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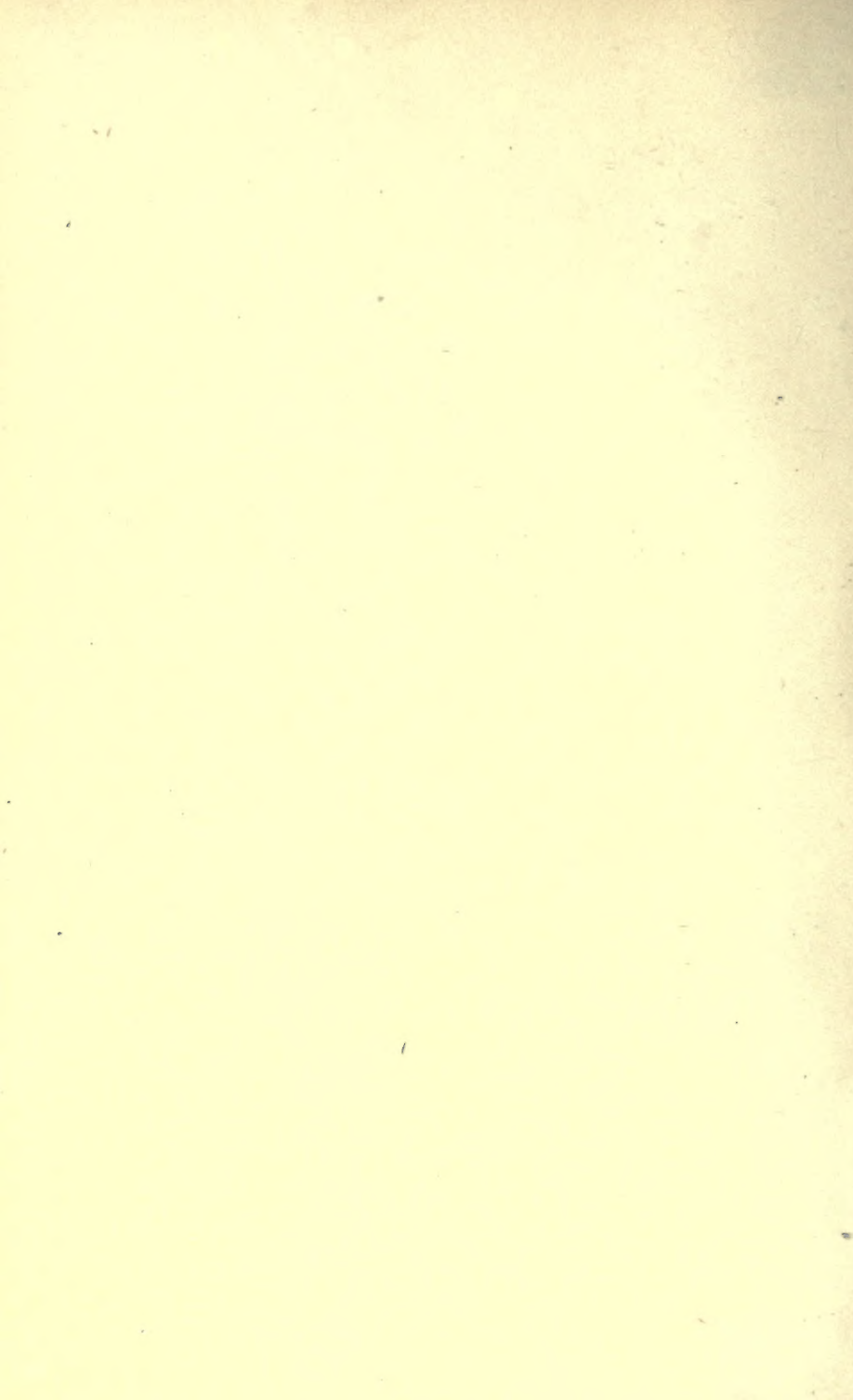


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Complex Integration and Cauchy's  
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# COMPLEX INTEGRATION<sup>11</sup> AND CAUCHY'S THEOREM

by

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Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge

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## PREFACE

MY object in writing this Tract was to collect into a single volume those propositions which are employed in the course of a rigorous proof of Cauchy's theorem, together with a brief account of some of the applications of the theorem to the evaluation of definite integrals.

My endeavour has been to place the whole theory on a definitely arithmetical basis without appealing to geometrical intuitions. With that end in view, it seemed necessary to include an account of various propositions of *Analysis Situs*, on which depends the proof of the theorem in its most general form. In proving these propositions, I have followed the general course of a memoir by Ames; my indebtedness to it and to the textbooks on Analysis by Goursat and by de la Vallée Poussin will be obvious to those who are acquainted with those works.

I must express my gratitude to Mr Hardy for his valuable criticisms and advice; my thanks are also due to Mr Littlewood and to Mr H. Townshend, B.A., Scholar of Trinity College, for their kindness in reading the proofs.

G. N. W.

TRINITY COLLEGE,  
February 1914.



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## CONTENTS

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
CHAP.	
I. ANALYSIS SITUS . . . . .	3
II. COMPLEX INTEGRATION . . . . .	17
III. CAUCHY'S THEOREM . . . . .	30
IV. MISCELLANEOUS THEOREMS . . . . .	41
V. THE CALCULUS OF RESIDUES . . . . .	46
VI. THE EVALUATION OF DEFINITE INTEGRALS . . . . .	54
VII. EXPANSIONS IN SERIES . . . . .	73
VIII. HISTORICAL SUMMARY . . . . .	77



## INTRODUCTION

1. THROUGHOUT the tract, wherever it has seemed advisable, for the sake of clearness and brevity, to use the language of geometry, I have not hesitated to do so; but the reader should convince himself that all the arguments employed in Chapters I—IV are really arithmetical arguments, and are not based on geometrical intuitions. Thus, no use is made of the geometrical conception of an angle; when it is necessary to define an angle in Chapter I, a purely analytical definition is given. The fundamental theorems of the arithmetical theory of limits are assumed.

A number of obvious theorems are implicitly left to the reader; e.g. that a circle is a 'simple' curve (the coordinates of any point on  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  may be written  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ ); that two 'simple' curves with a common end-point, but with no other common point, together form one 'simple' curve; and several others of a like nature.

It is to be noted that almost all the difficulties, which arise in those problems of *Analysis Situs* which are discussed in Chapter I, disappear if the curves which are employed in the following chapters are restricted to be straight lines or circles. This fact is of some practical importance, since, in applications of Cauchy's Theorem, it is usually possible to employ only straight lines and circular arcs as contours of integration.

2. NOTATION. If  $z$  be a complex number, we shall invariably write

$$z = x + iy,$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  are real; with this definition of  $x$  and  $y$ , we write<sup>1</sup>

$$x = R(z), \quad y = I(z).$$

If a complex number be denoted by  $z$  with some suffix, its real and imaginary parts will be denoted by  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, with the same suffix; e.g.

$$z_a = x_a + iy_a;$$

<sup>1</sup> The symbols  $R$  and  $I$  are read 'real part of' and 'imaginary part of' respectively.

further, if  $\zeta$  be a complex number, we write

$$R(\zeta) = \xi, \quad I(\zeta) = \eta.$$

**DEFINITIONS.** *Point.* A 'point' is a value of the complex variable,  $z$ ; it is therefore determined by a complex number,  $z$ , or by two real numbers  $(x, y)$ . It is represented geometrically by means of the Argand diagram.

*Variation and Limited Variation*<sup>2</sup>. If  $f(x)$  be a function of a real variable  $x$  defined when  $a \leq x \leq b$  and if numbers  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be chosen such that  $a \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \dots \leq x_n \leq b$ , then the sum

$$|f(x_1) - f(a)| + |f(x_2) - f(x_1)| + |f(x_3) - f(x_2)| + \dots + |f(b) - f(x_n)|$$

is called the *variation of  $f(x)$  for the set of values  $a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, b$* . If for every choice of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , the variation is always less than some finite number  $\lambda$  (independent of  $n$ ),  $f(x)$  is said to have *limited variation* in the interval  $a$  to  $b$ ; and the upper limit of the variation is called the *total variation* in the interval.

[The notion of the variation of  $f(x)$  in an interval  $a$  to  $b$  is very much more fundamental than that of the length of the curve  $y=f(x)$ ; and throughout the tract propositions will be proved by making use of the notion of *variation* and not of the notion of *length*.]

<sup>2</sup> Jordan, *Cours d'Analyse*, §§ 105 et seq.

# CHAPTER I

## ANALYSIS SITUS

§ 3. Problems of *Analysis situs* to be discussed.—§ 4. Definitions.—§ 5. Properties of continua.—§ 6. Theorems concerning the order of a point.—§ 7. Main theorem; a regular closed curve has an interior and an exterior.—§ 8. Miscellaneous theorems; definitions of counterclockwise and orientation.

3. The object of the present chapter is to give formal analytical proofs of various theorems of which simple cases seem more or less obvious from geometrical considerations. It is convenient to summarise, for purposes of reference, the general course of the theorems which will be proved:

A *simple curve* is determined by the equations  $x = x(t), y = y(t)$  (where  $t$  varies from  $t_0$  to  $T$ ), the functions  $x(t), y(t)$  being continuous; and the curve has no double points save (possibly) its end points; if these coincide, the curve is said to be *closed*. The *order* of a point  $Q$  with respect to a closed curve is defined to be  $n$ , where  $2\pi n$  is the amount by which the angle between  $QP$  and  $Ox$  increases as  $P$  describes the curve once. It is then shewn that points in the plane, not on the curve, can be divided into two sets; points of the first set have order  $\pm 1$  with respect to the curve, points of the second set have order zero; the first set is called the interior of the curve, and the second the exterior. It is shewn that *every* simple curve joining an interior point to an exterior point must meet the given curve, but that simple curves can be drawn, joining any two interior points (or exterior points), which have no point in common with the given curve. It is, of course, not obvious that a closed curve (defined as a curve with coincident end points) divides the plane into two regions possessing these properties.

It is then possible to distinguish the direction in which  $P$  describes the curve (viz. counterclockwise or clockwise); the criterion which determines the direction is the sign of the order of an interior point.

The investigation just summarised is that due to Ames<sup>1</sup>; the analysis which will be given follows his memoir closely. Other proofs that a closed curve

<sup>1</sup> Ames, *American Journal of Mathematics*, Vol. xxvii. (1905), pp. 343-380.

possesses an interior and an exterior have been given by Jordan<sup>2</sup>, Schoenflies<sup>3</sup>, Bliss<sup>4</sup>, and de la Vallée Poussin<sup>5</sup>. It has been pointed out that Jordan's proof is incomplete, as it assumes that the theorem is true for closed polygons; the other proofs mentioned are of less fundamental character than that of Ames.

4. DEFINITIONS. A *simple curve* joining two points  $z_0$  and  $Z$  is defined as follows:

$$\text{Let}^6 \quad x = x(t), \quad y = y(t),$$

where  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$  are continuous one-valued functions of a real parameter  $t$  for all values of  $t$  such that<sup>7</sup>  $t_0 \leq t \leq T$ ; the functions  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$  are such that they do not assume the same pair of values for any two different values of  $t$  in the range  $t_0 < t < T$ ; and

$$z_0 = x(t_0) + iy(t_0), \quad Z = x(T) + iy(T).$$

Then we say that the *set of points*  $(x, y)$ , determined by the set of values of  $t$  for which  $t_0 \leq t \leq T$ , is a *simple curve* joining the points  $z_0$  and  $Z$ . If  $z_0 = Z$ , the simple curve is said to be *closed*<sup>8</sup>.

To render the notation as simple as possible, if the parameter of any particular point on the curve be called  $t$  with some suffix, the complex coordinate of that point will always be called  $z$  with the same suffix; thus, if

$$t_0 \leq t_r^{(n)} \leq T,$$

we write  $z_r^{(n)} = x(t_r^{(n)}) + iy(t_r^{(n)}) = x_r^{(n)} + iy_r^{(n)}$ .

*Regular curves.* A simple curve is said to be *regular*<sup>9</sup>, if it can be divided into a *finite* number of parts, say at the points whose parameters are  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m$  where  $t_0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \dots \leq t_m \leq T$ , such that when

<sup>2</sup> Jordan, *Cours d'Analyse* (1893), Vol. I. §§ 96-103.

<sup>3</sup> Schoenflies, *Göttingen Nachrichten*, Math.-Phys. Kl. (1896), p. 79.

<sup>4</sup> Bliss, *American Bulletin*, Vol. X. (1904), p. 398.

<sup>5</sup> de la Vallée Poussin, *Cours d'Analyse* (1914), Vol. I. §§ 342-344.

<sup>6</sup> The use of  $x$ ,  $y$  in two senses, as coordinates and as functional symbols, simplifies the notation.

<sup>7</sup> We can always choose such a parameter,  $t$ , that  $t_0 < T$ ; for if this inequality were not satisfied, we should put  $t = -t'$  and work with the parameter  $t'$ .

<sup>8</sup> The word 'closed' except in the phrase 'closed curve' is used in a different sense; a *closed* set of points is a set which contains all the limiting points of the set; an *open* set is a set which is not a closed set.

<sup>9</sup> We do not follow Ames in assuming that  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$  possess derivatives with regard to  $t$ .



$t_{m-1} \leq t \leq t_m$ , the relation between  $x$  and  $y$  given by the equations  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$  is equivalent to an equation  $y = f(x)$  or else  $x = \phi(y)$ , where  $f$  or  $\phi$  denotes a continuous one-valued function of its argument, and  $r$  takes in turn the values 1, 2, ...  $m+1$ , while  $t_{m+1} = T$ .

It is easy to see that a chain of a finite number of curves, given by the equations

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} y = f_1(x), \quad a_1 \leq x \leq a_2 \\ x = f_2(y), \quad b_2 \leq y \leq b_3 \\ y = f_3(x), \quad a_3 \leq x \leq a_4 \\ \dots \dots \dots \end{array} \right\} \dots \dots \dots (A)$$

(where  $b_2 = f_1(a_2)$ ,  $a_3 = f_2(b_2)$ , ... and  $f_1, f_2, \dots$  are continuous one-valued functions of their arguments), forms a simple curve, if the chain has no double points; for we may choose a parameter  $t$ , such that

$$\begin{array}{l} x = t, \quad y = f_1(t), \quad a_1 \leq t \leq a_2; \\ x = f_2(b_2 - a_2 + t), \quad y = b_2 - a_2 + t, \quad a_2 \leq t \leq a_2 - b_2 + b_3; \\ x = a + t, \quad y = f_3(a + t), \quad a_3 - a \leq t \leq a_4 - a, \quad a = a_3 - a_2 + b_2 - b_3; \\ \dots \dots \dots \end{array}$$

If some of the inequalities in equations (A) be reversed, it is possible to shew in the same manner that the chain forms a simple curve.

*Elementary curves.* Each of the two curves whose equations are (i)  $y = f(x)$ , ( $x_0 \leq x \leq x_1$ ) and (ii)  $x = \phi(y)$ , ( $y_0 \leq y \leq y_1$ ), where  $f$  and  $\phi$  denote one-valued continuous functions of their respective arguments, is called an *elementary curve*.

*Primitive period.* In the case of a closed simple curve let  $\omega = T - t_0$ ; we define the functions  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$  for *all* real values of  $t$  by the relations

$$x(t + n\omega) = x(t), \quad y(t + n\omega) = y(t),$$

where  $n$  is any integer;  $\omega$  is called the primitive period of the pair of functions  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$ .

*Angles.* If  $z_0, z_1$  be the complex coordinates of two distinct points  $P_0, P_1$ , we say that  $\angle P_0 P_1$  makes an angle  $\theta$  with the axis of  $x'$  if  $\theta$  satisfies *both* the equations<sup>10</sup>

$$\cos \theta = \kappa(x_1 - x_0), \quad \sin \theta = \kappa(y_1 - y_0),$$

where  $\kappa$  is the positive number  $\{(x_1 - x_0)^2 + (y_1 - y_0)^2\}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ . This pair of equations has an infinite number of solutions such that if  $\theta, \theta'$  be any

<sup>10</sup> It is supposed that the sine and cosine are defined by the method indicated by Bromwich, *Theory of Infinite Series*, § 60. (2); it is easy to deduce the statements made concerning the solutions of the two equations in question.

two different solutions, then  $(\theta' - \theta)/2\pi$  is an integer, positive or negative.

*Order of a point.* Let a regular closed curve be defined by the equations  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$ , ( $t_0 \leq t \leq T$ ) and let  $\omega$  be the primitive period of  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$ . Let  $Q$  be a point *not* on the curve and let  $P$  be the point on the curve whose parameter is  $t$ . Let  $\theta(t)$  be the angle which  $QP$  makes with the axis of  $x$ ; since every branch of arc cos  $\{\kappa(x_1 - x_0)\}$  and of arc sin  $\{\kappa(y_1 - y_0)\}$  is a continuous function of  $t$ , it is possible to choose  $\theta(t)$  so that  $\theta(t)$  is a continuous function of  $t$  reducing to a definite number  $\theta(t_0)$  when  $t$  equals  $t_0$ . The points represented by the parameters  $t$  and  $t + \omega$  are the same, and hence  $\theta(t)$ ,  $\theta(t + \omega)$  are two of the values of the angle which  $QP$  makes with the axis of  $x$ ; therefore

$$\theta(t + \omega) - \theta(t) = 2n\pi,$$

where  $n$  is an integer;  $n$  is called the *order* of  $Q$  with respect to the curve. To shew that  $n$  depends only on  $Q$  and not on the particular point,  $P$ , taken on the curve, let  $t$  vary continuously; then  $\theta(t)$ ,  $\theta(t + \omega)$  vary continuously; but since  $n$  is an integer  $n$  can only vary *per saltus*. Hence  $n$  is constant<sup>11</sup>.

**5. CONTINUA.** A two-dimensional continuum is a set of points such that (i) if  $z_0$  be the complex coordinate of any point of the set, a positive number  $\delta$  can be found such that all points whose complex coordinates satisfy the condition  $|z - z_0| < \delta$  belong to the set;  $\delta$  is a number depending on  $z_0$ , (ii) any two points of the set can be joined by a simple curve such that all points of it belong to the set.

*Example.* The points such that  $|z| < 1$  form a continuum.

<sup>11</sup> This argument *really* assumes what is known as Goursat's lemma (see § 12) for functions of a real variable. It is proved by Bromwich, *Theory of Infinite Series*, p. 394, example 18, that if an interval has the property that round every point  $P$  of the interval we can mark off a sub-interval such that a certain inequality denoted by  $\{Q, P\}$  is satisfied for every point  $Q$  of the sub-interval, then we can divide the whole interval into a *finite* number of closed parts such that each part contains at least one point  $P_1$  such that the inequality  $\{Q, P_1\}$  is satisfied for all points  $Q$  of the part in which  $P_1$  lies.

In the case under consideration, we have a function,  $\phi(t) = \theta(t + \omega) - \theta(t)$ , of  $t$ , which is given continuous; the inequality is therefore  $|\phi(t) - \phi(t')| < \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon$  is an arbitrary positive number; by the lemma, taking  $\epsilon < 2\pi$ , we can divide the range of values of  $t$  into a finite number of parts in each of which  $|\phi(t) - \phi(t_1)| < 2\pi$  and is therefore zero;  $\phi(t)$  is therefore constant throughout each part and is therefore constant throughout the sub-interval.

*Neighbourhood, Near.* If a point  $\zeta$  be connected with a set of points in such a way that a sequence  $\{z_n\}$ , consisting of points of the set, can be chosen such that  $\zeta$  is a limiting point of the sequence, then the point  $\zeta$  is said to have points of the set in its neighbourhood.

The statement 'all points sufficiently near a point  $\zeta$  have a certain property' means that a positive number  $h$  exists such that all points  $z$  satisfying the inequality  $|z - \zeta| < h$  have the property.

*Boundaries, Interior and Exterior Points.* Any point of a continuum is called an interior point. A point is said to be a boundary point if it is not a point of the continuum, but has points of the continuum in its neighbourhood.

A point  $z_0$ , such that  $|z_0| = 1$ , is a boundary point of the continuum defined by  $|z| < 1$ .

A point which is not an interior point or a boundary point is called an exterior point.

If  $\{z_n\}$  be a sequence of points belonging to a continuum, then, if this sequence has a limiting point  $\zeta$ , the point  $\zeta$  is either an interior point or a boundary point; for, even if  $\zeta$  is not an interior point, it has points of the continuum in its neighbourhood, viz. points of the sequence, and is therefore a boundary point.

All points sufficiently near an exterior point are exterior points; for let  $z_0$  be an exterior point; then, if no positive number  $h$  exists such that all points satisfying the inequality  $|z - z_0| < h$  are exterior points, it is possible to find a sequence  $\{\zeta_n\}$  such that  $\zeta_n$  is an interior point or a boundary point and  $|\zeta_n - z_0| < 2^{-n}$ ; and, whether  $\zeta_n$  is an interior point or a boundary point, it is possible to find an interior point  $\zeta_n'$  such that  $|\zeta_n' - \zeta_n| < 2^{-n}$ ; so that  $|\zeta_n' - z_0| < 2^{1-n}$ , and  $z_0$  is the limiting point of the sequence  $\{\zeta_n'\}$ ; therefore  $z_0$  is an interior point or a boundary point; this is contrary to hypothesis; therefore, corresponding to any particular point  $z_0$ , a number  $h$  exists. The theorem is therefore proved.

A continuum is called an<sup>12</sup> open region, a continuum with its boundary is a closed region.

*Example.* Let  $S$  be a set of points  $z = x + iy$  defined by the solutions

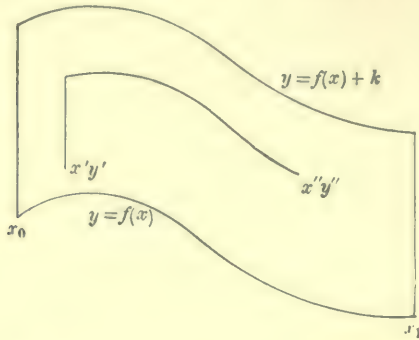
$$x_1 < x < x_2, \quad y = f(x) + r \dots\dots\dots (1),$$

where  $f$  is one valued and continuous,  $r$  takes all values such that  $0 < r < k$ , and  $k$  is constant. Then the set of points  $S$  forms a continuum.

<sup>12</sup> See note 8 on p. 4.

Let  $z'$  be any point of  $S$ , so that

$$x_0 < x' < x_1, \quad y' = f(x') + r', \quad \text{where } 0 < r' < k.$$



Choose  $\epsilon > 0$ , so that

$$2\epsilon < r' < k - 2\epsilon \dots\dots\dots(2).$$

Since  $f$  is continuous we may choose  $\delta > 0$ , so that

$$|f(x) - f(x')| < \epsilon \dots\dots\dots(2a),$$

when  $|x - x'| < \delta$ . It is convenient to take  $\delta$  so small that

$$x_0 + \delta < x' < x_1 - \delta \dots\dots\dots(3).$$

Then  $x_0 < x < x_1$  since  $|x - x'| < \delta$ .

Also, when  $|x - x'| < \delta$ ,

$$f(x) - \epsilon < f(x') < f(x) + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots(3a),$$

so that if  $y$  be any number such that

$$y' - \epsilon < y < y' + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots(4),$$

then

$$f(x') + r' - \epsilon < y < f(x') + r' + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots(4a).$$

Adding (2), (3a) and (4a), we see that

$$f(x) < y < f(x) + k.$$

Therefore the point  $z = x + iy$ , chosen in this manner, is a point of the set  $S$ . Hence, if  $\delta'$  be the smaller of  $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$ , and if

$$|z - z'| < \delta',$$

the conditions (2a) and (4) are both satisfied, and hence  $z$  is a member of the set. The first condition for a continuum is, consequently, satisfied.

Further, the points  $z', z''$  (for which  $r' \leq r''$ ), belonging to  $S$ , can be joined by the simple curve made up of the two curves defined by the relations

- (i)  $x = x', \quad (y' \leq y \leq y' + r'' - r')$ ,
- (ii)  $y = f(x) + r'', \quad (x' \leq x \leq x'' \text{ or } x'' \leq x \leq x')$ .

Hence  $S$  is a continuum.

**6. LEMMA.** *Any limiting point  $Q$  of a set of points on a simple curve lies on the curve.*

Take any sequence of the set which has  $Q$  as its unique limiting point; let the parameters of the points of the sequence be  $t_1, t_2, \dots$ . Then the sequence  $\{t_n\}$  has at least<sup>13</sup> one limit  $\tau$ , and  $t_0 \leq \tau \leq T$ . Since  $x(t), y(t)$  are continuous functions,  $\lim x(t_n) = x(\tau)$ ,  $\lim y(t_n) = y(\tau)$ ; and  $(x(\tau), y(\tau))$  is on the curve since  $t_0 \leq \tau \leq T$ ; i. e.  $Q$  is on the curve.

*Corollary.* If  $Q_0$  be a fixed point not on the curve, the distance of  $Q_0$  from points on the curve has a positive lower limit  $\delta$ . For if  $\delta$  did not exist we could find a sequence  $\{P_n\}$  of points on the curve such that  $Q_0P_{n+1} < \frac{1}{2}Q_0P_n$ , so that  $Q_0$  would be a limiting point of the sequence and would therefore lie on the curve.

**THEOREM I.** *If a point is of order  $n$  with respect to a closed simple curve, all points sufficiently near it are of order  $n$ .*

Let  $Q_0$  be a point not on the curve and  $Q_1$  any other point. Then the distance of points on the curve from  $Q_0$  has a positive lower limit,  $\delta$ ; so that, if  $Q_0Q_1 < \frac{1}{2}\delta$ , the line  $Q_0Q_1$  cannot meet the curve.

