

The Complex Logarithm

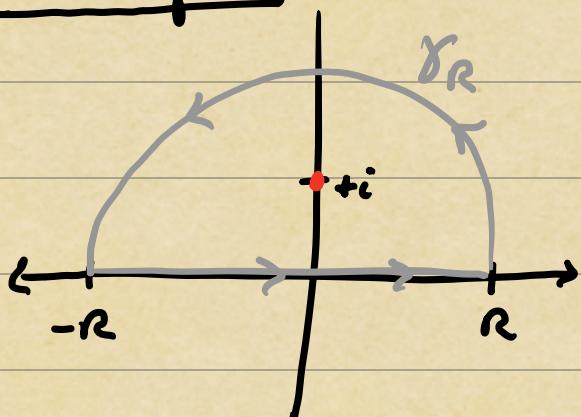
~~Recap~~

Residue Thm $\Rightarrow \int_{\Gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^n c_k$ residue at z_k
 \sum holomorphic except
at $z_1, \dots, z_n \in \text{int}(\gamma)$

Residue $\Rightarrow c_k = \int_{|z-z_k|=r} f(z) dz = \text{coeff. of } (z-z_k)^{-1}$ in
at z_k Laurent series

For pole of order m $\Rightarrow c_m = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_k} \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} \left[(z-z_k)^m f(z) \right]$

Example



Show that $\int_{\gamma_R} \frac{1}{z^2+1} dz = \pi$

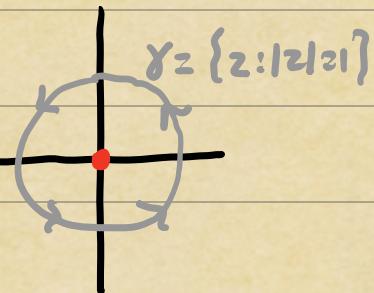
$$\frac{1}{z^2+1} = \frac{1}{2i} \left[\frac{1}{z-i} - \frac{1}{z+i} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{residue} = \lim_{z \rightarrow i} (z-i)(z^2+1)^{-1} \\ = \frac{1}{2i}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\gamma_R} \frac{1}{z^2+1} dz = 2\pi \left(\frac{1}{2i} \right) = \pi \sqrt{i} \text{ residue at } +i$$

Alternatively, read off c_1 from Laurent series.

Example / Compute $\int_{\gamma} e^{1/z} dz$ where $\gamma = \{ |z|=1 \}$.



$$e^{1/z} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \frac{1}{z^k} \rightarrow a_{-1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} e^{1/z} dz = 2\pi i$$

Complex Antiderivatives

To develop the theory further, we must consider the question: why does only the $k=-1$ term in the Laurent series contribute to the residue $\int f(z) dz$ at z_0 ?

$$\Rightarrow \int_{|z-z_0|=r} z^k dz = \int_{|z-z_0|=r} (re^{i\theta})^k (ire^{i\theta}) d\theta = \begin{cases} 0 & k \neq -1 \\ 2\pi i & k = -1 \end{cases}$$

The explanation lies in the properties of complex antiderivatives of z^k ($k \geq 1, 2, 3, \dots$).

A complex antiderivative (or "primitive") for $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a function $F: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ holomorphic in Ω and s.t. $F'(z) = f(z)$ for all $z \in \Omega$.

Theorem (FTC) / If f is continuous on Ω with complex antiderivative F , and $\gamma: [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$ is a Jordan curve, then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = F(\gamma(1)) - F(\gamma(0)).$$

In particular, if γ is closed ($\gamma(1) = \gamma(0)$)

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0.$$

Example / first, consider z^k for $k \neq -1$.

$$f(z) = z^k \quad \text{and} \quad F(z) = \frac{z^{k+1}}{k+1}$$

$f(z)$ is holomorphic in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ so for any closed curve γ not passing through $z=0$,

$$\int_{\gamma} z^k dz = \frac{\gamma(1)^{k+1}}{k+1} - \frac{\gamma(0)^{k+1}}{k+1} = 0.$$

