lies
 entirely in D and has z_0 inside.



Example: Expand $f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-1)}$ in a Laurent Series for

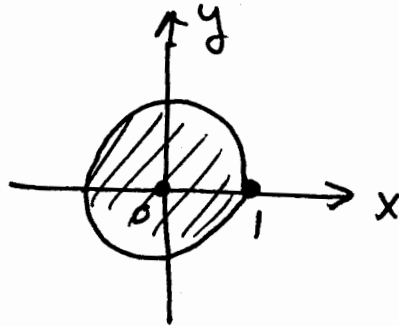
a) $0 < |z| < 1$

b) $|z| > 1$

c) $0 < |z-1| < 1$

d) $|z-1| > 1$

a)



$$0 < |z| < 1$$

here we want to expand in terms of powers of z

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

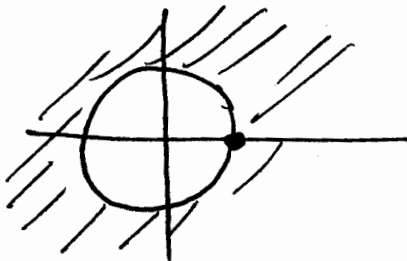
$$\frac{1}{1-z} = 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + \dots$$

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

$$= -\frac{1}{z} - 1 - z - z^2 - \dots$$

This series converges for $0 < |z| < 1$.

b)



$$|z| > 1$$

So, we expand the series by finding a part that is a function of $\frac{1}{z}$ & converges for $|\frac{1}{z}| < 1$

(equivalently)

(equivalently)

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

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{z^2} + \frac{1}{z^3} + \frac{1}{z^4} + \frac{1}{z^5} + \dots$$

c) $0 < |z-1| < 1$

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

Now, we expand $\frac{1}{z}$ at $z_0=1$

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

So,

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

d) $|z-1| > 1$ again, we form a series

in terms of $\frac{1}{z-1}$

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

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{(z-1)^2} - \frac{1}{(z-1)^3} + \frac{1}{(z-1)^4} - \frac{1}{(z-1)^5} + \dots$$

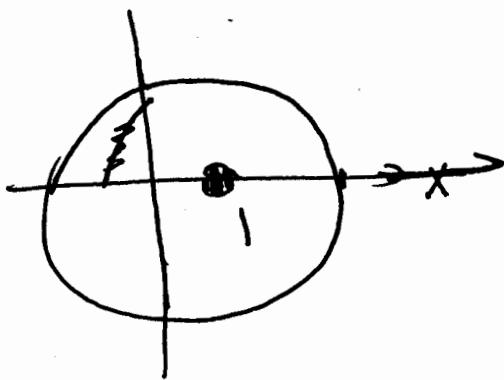
Example: Expand $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-1)^2(z-3)}$

using Laurent series for

a) $0 < |z-1| < 2$

b) $0 < |z-3| < 2$

a)



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

we now expand $\frac{1}{z-3}$ at $z_0 = 1$

$$\frac{1}{z-3} = \frac{1}{-2+(z-1)} = \frac{-1}{2} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{z-1}{2}} = -\frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \frac{z-1}{2} + \frac{(z-1)^2}{4} + \dots \right]$$

$$f(z) = -\frac{1}{2(z-1)^2} - \frac{1}{4(z-1)} + \frac{1}{8} - \frac{1}{16}(z-1) + \dots$$

$$b) \quad 0 < |z-3| < 2$$

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

we expand $\frac{1}{(z-1)^2}$ at $z_0 = 3$

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

$$g(3) = \frac{1}{2^2}$$

$$g'(z) = \frac{-2}{(z-1)^3}$$

$$g'(3) = \frac{-2!}{2^3}$$

$$g''(z) = \frac{+3 \times 2}{(z-1)^4}$$

$$g''(3) = \frac{3!}{2^4}$$

$$g^{(n)}(3) = \frac{(n+1)!}{2^{n+2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{(z-1)^2} = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4}(z-3) + \frac{3}{16}(z-3)^2 - \frac{1}{8}(z-3)^3 + \dots$$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z-3} \left[\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4}(z-3) + \frac{3}{16}(z-3)^2 - \frac{1}{8}(z-3)^3 + \dots \right]$$

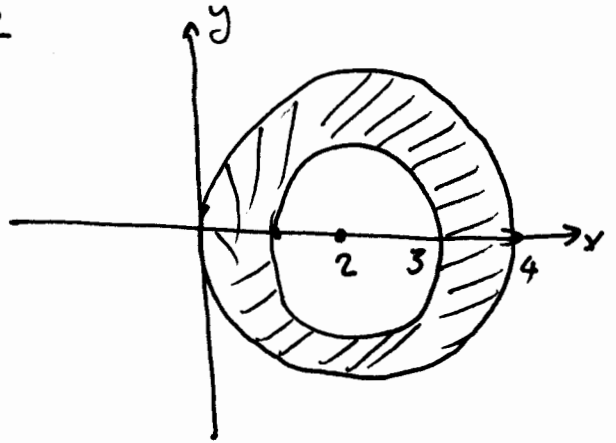
$$= \frac{1}{4(z-3)} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{16}(z-3) - \frac{1}{8}(z-3)^2 + \dots$$