Let  $t$  be the parameter of any point,  $P$ , on the given curve, and  $\tau$  the parameter of a point,  $Q$ , on  $Q_0Q_1$ , and  $\theta(t, \tau)$  the angle  $QP$  makes with the axis of  $x$ ; then  $\theta(t, \tau)$  is a continuous function of  $\tau$ , when  $t$  is fixed; therefore

$$\theta(t + \omega, \tau) - \theta(t, \tau)$$

is a continuous function<sup>14</sup> of  $\tau$ ; but the order of a point (being an integer) can only vary *per saltus*; therefore  $\theta(t + \omega, \tau) - \theta(t, \tau)$  is a constant, so far as variations of  $\tau$  are concerned; therefore the orders of  $Q_0, Q_1$  are the same.

The above argument has obviously proved the following more general theorem:

**THEOREM II.** *If two points  $Q_0, Q_1$  can be joined by a simple curve having no point in common with a given closed simple curve, the orders of  $Q_0, Q_1$  with regard to the closed curve are the same.*

The following theorem is now evident:

**THEOREM III.** *If two points  $Q_0, Q_1$  have different orders with regard to a given closed simple curve, every simple curve joining them has at least one point in common with the given closed curve.*

**THEOREM IV.** *Within an arbitrarily small distance of any point,  $P_0$ , of a regular closed curve, there are two points whose orders differ by unity.*

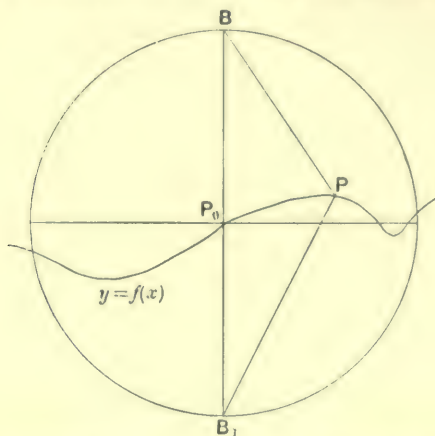
The curve consists of a finite number of parts, each of which can be

<sup>13</sup> Young, *Sets of Points*, pp. 18, 19.

<sup>14</sup> See note 11 on p. 6.

represented either by an equation of the form  $y=f(x)$  or else by one of the form  $x=f(y)$ , where  $f$  is *single-valued* and continuous. First, let  $P_0$  be not an end point of one of these parts.

Let the part on which  $P_0$  lies be represented by an equation of the form  $y=f(x)$ ; if the equation be  $x=f(y)$ , the proof is similar.



The lower limit of the distance of  $P_0$  from any other part of the curve<sup>15</sup> is, say,  $r_1$ , where  $r_1 > 0$ .

Hence if  $0 < r < r_1$ , a circle of radius  $r$ , centre  $P_0$ , contains no point of the complete curve except points on the curve  $y=f(x)$ ; and the curve  $y=f(x)$  meets the ordinate of  $P_0$  in no point except  $P_0$ .

Let  $B$  be the point  $(x_0, y_0 + r)$ ,  $B_1$  the point  $(x_0, y_0 - r)$ .

If  $P$  be any point of the curve whose parameter is  $t$  and if  $\theta(t)$ ,  $\theta_1(t)$  be the angles which  $BP$ ,  $B_1P$  make with the  $x$  axis, it is easily verified that if  $BP = \rho$ ,  $B_1P = \rho_1$  and  $\phi = \theta(t) - \theta_1(t)$ ,

$$\sin \phi = -\frac{2r(x-x_0)}{\rho\rho_1}, \quad \cos \phi = \frac{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2 - r^2}{\rho\rho_1}.$$

If  $\omega$  be the period of the pair of functions  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$  and if  $\delta$  be so small that the distances from  $P_0$  of the points whose parameters are  $t_0 \pm \delta$  are less than  $r$ , then<sup>16</sup>, if  $x(t_0 + \delta) > x(t_0)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(t_0) &= (2n_1 + 1)\pi, & \phi(t_0 + \delta) &> (2n_1 + 1)\pi, \\ \phi(t_0 + \omega - \delta) &< (2n_2 + 1)\pi, & \phi(t_0 + \omega) &= (2n_2 + 1)\pi. \end{aligned}$$

<sup>15</sup> If a *positive* number  $r_1$  did not exist, by the corollary of the Lemma,  $P_0$  would coincide with a point on the remainder of the curve; i.e. the complete curve would have a double point, and would not be a simple curve.

<sup>16</sup> If  $x(t_0 - \delta) < x(t_0)$ , the inequalities involving  $\phi$  have to be reversed.

But when  $t_2 = t_1 + \omega$ ,  $\sin \phi$  vanishes only when  $x - x_0 = 0$ , and then  $\cos \phi$  is positive since  $(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 = r^2$ .

Hence  $\phi \rightarrow (2n_1 + 1)\pi$  when  $t_0 < t < t_0 + \omega$ ; therefore since  $\phi(t)$  is a continuous function of  $t$ ,  $n_2 - n_1 = 0$  or  $\pm 1$ . But  $n_1 \neq n_2$ ; for if  $n_1 = n_2$  then  $\phi(t_0 + \delta) > (2n_1 + 1)\pi$ ,  $\phi(t_0 + \omega - \delta) < (2n_1 + 1)\pi$  and  $\phi(t)$  would equal  $(2n_1 + 1)\pi$  for some value of  $t$  between  $t_0 + \delta$  and  $t_0 + \omega - \delta$ .

Therefore  $n_2 - n_1 = \pm 1$ , and consequently

$$\{\theta(t_0 + \omega) - \theta(t_0)\} - \{\theta_1(t_0 + \omega) - \theta_1(t_0)\} = \phi(t_0 + \omega) - \phi(t_0) = \pm 2\pi,$$

that is to say the orders of  $B$ ,  $B_1$  differ by unity.

The theorem is therefore proved, except for end points of the curve.

If  $P_1$  be an end point, a point  $P_0$  of the curve (not an end point) can be found such that  $P_1 P_0$  is arbitrarily small; then  $P_0 B < P_0 P_1$  since  $P_0 B = r_1 < P_0 P_1$ , and therefore  $P_1 B < 2P_0 P_1$ , so that  $P_1 B$ , and similarly  $P_1 B_1$ , are arbitrarily small; since the orders of  $B$ ,  $B_1$  differ by unity the theorem is proved.

**THEOREM V.** (i) *If two continua  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$  have a point  $Q$  in common, the set of points,  $S$ , formed by the two continua is one continuum; and*  
(ii) *if the two continua  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$  have no point in common, but if all points sufficiently near any point, the end points excepted, of the elementary curve  $y = f(x)$ , ( $x_0 \leq x \leq x_1$ ), belong to  $C_1$  or to  $C_2$ , or to the curve, the points sufficiently near and above<sup>17</sup> the curve belonging to  $C_1$  and those sufficiently near and below it to  $C_2$ , then the set of points  $S$  consisting of  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$  and the curve (the end points excepted) is one continuum.*

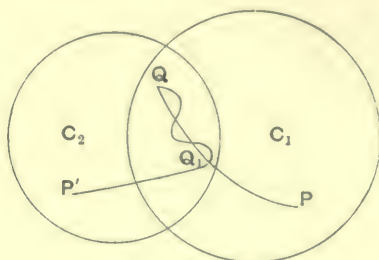
(i) Let  $P$  be any point of  $S$ ; if  $P$  belong to, say,  $C_1$  all points sufficiently near  $P$  belong to  $C_1$  and therefore to  $S$ . Hence  $S$  satisfies the first condition for a continuum. Again if  $P$ ,  $P'$  be any two points of  $S$ , if  $P$ ,  $P'$  belong both to  $C_1$  or both to  $C_2$ , they can be joined by a simple curve lying wholly in  $C_1$  or  $C_2$ , i.e. wholly in  $S$ . If  $P$  belong to  $C_1$  and  $P'$  to  $C_2$ , each can be joined to  $Q$  by a simple curve lying wholly in  $S$ . If the curves  $PQ$ ,  $P'Q$  have no point in common, save  $Q$ ,  $PQP'$  is a simple curve lying in  $S$ . If  $PQ$ ,  $P'Q$  have a point in common other than  $Q$ , let  $PQ_1$  be an arc of  $PQ$  such that  $Q_1$  lies on  $P'Q$  but no other point of  $PQ_1$  lies on  $P'Q$ .

[The point  $Q_1$  exists; for a set of points common to both curves exists; let  $\tau$  be the lower boundary<sup>18</sup> of the parameters of the set, regarded as points on  $PQ$ ; by the lemma given above, the point  $Q_1$  with parameter  $\tau$  is on both curves, and satisfies the necessary condition.]

<sup>17</sup> The terms 'above' and 'below' are conventional:  $(x, y)$  is above  $(x, y')$  if  $y > y'$ .

<sup>18</sup> The lower boundary exists. Hobson, *Functions of a Real Variable*, p. 58.

Then  $PQ_1$ ,  $Q_1P'$  are simple curves with no point in common save  $Q_1$ . Hence  $PQ_1P'$  is a simple curve lying wholly in  $S$ . In either case,  $S$  satisfies the second condition for a continuum. Hence  $S$  is a continuum.



(ii) Let the curve be  $AB$ ; draw  $CED$  parallel to  $Oy$  through any point  $E$  of  $AB$  (the end points excepted). If  $C$  and  $D$  be sufficiently near to  $AB$ ,  $C$  belongs to  $C_1$  and  $D$  to  $C_2$ .

Then all points sufficiently near any point of  $C_1$  or of  $C_2$  belong to  $S$ ; and all points sufficiently near any point of  $AB$  (the end points excepted) belong to  $S$ . Hence  $S$  satisfies the first condition for a continuum.

Let  $P$ ,  $P'$  belong to  $S$ . Then either<sup>19</sup> (a)  $P$ ,  $P'$  both belong to  $C_1$  or to  $C_2$ ; (b)  $P$  belongs to  $C_1$ ,  $P'$  to  $C_2$ ; (c)  $P$  belongs to  $C_1$ ,  $P'$  to  $AB$ ; (d)  $P$ ,  $P'$  both belong to  $AB$ .

In cases (a) and (d),  $PP'$  can obviously be joined by a simple curve lying wholly in  $S$ . In case (b), simple curves  $PC$ ,  $CD$ ,  $DP'$  can be drawn lying in  $S$ , and a simple curve can be drawn joining  $PP'$ . In case (c), simple curves  $PC$ ,  $CE$ ,  $EP'$  (the last being an arc of  $AB$ ) can be drawn lying in  $S$ , and a simple curve can be drawn joining  $PP'$ . Hence  $S$  always satisfies the second condition for a continuum. Therefore  $S$  is a continuum.

**THEOREM VI.** *Given a continuum  $R$  and an elementary curve  $AB$ , then: (a) If  $R$  contain all points of the curve except possibly its end points, which may lie on the boundary of  $R$ , the set,  $R^-$ , of points of  $R$  which do not lie on  $AB$  form, at most, two continua.*

(b) *If one or both end points lie in  $R$ ,  $R^-$  is one continuum.*

(a) Let the equation of  $AB$  be  $y = f(x)$ . Through any point of  $AB$  (not an end point) draw a line  $CD$ , parallel to  $Oy$ , bisected at the

<sup>19</sup> There are several other cases which are obviously equivalent to one of these; e.g.  $P$  belongs to  $C_2$ ,  $P'$  to  $AB$ .

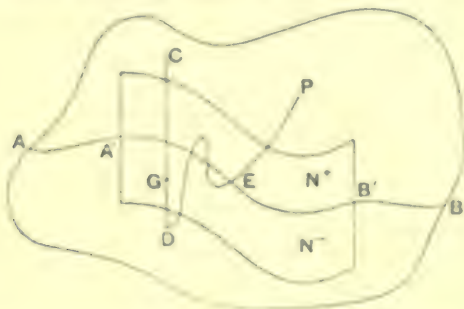


point on  $AB$ , and lying wholly in  $R$ ; choose  $C, D$  so that the ordinate of  $C$  is greater than the ordinate of  $D$ .

Then  $R^-$  satisfies the first condition for a continuum (for if  $z_0$  be a point of  $R^-$  we can choose  $\delta$  so that all points satisfying  $|z - z_0| < \delta$  belong to  $R$ , and since  $z_0$  is not on  $AB$ , we can choose  $\delta'$  smaller still if necessary, so that no point,  $z$ , of  $AB$  satisfies  $|z - z_0| < \delta'$ ). Also  $R^-$  satisfies the second condition unless a point  $P$  of  $R^-$  exists which cannot be joined to  $D$  by a simple curve lying wholly in  $R^-$ . For if there is no such point, then if  $P, P'$  be any two points of  $R^-$ , they can each be joined to  $D$  by a simple curve; if these two curves do not intersect except at  $D$ ,  $PDP'$  is a simple curve; if the two curves do intersect, let  $Q$  be the first point of intersection arrived at by a point which describes the curve  $PD$ . Then  $PQ, QP'$  are two simple curves with no point in common except  $Q$ , so that  $PQP'$  is a simple curve lying wholly in  $R^-$ ; hence  $R^-$  satisfies the second condition for a continuum.

Otherwise, join  $P$  to  $D$  by a simple curve lying wholly in  $R$ ; then this curve has at least one point not in  $R^-$ ; i.e. it has at least one point in common with  $AB$ .

Let  $E$  be the first point on  $AB$  which is reached by a point describing the curve  $PD$ ; so that  $PE$  has no point on  $AB$  except  $E$ .



Choose an arc  $A'B'$  of  $AB$ , which contains  $E$  but not  $A$  or  $B$ . Construct two continua  $N^+$  and  $N^-$  above and below  $A'B'$  respectively as in the example of § 5, each continuum lying wholly in  $R$ . Then  $N^+, N^-$  and the curve  $A'B'$  with the end points omitted obviously form one continuum, so that if a point  $F$  be taken on  $EP$  sufficiently near  $E$ , it will lie on  $N^+$  or  $N^-$ ; for  $F$  cannot lie on  $A'B'$ . Suppose that  $F$  lies in  $N^-$ ; choose a point  $G$  on  $CD$  lying in  $N^-$ ; then  $FG$  can be joined by a simple curve lying in  $N^-$ . Now  $PF, FG, GD$  are

three simple curves lying in  $N^+$  and  $N^-$ ; and hence a simple curve  $PFGD$  can be drawn lying in  $N^+$  or  $N^-$ ; i.e.  $PD$  has been joined by a simple curve lying in  $R^-$ ; but this is impossible. Hence  $F$  must lie in  $N^+$ : and then it can be shewn by similar reasoning that  $P$  can be joined to  $C$  by a simple curve lying wholly in  $R^-$ .

Hence the points of  $R^-$  can be divided into two sets:

(i) The points which *cannot* be joined to  $D$  by a simple curve lying wholly in  $R^-$ ; these points *can* be joined to  $C$  by a simple curve lying wholly in  $R^-$ .

(ii) The points of  $R^-$  which *can* be joined to  $D$  by a simple curve lying wholly in  $R^-$ .

Each of these sets is easily seen to satisfy both the conditions for a continuum. Hence the points of  $R^-$  form *at most* two continua.

(b) If  $B$  lies in  $R$ , a line  $BB_1$  may be drawn parallel to  $Ox$  lying wholly in  $R$ . Then by (a) the points of  $R$  not on  $ABB_1$  form at most two continua; if they form only one continuum, the theorem is granted; for this continuum with the points on  $BB_1$  ( $B$  excepted) forms one continuum; if they form two continua<sup>20</sup>, these two continua with the boundary points  $BB_1$  ( $B$  excepted) form one continuum by Theorem V.

**7. THE MAIN THEOREM.** *The points of the plane not on a given regular closed curve form two continua of which the entire curve is the complete boundary.*

Within an arbitrarily small distance of any point of the curve there are two points of different orders with regard to the curve, by Theorem IV of § 6. Hence by Theorem III of § 6, the points of the plane not on the curve form *at least* two continua. Divide the curve into a finite number of elementary curves and take these in the order in which they occur on the curve as  $t$  increases from  $t_0$  to  $T$ ; then by the second part of Theorem VI of § 6 each of these elementary curves, except the last, does not divide the region consisting of the plane less the points of the elementary curves already taken; the last divides the plane into *at most* two continua, by the first part of Theorem VI of § 6. Hence there are *exactly* two continua; and the points of these two continua are of different orders with regard to the curve.

<sup>20</sup> It is easily seen that if there are two continua the points of one of them, which are sufficiently near  $BB_1$ , are above  $BB_1$ , while the points of the other, which are sufficiently near  $BB_1$ , are below  $BB_1$ .

Any point of the curve is a boundary point of either continuum, by Theorems III and IV of § 6; and any point not on the curve is a point of one continuum by Theorem I of § 6, and is therefore not a boundary point.

**8. THEOREM I.** *All sufficiently distant points are of order zero with regard to a given regular closed curve.*

Let  $P(x, y)$  be any point on the curve, and  $P_1(x_1, y_1)$  be any other point; the angle which  $PP_1$  makes with the axis of  $x$  is given by

$$\cos \theta = \kappa(x - x_1), \quad \sin \theta = \kappa(y - y_1),$$

where

$$\kappa = \{(x - x_1)^2 + (y - y_1)^2\}^{-\frac{1}{2}}.$$

If  $x_1^2 + y_1^2$  be sufficiently large, either  $|x_1|$  or  $|y_1|$  must be so large that either  $\cos \theta$  or  $\sin \theta$  never vanishes; hence the change in  $\theta$  as  $P$  goes round the curve cannot be numerically so great as  $\pi$ ; but this change is  $2n\pi$  where  $n$  is an integer and is the order of  $P_1$ ; hence  $n = 0$ .

That continuum which contains these sufficiently distant points is called the *exterior* of the curve; the other continuum is called the *interior*.

Since the order of any point of the interior of a regular closed curve differs from the order of any point of the exterior by unity, the order of any point of the interior is  $\pm 1$ . If the order of any point of the interior is  $+1$ , we say that the point  $(x(t), y(t))$  'describes the curve in the *counterclockwise* direction as  $t$  increases from  $t_0$  to  $T$ '.

If the order be  $-1$ , we say that the point describes the curve in the *clockwise* direction.

Let  $\ell = -t$ ; and let  $\theta'(\ell)$  be the angle that  $AP$  makes with the axis of  $x$ ,  $A$  being a point of the interior and  $P$  being the point whose parameter is  $t$  or  $\ell$ .

Then  $\theta'(\ell) - \theta(t) = 2m\pi$ , and, if we take  $\theta'(\ell)$  to vary continuously as  $t$  varies continuously,  $m$  is constant, since  $m$  can only vary *per saltus*. Consequently

$$\theta'(-T + \omega) - \theta'(-T) = -\{\theta(t_0 + \omega) - \theta(t_0)\}.$$

Therefore the order of the interior point when  $\ell$  is the parameter is minus the order of the point when  $t$  is the parameter.

**DEFINITION.** *Oriented curves, Orientation.* Let  $P, S$  be the end points of a simple curve. Let one of them, say  $P$ , be called the *first point*. If  $Q, R$  be two other points on the curve  $Q$  is said to be

before  $R$  if  $t_P < t_Q < t_R$  or if  $t_P > t_Q > t_R$ . The points of the curve have thus been ordered<sup>21</sup>. Such an ordered set of points  $PS$  is called an *oriented curve*; it differs from the oriented curve  $SP$  in which  $S$  is the first point.

Two oriented curves  $C_1, C_2$  with a common arc  $\sigma$  have the *same orientation* if the points of  $\sigma$  are in the same order whether  $\sigma$  is regarded as belonging to  $C_1$  or to  $C_2$ . If the points are not in the same order, the curves have *opposite orientations*.

It is easy to see that if  $P, Q, R$  be three points on a regular closed curve, the curves  $PQRP, PRQP$  have opposite orientations.

We agree to choose the parameter of an oriented curve so that the first point has the smallest parameter. This can be done by taking a new parameter  $t' = -t$ , if necessary.

It is convenient *always* to choose that orientation of a closed curve which makes the order of interior points  $+1$ ; that is to say that an oriented closed curve is such that a point describes it counterclockwise as  $t$  increases from  $t_0$  to  $t_0 + \omega$ .

**THEOREM II**<sup>22</sup>. *Let two continua  $R_1, R_2$  be the interiors of two regular closed curves  $C_1, C_2$  respectively. Let a segment  $\sigma_1$  of  $C_1$  coincide with a segment  $\sigma_2$  of  $C_2$ ; then (i) if  $R_1, R_2$  have no point in common the orientations of  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are opposite; and (ii) if  $R_1$  be wholly interior<sup>23</sup> to  $R_2$ , the orientations of  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are the same.*

(i) If the orientations of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  are the same, by Theorem IV of § 6 it follows that arbitrarily near any point  $P_0$  of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  (not an end point) there are two points  $B, B'$  such that the order of  $B$  with regard to either  $C_1$  or  $C_2$  exceeds that of  $B'$  by unity; so that  $B$  is an interior point of both curves which is impossible. Hence the orientation of  $\sigma_1$  is opposite to that of  $\sigma_2$ .

(ii) If the orientations of  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are different, we can find points  $B, B'$  arbitrarily near any point  $P_0$  of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  such that (a) the order of  $B'$  with regard to  $C_1$  exceeds that of  $B$  by  $+1$ , (b) the order of  $B$  with regard to  $C_2$  exceeds that of  $B'$  by  $+1$ . Consequently  $B$  is a point of  $R_1$  but not of  $R_2$ ; this is impossible. Hence the orientations of  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are the same.

<sup>21</sup> Hobson, *Functions of a Real Variable*, § 122.

<sup>22</sup> Ames points out that Goursat tacitly assumes this theorem.

<sup>23</sup> I.e. if every point of  $R_1$  is a point of  $R_2$ .

## CHAPTER II

### COMPLEX INTEGRATION

§ 9. The integral of a function of a real variable; extension to complex variables; restriction of the path of integration.—§ 10. Definition of a complex integral.—§ 11. Existence theorems.—§ 12. Goursat's lemma.—§ 13. Various simple theorems.

9. The integral<sup>1</sup> of a continuous function,  $f(x)$ , of a real variable  $x$ , is defined by means of the limit of a sum in the following manner :

Divide an interval  $a$  to  $b$  ( $a \leq b$ ) into  $2^n$  equal parts and let  $\gamma_r$  be the  $r$ th part. Let  $H_r, h_r$  be the upper and lower limits of  $f(x)$  in  $\gamma_r$ ; let

$$S_n = \sum_{r=1}^{2^n} H_r \cdot \frac{b-a}{2^n}, \quad s_n = \sum_{r=1}^{2^n} h_r \cdot \frac{b-a}{2^n}.$$

Then  $\{S_n\}$  is a non-increasing sequence and  $\{s_n\}$  is a non-decreasing sequence, and  $S_n \geq s_n$ ; consequently  $S_n, s_n$  have finite limits as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; and if  $f(x)$  is continuous it can be proved that these two limits are the same; the common value of these two limits is called the integral of  $f(x)$  taken between the end-values or limits  $a$  and  $b$ , and is written

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Further, it can be shown that if  $\epsilon$  is arbitrary, a number  $\delta$  can be found such that if the interval  $a$  to  $b$  be divided into *any* sub-intervals  $\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_r$  each less than  $\delta$ , and if  $x_r$  be *any* point in the  $r$ th interval, then

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{r=1}^r \eta_r f(x_r) \right| < \epsilon.$$

When we study the theory of functions of complex variables, we naturally enquire whether it is not possible to generalise this definition; for the interval  $a$  to  $b$  may be regarded as a segment of a particular curve in the Argand diagram, namely the real axis.

<sup>1</sup> Bromwich's *Theory of Infinite Series* (1908), §§ 157-160, should be consulted; the analysis given above is quoted from § 160.

This suggests that we should define the integral of a continuous function,  $f(z)$ , of the complex variable  $z$ , taken along a curvilinear path  $AB$  in the Argand diagram by the natural extension of the above definition, namely that the integral of  $f(z)$ , taken between the limits  $z_0$  and  $Z$ , is the number  $S$  (if that number exist) such that it is possible to make

$$\left| S - \sum_{r=0}^{\nu} (z_{r+1} - z_r) f(z_r') \right|$$

less than an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$  by taking  $\nu$  points  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_\nu$  in order on the curve  $AB$  ( $z_{\nu+1}$  being interpreted as meaning  $Z$ ) in any way such that

$$|z_{r+1} - z_r| < \delta \text{ for } r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \nu,$$

$\delta$  being a number depending on  $\epsilon$  (so that  $\nu$  also depends on  $\epsilon$ ), and the point  $z_r'$  being any point on the curve between  $z_r$  and  $z_{r+1}$ .

[Note that we do not say

$$S = \lim_{\nu \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=0}^{\nu} (z_{r+1} - z_r) f(z_r'),$$

because the summation on the right is a function of  $2\nu + 1$  independent variables  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_\nu, z_0', z_1', \dots, z_\nu'$ , and so  $S$  is not an ordinary limit of a function of one variable.]

It is, however, necessary to define exactly what is meant by the phrase 'points in order on the curve  $AB$ .'

To ensure that the limit, by which we shall define an integral, may exist, we shall restrict the curve on which the points  $z_1, z_2, \dots$  lie, to be an 'oriented simple curve.' And a further restriction is convenient, namely that the curve should have limited variations<sup>2</sup>; that is to say that the functions  $x(t), y(t)$  should have limited variations in the interval  $t_0$  to  $T$ .