What about $k=-1$? For real valued functions we know that the anti-

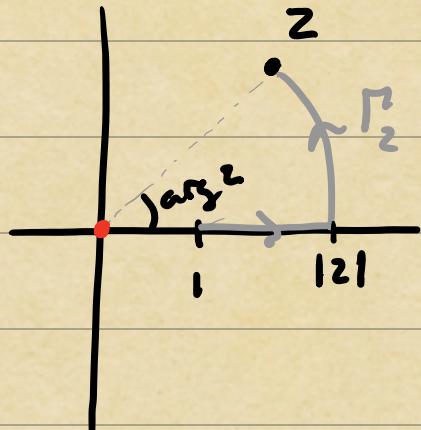
derivative of $\frac{1}{x}$ is $\log x$, for $x > 0$:

$$(*) \quad \log x = \int_1^x \frac{dx}{x}, \quad x > 0.$$

The properties of $\log x$ can be derived from (*).

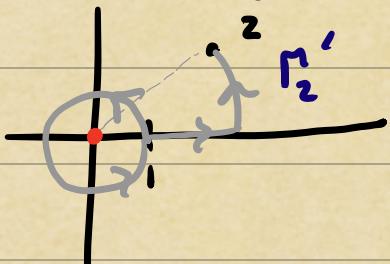
The Complex Logarithm

To construct an antiderivative of $\frac{1}{z}$, consider the following contour:



$$\begin{aligned} F(z) &= \int_{\Gamma_2} \frac{dz}{z} = \int_1^{|z|} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_0^{\arg z} \frac{e^{iz} e^{ic\theta}}{|z| e^{i\theta}} d\theta \\ &= \log |z| + i \arg z \end{aligned}$$

Formally, $F(z)$ is the complex logarithm. However note that the value of $F(z)$ depends heavily on the choice of contour connecting 1 to z . For example,

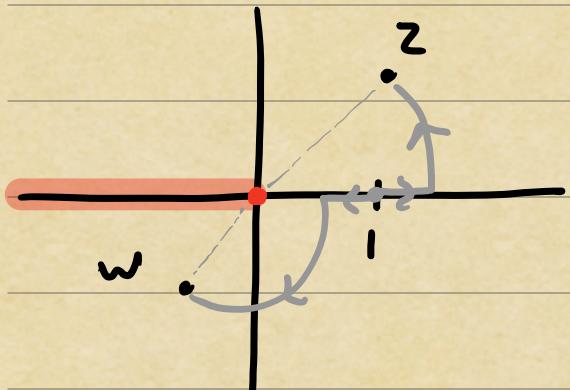


$$F(z) = \int_{\Gamma_2'} \frac{dz}{z} = \log |z| + i(\arg z + 2\pi)$$

In general, the complex logarithm is multivalued with possible values at z ,

$$F(z) = \log|z| + i(\arg z + 2\pi k), \quad k=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

To obtain a single-valued function, we can restrict which contours connecting 1 to z are permissible for our construction.



If we prohibit contours that pass through the negative real axis, $\mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}$, we obtain

$$f_p(z) = \log|z| + i\arg z, \quad -\pi < \arg z < \pi.$$

This is called the principal branch of the complex logarithm. One can show that

$\Rightarrow f_p(z)$ is holomorphic in $\Omega = \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}_{\leq 0}$ with
 $f_p'(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ for all $z \in \Omega$.

$\Rightarrow f_p(x) = \log x$ when $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x > 0$.

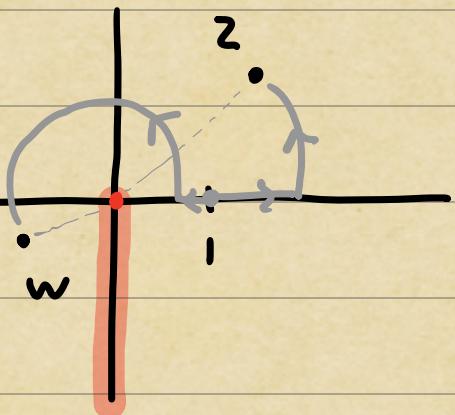
$\Rightarrow \exp(f_p(z)) = z$ for all $z \in \Omega$.