Ex. Expand $f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-1)}$ in a Laurent Series

valid for $1 < |z-2| < 2$

Let

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



$$-\frac{1}{z} = -\frac{1}{2+z-2} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1+\frac{z-2}{2}}$$

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

$$= -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{z-2}{2^2} - \frac{(z-2)^2}{2^3} + \frac{(z-2)^3}{2^4} - \dots$$

This series converges for $|\frac{z-2}{2}| < 1$ or $|z-2| < 2$

For $\frac{1}{z-1}$, we have

$$\frac{1}{z-1} = \frac{1}{1+z-2} = \frac{1}{z-2} \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{z-2}}$$

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

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

This series converges for $|\frac{1}{z-2}| < 1 \Rightarrow |z-2| > 1$

So $f(z) = -\frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{z-1}$ converges ~~for~~ ⁱⁿ the intersection of the two areas of convergence, i.e.,

$$1 < |z-2| < 2.$$

$$f(z) = \dots - \frac{1}{(z-2)^4} + \frac{1}{(z-2)^3} - \frac{1}{(z-2)^2} + \frac{1}{z-2} - \frac{1}{z} + \frac{z-2}{z^2} \dots$$

Example: Expand $f(z) = e^{3/2}$ in a Laurent series for $|z| > 0$.

We have

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

So,

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

which is valid for $|z| > 0$

Zeros and Poles

Assume that

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

is the series expansion of $f(z)$ for $r < |z-z_0| < R$.

We can write $f(z)$ as,

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{-k}}{(z-z_0)^k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z-z_0)^k$$

The part $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{-k}}{(z-z_0)^k}$ is called the Principal Part of $f(z)$ at $z=z_0$.

Isolated singularities can be classified as:

- 1) if the principal part is zero, i.e., all a_{-k} are zero, then $z=z_0$ is called a removable singularity.
- 2) if the principal part has a finite number of nonzero terms, then $z=z_0$ is called a pole. If a_{-n} is the last non-zero term, then $z=z_0$ is a pole of order n .
- 3) if the principal part has an infinite number of terms, then it is called an essential singularity.

So,

1) if $f(z) = a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + a_2(z-z_0)^2 + \dots$
we say $z=z_0$ is a removable singularity,

2) if $f(z) = \frac{a_{-n}}{(z-z_0)^n} + \frac{a_{-(n-1)}}{(z-z_0)^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + \dots$
we say z_0 is a pole of order n .

3) if $n=1$, we have

$$f(z) = \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + a_2(z-z_0)^2 + \dots$$

and $z=z_0$ is called a simple pole.

4) if

$$\dots + \frac{a_{-2}}{(z-z_0)^2} + \frac{a_{-1}}{z-z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + a_2(z-z_0)^2 + \dots$$

we say that $z=z_0$ is an essential singularity.

Example:

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

So, $z=0$ is a removable singularity.

Example:

$$f(z) = \frac{\sin z}{z^2} = \frac{1}{z} - \frac{z}{3!} + \frac{z^3}{5!} - \dots$$

So, the principal part is $\frac{1}{z}$ and $z=0$ is a simple pole.

Zeros

z_0 is a zero of $f(z)$ if $f(z_0) = 0$.

z_0 is a zero of order n of $f(z)$ if

$f(z_0) = 0, f'(z_0) = 0, \dots, f^{(n-1)}(z_0) = 0$ but $f^{(n)}(z_0) \neq 0$.

or

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= a_n(z-z_0)^n + a_{n+1}(z-z_0)^{n+1} + a_{n+2}(z-z_0)^{n+2} + \dots \\ &= (z-z_0)^n [a_n + a_{n+1}(z-z_0) + a_{n+2}(z-z_0)^2 + \dots] \end{aligned}$$

Example: What is the order of $f(z) = z \sin z^2$'s zero at $z=0$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= z \sin z^2 = z \left[z^2 - \frac{z^6}{3!} + \frac{z^{10}}{5!} - \dots \right] \\ &= z^3 - \frac{z^7}{3!} + \frac{z^{11}}{5!} - \dots \\ &= z^3 \left[1 - \frac{z^4}{3!} + \frac{z^8}{5!} - \dots \right] \end{aligned}$$

So, $z=0$ is a zero of order 3.

Theorem: If functions $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ are analytic at $z=z_0$ and $f(z)$ has a zero of order n at $z=z_0$ and $g(z_0) \neq 0$ then the function $F(z) = \frac{g(z)}{f(z)}$ has a pole of order n at $z=z_0$.

Example: What ^{is} the order of poles of

$$f(z) = \frac{3z-1}{z^2+2z+5} = \frac{3z-1}{(z+1-2i)(z+1+2i)}$$

So, a simple pole at $z = -1+2i$
and a simple pole at $z = -1-2i$.

Example: order of poles of

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

$$1-e^z = 0 \Rightarrow e^z = 1 \Rightarrow e^z = e^{i n 2\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow z = 2n\pi i \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

are simple poles.