[It can be proved<sup>3</sup> that a necessary and sufficient condition that a simple curve should have a finite length is that it should have limited variations, but this proposition will not be required; the lemma below will be sufficient for the purposes of this work.]

A function  $f(z)$  of a complex variable  $z$  is said to be 'continuous on a simple curve' if  $f(z)$  is a continuous function of  $t$ .

<sup>2</sup> Young, *Sets of Points*, §§ 140-141. Jordan, *Cours d'Analyse*, t. I. p. 90. It will be obvious that the definition may be extended to cover the case when the path of integration consists of a finite number of simple curves with limited variations.

<sup>3</sup> Young, *Sets of Points*, § 167.

We can now prove the following important lemma :

LEMMA. Let  $z_0, z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{n+1}$  be any sequence of points in order on a simple curve. Then  $\sum_{r=0}^n |(z_{r+1} - z_r)|$  is less than or equal to the sum of the total variations of  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  as  $t$  varies from  $t_0$  to  $t_{n+1}$ .

Since the modulus of a sum does not exceed the sum of the moduli, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{r=0}^n |(z_{r+1} - z_r)| &= \sum_{r=0}^n |{(x_{r+1} - x_r) + i(y_{r+1} - y_r)}| \\ &\leq \sum_{r=0}^n [ |x_{r+1} - x_r| + |i(y_{r+1} - y_r)| ] \\ &\leq \sum_{r=0}^n |{x(t_{r+1}) - x(t_r)}| + \sum_{r=0}^n |{y(t_{r+1}) - y(t_r)}|. \end{aligned}$$

But  $t_{r+1} \geq t_r$ , since the points  $z_0, z_1, z_2, \dots$  are in order; and consequently the first of these summations is less than or equal to the total variation of  $x(t)$ , and the second summation is less than or equal to the total variation of  $y(t)$ ; that is to say,  $\sum |(z_{r+1} - z_r)|$  is less than or equal to the sum of the total variations of  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$ .

10. We are now in a position to give a formal definition of a complex integral and to discuss its properties. The notation which has been introduced in §§ 2, 4 and 5 will be employed throughout.

DEFINITION. Let  $AB$  be a simple curve with limited variations drawn in the Argand diagram. Let  $f(z)$  be a function of the complex variable  $z$  which is continuous on the curve  $AB$ . Let  $z_0$  be the complex coordinate of  $A$ , and  $Z$  the complex coordinate of  $B$ . Let a sequence of points on  $AB$  be chosen, and when  $n$  of these points have been taken, let the points taken in order be called  $z_1^{(n)}, z_2^{(n)}, \dots, z_n^{(n)}$  (so that if  $m \geq n$ ,  $z_1^{(m)}$  is one of the points  $z_1^{(n)}, z_2^{(n)}, \dots, z_n^{(n)}$ ); the sequence of points may be chosen according to any definite law whatever\*, provided only that the points are all different and that, given any positive number  $\delta$ , we can find an integer  $n_0$  such that when  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$0 < t_{r+1}^{(n)} - t_r^{(n)} < \delta,$$

where  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$  and  $t_0^{(n)} = t_1, t_{n+1}^{(n)} = T$ .

\* If  $t_0 = 0, T = 1$ , the simplest law is given by taking  $t_1^{(n)}, t_2^{(n)}, \dots, t_n^{(n)}$  to be the first  $n$  of the numbers  $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}$ ; when these  $n$  numbers are rearranged in order of magnitude.

Then the complex integral  $\int_A^B f(z)dz$  is defined as meaning the following limit:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_A^B f(z)dz &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [(z_1^{(n)} - z_0^{(n)})f(z_0^{(n)}) + (z_2^{(n)} - z_1^{(n)})f(z_1^{(n)}) \\ &\quad + (z_3^{(n)} - z_2^{(n)})f(z_2^{(n)}) + \dots + (Z - z_n^{(n)})f(z_n^{(n)})] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=0}^n [(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_r^{(n)})f(z_r^{(n)})]. \end{aligned}$$

[It is permissible to speak of the limit of

$$\sum_{r=0}^n [(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_r^{(n)})f(z_r^{(n)})]$$

because these expressions form a sequence (depending on  $n$ ), each member of the sequence being determinate when the form of  $f$  and the law, by which the points  $z_r^{(n)}$  are chosen, are given.]

The integral is said to be taken along the path  $AB$ , and the path  $AB$  is usually called the contour of integration; and if the path  $AB$  be called  $C$ , we sometimes write  $\int_A^B f(z)dz$  in the form  $\int_{(AB)} f(z)dz$  or  $\int_C f(z)dz$ .

11. It is next necessary to prove (Theorem I) that the limit, by which an integral is defined, exists.

When we have proved Theorem I we shall prove (Theorem II) that if a positive number  $\epsilon$  be taken arbitrarily, it is possible to find a number  $\delta_1$  such that, when any  $\nu$  numbers  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_\nu$  are taken so that  $t_0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \dots \leq t_\nu \leq t_{\nu+1} = T$  and  $t_{p+1} - t_p \leq \delta_1$  ( $p=0, 1, \dots, \nu$ ), and when  $T_p$  is such that  $t_p \leq T_p \leq t_{p+1}$ , then

$$\left| \int_A^B f(z)dz - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f'(Z_p) \right| < \epsilon.$$

THEOREM I. Let  $S_n(z) = \sum_{r=0}^n [(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_r^{(n)})f(z_r^{(n)})]$ ; then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(z)$  exists.

To prove the existence of the limit, we shall prove that, given an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ , we can choose an integer  $n$  such that, when  $m > n$ ,

$$|S_m(z) - S_n(z)| < \epsilon.$$

This establishes<sup>5</sup> the existence of  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(z)$ .

<sup>5</sup> Bromwich, *Theory of Infinite Series*, §§ 3, 75, 151.



Let  $L$  be the sum of the total variations of  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  for the interval  $t_0$  to  $T$  of  $t$ .

In virtue of the continuity of  $f(z)$  qua function of  $t$ , corresponding to an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ , we can find a positive number  $\delta$  such that, if  $z$  be any particular point on  $AB$ , and if  $z'$  be on  $AB$ , then<sup>4</sup>

$$|f(z') - f(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon/L \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

whenever  $|t' - t| \leq \delta$ ; it is obvious that, in general,  $\delta$  is a function of  $t$ .

Let us assume for the present<sup>5</sup> that, when  $\epsilon$  is taken arbitrarily, a number  $\delta_0$  (independent of  $t$ , but depending on  $\epsilon$ ) exists, such that, for all values of  $t$  under consideration,

$$\delta \geq \delta_0 > 0;$$

that is to say, we assume that  $f(z)$  is a *uniformly continuous*<sup>6</sup> function of  $t$ .

Now choose  $n$  so large that

$$0 = t_{r+1}^{(n)} - t_r^{(n)} \leq \delta_0,$$

for  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ ; this is possible by reason of the hypothesis made concerning the law by which the numbers  $t_r^{(n)}$  were chosen.

Let  $m$  be any integer such that  $m > n$ ; and let those of the points  $z_r^{(m)}$  which lie between  $z_r^{(n)}$  and  $z_{r+1}^{(n)}$  be called  $z_{1,r}, z_{2,r}, \dots, z_{m_r+1,r}$ , where  $z_{1,r} = z_r^{(n)}$ ,  $z_{m_r+1,r} = z_{r+1}^{(n)}$ ; and, generally, let those of the points  $z_s^{(m)}$  which lie between  $z_r^{(n)}$  and  $z_{r+1}^{(n)}$  be called  $z_{1,r}, z_{2,r}, \dots, z_{m_r+1,r}$ , where  $z_{1,r} = z_r^{(n)}$ ,  $z_{m_r+1,r} = z_{r+1}^{(n)}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then} \quad S_n &= \sum_{r=0}^n [(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_r^{(n)}) \cdot f(z_r^{(n)})] \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \left[ \left\{ \sum_{s=1}^{m_r} (z_{s+1,r} - z_{s,r}) \right\} \cdot f(z_r^{(n)}) \right], \end{aligned}$$

since the points  $z_{s,r}$  are the same as the points  $z_s^{(m)}$ .

$$\text{Also} \quad S_m = \sum_{r=0}^n \left[ \sum_{s=1}^{m_r} (z_{s+1,r} - z_{s,r}) \cdot f(z_{s,r}) \right],$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so that} \quad (S_n - S_m) &= \sum_{r=0}^n \left[ \sum_{s=1}^{m_r} (z_{s+1,r} - z_{s,r}) \{ f(z_r^{(n)}) - f(z_{s,r}) \} \right] \\ &\leq \sum_{r=0}^n \sum_{s=1}^{m_r} |z_{s+1,r} - z_{s,r}| |f(z_r^{(n)}) - f(z_{s,r})|. \end{aligned}$$

<sup>4</sup> The reason for choosing the multiplier  $\frac{1}{2}$  will be seen when we come to Theorem II.

<sup>5</sup> A formal proof is given in § 12.

<sup>6</sup> The continuity is said to be uniform because, as  $t \rightarrow \epsilon$ ,  $\delta(\epsilon)$  tends to the limit  $f(\epsilon)$  uniformly with respect to the variable  $t$ .

But  $t_{r+1}^{(n)} \geq t_{s,r} \geq t_r^{(n)}$ , so that  $0 \leq t_{s,r} - t_r^{(n)} \leq \delta_0$ , and consequently  $|f(z_r^{(n)}) - f(z_{s,r})| \leq \frac{1}{4}\epsilon/L$ ; also  $\sum_{r=0}^n \sum_{s=1}^{m_r} |z_{s+1,r} - z_{s,r}| = \sum_{r=0}^m |z_{r+1}^{(m)} - z_r^{(m)}|$ ; and consequently

$$\begin{aligned} |S_n - S_m| &\leq \sum_{r=0}^n \sum_{s=1}^{m_r} |(z_{s+1,r} - z_{s,r}) \frac{1}{4}\epsilon L^{-1}| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{4}\epsilon L^{-1} \sum_{r=0}^m |(z_{r+1}^{(m)} - z_r^{(m)})| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{4}\epsilon, \end{aligned}$$

since  $\sum_{r=0}^m |(z_{r+1}^{(m)} - z_r^{(m)})| \leq L$ ,

by the Lemma of § 9. That is to say that, given an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ , we have found  $n$  such that when  $m > n$ ,  $|S_n - S_m| < \epsilon$ ; and consequently we have proved that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$  exists; the value of this limit is written

$$\int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz.$$

We can now prove the following general theorem :

**THEOREM II.** *Given any positive number  $\epsilon$ , it is possible to find a positive number  $\delta_1$  such that, when any  $\nu$  numbers  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_\nu$  are taken so that  $0 \leq t_{p+1} - t_p \leq \delta_1$ , ( $p = 0, 1, \dots, \nu$ , and  $t_{\nu+1} = T$ ), while  $T_p$  is such that  $t_p \leq T_p \leq t_{p+1}$ , then*

$$\left| \int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) \right| < \epsilon,$$

$z_p, Z_p$  being the points whose parameters are  $t_p, T_p$  respectively.

Choose  $\delta_0$  and  $n$  to depend on  $\epsilon$  in the same way as in the proof of Theorem I; we shall prove that *it is permissible to take  $\delta_1 = \delta_0$ .*

For, assuming that  $0 \leq t_{p+1} - t_p \leq \delta_0$ , we can find an integer  $r$  corresponding to each of the numbers  $t_p$ , ( $p \neq \nu + 1$ ), such that  $t_r^{(n)} \leq t_p < t_{r+1}^{(n)}$ ; let the numbers  $t_p$  which satisfy this inequality for any particular value of  $r$  be called in order  $t_{1,r}, t_{2,r}, \dots, t_{N_r,r}$ .

Then we may write

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} [(z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p)] &= \sum_{r=0}^n [(z_{1,r} - z_r^{(n)}) f'(Z_{0,r}) + (z_{2,r} - z_{1,r}) f'(Z_{1,r}) \\ &\quad + (z_{3,r} - z_{2,r}) f'(Z_{2,r}) + \dots + (z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_{N_r,r}) f'(Z_{N_r,r})]. \end{aligned}$$

The following conventions have to be adopted in interpreting the summation on the right-hand side:

(i)  $t_{0,r} \leq T_{0,r} \leq t_{1,r}$ ; where  $t_{0,r}$  means that number of the set  $t_0, t_1, \dots, t_r$  which immediately precedes  $t_{1,r}$ .

(ii)  $t_{N_r,r} \leq T_{N_r,r} \leq t_{N_r+1,r}$ ; where  $t_{N_r+1,r}$  means that number of the set  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{r+1}$  which immediately follows  $t_{N_r,r}$ .

(iii) If, for any value of  $r$ , there is no number  $t_p$  such that  $t_r^{(n)} \leq t_p < t_{r+1}^{(n)}$ , the term of the summation corresponding to that value of  $r$  is  $(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_r^{(n)}) f(Z_{0,r})$ , where  $t_{0,r} \leq T_{0,r} \leq t_{1,r}$  and  $t_{0,r}, t_{1,r}$  are respectively the largest and smallest numbers of the set  $t_0, t_1, \dots, t_{r+1}$  which satisfy the inequalities

$$t_{0,r} < t_r^{(n)}, \quad t_{1,r} \geq t_{r+1}^{(n)}.$$

With these conventions, if  $S_n$  has the same meaning as in Theorem I, we may write

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{p=0}^r (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) &= S_n \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n [(z_{1,r} - z_r^{(n)}) \{f(Z_{0,r}) - f(z_r^{(n)})\} + (z_{2,r} - z_{1,r}) \{f(Z_{1,r}) - f(z_r^{(n)})\} \\ &\quad + \dots + (z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_{N_r,r}) \{f(Z_{N_r,r}) - f(z_r^{(n)})\}]; \end{aligned}$$

if for any value of  $r$ , there is no number  $t_p$  such that  $t_r^{(n)} \leq t_p < t_{r+1}^{(n)}$ , the term of the summation corresponding to that value of  $r$  is

$$(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_r^{(n)}) \{f(Z_{0,r}) - f(z_r^{(n)})\}.$$

Now if  $s = 0, 1, \dots, N_r$ , we have

$$T_{s,r} \leq t_{s,r} + \delta_0 < t_{r+1}^{(n)} + \delta_0 < t_r^{(n)} + 2\delta_0,$$

and

$$T_{s,r} \geq t_{s+1,r} - \delta_0 \geq t_r^{(n)} - \delta_0;$$

hence

$$|T_{s,r} - t_r^{(n)}| < 2\delta_0.$$

Therefore, if  $t' = \frac{1}{2}(T_{s,r} + t_r^{(n)})$ , we have

$$|T_{s,r} - t'| < \delta_0, \quad |t' - t_r^{(n)}| < \delta_0;$$

so that, since the modulus of a sum does not exceed the sum of the moduli,

$$\begin{aligned} |f'(Z_{s,r}) - f'(z_r^{(n)})| &\leq |f'(Z_{s,r}) - f'(t')| + |f'(t') - f'(z_r^{(n)})| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon L^{-1}, \end{aligned}$$

by equation (5) of Theorem I.

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) - S_n \right| &\leq \sum_{r=0}^n [ |(z_{1,r} - z_r^{(n)})| \cdot \frac{1}{2} \epsilon L^{-1} \\ &\quad + |(z_{2,r} - z_{1,r})| \cdot \frac{1}{2} \epsilon L^{-1} + \dots + |(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_{N_r,r})| \cdot \frac{1}{2} \epsilon L^{-1} ] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon L^{-1} \sum_{r=0}^n [ |(z_{1,r} - z_r^{(n)})| + |(z_{2,r} - z_{1,r})| + \dots + |(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_{N_r,r})| ]. \end{aligned}$$

Now, by the Lemma of § 9, the general term of this last summation is less than or equal to the sum of the variations of  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  in the interval  $t_r^{(n)}$  to  $t_{r+1}^{(n)}$ , since the points

$$z_r^{(n)}, z_{1,r}, z_{2,r}, \dots, z_{N_r,r}, z_{r+1}^{(n)}$$

are in order; and, hence, since the numbers  $t_0^{(n)}, t_1^{(n)}, \dots, t_{n+1}^{(n)}$  are in order, the whole summation is less than or equal to the sum of the variations of  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  in the interval  $t_0^{(n)}$  to  $t_{n+1}^{(n)}$ ; that is to say

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) - S_n \right| &\leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon L^{-1} \times L \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

But, by Theorem I, with the choice of  $n$  which has been made

$$|S_m - S_n| \leq \frac{1}{4} \epsilon,$$

when  $m > n$ . Hence, since  $\epsilon$  is independent of  $m$ ,

$$\left| \left( \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} S_m \right) - S_n \right| \leq \frac{1}{4} \epsilon,$$

i.e.

$$\left| \int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz - S_n \right| \leq \frac{1}{4} \epsilon.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) \right| \\ \leq \left| \int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz - S_n \right| + \left| S_n - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) \right| \\ \leq \frac{3}{4} \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

That is to say that, corresponding to an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ , we have been able to find a positive number  $\delta_1$  (namely, the number denoted by  $\delta_0$  in Theorem I), such that if

$$0 \leq t_{p+1} - t_p \leq \delta_1, \quad (p = 0, 1, 2, \dots, r, \text{ and } t_{r+1} = T),$$

then

$$\left| \int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) \right| < \epsilon.$$

From this general theorem, we can deduce the following particular theorem :

**THEOREM III.** *The value of  $\int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz$  does not depend on the particular law by which the points  $z_p^{(n)}$  are chosen, provided that the law satisfies the conditions of § 10.*

Let points chosen according to any other law than that already considered be called  $\zeta_p^{(n)}$ , ( $p = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ;  $\zeta_0^{(n)} = z_0$ ,  $\zeta_{n+1}^{(n)} = Z$ ); then if  $\tau$  be the parameter of the point  $\zeta$ , we can find a number  $\nu_0$  such that when  $n > \nu_0$ ,  $0 \leq \tau_{p+1}^{(n)} - \tau_p^{(n)} \leq \delta_0$ ; hence we may take the numbers  $t_p$  of Theorem II to be the numbers  $\tau_p^{(n)}$  respectively, and we will take  $Z_p = \zeta_p^{(n)}$ ; therefore, by the result of Theorem II,

$$\left| \int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz - \sum_{p=0}^n [(\zeta_{p+1}^{(n)} - \zeta_p^{(n)}) f(\zeta_p^{(n)})] \right| < \epsilon;$$

and, corresponding to any positive number  $\epsilon$ , we can always find the number  $\nu_0$  such that this inequality is satisfied when  $n > \nu_0$ .

Therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{p=0}^n [(\zeta_{p+1}^{(n)} - \zeta_p^{(n)}) f(\zeta_p^{(n)})]$

exists<sup>9</sup> and is equal to  $\int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz$ , which has been proved to be the value of

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{p=0}^n (z_{p+1}^{(n)} - z_p^{(n)}) f'(z_p^{(n)});$$

and this is the result which had to be proved, namely to shew that the value of  $\int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz$  does not depend on the particular law by which we choose the points  $z_p^{(n)}$ .

12. It was assumed in the course of proving Theorem I of § 11 that if a function of a real variable was continuous at all points of a finite closed interval, then the function was uniformly continuous in the interval.

A formal proof of this assumption is now necessary<sup>10</sup>; but it is expedient first to prove the following Lemma. The lemma is proved for a two-dimensional region, as that form of it will be required later.

<sup>9</sup> Bromwich, *Theory of Infinite Series*, § 1.

<sup>10</sup> It was pointed out by Heine, *Crelle's Journal*, vol. LXXI (1870), p. 361 and vol. LXXIV (1872), p. 188, that it is not obvious that continuity implies *uniform* continuity.

**GOURSAT'S LEMMA**<sup>11</sup>. Given (i) a function of position of two points  $P', P$ , which will be written  $\{P', P\}$ , and (ii) an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ ; let a finite two-dimensional closed region<sup>12</sup>  $R$  have the property that for each point  $P$  of  $R$  we can choose a positive number  $\delta$  (depending on the position of  $P$ ), such that  $|\{P', P\}| \leq \epsilon$  whenever the distance  $PP'$  is less than or equal to  $\delta$ , and the point  $P'$  belongs to the region.

Then the region,  $R$ , can be divided into a finite number of closed sets of points such that each set contains at least one point  $P_1$  such that the condition  $|\{P', P_1\}| \leq \epsilon$  is satisfied for all points  $P'$  of the set under consideration.

If a set of points is such that for any particular positive number  $\epsilon$ , a point  $P_1$  can be found such that

$$|\{P', P_1\}| < \epsilon$$

for all points  $P'$  of the set, we shall say that the set satisfies condition (A). A set of points which satisfies condition (A) will be called a *suitable* set.

Let  $R^-$  be the continuum formed by the interior of  $R$ ; take any point of  $R^-$  and draw a square, with this point as centre, whose sides are parallel to the axes, the lengths of the sides of the square being  $2L$ , where  $L$  is so large that no point of  $R$  lies outside the square.

If every point of  $R$  satisfies condition (A), what is required is proved. If not, divide the square into four equal squares by two lines through its centre, one parallel to each axis. Let the sets of points of  $R$  which lie either inside these squares or on their boundaries be called  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4$  respectively of which  $a_1, a_2$  are above  $a_3, a_4$  and  $a_1, a_3$  are on the left of  $a_2, a_4$ .

If these sets,  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4$ , each satisfy condition (A), what is required is proved. If any one of the sets, say  $a_1$ , does not satisfy condition (A), divide the square<sup>13</sup> of which  $a_1$  forms part into four equal squares by lines parallel to the axes; let the sets of points of  $R$  which lie inside these squares or on their boundaries be called  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$  (in the figure one of the squares into which  $a_1$  is divided contains no point of  $R$ ).

If condition (A) is satisfied by each of the sets, we have divided  $a_1$  into sets for which condition (A) is satisfied; if the condition (A) is not satisfied by any one of the sets, say  $\beta_3$ , we draw lines dividing the square (of side  $\frac{1}{2}L$ ), of which  $\beta_3$  forms part, into four equal squares of side  $\frac{1}{4}L$ .

This process of subdividing squares will either terminate or it will not; if it does terminate,  $R$  has been divided into a finite number of closed sets of points each satisfying condition (A), and the lemma is proved.

Suppose that the process does not terminate.

A closed set of points  $R'$  for which the process does terminate will be said to satisfy condition (B).

Then the set  $R$  does not satisfy condition (B); therefore at least one of the

<sup>11</sup> This form of the statement of Goursat's Lemma is due to Dr Baker.

<sup>12</sup> Consisting of a continuum and its boundary.

<sup>13</sup> A square which does satisfy condition (A) is not to be divided; for some of the subdivisions might not satisfy condition (A).

sets  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4$  does not satisfy condition (B). Take the *first*<sup>15</sup> of them which does not.

The process of dividing the square, in which this set lies, into four equal parts gives at most four sets of points, of which at least one set does not satisfy condition (B). Take the first of them which does not, and continue this process of division and selection. The result of the process is to give an unending sequence of squares satisfying the following conditions:

If the sequence be called  $s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots$  then<sup>16</sup>



- (i) The side of  $s_n$  is of length  $2^{-n}L$ .
- (ii) No point of  $s_{n+1}$  lies outside  $s_n$ .
- (iii) Two sides of  $s_{n+1}$  lie along two sides of  $s_n$ .
- (iv)  $s_n$  contains at least one point of  $R$ .
- (v) The set of points of  $R$  which are inside or on  $s_n$  do not satisfy condition (A).

Let the coordinates of the corners of  $s_n$  be called

$$(x_n^{(1)}, y_n^{(1)}), \quad (x_n^{(2)}, y_n^{(2)}), \quad (x_n^{(3)}, y_n^{(3)}), \quad (x_n^{(4)}, y_n^{(4)}),$$

where

$$x_n^{(1)} < x_n^{(2)}, \quad y_n^{(1)} < y_n^{(2)}.$$

Then  $(x_n^{(1)})$  is a non-decreasing sequence and  $(x_n^{(2)})$  is a non-increasing sequence; and  $x_n^{(2)} - x_n^{(1)} = 2^{-n}L$ ; therefore the sequences  $(x_n^{(1)})$ ,  $(x_n^{(2)})$  have a common limit  $\xi$  such that  $x_n^{(1)} \leq \xi \leq x_n^{(2)}$ ; similarly the sequences  $(y_n^{(1)})$ ,  $(y_n^{(2)})$  have a common limit  $\eta$  such that  $y_n^{(1)} \leq \eta \leq y_n^{(2)}$ .

Consequently  $(\xi, \eta)$  lies inside or on the boundaries of all the squares of the sequence  $(s_n)$ ; further,  $(\xi, \eta)$  lies inside or on the boundary of the region  $R$ ;

<sup>15</sup> We take the *first* possible square of each group of four so as to get a definite sequence of squares.

<sup>16</sup> Cp. Bromwich, *Theory of Infinite Series*, § 150.

for since  $s_n$  contains at least one point of  $R$ , the distance of  $(\xi, \eta)$  from at least one point of  $R$  is less than or equal to the diagonal of  $s_n$ , i.e.  $2^{-n}L\sqrt{2}$ . Hence, corresponding to each square,  $s_n$ , there is a point  $P_n$  such that

$$\Pi P_n \leq 2^{-n}L\sqrt{2},$$

where  $\Pi$  is the point whose coordinates are  $(\xi, \eta)$ ; this sequence of points  $(P_n)$  obviously has  $\Pi$  for its limiting point; and since the region  $R$  is closed, the limiting point of any sequence of points of  $R$  is a point of  $R$ . Therefore  $\Pi$  is a point of  $R$ .

