

Lecture 26: Removable singularities

Math 660—Jim Fowler

Tuesday, July 27, 2010

Congratulations

I should have the midterms graded by tomorrow.

Your homework, however, might be a bit delayed (another faculty member is grading it—sorry).

Removable singularities

Think back to the theorems we proved for analytic functions with finitely many exceptional points.

Assuming $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a)f(z) = 0$, we could still make progress.

Suppose Ω is a region, and
 $\Omega' = \Omega - \text{point}$.

Suppose f is analytic in Ω'

There exists an analytic function in Ω extending f
if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a)f(z) = 0.$$

Suppose Ω is a region, and
 $\Omega' = \Omega - \text{point}$.

Suppose f is analytic in Ω'

There exists an analytic function in Ω extending f
if and only if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z - a)f(z) = 0.$$

Such singularities are called *removable*

Proof

Such an extension is unique by continuity.

Proof

Such an extension is unique by continuity.
“only if” by computing the limit.

Proof

Such an extension is unique by continuity.

“only if” by computing the limit.

But why does the “if” direction follow?

Proof

Such an extension is unique by continuity.

“only if” by computing the limit.

But why does the “if” direction follow?

Cauchy's theorem applies, so

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta) d\zeta}{\zeta - z}$$

for all $z \neq a$ inside of the circle C .

Proof

Such an extension is unique by continuity.

“only if” by computing the limit.

But why does the “if” direction follow?

Cauchy's theorem applies, so

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta) d\zeta}{\zeta - z}$$

for all $z \neq a$ inside of the circle C .

But this integral defines an analytic function even at $z = a$.

Proof

Such an extension is unique by continuity.

“only if” by computing the limit.

But why does the “if” direction follow?

Cauchy's theorem applies, so

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta) d\zeta}{\zeta - z}$$

for all $z \neq a$ inside of the circle C .

But this integral defines an analytic function even at $z = a$. □

Application: Taylor's theorem

Apply the previous method to

$$F(z) = \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a}$$

to define an analytic function (called f_1) extending this definition of F .

Application: Taylor's theorem

Apply the previous method to

$$F(z) = \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a}$$

to define an analytic function (called f_1) extending this definition of F .

$$f_1(a) = f'(a).$$

Application: Taylor's theorem

Apply the previous method to

$$F(z) = \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a}$$

to define an analytic function (called f_1) extending this definition of F .

$$f_1(a) = f'(a).$$

Repeat: $f_1(z) = f_1(a) + (z - a)f_2(z)$, and so forth...

Application: Taylor's theorem

Apply the previous method to

$$F(z) = \frac{f(z) - f(a)}{z - a}$$

to define an analytic function (called f_1) extending this definition of F .

$$f_1(a) = f'(a).$$

Repeat: $f_1(z) = f_1(a) + (z - a)f_2(z)$, and so forth...

$$f(z) = f(a) + (z - a)f_1(a) + \cdots + (z - a)^{n-1}f_{n-1}(a) + (z - a)^n f_n$$

Taylor's theorem

Since $f^{(n)}(a) = n!f_n(a)$, we have proved

Theorem (Taylor's theorem)

If $f(z)$ is analytic in a region $\Omega \ni a$, we can write

$$f(z) = f(a) + (z-a)f_1(a) + \cdots + (z-a)^{n-1}f_{n-1}(a) + (z-a)^n$$

for a function $f_n(z)$ analytic in Ω .

We can say more about $f_n(z)$.

We can say more about $f_n(z)$. Since

$$f_n(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f_n(\zeta) d\zeta}{\zeta - z}$$

we can substitute $f_n(\zeta)$, which involves $f(\zeta)$ and many terms of the form

$$\int_C \frac{d\zeta}{(\zeta - a)^m (\zeta - z)} = 0$$

so

$$f_n(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - a)^n (\zeta - z)}$$

Zeroes and poles

Now we proceed to study the zeroes and poles of an analytic function.

Zeroes of infinite order

Suppose $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$ for all n .

Zeroes of infinite order

Suppose $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$ for all n .

By Taylor's theorem, $f(z) = f_n(z)(z - a)^n$ for any n .

Zeros of infinite order

Suppose $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$ for all n .

By Taylor's theorem, $f(z) = f_n(z)(z - a)^n$ for any n . Since

$$f_n(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - a)^n (\zeta - z)}$$

We have that

$$|f_n(z)| \leq \frac{M}{R^{n-1}(R - |z - a|)}$$

Zeros of infinite order

Suppose $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$ for all n .