Note that $f_p(z)$ has a "jump" of $2\pi i$ on $\mathbb{R}_{<0}$,

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} f_p(x + i\varepsilon) - f_p(x - i\varepsilon) = 2\pi i, \quad x < 0.$$

The choice of $\mathbb{R}_{<0}$ is called a branch cut.

We can obtain other "versions" of the complex logarithm, called branches, by selecting different branch cuts. For example,



$$F(z) = \log|z| + i \arg z,$$

where $-\frac{\pi}{2} < \arg z < \frac{3\pi}{2}$.

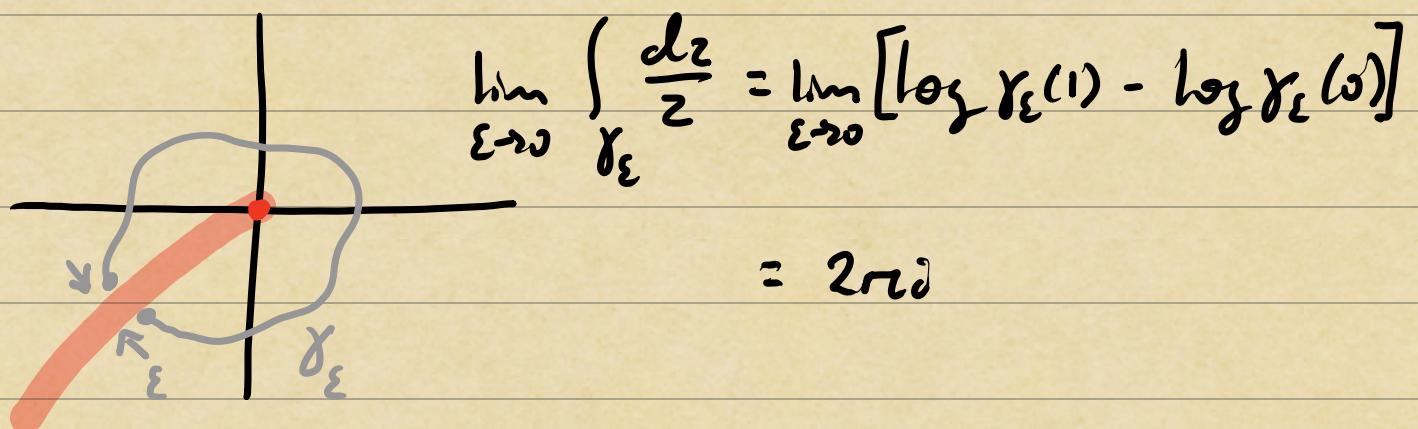
Note that after a branch cut is chosen, $F(z)$ is single-valued and the value of $F(z)$ is the same for all contours connecting 1 to z and not passing through the branch cut.

While the branch cut is "arbitrary", it must connect the points ω and ∞ to ensure that the resulting logarithm is single-valued.

The points ω and ∞ are called **branch points**.

Antiderivative of z^{-1}

No matter which branch of the complex logarithm we choose, any closed curve winding enclosing the origin will have to intersect the branch cut.



So the residue of an isolated singularity only depends on the coefficient of $(z-z_0)^{-1}$ in the Laurent series b/c the antiderivative of $(z-z_0)^{-1}$, i.e., the complex logarithm $\log(z-z_0)$, has

a branch cut - a jump discontinuity - connected
to z_0 . While the singularities of antiderivatives for z^k ($k \neq -1$) are local in character,
the branch cut of $\log z$ means that $1/z$
contributes to closed contour integrals no
matter how far the contour is from the
origin (or, more generally, from z_0).