Then  $|\{P', \Pi\}| < \epsilon$  when  $P'$  is a point of  $R$  such that  $P'\Pi < \delta_\pi$ , where  $\delta_\pi$  is a positive number depending on  $\Pi$ .

Choose  $n$  so that  $2^{-n}L\sqrt{2} < \delta_\pi$ ; then all points,  $P'$ , of  $s_n$  are such that  $P'\Pi < \delta_\pi$ ; and therefore  $s_n$  satisfies condition (A); which is contrary to condition (v).

Consequently, by assuming that the process of dividing squares does not terminate, we are led to a contradiction; therefore all the sequences terminate; and consequently the number of sets of points into which  $R$  has to be divided is finite; that is to say, the lemma is proved.

[The reader can at once extend this lemma to space of  $n$  dimensions.]

In the one-dimensional case, the lemma is that if, given an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ , for each point  $P$  of a closed interval we can choose  $\delta$  (depending on  $P$ ) such that  $|\{P', P\}| < \epsilon$  when  $PP' < \delta$ , then the interval can be divided into a *finite* number of sub-intervals such that a point  $P_1$  of any sub-interval can be found such that  $|\{P, P_1\}| < \epsilon$  for all points  $P$  of that sub-interval; the proof is obtained in a slightly simpler manner than in the two-dimensional case, by bisecting the interval and continually bisecting any sub-interval for which the condition (A) is not satisfied.

The proof that a continuous function of a real variable is uniformly continuous is immediate. Let  $f(x)$  be continuous when  $a \leq x \leq b$ ; we shall prove that, given  $\epsilon$ , we can find  $\delta_0$  such that, if  $x', x''$  be any two points of the interval satisfying  $|x' - x''| < \delta_0$ , then  $|f(x') - f(x'')| < \epsilon$ .

For, given an arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ , since  $f(x)$  is continuous, corresponding to any  $x$  we can find  $\delta$  such that

$$|f(x') - f(x)| < \frac{1}{3}\epsilon \text{ when } |x' - x| < \delta.$$

Then, by the lemma, we can divide the interval  $a$  to  $b$  into a finite number of closed sub-intervals such that in each sub-interval there is a point,  $x_1$ , such that  $|f(x') - f(x_1)| < \frac{1}{3}\epsilon$  when  $x'$  lies in the interval in which  $x_1$  lies.

Let  $\delta_0$  be the length of the smallest of these sub-intervals; and let  $x', x''$  be any two points of the interval  $a \leq x \leq b$  such that

$$|x' - x''| < \delta_0;$$



then  $x'$ ,  $x''$  lie in the same or in adjacent sub-intervals; if  $x'$ ,  $x''$  lie in the same sub-interval, then we can find  $x_1$  so that

$$|f(x') - f(x_1)| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon, \quad |f(x'') - f(x_1)| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon.$$

Hence

$$|f(x') - f(x'')| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon.$$

If  $x'$ ,  $x''$  lie in adjacent sub-intervals let  $\xi$  be their common end-point; then we can find a point  $x_1$  in the first sub-interval and a point  $x_2$  in the second such that

$$|f(x') - f(x_1)| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon, \quad |f(\xi) - f(x_1)| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon,$$

$$|f(x'') - f(x_2)| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon, \quad |f(\xi) - f(x_2)| < \frac{1}{2}\epsilon,$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x') - f(x'')| &= \left| \{f(x') - f(x_1)\} - \{f(\xi) - f(x_1)\} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \{f(x'') - f(x_2)\} + \{f(\xi) - f(x_2)\} \right| \\ &< \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

In either case  $|f(x') - f(x'')| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|x' - x''| < \delta_\epsilon$ , where  $\delta_\epsilon$  is independent of  $x'$ ,  $x''$ ; that is to say,  $f(x)$  is uniformly continuous.

13. Proofs of the following theorems may be left to the reader.

I. If  $AB$  be a simple curve with limited variations and if  $f(z)$  be continuous on the curve  $AB$ , then

$$\int_A^B f(z) dz = - \int_B^A f(z) dz.$$

That is to say, changing the orientation of the path of integration changes the sign of the integral of a given function.

II. If  $C$  be a point on the simple curve  $AB$ , and if  $f(z)$  be continuous on the curve, then

$$\int_A^B f(z) dz = \int_A^C f(z) dz + \int_C^B f(z) dz.$$

III. If  $z_0$  and  $Z$  be the complex coordinates of  $A$  and  $B$  respectively, and if  $AB$  be a simple curve joining  $A$ ,  $B$ , then

$$\int_A^B dz = Z - z_0.$$

IV. With the notation of Theorems I and II of § 11, by taking  $z_k = z_0^{(k)}$ , and  $Z_k$  in turn equal to  $z_k^{(k)}$  and  $z_k + i^{(k)}$ , it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_A^B z dz &= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \{ (z_k + i^{(k)} - z_k^{(k)}) z_k^{(k)} \} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \{ (z_k + i^{(k)} - z_k^{(k)}) z_k + i^{(k)} \} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \{ (z_k + i^{(k)})^2 - (z_k^{(k)})^2 \} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (Z^2 - z_0^2). \end{aligned}$$

## CHAPTER III

### CAUCHY'S THEOREM

- § 14. The value of an integral may depend on the path of integration.  
—§ 15. Analytic functions.—§ 16. Statement and proof of Cauchy's Theorem.—§ 17. Removal of a restriction introduced in § 14.

**14.** Let  $C_1, C_2$  be two unclosed simple curves with the same end-points, but no other common points, each curve having limited variations. If  $z_0, Z$  be the end-points and if  $f(z)$  be a function of  $z$  which is continuous on each curve and is one-valued at  $z_0$  and  $Z$ , then

$$\int_{C_1} f(z) dz, \quad \int_{C_2} f(z) dz$$

both exist.

If  $f(z) = z$ , it follows from Theorem IV of § 13 that these two integrals have the same value. Further, if  $C_1, C_2$  be oriented so that  $z_0$  is the first point of  $C_1$  and  $Z$  the first point of  $C_2$ , and if  $C_1, C_2$  have no points in common save their end-points,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  taken together form a simple closed curve,  $C$ , with limited variations, and

$$\int_C z dz = 0.$$

This result suggests that the circumstances in which

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0,$$

(where  $C$  denotes a simple closed curve with limited variations<sup>1</sup> and  $f(z)$  denotes a function of  $z$  which is continuous on  $C$ ) should be investigated.

<sup>1</sup> A regular closed curve, satisfying this condition, regarded as a path of integration, is usually described as a *closed contour*.

The investigation appears all the more necessary from the fact<sup>2</sup> that if  $C$  be the unit circle  $|z| = 1$ , described counterclockwise, and  $f(z) = z^{-1}$ , (so that  $z = \cos t + i \sin t$ ,  $-\pi \leq t \leq \pi$ ), it can be shewn that

$$\int_C z^{-1} dz = 2\pi i.$$

Conditions for the truth of the equation

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0$$

were first investigated by Cauchy<sup>3</sup>.

It is *not sufficient* that  $f(z)$  should be continuous and one-valued on the regular closed curve  $C$ , as is obvious from the example cited, in which  $f(z) = z^{-1}$ ; and, further, it is *not sufficient* that  $f(z)$  should be continuous at all points of  $C$  and its interior.

A sufficient condition for the truth of the equation is that, given a function  $f(z)$  which exists and is continuous and one-valued on the curve  $C$ , it should be possible to define a function<sup>4</sup>,  $f'(z)$ , which exists and is continuous and is one-valued at all points of the closed region formed by  $C$  and its interior, and which possesses the further property that the unique limit

$$\lim_{\substack{z' \rightarrow z \\ (z' \neq z)}} \frac{f(z') - f(z)}{z' - z}$$

should exist at every point  $z$  of this closed region, it being supposed that  $z'$  is a point of the closed region. The existence of this limit implies the continuity of  $f'(z)$  in the region.

It is, further, convenient, in setting out the proof, to lay a restriction on the contour  $C$ , namely that if a line be drawn parallel to  $Ox$  or to  $Oy$ , the portions of the line which are not points of  $C$  form a finite number of segments. This restriction will be removed in § 17.

**15. DEFINITION.** *Analytic functions.* The one-valued continuous function  $f(z)$  is said to be analytic at a point  $z$  of a continuum, if a number,  $l$ , can be found satisfying the condition that, given an

<sup>2</sup> Hardy, *A Course of Pure Mathematics*, § 204.

<sup>3</sup> *Mémoire sur les intégrales définies prises entre des limites imaginaires* (1825); this memoir is reprinted in t. vii. and t. viii. of the *Bulletin des Sciences Mathématiques*.

<sup>4</sup> Up to the present point a function,  $f(z)$ , of the complex variable  $z$ , has meant merely a function of the two real variables  $x$  and  $y$ .

arbitrary positive number  $\epsilon$ , it is possible to find a positive number  $\delta$  (depending on  $\epsilon$  and  $z$ ) such that

$$|f(z') - f(z) - l(z' - z)| \leq \epsilon |z' - z|,$$

for all values of  $z'$  such that  $|z' - z| \leq \delta$ .

The number  $l$  is called the differential coefficient, or derivate, of  $f(z)$ ; if we regard  $z$  as variable,  $l$  is obviously a function of  $z$ ; we denote the dependence of  $l$  upon  $z$  by writing  $l = f'(z)$ .

So far as Cauchy's theorem, that  $\int_C f(z) dz = 0$ , is concerned, it is not necessary that  $f(z)$  should be analytic at points actually on  $C$ ; it is sufficient that  $f(z)$  should be analytic at all points of the interior of  $C$  and that for every point,  $z$ , of  $C$ ,

$$|f(z') - f(z) - f'(z) \cdot (z' - z)| \leq \epsilon |z' - z|,$$

whenever  $|z' - z| < \delta$  (where  $\delta$  depends on  $\epsilon$  and  $z$ ), provided that  $z'$  is a point of the closed region formed by  $C$  and its interior.

In such circumstances, we shall say that  $f(z)$  is *semi-analytic on  $C$* .

It is not difficult to see that analytic functions form a more restricted class than continuous functions. The existence of a unique differential coefficient implies the continuity of the function; whereas the converse is not true; for e.g.  $|z|$  is continuous but not analytic.

16. It is now possible to prove CAUCHY'S THEOREM, namely that :

*If  $f(z)$  be analytic at all points in the interior of a regular closed curve with limited variations,  $C$ , and if the function be continuous throughout the closed region formed by  $C$  and its interior, then*

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0.$$

The theorem will first be proved on the hypothesis that  $f(z)$  is subject to the further restriction that it is to be semi-analytic on  $C$ .

In accordance with § 8, let the orientation of  $C$  be determined in the conventional manner, so that if the (coincident) end-points of the path of integration be called  $z_0$  and  $Z$ , with parameters  $t_0$  and  $T$ , then, as  $t$  increases from  $t_0$  to  $T$ ,  $z$  describes  $C$  in the counterclockwise direction.

The continuum formed by the interior of  $C$  will be called  $R^-$ ; and the closed region formed by  $R^-$  and  $C$  will be called  $R$ .

Let  $L$  be the sum of the variations of  $x$  and  $y$  as  $z$  describes the curve  $C$ ; take any point of  $R^-$ , and with it as centre describe a square of side  $2L$ , the sides of the square being parallel to the axes; then no

point of  $R$  lies outside this square; for if  $(x_0, y_0)$  be the centre of the square and  $x_1, x_2$  the extreme values of  $x$  on  $R$ , then

$$x_1 \leq x_0 \leq x_2, \quad 0 \leq x_2 - x_1 \leq L,$$

so that  $x_0 + L \geq x_1 + L \geq x_2$ ; i.e. the right-hand side of the square is on the right of  $R$ ; applying similar reasoning to the other three sides of the square, it is apparent that no point of  $R$  is outside the square.

Let  $\epsilon$  be an arbitrary positive number; then, since  $f(z)$  is analytic inside  $C$  and semi-analytic on  $C$ , corresponding to any point,  $z$ , of  $R$  we can find a positive number  $\delta$  such that

$$|f(z') - f(z) - (z' - z)f'(z)| \leq \epsilon |z' - z|,$$

whenever  $|z' - z| \leq \delta$  and  $z'$  is a point of  $R$ .

Hence, by Goursat's lemma (§ 12), we can divide  $R$  into a finite number of sets of points such that a point,  $z_1$ , of each set can be found such that

$$|f(z') - f(z_1) - (z' - z_1)f'(z_1)| \leq \epsilon |z' - z_1|,$$

where  $z'$  is any member of the set to which  $z_1$  belongs.

Suppose that  $R$  is divided into such sets, as in the proof of Goursat's lemma, by the process of dividing up the square of side  $2L$  into four equal squares, and repeating the process of dividing up any of these squares into four equal squares, if such a process is necessary.

The effect of bisecting the square of side  $2L$  is to divide  $R^-$  into a finite number of continua, by Theorem VI of § 6 combined with the hypothesis at the end of § 14; the boundaries of these continua are  $C$  and the straight line which bisects the square; the process of dividing up the square again is to divide these continua into other continua; and finally when  $R$  has been divided into suitable sets,  $R^-$  has been divided into a finite number of continua whose boundaries are portions of  $C$  and portions of the sides of the squares.

The squares into which the square of side  $2L$  has been divided fall into the following three classes:

- (i) Squares such that every point inside them is a point of  $R$ .
- (ii) Squares such that some points inside them are points of  $R$ , but other points inside them are not points of  $R$ .
- (iii) Squares such that no point inside them is a point of  $R$ .

The points inside  $C$  which are inside any particular square of class (i) form a continuum, namely the interior of the square; the points inside  $C$  which are inside any particular square of class (ii) form one or more continua.

Let the squares of class (i) be numbered from 1 to  $N$  and let the oriented boundary of the  $k$ th of these squares be called  $C_k$ .

Let the squares of class (ii) be numbered from 1 to  $N'$ . Let the set of oriented boundaries of the continua formed by points of  $R^-$  inside the  $k$ th of these squares be called  $C'_k$ .

$$\text{Consider} \quad \sum_{k=1}^N \int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz + \sum_{k=1}^{N'} \int_{(C'_k)} f(z) dz;$$

we shall shew that this sum is equal to  $\int_{(C)} f(z) dz$ .

The interiors of the squares of class (i), and the interiors of the regions whose complete boundaries are  $C'_k$ , are all mutually external. The boundaries formed by all those parts of the sides of the squares which belong to  $R^-$  occur twice in the paths of integration, and the whole of the curve  $C$  occurs once in the path of integration. By Theorem II of § 8, each path of integration which occurs twice in the sum occurs with opposite orientations; so that the integrals along these paths cancel, by Theorem I of § 13.

Again, the interiors of all the regions whose boundaries are  $C_k$  and  $C'_k$  are interior to  $C$ ; so that the orientation of each part of  $C$  which occurs in the paths of integration is the same as the orientation of  $C$ ; and therefore the paths of integration which occur once in the summation add up to produce the path of integration  $C$  (taken counter-clockwise).

Consequently

$$\sum_{k=1}^N \int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz + \sum_{k=1}^{N'} \int_{(C'_k)} f(z) dz = \int_{(C)} f(z) dz.$$

Now consider  $\int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz$ ; the closed region formed by the square  $C_k$  and its interior has been chosen in such a way that a point  $z_1$  of the region can be found such that

$$|f(z) - f(z_1) - (z - z_1)f'(z_1)| < \epsilon |(z - z_1)|,$$

when  $z$  is any point of the region.

$$\text{Let} \quad f(z) - f(z_1) - (z - z_1)f'(z_1) = v(z - z_1),$$

when  $z \neq z_1$ .

When  $z = z_1$  let  $v = 0$ ; then  $v$  is a function of  $z$  and  $z_1$  such that  $|v| < \epsilon$ .

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz &= \int_{(C_k)} \{f(z_1) - z_1 f'(z_1)\} dz \\ &\quad + \int_{(C_k)} z f'(z_1) dz + \int_{(C_k)} (z - z_1) v dz. \end{aligned}$$

But by Theorem III of § 13,  $\int dz = Z - z_0$ , where  $z_0, Z$  are the end-points of the path of integration; since  $C_k$  is a closed curve,  $Z = z_0$ , so that  $\int_{(C_k)} dz = 0$ ; so also, by Theorem IV of § 13,  $\int_{(C_k)} z dz = 0$ .

$$\text{Therefore} \quad \int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz = \int_{(C_k)} (z - z_1) v dz.$$

Therefore<sup>5</sup>, since the modulus of a sum is less than or equal to the sum of the moduli,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz \right| &= \left| \int_{(C_k)} (z - z_1) v dz \right| \\ &\leq \int_{(C_k)} |(z - z_1) v dz| \\ &\leq \int_{C_k} l_k \sqrt{2} \epsilon |dz| \\ &\leq l_k \epsilon \sqrt{2} \cdot 4l_k \\ &\leq 4\epsilon A_k \sqrt{2}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $l_k$  is the side<sup>6</sup> of  $C_k$  and  $A_k$  is the area of  $C_k$ , so that  $A_k = l_k^2$ ; it is obvious by the lemma of § 9 that  $\int_{(C_k)} |dz|$  does not exceed the perimeter of  $C_k$ .

We next consider  $\int_{(C_k')} f(z) dz$ ; if the region of which  $C_k'$  is the total boundary consists of more than one continuum (i.e. if  $C_k'$  consists of more than one regular closed curve), we regard  $C_k'$  as being made up of a finite number of regular closed curves; and since the interior of each of these lies wholly inside  $C$ , any portion of any of them which coincides with a portion of  $C$  has the same orientation as  $C$ ; and the value of  $\int dz, \int z dz$  round each of the regular closed curves which make up  $C_k'$  is zero.

Hence, as in the case of  $C_k$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{(C_k')} f(z) dz \right| &= \left| \int_{(C_k')} v(z - z_1) dz \right| \\ &\leq \int_{(C_k')} (l_k' \sqrt{2}) \cdot \epsilon |dz|, \end{aligned}$$

<sup>5</sup> The expression  $\int |f(z) dz|$  means  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=0}^n |(z_{r+1}^{(n)} - z_r^{(n)}) f(z_r^{(n)})|$ , with the notation of Chapter II; arguments similar to those of Chapter II show that the limit exists.

<sup>6</sup> The squares  $C_k$  are not necessarily of the same size.

where  $l'_k$  is the length of the side of that square of class (ii) in which  $C'_k$  lies.

Let the sum of the variations of  $x$  and  $y$ , as  $z$  describes the portions of  $C$  which lie on  $C'_k$ , be  $L'_k$ ; so that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N'} L'_k \leq L.$$

( $\sum_{k=1}^{N'} L'_k$  will be less than  $L$  if part of  $C$  coincides with a portion of a side or sides of squares of class (i).)

$$\text{Now} \quad \int_{(C'_k)} |dz| \leq L'_k + 4l'_k;$$

for, by the lemma of § 9,  $\int_{(C'_k)} |dz|$  is less than or equal to the sum of the variations of  $x$  and  $y$  as  $z$  describes the various portions of  $C'_k$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore} \quad \left| \int_{(C'_k)} f(z) dz \right| &\leq (L'_k + 4l'_k) \epsilon l'_k \sqrt{2} \\ &\leq 4\epsilon A'_k \sqrt{2} + 2L \epsilon L'_k \sqrt{2}, \end{aligned}$$

since  $l'_k \leq 2L$ ;  $A'_k$  is the area of the square  $C'_k$ .

Combining the results obtained, it is evident that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_C f(z) dz \right| &= \left| \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^N \int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz + \sum_{k=1}^{N'} \int_{(C'_k)} f(z) dz \right\} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^N \left| \int_{(C_k)} f(z) dz \right| + \sum_{k=1}^{N'} \left| \int_{(C'_k)} f(z) dz \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^N 4A_k \epsilon \sqrt{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{N'} (4A'_k \epsilon \sqrt{2} + 2L \epsilon L'_k \sqrt{2}). \end{aligned}$$

But it is evident that  $\sum_{k=1}^N A_k + \sum_{k=1}^{N'} A'_k$  is not greater than the area of the square of side  $2L$  which encloses  $C$ ; and since  $\sum_{k=1}^{N'} L'_k \leq L$ , we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{(C)} f(z) dz \right| &\leq 4 \times (2L)^2 \times \epsilon \sqrt{2} + 2\epsilon L^2 \sqrt{2} \\ &\leq 18\epsilon L^2 \sqrt{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $L$  is independent of  $\epsilon$ , the modulus of  $\int_{(C)} f(z) dz$  is less than a number which we can take to be *arbitrarily small*. Hence  $\int_{(C)} f(z) dz$  is zero, if  $f(z)$  be analytic inside  $C$  and semi-analytic on  $C$ .



17. The results of the following two theorems make it possible to remove the restriction laid on  $C$  in § 14, namely that if a line be drawn parallel to  $Ox$  or to  $Oy$ , those portions of the line which are not points of  $C$  form a finite number of segments; also it will follow that the assumption made at the beginning of § 16, that  $f(z)$  is semi-analytic on  $C$ , is unnecessary.

**THEOREM I.** Given a regular closed curve  $C$  and a positive number  $\delta$ , a closed polygon  $D$  can be drawn such that every point of  $D$  is inside  $C$  and such that, given any point  $P$  on  $C$ , a point  $Q$  on  $D$  can be found such that  $PQ < \delta$ .

**THEOREM II.** If  $f(z)$  be continuous throughout  $C$  and its interior, then  $\int_C f(z) dz - \int_D f(z) dz$  can be made arbitrarily small by taking  $\delta$  sufficiently small.

It is obvious that the condition of § 14 is satisfied for polygons, so that if  $f(z)$  be continuous throughout  $C$  and its interior and if it be analytic inside  $C$ ,

$$\int_D f(z) dz = 0, \text{ and therefore } \int_C f(z) dz = 0.$$

**THEOREM I.** Let the elementary curves which form  $C$  be, in order,

$$y = g_1(x), \quad x = h_1(y), \quad y = g_2(x), \quad x = h_2(y), \quad \dots \quad y = g_n(x), \quad x = h_n(y),$$

and let the interior of  $C$  be called  $S^-$ .

$$\text{Let} \quad \delta < \limsup \frac{1}{2} PQ,$$

where  $P, Q$  are any two points on  $C$ .

Each of the elementary curves which form  $C$  can be divided into a finite number of segments such that the sum of the fluctuations of  $x$  and  $y$  on each segment does not exceed  $\frac{1}{2}\delta$ , so that  $\limsup PQ \leq \frac{1}{2}\delta$ , where  $P, Q$  are any two points on one segment. Let each elementary curve be divided into at least three such segments and let the segments taken in order on  $C$  be called  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{n+1}$ , their end-points being called  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_{n+1} (= P_0)$ .

Choose  $\delta' \leq \delta$  so that  $\liminf PQ > \delta'$ , where  $P, Q$  are any two points of  $C$  which do not lie on the same or on adjoining segments<sup>6</sup>.

Cover the plane with a network of squares whose sides are parallel to the axes and of length  $\frac{1}{2}\delta'$ ; if the end-point of any segment  $\sigma_r$  lies on the side of a square, shift the squares until this is no longer the case.

Take all the squares which have any point of  $\sigma_r$  inside or on them; these squares form a single closed region  $S_r$ ; for if  $\sigma_r$  be on  $y = g(x)$ , the squares forming  $S_r$  can be grouped in columns, each column abutting on the column on its left and also on the column on its right. Let the boundary and interior of  $S_r$  be called  $C_r$  and  $S_r^-$  respectively.

Then  $S_r$  possesses the following properties:

- (i)  $S_r$  contains points inside  $C$  and points outside  $C$ .

<sup>7</sup> This result will be obtained by the methods of de la Vallée Poussin. *Cours d'Analyse Infinitésimale* (1914), §§ 343-344.

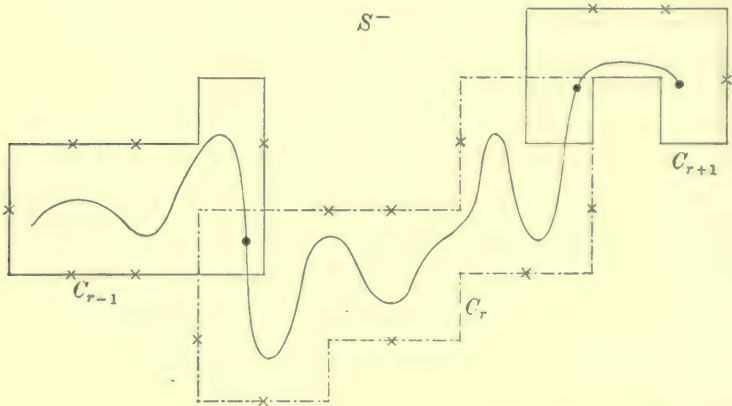
<sup>6</sup> See note 15, p. 10.

(ii)  $S_r^-$  has at least one point  $P_r$  (and therefore the interior of one square) in common with  $S_{r+1}^-$ .

(iii)  $S_r, S_{r+2}$  have no point in common; for if they had a common point  $P$ , points  $Q_r, Q_{r+2}$  could be found on  $\sigma_r, \sigma_{r+2}$  respectively, such that  $PQ_r \leq \frac{1}{4}\delta' \sqrt{2}, PQ_{r+2} \leq \frac{1}{4}\delta' \sqrt{2}$ , and then  $Q_r Q_{r+2} \leq \frac{1}{2}\delta' \sqrt{2} < \delta'$ , which is impossible.

(iv) Since  $S_{r-1}, S_{r+1}$  have no common point,  $S_r$  consists of at least three squares.