By Taylor's theorem, $f(z) = f_n(z)(z - a)^n$ for any n . Since

$$f_n(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - a)^n (\zeta - z)}$$

We have that

$$|f_n(z)| \leq \frac{M}{R^{n-1}(R - |z - a|)}$$

but we can relate f_n and f , so

$$|f(z)| \leq \left(\frac{|z - a|}{R} \right)^n \cdot \frac{MR}{R - |z - a|}$$

Zeros of infinite order

Suppose $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$ for all n .

By Taylor's theorem, $f(z) = f_n(z)(z - a)^n$ for any n . Since

$$f_n(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - a)^n (\zeta - z)}$$

We have that

$$|f_n(z)| \leq \frac{M}{R^{n-1}(R - |z - a|)}$$

but we can relate f_n and f , so

$$|f(z)| \leq \left(\frac{|z - a|}{R} \right)^n \cdot \frac{MR}{R - |z - a|}$$

and therefore $f(z) = 0$ inside of the circle C .

Zeroes of infinite order

In fact, $f(z) \equiv 0$ in the entire region.

Zeroes of infinite order

In fact, $f(z) \equiv 0$ in the entire region.

E_1 = set on which all derivatives vanish.

E_2 = set on which some derivative is nonzero.

Zeros of infinite order

In fact, $f(z) \equiv 0$ in the entire region.

E_1 = set on which all derivatives vanish.

E_2 = set on which some derivative is nonzero.

Both E_1 and E_2 are open.

And $E_1 \neq \emptyset$.

So $E_1 = \Omega$ because Ω is connected.

Order of zeroes

If $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$ for $n < h$, then we say a is a zero of order h .

Order of zeroes

If $f^{(n)}(a) = 0$ for $n < h$, then we say a is a zero of order h .

Theorem

There are no zeroes of infinite order.

Zeros are isolated

If a is a zero of order h ,
then write $f(z) = (z - a)^h f_h(z)$ for f_h analytic and $f_h(a) \neq 0$.

Zeros are isolated

If a is a zero of order h ,
then write $f(z) = (z - a)^h f_h(z)$ for f_h analytic and $f_h(a) \neq 0$.

But since f_h is analytic, f_h is continuous, so $f_h(z) \neq 0$ if z is in a neighborhood of a .

Zeroes are isolated

If a is a zero of order h ,
then write $f(z) = (z - a)^h f_h(z)$ for f_h analytic and $f_h(a) \neq 0$.

But since f_h is analytic, f_h is continuous, so $f_h(z) \neq 0$ if z is in a neighborhood of a .

So $f(z)$ has isolated zeroes.

Theorem

*Suppose f and g are analytic functions.
If $f(z) = g(z)$ for $z \in A \subset \Omega$,
and A has an accumulation point in Ω ,
then $f = g$.*

Theorem

*Suppose f and g are analytic functions.
If $f(z) = g(z)$ for $z \in A \subset \Omega$,
and A has an accumulation point in Ω ,
then $f = g$.*

Analytic functions are determined by their values on sets with an accumulation point.

Singularities

Suppose $f(z)$ is analytic in a neighborhood of a , but perhaps not at a . (I.e., analytic in a region $0 < |z - a| < \delta$).

Singularities

Suppose $f(z)$ is analytic in a neighborhood of a , but perhaps not at a . (I.e., analytic in a region $0 < |z - a| < \delta$).

Then a is an isolated singularity of f .

Singularities

Suppose $f(z)$ is analytic in a neighborhood of a , but perhaps not at a . (I.e., analytic in a region $0 < |z - a| < \delta$).

Then a is an isolated singularity of f .

If $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) = \infty$, then we say that a is a pole of $f(z)$; we can define the order of a pole by considering $1/f(z)$, which has a removable singularity at a .

Singularities

Suppose $f(z)$ is analytic in a neighborhood of a , but perhaps not at a . (I.e., analytic in a region $0 < |z - a| < \delta$).

Then a is an isolated singularity of f .

If $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) = \infty$, then we say that a is a pole of $f(z)$; we can define the order of a pole by considering $1/f(z)$, which has a removable singularity at a .

Poles are isolated, because zeroes are.

Meromorphic functions

A function f which is analytic in Ω , except at points which are poles, is called *meromorphic* in Ω .

Meromorphic functions

A function f which is analytic in Ω , except at points which are poles, is called *meromorphic* in Ω .

Add, subtract, multiply, and divide (by nonzero) meromorphic functions to get new meromorphic functions.

Meromorphic functions

A function f which is analytic in Ω , except at points which are poles, is called *meromorphic* in Ω .

Add, subtract, multiply, and divide (by nonzero) meromorphic functions to get new meromorphic functions.

Think of a meromorphic function as a holomorphic function from Ω to S^2 , the Riemann sphere.