(v) If  $y=g(x)$  has points on  $m$  squares which lie on a column, the sum of the fluctuations of  $x$  and  $y$  as the curve completely crosses the column is at least  $(m-1)\delta'$ , (or  $\delta'$  if  $m=1$ ); in the case of a column which the curve does not completely cross, the sum of the fluctuations is at least  $(m-2)\delta'$ , (or 0 if  $m=1$ ). The reader will deduce without much difficulty that the ratio of the perimeter of  $S_r$  to the sum of the fluctuations of  $x$  and  $y$  on  $\sigma_r$  cannot exceed 12; in the figure, the ratio is just less than 12 for the segment  $\sigma_{r+1}$ .



If  $\sigma_{r-1}, \sigma_r, \sigma_{r+1}$  be all on the same elementary curve, it is easy to see that a point describing  $C_r$  counter-clockwise (starting at a point inside  $C$  and outside  $C_{r-1}, C_{r+1}$ ) will enter  $S_{r-1}^-$ , emerge from  $S_{r-1}^-$  outside  $C$ , enter  $S_{r+1}^-$  outside  $C$  and then emerge from  $S_{r+1}^-$ .

If, however,  $\sigma_{r-1}, \sigma_r$  be on adjacent elementary curves, a point describing  $C_r$  may enter and emerge from  $S_{r-1}^-$  more than once; but it is possible to take a number of squares forming a closed region  $S'_r$ , whose boundary is  $E_r$ , consisting of the squares of  $S_r$  and  $S_{r-1}$  together with the squares which lie in the regions (if any) which are completely surrounded by the squares of  $S_r$  and  $S_{r-1}$ . Then, as a point describes  $E_r$  counter-clockwise, it enters and emerges from  $S_{r-2}^-$  and  $S_{r+1}^-$  only once. If we thus modify those regions  $S_r$  which correspond to end segments of the elementary curves, we get a set of  $m+1 (< n)$  closed regions  $T_p$ , with boundaries  $D_p$  and interiors  $T_p^-$ , such

that  $D_p$  meets  $D_{p+1}$  but non-adjacent regions are wholly external to one another.

Now consider the arc of each polygon  $D_p$  which lies outside  $T_{p-1}^-$  and  $T_{p+1}^-$  but inside  $C$ ; these overlapping arcs form a closed polygon  $D$  which is wholly inside  $C$ , with arcs of  $D_1, D_2, \dots$ , occurring on it in order. Also, if  $P$  be any point of  $\sigma_p$ , there is a point  $Q$  of  $\sigma_r$  or  $\sigma_{r+1}$  which is inside a square which abuts on  $D$ , and therefore the distance of  $P$  from some point of  $D$  does not exceed  $PQ + \frac{1}{2}\delta < \frac{1}{2}\delta + \frac{1}{2}\delta < \delta$ .

Theorem I is therefore completely proved.

**THEOREM II.** Let  $\epsilon$  be an arbitrary positive number.

(i) Choose  $\delta$  so small that

$$|\bar{f}(z') - \bar{f}(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon L_1^{-1},$$

whenever  $|z' - z| \leq 3\delta$  and  $z, z'$  are any two points on or inside  $C$ , while  $L_1 = 12L$ , where  $L$  is the sum of the fluctuations of  $x$  and  $y$  on  $C$ .

(ii) Choose such a parameter  $t$  for the curve  $C$  that

$$|\bar{f}(t') - \bar{f}(t)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon L^{-1},$$

whenever  $|t' - t| \leq \delta$ ; this is obviously possible, for, if the inequality were only true when  $|t' - t| \leq \lambda\delta$ , where  $\lambda$  is a positive number less than unity and independent of  $t$ , we should take a new parameter  $\tau = \lambda^{-1}t$ .

It is evident from (i) that

$$|\bar{f}(z') - \bar{f}(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon L^{-1},$$

whenever  $|z' - z| \leq \delta$  and  $z, z'$  are any two points on  $C$ .

Draw the polygon  $D$  for the value of  $\delta$  under consideration, as in Theorem I. Take any one of the curves  $D_p$ ; if it wholly contains more than one of the regions  $S_r$ , let them be  $S_{r-1}, S_r$ . Then there is a point  $z_p$  of  $\sigma_{r-1}$  or  $\sigma_r$  in one of the squares of  $D_p$  which abuts on  $D$ ; let  $\zeta_p$  be a point on the side of this square which is part of  $D$ .

Then  $z_{p+1}$  is on  $\sigma_{r+1}$ , and hence  $|z_{p+1} - z_p|$  does not exceed the sum of the fluctuations of  $x$  and  $y$  on  $\sigma_{r-1}, \sigma_r, \sigma_{r+1}$ ; i.e.  $|z_{p+1} - z_p| < \frac{1}{2}\delta < \delta$ .

Also the arc of  $D$  joining  $\zeta_p$  to  $\zeta_{p+1}$  does not exceed 12 times the sum of the fluctuations of  $x$  and  $y$  on the arcs  $\sigma_{r-1}, \sigma_r, \sigma_{r+1}$  and so does not exceed  $3\delta$ , and the sum of the fluctuations of  $\xi, \eta$  as  $\zeta$  describes  $D$  does not exceed the sum of the perimeters of the curves  $C_r$ , i.e. it does not exceed  $L_1 = 12L$ .

Take as the parameter  $\tau$ , of a point  $\zeta$  on  $D$ , the arc of  $D$  measured from a fixed point to  $\zeta$ .

We can now consider the value of  $\int_C f(z) dz$ .

By conditions (i) and (ii) coupled with Theorem II of § 11, we see that, since  $|\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p| \leq \tau_{p+1} - \tau_p \leq 3\delta$ ,

$$\left| \int_D f(\zeta) d\zeta - \sum_{p=0}^{\infty} (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f(\zeta_p) \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon,$$

and

$$\left| \int_C f(z) dz - \sum_{p=0}^{\infty} (\tau_{p+1} - \tau_p) f(\tau_p) \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{But } \left| \int_C f(z) dz - \int_D f(\zeta) d\zeta \right| & \\
 & \leq \left| \left\{ \int_C f(z) dz - \sum_{p=0}^m (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(z_p) \right\} \right| \\
 & \quad + \left| \left\{ \int_D f(\zeta) d\zeta - \sum_{p=0}^m (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f(\zeta_p) \right\} \right| \\
 & \quad + \left| \left\{ \sum_{p=0}^m (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(z_p) - \sum_{p=0}^m (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f(\zeta_p) \right\} \right| \\
 & \leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon + \left| \sum_{p=0}^m \{ (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(z_p) - (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f(\zeta_p) \} \right|.
 \end{aligned}$$

Write

so that

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(\zeta_p) &= f(z_p) + v_p, \quad \zeta_p = z_p + \eta_p, \\
 |v_p| &< \frac{1}{3^{\frac{1}{2}}} \epsilon L_1^{-1}, \quad |\eta_p| < \delta'.
 \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left| \sum_{p=0}^m (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(z_p) - (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f(\zeta_p) \right| \\
 &= \left| \sum_{p=0}^m [(\eta_p - \eta_{p+1}) f(z_p) - (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) \{f(\zeta_p) - f(z_p)\}] \right| \\
 &= \left| \sum_{p=0}^m [\eta_{p+1} \{f(z_{p+1}) - f(z_p)\} - (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) v_p] \right| \\
 &\leq \sum_{p=0}^m |\eta_{p+1} \{f(z_{p+1}) - f(z_p)\}| + \sum_{p=0}^m |(\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) v_p|.
 \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\sum_{p=0}^m |\eta_{p+1} \{f(z_{p+1}) - f(z_p)\}| < \frac{1}{3^{\frac{1}{2}}} (m+1) \delta' \epsilon L^{-1},$$

by condition (ii), while

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{p=0}^m |(\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) v_p| &< \frac{1}{3^{\frac{1}{2}}} \epsilon L_1^{-1} \sum_{p=0}^m |\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p| \\
 &< \frac{1}{3^{\frac{1}{2}}} \epsilon.
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, collecting the results and noticing that  $(m+1)\delta' < L$ , we see that

$$\left| \int_C f(z) dz - \int_D f(z) dz \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon + \frac{3}{2} \epsilon + \frac{1}{3^{\frac{1}{2}}} \epsilon < \epsilon.$$

If now, in addition to the hypothesis of the enunciation of Theorem II, that  $f(z)$  is continuous throughout  $C$  and its interior, we assume that  $f(z)$  is analytic in the interior of  $C$ , then  $f(z)$  is analytic throughout  $D$  and its interior, and so  $\int_D f(z) dz = 0$ , by § 16; and then, by the result that  $\left| \int_C f(z) dz \right| < \epsilon$ , we infer that  $\int_C f(z) dz = 0$ . The result stated at the beginning of § 16 has now been completely proved.

## CHAPTER IV

### MISCELLANEOUS THEOREMS

§ 18. Change of variable in an integral.—§ 19. Differentiation of an integral with regard to one of the limits.—§ 20. Uniform differentiability implies a continuous differential coefficient, and the converse.

**18. Change of variable in an integral.** Let  $\zeta$  be the complex coordinate of any point on a simple curve  $AB$ , with limited variations. Let  $z = g(\zeta)$  be a function of  $\zeta$  which has a continuous differential coefficient,  $g'(\zeta)$ , at all points of the curve, so that, if  $\zeta$  be any particular point of the curve, given a positive  $\epsilon$ , we can find  $\delta$  such that

$$|g(\zeta') - g(\zeta) - (\zeta' - \zeta)g'(\zeta)| < \epsilon |\zeta' - \zeta|,$$

when  $|\zeta' - \zeta| \leq \delta$ ; it being supposed that  $t, t'$  are the parameters of  $\zeta, \zeta'$ .

If  $t_0, T$  be the parameters of  $A, B$ , suppose that  $z$  describes a simple curve  $CD$  as  $t$  increases from  $t_0$  to  $T$ .

Then the equation

$$\int_{AB} f(g(\zeta)) g'(\zeta) d\zeta = \int_{CD} f(z) dz$$

is true if  $f(z)$  be a continuous function on the curve  $CD$ .

By Theorem II of § 11, given any positive number  $\epsilon$ , it is possible to find a positive number  $\delta$  such that if any  $r$  numbers  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_r$  are taken so that  $0 \leq t_{p+1} - t_p \leq \delta$ , and if  $T_p$  be such that  $t_p \leq T_p \leq t_{p+1}$ , then

$$\left| \int_{CD} f(z) dz - \sum_{p=0}^r (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) \right| < \epsilon.$$

Given the same number  $\epsilon$ , we can find  $\delta'$  such that if any  $r$  numbers  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_r$  are taken so that  $0 \leq t_{p+1} - t_p \leq \delta'$ , and if  $T_p$  be such that  $t_p \leq T_p \leq t_{p+1}$ , then

$$\left| \int_{AB} f(g(\zeta)) g'(\zeta) d\zeta - \sum_{p=0}^r (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f(Z_p) g'(\zeta_p) \right| < \epsilon.$$

where  $W_p, Z_p$  are corresponding points on  $AB, CD$ ; we take  $\delta$  to be the smaller of  $\delta', \delta''$  and choose the same values for  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_\nu$  in both summations, where  $0 \leq t_{p+1} - t_p \leq \delta$ , and we take  $T_p$  the same in both summations.

Now divide the range  $t_0$  to  $T$  into any number of intervals each interval being less than  $\delta$ ; and subdivide each of these into a number of intervals which are 'suitable' for the inequality

$$|g(\zeta') - g(\zeta) - (\zeta' - \zeta)g'(\zeta)| \leq \epsilon(\zeta' - \zeta).$$

Then taking the end-points of these intervals to be  $t_0, t_1, \dots, t_\nu, T$ , and, taking  $T_p$  to be the point of the  $p$ th interval such that

$$|g(\zeta) - g(W_p) - (\zeta - W_p)g'(W_p)| \leq \epsilon|\zeta - W_p|$$

at all points  $\zeta$  of the arc  $\zeta_p \zeta_{p+1}$  of  $AB$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f(Z_p) - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f(Z_p) g'(W_p) \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} f(Z_p) \{g(\zeta_{p+1}) - g(\zeta_p) - (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p)g'(W_p)\} \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} f(Z_p) [\{g(\zeta_{p+1}) - g(W_p) - (\zeta_{p+1} - W_p)g'(W_p)\} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \{g(\zeta_p) - g(W_p) - (\zeta_p - W_p)g'(W_p)\}] \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} |f(Z_p)| \epsilon \{|\zeta_{p+1} - W_p| + |W_p - \zeta_p|\}. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $L$  be the sum of the fluctuations of  $\xi, \eta$  on  $AB$  and let  $ML^{-1}$  be the upper limit of  $|f(z)|$  on  $CD$ ;  $M$  exists since  $f'(z)$  is continuous.

Then, by the last inequality,

$$\left| \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f'(Z_p) - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f'(Z_p) g'(W_p) \right| < \epsilon M.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \int_{AB} f(g(\zeta)) g'(\zeta) d\zeta - \int_{CD} f(z) dz \right| \\ &= \left| \int_{AB} f(g(\zeta)) g'(\zeta) d\zeta - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f'(Z_p) g'(W_p) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \int_{CD} f(z) dz + \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f'(Z_p) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (\zeta_{p+1} - \zeta_p) f'(Z_p) g'(W_p) - \sum_{p=0}^{\nu} (z_{p+1} - z_p) f'(Z_p) \right| \\ &< (2 + M) \epsilon; \end{aligned}$$

since  $M$  is fixed,  $\epsilon$  is arbitrarily small and the two integrals exist, we infer that

$$\int_{AB} f(g(\zeta)) g'(\zeta) d\zeta = \int_{CD} f(z) dz.$$

*Corollary.* Taking  $f(z) = 1$ , we see that

$$\int_{AB} g'(\zeta) d\zeta = \int_{CD} dz = z_D - z_C = g(\zeta_B) - g(\zeta_A);$$

this is the formula for the integral of a continuous differential coefficient.

### 19. Differentiation of an integral with regard to one of the limits.

Let  $AB$  be a regular unclosed curve such that if any point  $P$  on it be taken, and if  $Q$  be any other point of it, the ratio of the sum of the variations of the curve between  $P$  and  $Q$  to the length of the chord  $PQ$  has a finite upper limit<sup>1</sup>,  $k$ .

Let  $f(z)$  be continuous on the curve and let  $z_0, Z, Z+h$  be any three points on it; then if  $z_0$  be fixed,  $\int_{z_0}^Z f(z) dz$  is a function of  $Z$  only, say  $\phi(Z)$ ; and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\phi(Z+h) - \phi(Z)}{h} = f(Z),$$

where  $t$  is the difference of the parameters of  $Z, Z+h$ .

We can find  $\delta$  so that  $|f(Z+h) - f(Z)| < \epsilon$  when  $t < \delta$ , where  $\epsilon$  is arbitrary.

Now

$$\begin{aligned} h^{-1} \{\phi(Z+h) - \phi(Z)\} &= h^{-1} \int_Z^{Z+h} f(z) dz \\ &= h^{-1} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=1}^n f(Z + h_r^{(n)}) \cdot (h_{r+1}^{(n)} - h_r^{(n)}), \end{aligned}$$

where  $h_1^{(n)} = 0, h_{n+1}^{(n)} = h$ ; it being supposed that the points  $h_r^{(n)}$  are chosen in the same way as the points  $z_r^{(n)}$  in § 10 of Chapter II.

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} &|h^{-1} \{\phi(Z+h) - \phi(Z)\} - f(Z)| \\ &= \left| h^{-1} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=1}^n f(Z + h_r^{(n)}) \cdot (h_{r+1}^{(n)} - h_r^{(n)}) - h^{-1} f(Z) \sum_{r=1}^n (h_{r+1}^{(n)} - h_r^{(n)}) \right| \\ &= \left| h^{-1} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=1}^n \{f(Z + h_r^{(n)}) - f(Z)\} \cdot (h_{r+1}^{(n)} - h_r^{(n)}) \right| \end{aligned}$$

<sup>1</sup> This condition is satisfied by most curves which occur in practice.

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq |h^{-1}| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=1}^n \{ |f(Z + h_r^{(n)}) - f(Z)| \cdot |h_{r+1}^{(n)} - h_r^{(n)}| \\ &< |h^{-1}| \cdot \epsilon \sum_{r=1}^n |h_{r+1}^{(n)} - h_r^{(n)}|. \end{aligned}$$

But, by the lemma of § 9,

$$|h^{-1}| \sum_{r=1}^n |h_{r+1}^{(n)} - h_r^{(n)}| < k,$$

so that  $|h^{-1} \{ \phi(Z + h) - \phi(Z) \} - f(Z)| < k\epsilon$ ,

since  $\epsilon$  is arbitrary and  $k$  is fixed, it follows from the definition of a limit that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\phi(Z + h) - \phi(Z)}{h} = f(Z).$$

**20.** *Uniform differentiability implies a continuous differential coefficient, and the converse.*

Let  $f(z)$  be uniformly differentiable throughout a region; so that when  $\epsilon$  is taken arbitrarily, a positive number  $\delta$ , independent of  $z$ , exists such that

$$|f(z') - f(z) - (z' - z)f'(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |z' - z|,$$

whenever  $|z' - z| \leq \delta$  and  $z, z'$  are two points of the region.

Since  $|z - z'| \leq \delta$ , we have

$$|f(z) - f(z') - (z - z')f'(z')| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |z - z'|.$$

Combining the two inequalities, it is obvious that

$$|(z' - z) \{ f'(z') - f'(z) \}| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |z' - z| + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |z - z'|,$$

and therefore

$$|f'(z') - f'(z)| \leq \epsilon,$$

whenever  $|z' - z| \leq \delta$ ; that is to say,  $f'(z)$  is continuous.

To prove the converse theorem, let  $f'(z)$  be continuous, and therefore uniformly continuous, in a region; so that, when  $\epsilon$  is taken arbitrarily, a positive number  $\delta$ , independent of  $z$ , exists such that

$$|f''(z') - f''(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon,$$

whenever  $|z' - z| \leq \delta$ .

Consider only those points  $z$  whose distance from the boundary of the region exceeds  $\delta$ ; take  $|z - Z| \leq \delta$ .

Then since  $f(z)$  is differentiable, to each point  $\zeta$  of the straight line joining  $z$  to  $Z$  there corresponds a positive number  $\delta_\zeta$  such that

$$|f'(\zeta') - f'(\zeta) - (\zeta' - \zeta)f''(\zeta)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |\zeta' - \zeta|,$$

whenever  $|\zeta' - \zeta| \leq \delta_\zeta$  and  $\zeta$  is on the line  $zZ$ .



By Goursat's lemma, we may divide the line  $zZ$  into a *finite* number of intervals, say at the points  $\zeta_0 (= z)$ ,  $\zeta_1$ ,  $\zeta_2$ , ...  $\zeta_n$ ,  $\zeta_{n+1} (= Z)$ , such that there is a point  $z_r$  in the  $r$ th interval which is such that

$$|f(\zeta) - f(z_r) - (\zeta - z_r)f'(z_r)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |\zeta - z_r|,$$

for all points  $\zeta$  of the interval.

$$\text{Therefore } f(\zeta) - f(z_r) - (\zeta - z_r)f'(z_r) = v_r (\zeta - z_r),$$

$$f(\zeta_{r-1}) - f(z_r) - (\zeta_{r-1} - z_r)f'(z_r) = v_r' (\zeta_{r-1} - z_r),$$

$$\text{where } |v_r| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon, \quad |v_r'| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon.$$

$$\text{Also, since } |z_r - z| \leq \delta,$$

$$f''(z_r) = f''(z) + \eta_r,$$

$$\text{where } |\eta_r| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } f(\zeta_r) - f(\zeta_{r-1}) - (\zeta_r - \zeta_{r-1})f''(z_r) \\ = \eta_r (\zeta_r - \zeta_{r-1}) + v_r (\zeta_r - z_r) - v_r' (\zeta_{r-1} - z_r). \end{aligned}$$

Taking  $r = 1, 2, \dots, n+1$  in turn, and summing we get

$$\begin{aligned} f(Z) - f(z) - (Z - z)f''(z) \\ = \sum_{r=1}^{n+1} \eta_r (\zeta_r - \zeta_{r-1}) + \sum_{r=1}^{n+1} \{v_r (\zeta_r - z_r) - v_r' (\zeta_{r-1} - z_r)\}. \end{aligned}$$

But, since the points  $\zeta_0 (= z)$ ,  $z_1$ ,  $\zeta_1$ ,  $z_2$ , ...  $\zeta_n$ ,  $z_n$ ,  $\zeta_{n+1} (= Z)$  are in order on a straight line,

$$\sum_{r=1}^{n+1} \{|\zeta_r - z_r| + |\zeta_{r-1} - z_r|\} = |Z - z|,$$

$$\text{and so } |f(Z) - f(z) - (Z - z)f''(z)| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |Z - z| + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon |Z - z|,$$

whenever  $|Z - z| \leq \delta$  and the distance of  $z$  from the boundary of the region does not exceed  $\delta$ . Therefore, if  $f''(z)$  is continuous throughout a region,  $f(z)$  is uniformly differentiable throughout the interior of the region.

The reader will find no difficulty in proving the corresponding theorems when  $f(z)$  is uniformly differentiable or when  $f'(z)$  is continuous, and  $z$  is, in each case, restricted to be a continuous function of a real variable  $t$ .

## CHAPTER V

### THE CALCULUS OF RESIDUES

§ 21. Extension of Cauchy's Theorem.—§ 22. The differential coefficients of an analytic function.—§ 23. Definitions of pole, residue.—§ 24. The integral of a function round a closed contour expressed in terms of the residues at its poles.—§ 25. The calculation of residues.—§ 26. Liouville's Theorem.

**21.** Let  $C$  be a closed contour and let  $f(z)$  be a function of  $z$  which is continuous throughout  $C$  and its interior, and analytic inside  $C$ . Let  $a$  be the complex coordinate of any point  $P$  not on  $C$ . Then the extension of Cauchy's theorem is that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = 0 & \quad \text{if } P \text{ be outside } C \\ & = f(a) \text{ if } P \text{ be inside } C \end{aligned} \right\}.$$

The first part is almost obvious; for if  $P$  be outside  $C$  it is easily proved that  $f(z)/(z-a)$  is analytic at points inside  $C$  and continuous on  $C$ . Therefore, by the result of Chapter III,

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = 0.$$

Now let  $P$  be a point inside  $C$ .

Through  $P$  draw a line parallel to  $Ox$ ; there will be two<sup>1</sup> points  $Q_1, Q_2$  on this line, one on the right of  $P$ , the other on the left, such that  $Q_1, Q_2$  are on  $C$ , but no point of  $Q_1, Q_2$  except its end-points lies on  $C$ . [The existence of the points  $Q_1, Q_2$  may be established by arguments similar to those in small print at the foot of page 11.]

<sup>1</sup> Points on the line which are sufficiently distant from  $P$  either to the right or left are outside  $C$ . Since a straight line is a simple curve, the straight lines joining  $P$  to these distant points meet  $C$  in one point at least.

$Q_1, Q_2$  divide  $C$  into two parts  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  with the same orientations as  $C$ ; let  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  be chosen so that  $Q_1, Q_2$  are the end-points of the oriented curve  $\sigma_1$ , and  $Q_2, Q_1$  are the end-points of the oriented curve  $\sigma_2$ .

Let the shortest distance of points on  $C$  from  $P$  be  $\delta_1$ ; choose  $\delta$  so that  $\delta \leq \delta_1, \delta < 1$  and

$$|f(z) - f(a) - (z-a)f'(a)| \leq \epsilon |z-a|$$

when  $|z-a| \leq \delta$ , where  $\epsilon$  is an arbitrary positive number; draw a circle with centre  $P$  and radius  $r (\leq \frac{1}{2}\delta)$ .

Let  $Q_1, Q_2$  meet this circle in  $P_1, P_2$ ; let the upper half of the circle, with the orientation  $(a-r, a+r)$  of its end-points, be called  $B_1$ , and let the lower half of the circle, with the orientation  $(a+r, a-r)$  of its end-points, be called  $B_2$ .

Let the circle, properly oriented, be called  $C_2$ , so that the orientations of  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are opposite to that of  $C_2$ .

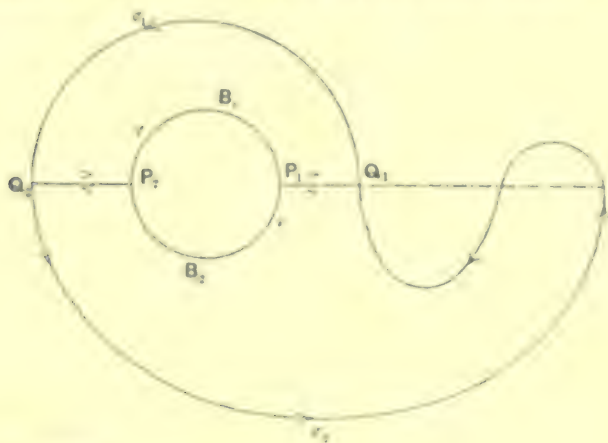
Proofs of the following theorems are left to the reader:

(i)  $\sigma_1, Q_2, P_2, B_1, P_1, Q_1$  form a closed contour,  $C_1$ , properly oriented.

(ii)  $\sigma_2, Q_1, P_1, B_2, P_2, Q_2$  form a closed contour,  $C_2$ , properly oriented.

(iii)  $P$  is outside  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ .

(iv)  $f(z)/(z-a)$  is analytic inside  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ ; and it is continuous throughout the regions formed by  $C_1, C_2$  and their interiors.



Now consider

$$\int_{C_1} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz + \int_{C_2} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz.$$

The path of integration consists of the oriented curves  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, P_1Q_1, Q_1P_1, P_2Q_2, Q_2P_2, B_1, B_2$ .

The integrals along the oriented curves  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  make up the integral along  $C$ . The integrals along the oriented curves  $P_1Q_1, Q_1P_1$  cancel, and so do the integrals along the oriented curves  $P_2Q_2, Q_2P_2$ ; while the integrals along the oriented curves  $B_1, B_2$  make up minus the integral along the oriented curve  $C_3$ , since the orientations of  $B_1, B_2$  are opposite to the orientation of  $C_3$ .

Hence

$$\int_{C_1} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz + \int_{C_2} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz - \int_{C_3} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz.$$

Now  $f(z)/(z-a)$  is analytic inside  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  and is continuous throughout the regions formed by  $C_1, C_2$  and their interiors. Hence, by § 17, the integrals along  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  vanish.

$$\text{Hence}^2 \quad \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = \int_{C_3} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz.$$

$$\text{Let} \quad f(z) - f(a) - (z-a)f'(a) = v(z-a),$$

so that, when  $z$  is on  $C_3$ ,  $|v| \leq \epsilon$ .

Then

$$\int_{C_3} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = f(a) \int_{C_3} \frac{dz}{z-a} + f'(a) \int_{C_3} dz + \int_{C_3} v dz.$$

But, since  $C_3$  is a closed curve,  $\int_{C_3} dz = 0$ , by Theorem III of § 13.

To evaluate  $\int_{C_3} \frac{dz}{z-a}$ , put  $z = a + r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ ;  $\theta$  is a real number and is the angle which the line joining  $z$  to  $a$  makes with  $Ox$ . Consequently, since  $a$  is inside  $C_3$ ,  $\theta$  increases by  $2\pi$  as  $z$  describes  $C_3$ .

Hence, by the result of § 18,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_3} \frac{dz}{z-a} &= \int_a^{a+2\pi} \frac{-\sin \theta + i \cos \theta}{\cos \theta + i \sin \theta} d\theta \\ &= 2\pi i. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Therefore} \quad \int_{C_3} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz - 2\pi i f(a) = \int_{C_3} v dz,$$

<sup>2</sup> This result may be stated "The path of integration may be deformed from  $C$  into  $C_3$  without affecting the value of the integral."

so that

$$\left| \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz - 2\pi i f(a) \right| \leq \int_{C_2} |v dz|$$

$$\leq \epsilon \int_{C_2} |dz|.$$

Putting  $z = a + r(\cos t + i \sin t)$ , we get<sup>2</sup>

$$\int_{C_2} |dz| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=0}^n r |[\cos t_{r+1}^{(n)} + i \sin t_{r+1}^{(n)} - \cos t_r^{(n)} - i \sin t_r^{(n)}]|,$$

where  $t_r^{(n)} = t_{r-1}^{(n)}$ ,  $t_n^{(n)} = t_0$ ,  $t_{n+1}^{(n)} = t_0 + 2\pi$ ,

so that

$$\int_{C_2} |dz| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=0}^n 2r \sin \frac{1}{2} (t_{r+1}^{(n)} - t_r^{(n)})$$

$$\leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r=0}^n 2r \cdot \frac{1}{2} (t_{r+1}^{(n)} - t_r^{(n)})$$

$$\leq 2\pi r.$$

Hence

$$\left| \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz - 2\pi i f(a) \right|$$

is less than  $2\pi r\epsilon$ , where  $r \leq 1$  and  $\epsilon$  is arbitrarily small. Consequently it must be zero; that is to say

$$\int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = 2\pi i f(a).$$

**22.** Let  $C$  be a closed contour, and let  $f(z)$  be a function of  $z$  which is analytic at all points inside  $C$  and continuous throughout  $C$  and its interior; let  $a$  be the complex coordinate of any point inside  $C$ .

Then  $f(z)$  possesses unique differential coefficients of all orders at  $a$ ; and

$$\frac{d^n f(a)}{da^n} = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz.$$

All points sufficiently near  $a$  are inside  $C$ ; let  $\delta$  be a positive number such that all points satisfying the inequality  $|z-a| \leq 2\delta$  are inside  $C$ ; and let  $h$  be any complex number such that  $|h| \leq \delta$ .

Then, by § 21,

$$f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz,$$

$$f(a+h) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a-h} dz.$$

<sup>2</sup> The notation of Chapter 11 is being employed.

Therefore

$$\frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h} - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{(z-a)^2} dz = \frac{h}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^2(z-a-h)} dz.$$

Now when  $z$  is on  $C$ ,

$$|z-a| \geq 2\delta, \quad |z-a-h| \geq \delta, \quad \text{and}^4 \quad |f(z)| < K,$$

where  $K$  is a constant (independent of  $h$  and  $\delta$ ).

Hence, if  $L$  be the sum of the variations of  $x$  and  $y$  on  $C$

$$\left| \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^2(z-a-h)} dz \right| \leq \int_C \left| \frac{f(z) dz}{(z-a)^2(z-a-h)} \right| \leq \frac{KL}{4\delta^3}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h} - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{(z-a)^2} dz = v,$$

where

$$|v| \leq |h| \frac{KL}{(8\pi\delta^3)}.$$

Hence, as  $h \rightarrow 0$ ,  $v$  tends to the limit zero.

Therefore

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h}$$

has the value  $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{(z-a)^2} dz$ ; that is to say,

$$\frac{d}{da} f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{(z-a)^2} dz.$$

The higher differential coefficients may be evaluated in the same manner; the process which has just been carried out is the justification of 'differentiating with regard to  $a$  under the sign of integration' the equation

$$f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{z-a} dz.$$

If we assume that  $\frac{d^n f(a)}{da^n}$  exists and

$$\frac{d^n f(a)}{da^n} = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz \dots\dots\dots(6),$$

<sup>4</sup> On  $C$ , the real and imaginary parts of  $f(z)$  are continuous functions of a real variable,  $t$ ; and a continuous function is bounded. See Hardy, *A Course of Pure Mathematics*, § 89, Theorem I.

a similar process will justify differentiating this equation with regard to  $a$  under the sign of integration, so that

$$\frac{d^{n+1} f(a)}{da^{n+1}} = \frac{(n+1)!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+2}} dz \dots\dots\dots(6a).$$

But (6) is true when  $n = 1$ ; hence by (6a), (6) is true when  $n = 2$ ; and hence, by induction, (6) is true for all positive integral values of  $n$ .

**23. DEFINITIONS. Pole. Residue.** Let  $f(z)$  be continuous throughout a closed contour  $C$  and its interior, except at certain points  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$ , inside  $C$ , and analytic at all points inside  $C$  except at  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$ .

Let a function  $\psi(z)$  exist which satisfies the following conditions:

(i)  $\psi(z)$  is continuous throughout  $C$  and its interior, analytic at all points inside  $C$ .

(ii) At points on and inside  $C$ , with the exception of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$ ,

$$f(z) = \psi(z) + \sum_{r=1}^m \phi_r(z) \dots\dots\dots(7),$$

where 
$$\phi_r(z) = \frac{b_{1,r}}{z-a_r} + \frac{b_{2,r}}{(z-a_r)^2} + \dots + \frac{b_{n_r,r}}{(z-a_r)^{n_r}}.$$

Then  $f(z)$  is said to have a *pole* of order  $n_r$  at the point  $a_r$ ; the coefficient of  $(z-a_r)^{-1}$ , viz.  $b_{1,r}$ , is called the *residue* of  $f(z)$  at  $a_r$ .

It is evident by the result of Chapter III that

$$\int_C \psi(z) dz = 0;$$

so that, by (7), 
$$\int_C f(z) dz = \sum_{r=1}^m \int_C \phi_r(z) dz.$$

**24.** This last equation enables us to evaluate  $\int_C f(z) dz$ ; for consider  $\int_C \phi_r(z) dz$ . The only point inside  $C$  at which  $\phi_r(z)$  is not analytic is the point  $z = a_r$ . With centre  $a_r$  draw a circle  $C'$  of positive radius  $\rho$ , lying wholly inside  $C$ ; then by reasoning precisely similar to that of § 21, we can deform the path of integration  $C$  into  $C'$  without affecting the value of the integral, so that

$$\int_C \phi_r(z) dz = \int_{C'} \phi_r(z) dz.$$

To evaluate this new integral, write

$$z = \alpha_r + \rho (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta),$$

so that  $\theta$  increases by  $2\pi$  as  $z$  describes  $C'$ ; as in § 21, if  $\alpha$  be the initial value of  $\theta$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C'} \phi_r(z) dz &= \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+2\pi} \phi_r(z) \rho (-\sin \theta + i \cos \theta) d\theta \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{n_r} b_{n,r} \rho^{1-n} i \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+2\pi} \{\cos(n-1)\theta - i \sin(n-1)\theta\} d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

Now it is easily proved that

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+2\pi} \frac{\cos m\theta}{\sin m\theta} d\theta = 0,$$

if  $m$  is an integer not zero.

$$\text{Therefore } \int_{C'} \phi_r(z) dz = \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+2\pi} b_{1,r} i d\theta = 2\pi i b_{1,r}.$$

Therefore finally,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C f(z) dz &= \sum_{r=1}^m \int_C \phi_r(z) dz \\ &= 2\pi i \sum_{r=1}^m b_{1,r}. \end{aligned}$$

This result may be formally stated as follows :

*If  $f(z)$  be a function of  $z$  analytic at all points inside a closed contour  $C$  with the exception of a number of poles, and continuous throughout  $C$  and its interior (except at the poles), then  $\int_C f(z) dz$  is equal to  $2\pi i$  multiplied by the sum of the residues of  $f(z)$  at its poles inside  $C$ .*

This theorem renders it possible to evaluate a large number of definite integrals; examples of such integrals are given in the next Chapter.

**25.** In the case of a function given by a simple formula, it is usually possible to determine by inspection the poles of the function.

To calculate the residue of  $f(z)$  at a pole  $z=a$ , the method generally employed is to expand  $f(a+t)$  in a series of *ascending* powers of  $t$  (a process which is justifiable<sup>5</sup> for sufficiently small values of  $|t|$ ), and the coefficient of  $t^{-1}$  in the expansion is the required residue. In the case of a pole of the first order, usually

<sup>5</sup> By applying Taylor's Theorem (see § 34) to  $(z-a)^n f(z)$ .



called a simple pole, it is generally shorter, in practice, to evaluate  $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} (z-a)f(z)$  by the rules for determining limits; a consideration of the expression for  $f(z)$  in the neighbourhood of a pole shows that the residue is this limit, provided that the limit exists.

**26. LIOUVILLE'S THEOREM.** *Let  $f(z)$  be analytic for all values of  $z$  and let  $|f(z)| < K$  where  $K$  is a constant. Then  $f(z)$  is a constant.*

Let  $z, z'$  be any two points and let  $C$  be a contour such that  $z, z'$  are inside it; then by § 22

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

take  $C$  to be a circle whose centre is  $z$  and whose radius is  $\rho \geq 2|z' - z|$ . On  $C$  write  $\zeta = z + \rho e^{i\theta}$ ; since  $|\zeta - z'| \geq \frac{1}{2}\rho$  when  $\zeta$  is on  $C$ , it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |f(z') - f(z)| &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C \frac{(z' - z)f(\zeta)}{(\zeta - z')(\zeta - z)} d\zeta \right| \\ &< \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{|z' - z| \cdot K}{\frac{1}{2}\rho} d\theta \\ &< 2|z' - z| K\rho^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

This is true for all values of  $\rho \geq 2|z' - z|$ .

Make  $\rho \rightarrow \infty$ , keeping  $z$  and  $z'$  fixed; then it is obvious that  $f(z') - f(z) = 0$ ; that is to say,  $f(z)$  is constant.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE EVALUATION OF DEFINITE INTEGRALS

- § 27. A circular contour.—§ 28. Integrals of rational functions.—§ 29. Integrals of rational functions, continued.—§ 30. Jordan's lemma.—  
 § 31. Applications of Jordan's lemma.—§ 32. Other definite integrals.—  
 § 33. Examples of contour integrals.

27. If  $f(x, y)$  be a rational function of  $x$  and  $y$ , the integral

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) d\theta$$

can be evaluated in the following manner :

Let  $z = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ , so that  $z^{-1} = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$ ; then we have

$$\int_C f \left\{ \frac{1}{2}(z + z^{-1}), \frac{1}{2i}(z - z^{-1}) \right\} \frac{dz}{iz} = \int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) d\theta,$$

wherein the contour of integration,  $C$ , is a unit circle with centre at  $z = 0$ . If  $f(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$  is finite when  $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ , the integrand on the left-hand side is a function of  $z$  which is analytic on  $C$ ; and also analytic inside  $C$  except at a finite number of poles. Consequently

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) d\theta$$

is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of

$$i^{-1} z^{-1} f \left\{ \frac{1}{2}(z + z^{-1}), \frac{1}{2i}(z - z^{-1}) \right\}$$

at those of its poles which are inside the circle  $|z| = 1$ .

*Example.*  $\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a + b \cos \theta} = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{(a^2 - b^2)}}$ , that sign being given to the radical which makes  $|a - \sqrt{(a^2 - b^2)}| < b$ , it being supposed that  $a/b$  is not a real number such that  $^1 - 1 \leq a/b \leq 1$ .

<sup>1</sup> Apart from this restriction  $a, b$  may be any numbers real or complex.

Making the above substitution,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a + b \cos \theta} &= \frac{2}{i} \int_C \frac{dz}{bz^2 + 2az + b} \\ &= \frac{2}{ib} \int_C \frac{dz}{(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)},\end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha, \beta$  are the roots of  $bz^2 + 2az + b = 0$ . The poles of the integrand are the points  $z = \alpha, z = \beta$ .

Since  $|\alpha\beta| = 1$ , of the two numbers  $|\alpha|, |\beta|$  one is greater than 1 and one less than 1, unless both are equal to 1. If both are equal to 1, put  $\alpha = \cos \gamma + i \sin \gamma$ , where  $\gamma$  is real; then  $\beta = \alpha^{-1} = \cos \gamma - i \sin \gamma$ , so that  $2a/b = -\alpha - \beta = -2 \cos \gamma$ , i.e.  $-1 \leq a/b \leq 1$ , which is contrary to hypothesis.

Let  $\alpha = \frac{-a + \sqrt{(a^2 - b^2)}}{b}$ ,  $\beta = \frac{-a - \sqrt{(a^2 - b^2)}}{b}$ , that sign being given to the radical which makes  $|\alpha - \sqrt{(a^2 - b^2)}| < |b|$ ; so that  $|\alpha| < 1, |\beta| > 1$ ; then  $z = \alpha$  is the only pole of the integrand inside  $C$ , and the residue of  $\{(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)\}^{-1}$  at  $z = \alpha$  is  $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Therefore } \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{a + b \cos \theta} &= 2\pi i \times \frac{2}{ib} \times \frac{1}{\alpha - \beta} \\ &= \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{(a^2 - b^2)}}.\end{aligned}$$

**28.** If  $P(x), Q(x)$  be polynomials in  $x$  such that  $Q(x)$  has no real linear factors and the degree of  $P(x)$  is less than the degree of  $Q(x)$  by at least 2, then  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$  is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $P(z)/Q(z)$  at those of its poles which lie in the half plane above the real axis.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Let } P(x) &= a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0, \\ Q(x) &= b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + b_0,\end{aligned}$$

where  $m - n \geq 2, a_n \neq 0, b_m \neq 0$ ; choose  $r$  so large that

$$\frac{|a_1|}{r} + \frac{|a_2|}{r^2} + \dots + \frac{|a_n|}{r^n} \leq \frac{1}{2} |a_n|,$$

$$\text{and } \frac{|b_1|}{r} + \frac{|b_2|}{r^2} + \dots + \frac{|b_m|}{r^m} \leq \frac{1}{2} |b_m|;$$

<sup>†</sup> The reader will remember that an infinite integral is defined in the following manner; if  $\int_a^R f(x) dx = \phi(R)$ , then  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$  means  $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \phi(R)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then if } |z| \geq r, \quad |z^{-n} P(z)| &= \left| a_0 + \frac{a_1}{z} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{z^n} \right| \\ &\leq |a_0| + \frac{|a_1|}{r} + \dots + \frac{|a_n|}{r^n} \\ &\leq 2|a_0|, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and} \quad |z^{-m} Q(z)| &\geq |b_0| - \left| \frac{b_1}{z} + \frac{b_2}{z^2} + \dots + \frac{b_m}{z^m} \right| \\ &\geq |b_0| - \frac{|b_1|}{r} - \frac{|b_2|}{r^2} - \dots - \frac{|b_m|}{r^m} \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2}|b_0|, \end{aligned}$$

so that, if  $|z| \geq r$ , then  $|z^{-n} P(z)/Q(z)| \leq 4|a_0 b_0^{-1}|$ .

Let  $C$  be a contour consisting of that portion of the real axis which joins the points  $-\rho$ ,  $+\rho$  and of a semicircle,  $\Gamma$ , above the real axis, whose centre is the origin and whose radius is  $\rho$ ; where  $\rho$  is any number greater than  $r$ .

Consider  $\int_C \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz$ ; this integral is equal to

$$\int_{-\rho}^{\rho} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz + \int_{\Gamma} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz.$$

Now  $P(z)/Q(z)$  has no poles outside the circle  $|z|=r$ ; for outside this circle  $|P(z)/Q(z)| \leq 4|a_0 b_0^{-1}| r^{n-m}$ .

Therefore  $\int_{-\rho}^{\rho} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz + \int_{\Gamma} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz$

is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $P(z)/Q(z)$  at its poles inside  $C$ ; i.e. at its poles in the half plane above the real axis.

Further, putting  $z = \rho(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$  on  $\Gamma$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Gamma} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz \right| &= \left| \int_0^{\pi} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} \rho(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) i d\theta \right| \\ &\leq \int_0^{\pi} \left| \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} \right| \rho d\theta \\ &\leq \int_0^{\pi} 4|a_0 b_0^{-1}| z^{n-m} \rho d\theta \\ &\leq 4\pi |a_0 b_0^{-1}| \rho^{n-m+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $n-m+1 \leq -1$ ,  $\lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But}^* \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz &= \lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\rho}^{\rho} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz \\ &= \lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\rho}^{\rho} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz \\ &= - \lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\rho}^{\infty} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz + 2\pi i \Sigma r_{\rho}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Sigma r_{\rho}$  means the sum of the residues of  $P(z)/Q(z)$  at its poles in the half plane above the real axis.

Since it has been shewn that  $\lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\rho}^{\infty} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz = 0$ , this is the theorem stated.

$$\text{Example. If } a > 0, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^2} = \frac{\pi}{2a^3}.$$

The value of the integral is  $2\pi i$  times the residue of  $(z^2 + a^2)^{-2}$  at  $ai$ ; putting  $z = ai + t$ ,

$$\frac{1}{(z^2 + a^2)^2} = \frac{1}{t^2(2ai + t)^2} = -\frac{1}{4a^2t^2} - \frac{i}{4a^3t} + \text{terms which are finite when } t=0.$$

The residue is therefore  $-i/(4a^3)$ ; and hence the integral is equal to  $\pi/(2a^3)$ .

If  $Q(x)$  has non-repeated real linear factors, the *principal value*<sup>†</sup> of the integral, which is written  $P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$ , exists. Its value is  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $P(z)/Q(z)$  at those of its poles which lie in the half plane above the real axis plus  $\pi i$  times the sum of the residues at those of the poles which lie on the real axis.

To prove this theorem, let  $a_p$  be a real root of  $Q(x)$ . Modify the contour by omitting the parts of the real axis between  $a_p - \delta_p$  and  $a_p + \delta_p$  and inserting a semicircle  $r_p$ , of radius  $\delta_p$  and centre  $a_p$ , above the real axis; carry out this process for each real root. When a contour is modified in this way, so that its interior is diminished, the contour is said to be *indented*.

The limit of the integral along the surviving parts of the real axis when the numbers  $\delta_p$  tend to zero is  $P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$ .

\* Since  $\lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\rho}^{\rho} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz$  exists, it is equal to  $\lim_{\rho \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\rho}^{\rho} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz$ .

† Bromwich, *Theory of Infinite Series*, p. 415. The use of the letter  $P$  as two sences will not cause confusion.

If  $r_p'$  be the residue of  $P(z)/Q(z)$  at  $a_p'$ , the integral along the semicircle  $\gamma_p$  is  $-\int_0^\pi \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} (z - a_p') i d\theta$ , where  $z = a_p' + \delta_p e^{i\theta}$ , and this tends to  $-\pi i r_p'$  as  $\delta_p \rightarrow 0$ ; hence

$$P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx - \pi i \Sigma r_p' = 2\pi i \Sigma r_p.$$

29. A more interesting integral than the last is  $\int_0^\infty \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$ , where  $P(x)$ ,  $Q(x)$  are polynomials in  $x$  such that  $Q(x)$  does not vanish for positive (or zero) values of  $x$ , and the degree of  $P(x)$  is lower than that of  $Q(x)$  by at least 2.

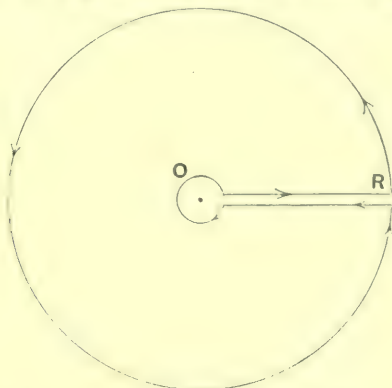
*The value of this integral is the sum of the residues of*

$$\log(-z) P(z)/Q(z)$$

*at the zeros of  $Q(z)$ ; where the imaginary part of  $\log(-z)$  lies between  $\pm i\pi$ .*

[The reader may obtain the formula for the principal value of the integral when  $Q(x)=0$  has non-repeated positive roots.]

Consider  $\int \log(-z) \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz$ , taken round a contour consisting of the arcs of circles of radii<sup>5</sup>  $R$ ,  $\delta$ , and the straight lines joining their end-points. On the first circle  $-z = R e^{i\theta}$  ( $-\pi \leq \theta \leq \pi$ ); on the second circle  $-z = \delta e^{i\theta}$  ( $-\pi \leq \theta \leq \pi$ ). And  $\log(-z)$  is to be interpreted as  $\log|z| + i \arg(-z)$ , where  $-\pi \leq \arg(-z) \leq \pi$ ; on one of the straight lines joining  $\delta$  to  $R$ ,  $\arg(-z) = \pi$ , on the other  $\arg(-z) = -\pi$ .



<sup>5</sup> (The path of integration is not, strictly speaking, what has been previously defined as a contour, but the region bounded by the two arcs

<sup>5</sup> In future, the letter  $R$  will not be used to denote 'the real part of.'

and the straight lines is obviously one to which Goursat's lemma and the analysis of Chapter III can be applied.)

With the conventions as to  $\log(-z)$ ,  $\log(-z)P(z)/Q(z)$  is analytic inside the contour except at the zeros of  $Q(z)$ .

As in § 28 we can choose  $R_0$  and  $\delta_0$  so that  $|z^2 P(z)/Q(z)|$  does not exceed a fixed number,  $K$ , when  $|z| = R > R_0$ , and so that  $|P(z)/Q(z)| = K$  when  $|z| = \delta = \delta_0$ ; where  $K$  is independent of  $\delta$  and  $R$ .

Let the circle of radius  $R$  be called  $\Gamma$ , and the circle of radius  $\delta$  be called  $\gamma$ ; let  $c_1, c_2$  be the lines  $\arg(-z) = -\pi$ ,  $\arg(-z) = \pi$ .

Then the integral round the contour is  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $\log(-z)P(z)/Q(z)$  at the zeros of  $Q(z)$  (these are the only poles of the integrand within the contour).

$$\text{But the integral round the contour} = \int_{\Gamma} + \int_{c_2} + \int_{\gamma} + \int_{c_1}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now} \quad \left| \int_{\Gamma} \right| &\leq \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left| \log(-z) \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz \right| d\theta \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\log R + i\theta) KR^{-1} d\theta, \end{aligned}$$

which  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , since  $R^{-1} \log R \rightarrow 0$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So also} \quad \left| \int_{\gamma} \right| &\leq \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left| \log(-z) \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz \right| d\theta, \text{ where } z = \delta e^{i\theta} \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \log \delta + i\theta K\delta d\theta, \end{aligned}$$

which tends to 0 as  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ , since  $\delta \log \delta \rightarrow 0$  as  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ .

Put  $-z = xe^{-i\pi}$  on  $c_1$ ,  $-z = xe^{i\pi}$  on  $c_2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{c_1} &= \int_R^{\delta} (\log x - i\pi) \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx \\ &= \int_{\delta}^R (i\pi - \log x) \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx, \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and} \quad \int_{c_2} = \int_{\delta}^R (i\pi + \log x) \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx.$$

Hence  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $\log(-z)P(z)/Q(z)$  at the zeros of  $Q(z)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \int_{\delta}^R (i\pi - \log x) \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx + \int_{\delta}^R (i\pi + \log x) \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx \right\} \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} 2\pi i \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx, \end{aligned}$$

which proves the proposition.

The interest of this integral lies in the fact that we apply Cauchy's theorem to a particular value (or *branch*<sup>6</sup>) of a many valued function.

If  $P(x)$ ,  $Q(x)$  be polynomials in  $x$  such that  $Q(x)$  has no repeated positive roots and  $Q(0) \neq 0$ , and the degree of  $P(x)$  is less than that of  $Q(x)$  by at least 1, the reader may prove, by integrating the branch of  $(-z)^{a-1} P(z)/Q(z)$  for which  $|\arg(-z)| \leq \pi$  round the contour of the preceding example and proceeding to the limit when  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ ,  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , that, if  $0 < a < 1$  and  $x^{a-1}$  means the positive value of  $x^{a-1}$ , then

$$P \int_0^{\infty} x^{a-1} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = \pi \operatorname{cosec}(a\pi) \Sigma r - \pi \cot(a\pi) \Sigma r',$$

where  $\Sigma r$  means the sum of the residues of  $(-z)^{a-1} P(z)/Q(z)$  at those zeros of  $Q(z)$  at which  $z$  is not positive, and  $\Sigma r'$  means the sum of the residues of  $x^{a-1} P(x)/Q(x)$  at those zeros of  $Q(x)$  at which  $x$  is positive. When  $Q(x)$  has zeros at which  $x$  is positive, the lines  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$  have to be indented as in the last example of § 28.

*Examples.* If  $0 < a < 1$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{a-1}}{1+x} dx = \frac{\pi}{\sin a\pi}, \quad P \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{a-1}}{1-x} dx = \pi \cot a\pi.$$

**30.** In connection with examples of the type which will next be considered, the following lemma is frequently useful.

**JORDAN'S LEMMA**<sup>7</sup>. Let  $f(z)$  be a function of  $z$  which satisfies the following conditions when  $|z| > c$  and the imaginary part of  $z$  is not negative ( $c$  being a positive constant):

- (i)  $f(z)$  is analytic,
- (ii)  $|f(z)| \rightarrow 0$  uniformly as  $|z| \rightarrow \infty$ .

Let  $m$  be a positive constant, and let  $\Gamma$  be a semicircle of radius  $R (> c)$ , above the real axis, and having its centre at the origin.

Then 
$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( \int_{\Gamma} e^{miz} f(z) dz \right) = 0.$$

If we put  $z = R(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ ,  $\theta$  increases from 0 to  $\pi$  as  $z$  describes  $\Gamma$ .

Therefore 
$$\int_{\Gamma} e^{miz} f(z) dz = \int_0^{\pi} z e^{miz} f(z) i d\theta,$$

<sup>6</sup> Forsyth, *Theory of Functions*, Chapter VIII.

<sup>7</sup> Jordan, *Cours d'Analyse*, t. II, § 270.



so that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Gamma} e^{mz} f(z) dz \right| &= \left| \int_0^{\pi} z e^{mz} f(z) i d\theta \right| \\ &\leq \int_0^{\pi} |iz e^{mz} f(z)| d\theta \\ &\leq \int_0^{\pi} \eta R e^{-mR \sin \theta} d\theta, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\eta$  is the greatest value of  $|f(z)|$  when  $|z| = R$ .

In the last integral, divide the range of integration into two parts, viz. from 0 to  $\frac{1}{2}\pi$  and from  $\frac{1}{2}\pi$  to  $\pi$ ; write  $\pi - \theta$  for  $\theta$  in the second part; then, noting that, when  $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{1}{2}\pi$ ,  $\sin \theta \geq 2\theta/\pi$ , so that  $e^{-mR \sin \theta} \leq e^{-2mR\theta/\pi}$ , we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Gamma} e^{mz} f(z) z^{-1} dz \right| &\leq 2\eta R \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}\pi} e^{-mR \sin \theta} d\theta \\ &\leq 2\eta R \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}\pi} e^{-2mR\theta/\pi} d\theta \\ &\leq \frac{2\eta\pi}{2m} (1 - e^{-mR}) \leq \eta\pi m^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

But  $\eta \rightarrow 0$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ; and therefore

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left| \int_{\Gamma} e^{mz} f(z) dz \right| = 0.$$

**31.** The following theorem may be proved, by the use of Jordan's lemma:

Let  $P(x)$ ,  $Q(x)$  be polynomials in  $x$  such that  $Q(x)$  has no real linear factors, and the degree of  $P(x)$  does not exceed the degree of  $Q(x)$ ; and let  $m > 0$ .

Then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} e^{mx} - \frac{P(-x)}{Q(-x)} e^{-mx} \right\} \frac{dx}{x}$$

is equal to  $\pi i P(0)/Q(0)$  plus  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} \frac{e^{mz}}{z}$  at the zeros of  $Q(z)$  in the half plane above the real axis.

[The reader may obtain the formula for the principal value of the integral when  $Q(x) = 0$  has non-repeated real roots.]

Consider  $\int_C \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{mz} \frac{dz}{z}$  taken along a contour  $C$  consisting of the straight line joining  $-R$  to  $-\delta$ , a semicircle,  $\gamma$ , of radius  $\delta$ , above the real axis, and with its centre at the origin, the straight line joining  $\delta$  to

\* If we draw the graphs  $y = \sin x$ ,  $y = 2x/\pi$ , this inequality appears obvious; it may be proved by shewing that  $\frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}$  decreases as  $\theta$  increases from 0 to  $\frac{1}{2}\pi$ .

$R$ , and the semicircle  $\Gamma$ , where  $\delta < \delta_0$ ,  $R > R_0$ , and  $\delta$  and  $R$  are to be so chosen that all the poles of  $P(z)/Q(z)$  lie outside the circle  $|z| = \delta_0$  and inside the circle  $|z| = R_0$ .

Then  $\int_C \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z}$  is equal to  $2\pi i$  times the sum of the residues of  $\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} \frac{e^{miz}}{z}$  at the zeros of  $Q(z)$  which lie in the upper half plane, as may be shewn by analysis similar to that of § 28.

$$\text{But } \int_C \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z} = \left( \int_{-R}^{-\delta} + \int_{\gamma} + \int_{\delta}^R + \int_{\Gamma} \right) \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z}.$$

Put  $z = -x$  in the first integrand, and  $z = x$  in the third; then

$$\left( \int_{-R}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^R \right) \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z} = \int_{\delta}^R \left\{ \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} e^{mix} - \frac{P(-x)}{Q(-x)} e^{-mix} \right\} \frac{dx}{x}.$$

Since  $\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} P(z)/Q(z)$  is finite,  $\int_{\Gamma} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z} \rightarrow 0$  as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , by Jordan's lemma.

Also, putting  $z = \delta e^{i\theta}$  on  $\gamma$ ,

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z} = - \int_0^{\pi} \left\{ \frac{P(0)}{Q(0)} + \delta e^{i\theta} f(z) \right\} e^{mi\delta e^{i\theta}} i d\theta,$$

where  $|f(z)|$  does not exceed a number independent of  $z$  when  $\delta < \delta_0$ .

$$\text{Hence } \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{\gamma} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z} = -\pi i \frac{P(0)}{Q(0)}.$$

Making  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\delta \rightarrow 0$  in the above formula for  $\int_C \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} e^{miz} \frac{dz}{z}$ , the result stated follows at once.

*Corollary.* Put  $P(z) = Q(z) = 1$ ; then, if  $m > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin mx}{x} dx = \frac{1}{2}\pi.$$

By arguments similar to those used in proving Jordan's lemma, we may shew that

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{a \cos bx} \sin(a \sin bx) \frac{x dx}{x^2 + r^2} = \frac{1}{2}\pi (e^{ae^{-br}} - 1),$$

if

$$a > 0, b > 0, r > 0.$$

Consider  $\int_C e^{ae^{bz}} \frac{z dz}{z^2 + r^2}$ , where the contour  $C$  consists of the straight line joining the points  $-R$ ,  $R$  and of the semicircle  $\Gamma$ , where  $R > 2r$ .

The only pole of the integrand inside the contour is at  $z = ri$ ; and the residue of the integrand is easily found to be  $\frac{1}{2} e^{ae^{-br}}$ .

Therefore  $\left( \int_{-R}^0 + \int_0^R + \int_{\Gamma} \right) e^{az} \frac{z dz}{z^2 + r^2} = \pi i e^{ar^2}$ .

In the first integral put  $z = -x$ , in the second put  $z = x$ .

Then

$$2i \int_0^R e^{a \cos bx} \sin(a \sin bx) \frac{x dx}{x^2 + r^2} = \pi i e^{ar^2} - \int_{\Gamma} e^{az} \frac{z dz}{z^2 + r^2}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } e^{az} &= 1 + az^{2m} + \frac{1}{2!} a^2 z^{2m} + \dots \\ &= 1 + ae^{2m} w, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{where } |w| &= \left| 1 + \frac{ae^{2m}}{2!} + \frac{a^2 r^{2m}}{3!} + \dots \right| \\ &\leq 1 + \left| \frac{ae^{2m}}{2!} \right| + \left| \frac{a^2 r^{2m}}{3!} \right| + \dots, \end{aligned}$$

and on  $\Gamma$ ,  $|e^{az}| = e^{-bR \sin \theta} \leq 1$ , where  $z = R(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ ; so that

$$\begin{aligned} |w| &< 1 + a + \frac{a^2}{2!} + \dots \\ &= e^a. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, putting  $z = R(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$  on  $\Gamma$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Gamma} e^{az} \frac{z dz}{z^2 + r^2} &= \int_0^{\pi} (1 + ae^{2m} w) \left( 1 - \frac{r^2}{z^2 + r^2} \right) i d\theta \\ &= \pi i - r^2 i \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{z^2 + r^2} - \int_0^{\pi} ae^{2m} w \frac{z^2}{z^2 + r^2} i d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{But } |z^2 + r^2| \geq |z^2| - |r^2| > \frac{3}{4} R^2,$$

$$\text{and therefore } \left| \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{z^2 + r^2} \right| < \frac{4\pi}{3R^2},$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{while } \left| \int_0^{\pi} ae^{2m} w \frac{z^2}{z^2 + r^2} i d\theta \right| &\leq \int_0^{\pi} |ae^{2m} w| \frac{z^2}{z^2 + r^2} i d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{2} ae^{-bR \sin \theta} e^a d\theta \\ &= \frac{4\pi a e^a}{3bR}, \text{ as in Jordan's lemma.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Consequently } \int_{\Gamma} e^{az} \frac{z dz}{z^2 + r^2} = \pi i + \epsilon_R,$$

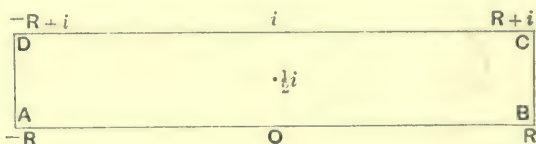
where  $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_R = 0$ ; and therefore, by the definition of an infinite integral,

$$2i \int_0^{\infty} e^{a \cos bx} \sin(a \sin bx) \frac{x dx}{x^2 + r^2} = \pi i e^{ar^2} - \pi i$$

**32.** Infinite integrals involving hyperbolic functions can frequently be evaluated by means of a contour in the shape of a rectangle; an example of such an integral is the following :

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cosh ax}{\cosh \pi x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \sec \frac{1}{2}a, \text{ when } -\pi < a < \pi.$$

Consider  $\int_{\Gamma} \frac{e^{az}}{\cosh \pi z} dz$  taken along the contour  $\Gamma$  formed by the rectangle whose corners have complex coordinates  $-R$ ,  $R$ ,  $R+i$ ,  $-R+i$ , where  $R > 0$ ; let these corners be  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ ,  $D$ . The zeros of



$\cosh \pi z$  are at the points  $z = (n + \frac{1}{2})i$ , where  $n$  is any integer; so that the only pole of the integrand inside the contour is at the point  $z = \frac{1}{2}i$ . If  $z = \frac{1}{2}i + t$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{e^{az}}{\cosh \pi z} &= \frac{e^{\frac{1}{2}ai} (1 + at + \frac{1}{2}a^2t^2 + \dots)}{i \sinh \pi t} \\ &= \frac{e^{\frac{1}{2}ai} (1 + at + \frac{1}{2}a^2t^2 + \dots)}{\pi i t (1 + \frac{1}{8}\pi^2t^2 + \dots)}, \end{aligned}$$

so that the residue of  $e^{az} \operatorname{sech} \pi z$  at  $\frac{1}{2}i$  is  $e^{\frac{1}{2}ai}/(\pi i)$ .

Therefore 
$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{e^{az}}{\cosh \pi z} dz = 2e^{\frac{1}{2}ai}.$$

Now 
$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{e^{az}}{\cosh \pi z} dz = \left( \int_{AB} + \int_{BC} + \int_{CD} + \int_{DA} \right) \frac{e^{az}}{\cosh \pi z} dz;$$

on  $AB$  we may put  $z = x$  where  $x$  is real; on  $CD$  we may put  $z = i + x$  where  $x$  is real; on  $BC$  we may put  $z = R + iy$  where  $y$  is real; and on  $DA$  we may put  $z = -R + iy$  where  $y$  is real. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{e^{az}}{\cosh \pi z} dz &= \int_{-R}^R \frac{e^{ax}}{\cosh \pi x} dx + \int_R^{-R} \frac{e^{a(i+x)}}{\cosh \pi (i+x)} dx \\ &\quad + \int_0^1 \frac{e^{a(R+iy)}}{\cosh \pi (R+iy)} i dy + \int_1^0 \frac{e^{-a(R-iy)}}{\cosh \pi (R-iy)} i dy \\ &= (1 + e^{ai}) \int_{-R}^R \frac{e^{ax}}{\cosh \pi x} dx + \epsilon_R, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\epsilon_R = \int_0^1 \frac{e^{a(R+iy)}}{\cosh \pi(R+iy)} i dy - \int_0^1 \frac{e^{-a(R-iy)}}{\cosh \pi(R-iy)} i dy$ ;

also  $\int_{-R}^R \frac{e^{ax}}{\cosh \pi x} dx = \int_0^R \frac{e^{ax}}{\cosh \pi x} dx + \int_{-R}^0 \frac{e^{ax}}{\cosh \pi x} dx$   
 $= \int_0^R \frac{e^{ax}}{\cosh \pi x} dx + \int_0^R \frac{e^{-ax}}{\cosh \pi x} dx,$

on writing  $-x$  for  $x$  in the second integral.

Therefore  $2e^{\frac{1}{2}ai} = 2(1 + e^{ai}) \int_0^R \frac{\cosh ax}{\cosh \pi x} dx + \epsilon_R.$

Now  $|\epsilon_R| \leq \left| \int_0^1 \frac{e^{a(R+iy)}}{\cosh \pi(R+iy)} i dy \right| + \left| \int_0^1 \frac{e^{-a(R-iy)}}{\cosh \pi(R-iy)} i dy \right|$   
 $\leq \int_0^1 \frac{|e^{a(R+iy)}| dy}{|\cosh \pi(R+iy)|} + \int_0^1 \frac{|e^{-a(R-iy)}| dy}{|\cosh \pi(R-iy)|}.$

Also  $|2 \cosh \pi(R \pm iy)| = |e^{\pi(R \pm iy)} + e^{-\pi(R \pm iy)}|$   
 $\geq |e^{\pi(R \pm iy)}| - |e^{-\pi(R \pm iy)}|$   
 $\geq e^{\pi R} - e^{-\pi R}.$

Therefore  $|\epsilon_R| \leq \int_0^1 \frac{e^{aR}}{\sinh \pi R} dy + \int_0^1 \frac{e^{-aR}}{\sinh \pi R} dy$   
 $\leq 2 \frac{\cosh(aR)}{\sinh(\pi R)}.$

But, if  $-\pi < a < \pi$ ,  $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} 2 \frac{\cosh(aR)}{\sinh(\pi R)} = 0$ ; therefore, if  $-\pi < a < \pi$ ,

$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_R = 0.$

But  $\int_0^R \frac{\cosh ax}{\cosh \pi x} dx$  is equal to  $\frac{2e^{\frac{1}{2}ai} - \epsilon_R}{2(1 + e^{ai})}$ ; and therefore

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cosh ax}{\cosh \pi x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \sec \frac{1}{2}a, \quad (-\pi < a < \pi).$$

**33.** Solutions of the following examples, of which the earlier ones are taken from recent College and University Examination Papers, can be obtained by the methods developed in this chapter.

1. Shew that  $\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{a + b \cos \theta} d\theta = \frac{2\pi}{b^2} (a - \sqrt{a^2 - b^2})$ ,

when  $a > b > 0$ . Give reasons why this equation should still be true when  $a = b$ .

(Math. Trip. 1904.)

2. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2 + f^2)^2 (x^2 + g^2)^2}$  when  $f > 0, g > 0$ .  
(Trinity, 1905.)

3. Shew that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2 + b^2)(x^2 + a^2)^2} = \frac{\pi(2a + b)}{2a^3b(a + b)^2}$  when  $a > 0, b > 0$ .  
(Whittaker, *Modern Analysis*.)

4. Prove that, if  $a > 0, b > 0, c > 0, b^2 - ac > 0$ , then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{a^2 + 2b^2x^2 + c^2x^4} = \frac{\pi}{2^{\frac{3}{2}}a\sqrt{(b^2 + ac)}}. \quad (\text{Trinity, 1908.})$$

5. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^2 (x^2 + b^2)^2 (x^2 + c^2)^2}$  when  $a, b, c$  are real.  
(St John's, 1907.)

6. Shew that, if  $a > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^2 dx}{(a^4 + x^4)^3} dx = \frac{5\pi\sqrt{2}}{128a^9}. \quad (\text{Trinity, 1902.})$$

7. Shew that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sinh ax}{\sinh \pi x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2}a$  when  $-\pi < a < \pi$ .

8. Shew that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{\sinh^2 x} dx = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ .  
(Clare, 1903.)

9. By integrating  $\int e^{-z^2} dz$  round a rectangle, shew that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2} \cos 2at \cdot dt = e^{-a^2} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right), \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2} \sin 2at \cdot dt = 0.$$

10. Shew that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{\sinh x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \pi \tanh \frac{1}{2} \pi$ .  
(Clare, 1905.)

11. Shew that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x \cos ax}{\sinh x} dx = \frac{\pi^2 e^{-a\pi}}{(1 + e^{-a\pi})^2}$ , when  $a$  is real.  
(Math. Trip. 1906.)

12. Evaluate  $\int \frac{dz}{1 + z^4}$  taken round the ellipse whose equation is  $x^2 - xy + y^2 + x + y = 0$ .  
(Clare, 1903.)

13. Shew that, if  $m > 0, a > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x \sin mx}{a^4 + x^4} dx = \frac{\pi}{2a^2} e^{-\frac{ma}{\sqrt{2}}} \sin \frac{ma}{\sqrt{2}}. \quad (\text{Trinity, 1906.})$$

14. Show that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x \cos x}{x^3} dx = \frac{1}{4} \pi$ . (Peterhouse, 1905.)

15. Show that, if  $m > 0$ ,  $a > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx \cdot dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{\pi}{2a} e^{-ma}, \quad \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx \cdot dx}{(1+x^2)^2} = \frac{\pi}{4} e^{-m} (1+m).$$

(Peterhouse, 1907.)

16. Show that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos^2 x}{(1+x^2)^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{8} (1+3e^{-2})$ .  
(Peterhouse, 1907.)

17. Show that, if  $a > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x - \sin x}{x^2(a^2 + x^2)} dx = \frac{1}{2} \pi a^{-2} (\frac{1}{2} a^2 - a + 1 - e^{-a}).$$

(Math. Trip. 1902.)

18. Show that, if  $m > 0$ ,  $a > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos mx}{a^4 + x^4} dx = \frac{\pi}{2a^2} e^{-ma\sqrt{2}} \sin \left( \frac{ma}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{\pi}{4} \right).$$

(Trinity, 1907.)

19. Show that, if  $m > 0$ ,  $a > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 mx}{x^2(a^2 + x^2)} dx = \frac{\pi}{4a^2} (e^{-2ma} - 1 + 2ma).$$

(Trinity, 1912.)

20. Show that, if  $a > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos ax}{1+x^2+x^4} dx = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \sin \left( \frac{a}{2} + \frac{\pi}{6} \right) e^{-\frac{a\sqrt{3}}{2}}.$$

(Clare, 1902.)

21. Show that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos x - x \sin x}{1+x^2} dx = 0$ . (Trinity, 1903.)

22. Show that, when  $n$  is an even positive integer,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} \frac{\sin nx}{\sin x} dx = \pi \frac{e^n - 1}{(e^2 - 1)e^{n-1}}. \quad (\text{Jesus, 1903.})$$

23. By taking a quadrant of a circle indented at  $ai$  as contour, show that, if  $m > 0$ ,  $a > 0$ , then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x \cos mx + a \sin mx}{x^2 + a^2} dx = -e^{-am} \text{li}(e^{-am}). \quad (\text{Schlömilch})$$

[ $\text{li}(e^{ax})$  is defined by Bromwich, *Infinite Series*, p. 325.]

24. Shew that, if  $m > 0$ ,  $c > 0$  and  $a$  is real,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin m(x-a)}{x-a} \frac{dx}{x^2+c^2} = \frac{\pi}{a^2+c^2} \left\{ 1 - \frac{e^{-mc}}{c} (c \cos ma - a \sin ma) \right\}. \quad (\text{Trinity, 1911.})$$

25. Shew that, if  $m > n > 0$  and  $a, b$  are real, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin m(x-a)}{x-a} \frac{\sin n(x-b)}{x-b} dx = \pi \frac{\sin n(a-b)}{a-b}. \quad (\text{Math. Trip. 1909.})$$

26. Shew that, if  $0 < a < 2$ , then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x \sin ax}{x^3} dx = \frac{1}{2} \pi a - \frac{1}{8} \pi a^2. \quad (\text{Legendre.})$$

27. Shew that  $P \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\tan x}{x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \pi$ . (Legendre.)

28. By using the contour of § 29, shew that, if  $-1 < p < 1$  and  $-\pi < \lambda < \pi$ , then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{-p} dx}{1+2x \cos \lambda + x^2} = \frac{\pi}{\sin p\pi} \frac{\sin p\lambda}{\sin \lambda}. \quad (\text{Euler.})$$

29. Draw the straight line joining the points  $\pm i$ , and the semi-circle of  $|z| = 1$  which lies on the right of this line. Let  $C$  be the contour formed by indenting this figure at  $-i, 0, i$ . By considering

$$\int_C z^{n-1} (z+z^{-1})^m dz, \text{ shew that, if } n > m > -1, \text{ then}$$

$$\int_{-\frac{1}{2}\pi}^{\frac{1}{2}\pi} e^{ni\theta} \cos^m \theta d\theta = 2^{1-m} \sin \frac{1}{2}(n-m) \pi \int_0^1 t^{n-m-1} (1-t^2)^m dt.$$

Deduce that<sup>9</sup>

$$\int_0^{\frac{1}{2}\pi} \cos n\theta \cos^m \theta d\theta = \frac{\pi \Gamma(m+1)}{2^{m+1} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}m + \frac{1}{2}n + 1) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}m - \frac{1}{2}n + 1)};$$

and from the formula  $\cos(n+1)\theta + \cos(n-1)\theta = 2 \cos \theta \cos n\theta$ , establish this result for all real values of  $n$  if  $m > -1$ .

30. By integrating  $\int e^{-z^2} dz$  round a rectangle whose corners are  $0, R, R+ai, ai$ , shew that

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-t^2} \sin 2at \cdot dt = e^{-a^2} \int_0^a e^{y^2} dy.$$

<sup>9</sup> The result  $\Gamma(a) \Gamma(1-a) = \pi \operatorname{cosec} a\pi$ , which is required in this example, may be established by writing  $x = t/(1-t)$  in the first example at the end of § 29, when  $0 < a < 1$ , and making use of the value of the first Eulerian integral; it may be proved for all values of  $a$  by a use of the recurrence formula  $\Gamma(a+1) = a \Gamma(a)$ .



31. Let  $Q(z)$  be a polynomial and let the real part of  $a$  be numerically less than  $\pi$ . By integrating  $\int \frac{Q(z - \pi i)}{\cosh z + \cos a} dz$  round a rectangle, shew that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{Q(x + \pi i) - Q(x - \pi i)}{\cosh x + \cos a} dx = 2\pi \operatorname{cosec} a \{Q(ai) - Q(-ai)\}.$$

Deduce that

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^2 dx}{\cosh x + \cos a} = \frac{1}{15} a (\pi^2 - a^2) (7\pi^2 - 3a^2) \operatorname{cosec} a.$$

32. Let  $\Gamma_1$  be a contour consisting of the part of the real axis joining the points  $\pm R$ , and of a semicircle of radius  $R$  above the real axis, the contour being indented at the points  $n\pi/b$  where  $n$  takes all integral values and  $b > 0$ ; also let  $bR/\pi$  be half an odd integer. Let  $\Gamma_2$  be the reflexion of  $\Gamma_1$  in the real axis, properly oriented.

Shew that, if  $-b < a < b$  and if  $P(z)$ ,  $Q(z)$  are polynomials such that  $Q(z)$  has no real factors and the degree of  $Q(z)$  exceeds that of  $P(z)$ , then

$$P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ax}}{\sin bx} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = \frac{1}{2} \lim \left\{ \int_{\Gamma_1} \frac{e^{az}}{\sin bz} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz - \int_{\Gamma_2} \frac{e^{az}}{\sin bz} \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} dz \right\};$$

where the limit is taken by making  $R \rightarrow \infty$  and the radii of the indentations tend to zero.

$$\text{Deduce that } P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{ax}}{\sin bx} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = \pi i (\Sigma r - \Sigma r'),$$

where  $\Sigma r$  means the sum of the residues of the integrand at its poles in the upper half-plane and  $\Sigma r'$  the sum of the residues at the poles in the lower half-plane.

33. Shew that, if  $-b < a < b$ , then

$$P \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin ax}{\sin bx} \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{\sinh a}{\sinh b}, \quad P \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos ax}{\sin bx} \frac{x dx}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{\cosh a}{\sinh b},$$

$$P \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin ax}{\cos bx} \frac{dx}{x(1+x^2)} = \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{\sinh a}{\cosh b}, \quad P \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos ax}{\cos bx} \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{\cosh a}{\cosh b}.$$

(Legendre, Cauchy.)

34. If  $(2m-1)b < a < (2m+1)b$  and  $m$  is a positive integer, deduce from Example 33 that

$$P \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin ax}{\sin bx} \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{\cosh(a-2mb) - e^{-a}}{\sinh b},$$

and three similar results. (Legendre.)

35. Shew that 
$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(1+x^2) \cosh(\frac{1}{2}\pi x)} = \log 2.$$
 (Math. Trip. 1906.)

[Take the contour of integration to be the square whose corners are  $\pm N$ ,  $\pm N + 2Ni$ , where  $N$  is an integer; and make  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .]

The results of Examples 36—39, which are due to Hardy, may be obtained by integrating expressions of the type

$$\int \frac{e^{az}}{1 + 2pe^z \pm e^{2z}} \cdot \frac{dz}{z + ia}$$

round a contour similar to that of Example 35. In all the examples  $a$  and  $\delta$  are real; and, in Examples 36 and 38,  $-\pi < \delta < \pi$ .

$$36. \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\cosh x + \cos \delta} \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{2\delta\pi}{a \sin \delta} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\{(2n+1)\pi + a\}^2 - \delta^2}.$$

Deduce that

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\cosh x + \cos \delta} \frac{dx}{\pi^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{\delta \sin \delta} - \frac{1}{4 \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} \delta}.$$

$$37. \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\cosh x + \cosh \delta} \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{2\delta\pi}{\sinh \delta} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\{(2n+1)\pi + a\}^2 + \delta^2},$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cosh \frac{1}{2} x}{\cosh x + \cosh \delta} \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{\pi}{a \cosh \frac{1}{2} \delta} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-)^n \{(2n+1)\pi + a\}}{\{(2n+1)\pi + a\}^2 + \delta^2}.$$

$$38. \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cosh \frac{1}{2} x}{\cosh x + \cos \delta} \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{\pi}{a \cos \frac{1}{2} \delta} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-)^n \{(2n+1)\pi + a\}}{\{(2n+1)\pi + a\}^2 - \delta^2}.$$

Deduce that

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{\cosh(\frac{1}{2} x) \cdot (a^2 + x^2)} = \frac{2}{a} \int_0^1 \frac{t^{a/\pi}}{1+t^2} dt.$$

$$39. P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sinh x - \sinh \delta} \frac{dx}{\pi^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{\cosh \delta} \left\{ \frac{\delta}{\delta^2 + \pi^2} + \frac{1}{\delta} \right\} - \frac{1}{\sinh \delta}.$$

40. Show that, if  $a > 0$ ,  $m > 0$ ,  $-1 < r < 1$ , then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x dx}{m^2 + x^2} \frac{\sin 2ax}{1 - 2r \cos 2ax + r^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \pi}{e^{2am} - r},$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x dx}{m^2 + x^2} \frac{\sin ax}{1 - 2r \cos 2ax + r^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \pi e^{am}}{(1+r)(e^{2am} - r)}.$$

Show that, if the principal values of the integrals are taken, the results are true when  $r = 1$ . (Legendre.)

41. By integrating  $\int \frac{e^{ax}}{e^{2x} - 1} dz$  round the rectangle whose corners are  $0$ ,  $R$ ,  $R + i$ ,  $i$ , (the rectangle being indented at  $0$  and  $i$ ) show that, if  $a$  be real, then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin ax}{e^{2x} - 1} dx = \frac{1}{4} \coth\left(\frac{1}{2} a\right) - \frac{1}{2} a^{-1}. \quad (\text{Legendre.})$$

42. By employing a rectangle indented at  $\frac{1}{2} i$ , show that, if  $a$  be real, then

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin ax}{e^{2x} + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} a^{-1} - \frac{1}{4} \operatorname{cosech}\left(\frac{1}{2} a\right). \quad (\text{Legendre.})$$

43. By integrating  $\int e^{-\lambda z} z^{n-1} dz$  round the sector of radius  $R$  bounded by the lines  $\arg z = 0$ ,  $\arg z = a < \frac{1}{2} \pi$ , (the sector being indented at  $0$ ), show that, if  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $n > 0$ , then

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^{n-1} e^{-\lambda x \cos a} \cos(\lambda x \sin a) dx = \lambda^{-n} \Gamma(n) \cos na,$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^{n-1} e^{-\lambda x \cos a} \sin(\lambda x \sin a) dx = \lambda^{-n} \Gamma(n) \sin na.$$

These results are true when  $a = \frac{1}{2} \pi$  if  $n < 1$ .

Deduce that

$$\int_0^{\infty} \cos(y^2) dy = \int_0^{\infty} \sin(y^2) dy = \left(\frac{1}{2} \pi\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (\text{Euler.})$$

44. The contour  $C$  starts from a point  $R$  on the real axis, encircles the origin once counterclockwise and returns to  $R$ . By deforming the contour into two straight lines and a circle of radius  $\delta$  (like the figure of § 29 with the large circle omitted), and making  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ , show that, if  $\xi \neq 0$ , (where  $\xi = \xi + i\eta$ ), and  $-\pi \leq \arg(-\xi) \leq \pi$  on  $C$ , then

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_C (-z)^{\xi-1} e^{-z} dz = -2i \sin(\pi \xi) \cdot \Gamma(\xi)$$

(Hankel, *Math. Ann.* Bd. 1.)

45. If  $\Gamma(\zeta)$  be defined when  $\zeta \leq 0$  by means of the relation  $\Gamma(\zeta + 1) = \zeta \Gamma(\zeta)$ , prove by integrating by parts that the equation of Example 44 is true for all values of  $\zeta$ .

46. By taking a parabola, whose focus is at 0, as contour, shew that, if  $a > 0$ , then

$$\Gamma(\zeta) = \frac{2a^\zeta e^a}{\sin \pi \zeta} \int_0^\infty e^{-at^2} (1+t^2)^\zeta - \frac{1}{2} \cos \{2at + (2\zeta - 1) \arctan t\} dt. \quad (\text{Bourguet.})$$

47. Assuming Stirling's formula<sup>10</sup>, namely that

$$\left\{ \log \Gamma(z + 1) - \left(z + \frac{1}{2}\right) \log z + z - \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi \right\} \rightarrow 0$$

uniformly as  $|z| \rightarrow \infty$ , when  $-\pi + \delta < \arg z < \pi - \delta$ , and  $\delta$  is any positive constant, shew that, if  $-\frac{1}{2}\pi < \arg(-\zeta) < \frac{1}{2}\pi$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-a-\infty i}^{-a+\infty i} \Gamma(-z) (-\zeta)^z dz = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{-a-\infty i}^{-a+\infty i} \frac{(-\zeta)^z}{\Gamma(z+1) \sin \pi z} \pi dz = e^\zeta,$$

where  $a > 0$ , and the path of integration is a straight line. (The expressions may be shewn to be the sum of the residues of the second integrand at its poles on the right of the path of integration.)

(Mellin, *Acta Soc. Fennicae*, vol. xx.)

48. Let  $C$  be a closed contour, and let

$$f(z) = \prod_{r=1}^m (z - a_r)^{n_r} \phi(z)$$

where the points  $a_r$  are inside  $C$ , the numbers  $n_r$  are integers (positive or negative), while  $\phi(z)$  is analytic on and inside  $C$  and has no zeros on or inside  $C$ . Shew that, if  $f'(z)$  be the derivate of  $f(z)$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{r=1}^m n_r. \quad (\text{Cauchy.})$$

49. By taking the contour  $C$  of Example 48 to be a circle of radius  $R$ , and making  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , shew that a polynomial of degree  $n$  has  $n$  roots. (Cauchy.)

50. With the notation of Example 48, shew that, if  $\psi(z)$  be analytic on and inside  $C$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \psi(z) \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = \sum_{r=1}^m n_r \psi(a_r). \quad (\text{Cauchy.})$$

<sup>10</sup> Stieltjes, *Liouville's Journal*, t. iv.

## CHAPTER VII

### EXPANSIONS IN SERIES

§ 34. Taylor's Theorem.—§ 35. Laurent's Theorem.

**34. TAYLOR'S THEOREM.** Let  $f(z)$  be a function of  $z$  which is analytic at all points inside a circle of radius  $r$  whose centre is the point whose complex coordinate is  $a$ . Let  $\zeta$  be any point inside this circle.

Then  $f(\zeta)$  can be expanded into the convergent series:

$$f(\zeta) = f(a) + (\zeta - a)f'(a) + \frac{1}{2!}(\zeta - a)^2 f''(a) + \dots + \frac{1}{m!}(\zeta - a)^m f^{(m)}(a) + \dots,$$

where  $f^{(m)}(a)$  denotes  $\frac{d^m f(a)}{da^m}$ .

Let  $|\zeta - a| = \theta r$ , so that  $0 < \theta < 1$ .

Let  $C$  be the contour formed by the circle  $|z - a| = \theta r$ , where  $\theta < \theta' < 1$ ; let  $\theta, \theta' = \theta_1$ , so that  $|\zeta - a| = |z - a| = \theta_1 r$ ; then by § 21.

$$\begin{aligned} f(\zeta) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - \zeta} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - a} \left(1 - \frac{\zeta - a}{z - a}\right)^{-1} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z - a} \left(1 + \frac{\zeta - a}{z - a} + \frac{(\zeta - a)^2}{(z - a)^2} + \dots + \frac{(\zeta - a)^{m-1}}{(z - a)^{m-1}} + \frac{(\zeta - a)^m}{(z - a)^m (z - \zeta)}\right) dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \int_C \frac{f(z) dz}{(z - a)^{m+1}} (\zeta - a)^m + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - a)^{m+1}} \frac{(\zeta - a)^{m+1}}{(z - \zeta)} dz \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_m}{m!} (\zeta - a)^m + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - a)^{m+1}} \frac{(\zeta - a)^{m+1}}{(z - \zeta)} dz, \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_m = \frac{m!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z) dz}{(z - a)^{m+1}}$   
 $f^{(m)}(a)$ , by § 22.

On  $C$ ,  $|f(z)|$  does not exceed some fixed<sup>1</sup> number  $K$ , since  $f(z)$  is analytic and, *a fortiori*, continuous on  $C$ .

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)(\zeta - a)^{n+1}}{(z - a)^{n+1}(z - \zeta)} dz \right| &\leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C \left| \frac{f(z)(\zeta - a)^{n+1}}{(z - a)^{n+1}(z - \zeta)} dz \right| \\ &< \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_C \frac{K\theta_1^{n+1}}{(1 - \theta_1)r} |dz| \\ &< K\theta_1^{n+1}/(1 - \theta_1), \end{aligned}$$

since  $|z - \zeta| = |(z - a) - (\zeta - a)| \geq |z - a| - |\zeta - a|$ .

Now  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} K\theta_1^{n+1}/(1 - \theta_1) = 0$ , since  $0 \leq \theta_1 < 1$ ; and therefore

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)(\zeta - a)^{n+1}}{(z - a)^{n+1}(z - \zeta)} dz = 0;$$

consequently  $f(\zeta) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=0}^n \frac{a_m}{m!} (\zeta - a)^m$ ; since this limit exists it follows that the series  $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_m}{m!} (\zeta - a)^m$  is convergent; and it has therefore been shewn that  $f(\zeta)$  can be expanded into the convergent series:

$$f(\zeta) = a_0 + \frac{a_1}{1!} (\zeta - a) + \frac{a_2}{2!} (\zeta - a)^2 + \dots + \frac{a_m}{m!} (\zeta - a)^m + \dots$$

where

$$a_m = f^{(m)}(a) = \frac{m!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z) dz}{(z - a)^{m+1}}.$$

**35. LAURENT'S THEOREM.** *Let  $f(z)$  be a function of  $z$  which is analytic and one-valued at all points inside the region bounded by two oriented concentric circles ( $\Gamma$ ,  $\Gamma'$ ), centre  $a$ , radii  $r_1$ ,  $r_1'$  where  $r_1' < r_1$ .*

*Let  $\zeta$  be any point inside  $\Gamma$  and outside  $\Gamma'$ ; then  $f(\zeta)$  can be expressed as the sum of two convergent series:*

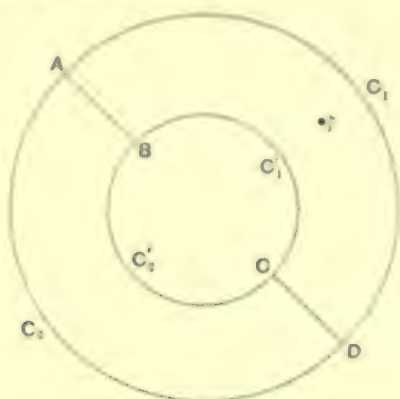
$$\begin{aligned} f(\zeta) &= a_0 + a_1(\zeta - a) + a_2(\zeta - a)^2 + \dots + a_m(\zeta - a)^m + \dots \\ &\quad + b_1(\zeta - a)^{-1} + b_2(\zeta - a)^{-2} + \dots + b_m(\zeta - a)^{-m} + \dots, \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_m = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z) dz}{(z - a)^{m+1}}$ ,  $b_m = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} (z - a)^{m-1} f(z) dz$ ;

the circles  $C$ ,  $C'$  are concentric with the circles  $\Gamma$ ,  $\Gamma'$  and are of radii  $r$ ,  $r'$  such that  $r_1' < r' < \zeta - a < r < r_1$ .

<sup>1</sup> See note 4 on p. 50.

Draw a diameter  $ABCD$  of the circles  $C, C'$ , not passing through  $\zeta$ . Let  $C_1, C_1'$  be the semicircles on one side of this diameter, while  $C_2, C_2'$  are the semicircles on the other side.



Then  $C_1, AB, C_1', CD$  can be oriented to form a contour  $\Gamma_1$ ; and  $C_2, DC, C_2', BA$  can be oriented to form a contour  $\Gamma_2$ ; it is easily seen that  $AB, BA$  have opposite orientations in the two contours, as do  $CD, DC$ ;  $C_1, C_2$  have the same orientation as  $C$ ;  $C_1', C_2'$  have opposite orientations to  $C'$ ; and  $f(z)$  is analytic in the closed regions formed by  $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2$  and their interiors.

$$\text{Therefore } \int_{\Gamma_1} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz + \int_{\Gamma_2} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz = \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz - \int_{C'} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz;$$

the integrals along  $BA, AB$  cancel, and so do those along  $CD, DC$ .

$$\text{But, by } \S 21, \int_{\Gamma_1} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz + \int_{\Gamma_2} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz = 2\pi i f(\zeta);$$

for  $\zeta$  is inside one of the contours  $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2$  and outside the other.

$$\text{Therefore } f(\zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C f(z) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\zeta-a)^n}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C f(z) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\zeta-a)^{n+1}}{(z-a)^{n+1}(z-\zeta)} dz \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (\zeta-a)^{n+1} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}(z-\zeta)} dz \end{aligned}$$

By the arguments of § 34, it may be shewn that the last integral tends to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; so that  $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz$  can be expanded into the convergent series  $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (\zeta - a)^m$ .

In like manner

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} \frac{f(z)}{\zeta-a} \left(1 - \frac{z-a}{\zeta-a}\right)^{-1} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} f(z) \sum_{m=1}^n \frac{(z-a)^{m-1}}{(\zeta-a)^m} dz \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} \frac{f(z)(z-a)^n}{(\zeta-a)^n(\zeta-z)} dz \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^n b_m (z-a)^{-m} + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} \frac{f(z)(z-a)^n}{(\zeta-a)^n(\zeta-z)} dz. \end{aligned}$$

Since, on  $C'$ ,  $\left|\frac{z-a}{\zeta-a}\right| < 1$ , the arguments of § 34 can be applied to shew that the last integral tends to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; so that

$$-\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C'} \frac{f(z)}{z-\zeta} dz$$

can be expanded into the convergent series  $\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} b_m (z-a)^{-m}$ ; that is to say

$$f(\zeta) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m (\zeta - a)^m + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} b_m (\zeta - a)^{-m},$$

each of the series being convergent.



## CHAPTER VIII

### HISTORICAL SUMMARY

§ 36. Definitions of analytic functions.— § 37. Proofs of Cauchy's theorem.

**36.** The earliest suggestion of the theorem to which Cauchy's name has been given is contained in a letter<sup>1</sup> from Gauss to Bessel dated Dec. 18, 1811; in this letter Gauss points out that the value of  $\int x^{-1} dx$  taken along a complex path depends on the path of integration.

The earliest investigation of Cauchy on the subject is contained in a memoir<sup>2</sup> dated 1814, and a formal proof of the complete theorem is given in a memoir<sup>3</sup> published in 1825.

The proof contained in this memoir consists in proving that the variation of  $\int_{(AB)} f(z) dz$ , when the path of integration undergoes a small variation (the end points remaining fixed), is zero, provided that  $f'(z)$  has a unique continuous differential coefficient at all points on the path  $AB$ .

The following is a summary of the various assumptions on which proofs of Cauchy's theorem have been based:

(i) The hypothesis of Goursat<sup>4</sup>:  $f'(z)$  exists at all points within and on  $C$ .

(ii) The hypothesis of Cauchy<sup>5</sup>:  $f'(z)$  exists and is *continuous*.

<sup>1</sup> *Briefwechsel zwischen Gauss und Bessel* (1880), pp. 156-157.

<sup>2</sup> *Œuvres complètes*, ser. 1, t. 1, p. 402 et seq.

<sup>3</sup> *Mémoire sur les intégrales définies prises entre des limites imaginaires*.

References to Cauchy's subsequent remission are given by Lindelöf, *Leçons de Riemann*.

<sup>4</sup> *Transactions of the American Mathematical Society*, vol. 1 (1900), pp. 14-16.

<sup>5</sup> See the memoir cited above.

(iii) An hypothesis equivalent to the last is:  $f(z)$  is uniformly differentiable; i.e., when  $\epsilon$  is taken arbitrarily, then a positive  $\delta$ , *independent* of  $z$  can be found such that whenever  $z$  and  $z'$  are on or inside  $C$  and  $|z' - z| \leq \delta$ , then

$$|f(z') - f(z) - (z' - z)f'(z)| \leq \epsilon |z' - z|.$$

In the language of Chapter II, this inequality enables us to take squares whose sides are not greater than  $\delta/\sqrt{2}$  as 'suitable regions.'

(iv) The hypothesis of Riemann<sup>6</sup>:  $f(z) = P + iQ$  where  $P$ ,  $Q$  are real and have continuous derivatives with respect to  $x$  and  $y$  such that

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}.$$

These hypotheses are effectively equivalent, but, of course, (i) is the most natural starting-point of a development of the theory of functions on the lines laid down by Cauchy. It is easy to prove the equivalence<sup>7</sup> of (ii), (iii) and (iv), but attempts at deducing any one of these three from (i), except by means of Cauchy's theorem and the results of §§ 21–22, have not been successful; however, it is easy to deduce from § 22, by using the expression for  $f'(z)$  as a contour integral, that, if (i) is assumed, then (ii) is true in the interior of  $C$ .

The definition of Weierstrass is that an analytic function  $f(z)$  is such that it can be expanded into a Taylor's series in powers of  $z - a$  where  $a$  is a point inside  $C$ . This hypothesis is simple and fundamental in the Weierstrassian theory of functions, in which Cauchy's theorem appears merely incidentally.

**37.** A proof of Cauchy's theorem, based on hypothesis (i), requires Goursat's lemma (which is a special case of the Heine-Borel theorem) or its equivalent; the apparent exception, a proof due to Moore<sup>8</sup>, employs, in the course of the proof, arguments similar to those by which Goursat's lemma is proved.

The hypotheses (ii) and (iii) are such as to make it easy to divide  $C$  and its interior into suitable regions.

The various methods of proof of the theorem are the following:

(i) Goursat's proof, first published in 1884 [this, in its earliest form<sup>9</sup>, employs hypothesis (iii)], is essentially that given in this work.

<sup>6</sup> *Oeuvres mathématiques* (1898), Dissertation inaugurale (1851).

<sup>7</sup> The equivalence of (ii) and (iii) has been proved in § 20.

<sup>8</sup> *Transactions of the American Mathematical Society*, vol. 1 (1900), pp. 499–506.

<sup>9</sup> *Acta Mathematica*, vol. iv, pp. 197–200; see also his *Cours d'Analyse*, t. II.

- (ii) Cauchy's proof has already been described.  
 (iii) Riemann's proof<sup>10</sup> consists in transforming

$$\int (Pdx - Qdy) + i \int (Qdx + Pdy)$$

into a double integral, by using Stokes' theorem.

(iv) Moore's proof consists in assuming that the integral taken round the sides of a square is *not* zero, but has modulus  $\eta_0$ ; the square is divided into four equal squares, and the modulus of the integral along at least one of these must be  $\geq \frac{1}{4}\eta_0$ ; the process of subdividing squares is continued, giving rise to at least one limiting point  $\zeta$  inside every square  $S_r$  of a sequence such that the modulus of the integral along  $S_r$  is not less than  $\eta_0/4^r$ . Assuming that  $f(z)$  has a derivate at  $\zeta$  it is proved that it is possible to find  $\epsilon_0$  such that, when  $r > \epsilon_0$ , the modulus of the integral along  $S_r$  is less than  $\eta_0/4^r$ . This is the contradiction needed to complete the proof of the theorem. The deduction of the theorem for a closed contour, not a square, may then be obtained by the methods given above in § 17.

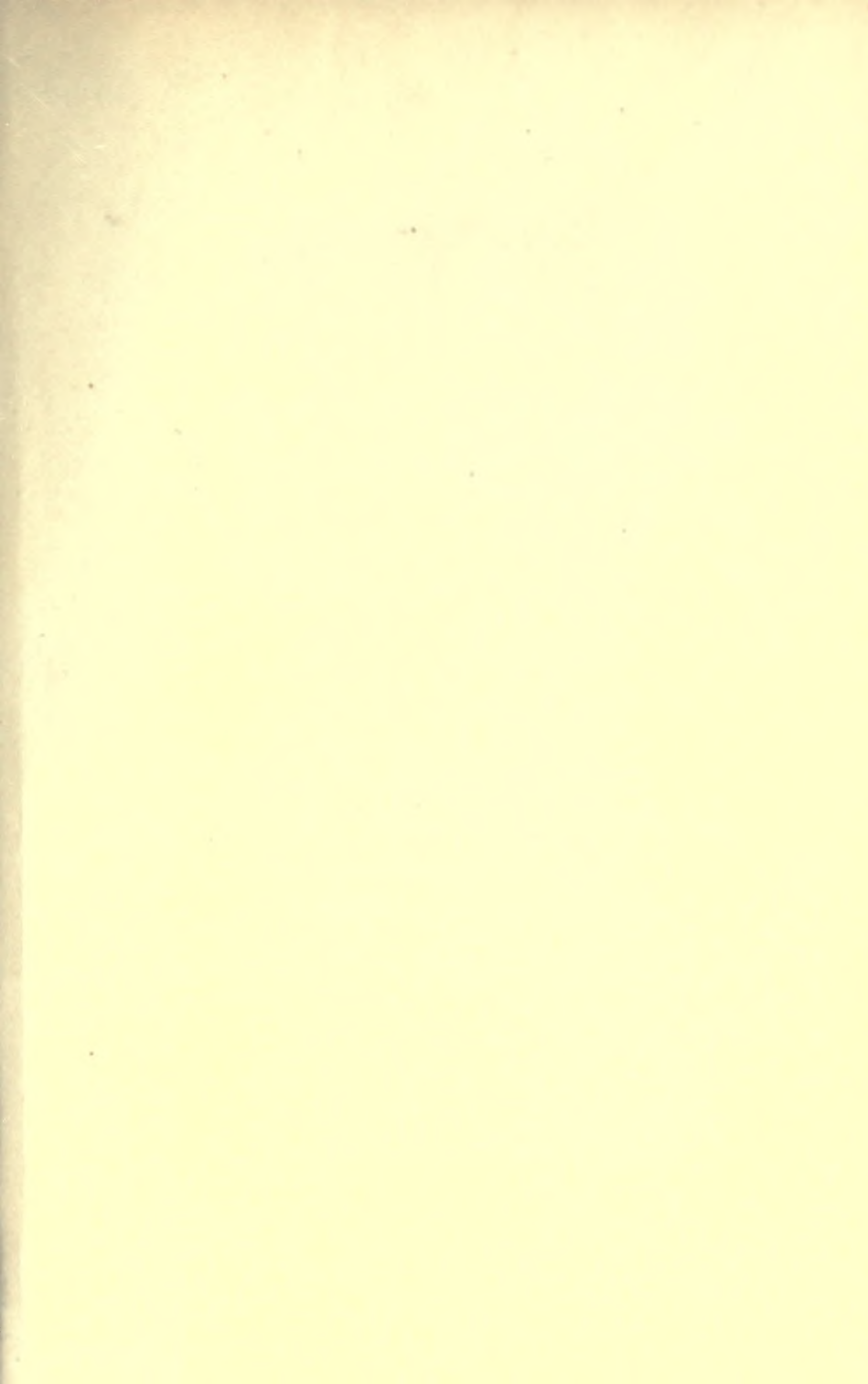
Finally, it should be mentioned that, although the use of Cauchy's theorem may afford the simplest method of evaluating a definite integral, the result can always be obtained by other methods; thus a *direct* use of Cauchy's theorem can always be avoided, if desired, by transforming the contour integral into a double integral as in Riemann's proof. Further, Cauchy's theorem cannot be employed to evaluate all definite integrals; thus  $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$  has not been evaluated except by other methods. *See Gauss's Vorles.*

<sup>10</sup> See the dissertation cited above.

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