

BO1 History of Mathematics
Lecture XIII
Complex analysis

MT 2021 Week 7

Summary

Part 1

- ▶ Complex numbers: validity and representation
- ▶ Substitution of complex values for real

Part 2

- ▶ Cauchy's contributions
- ▶ Riemann
- ▶ What *is* an analytic function?

Early ideas about complex numbers

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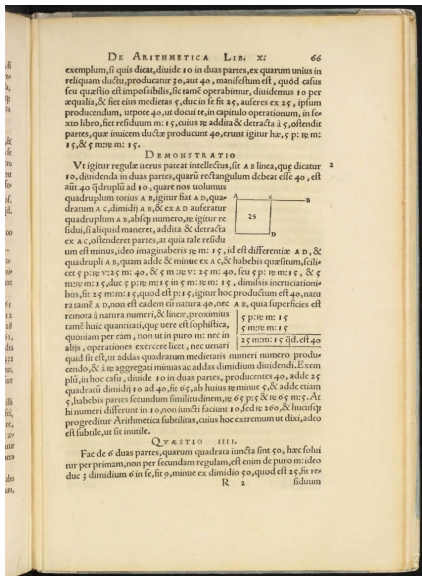
- ▶ Cardano (1545) [from quadratics]
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But:

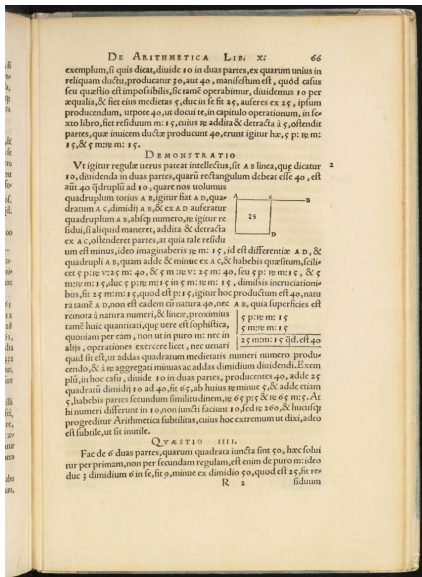
For the most part such roots were ignored: negative roots were described merely as 'false', but complex roots as 'impossible'. (Mathematics emerging, p. 459.)

Cardano and complex numbers

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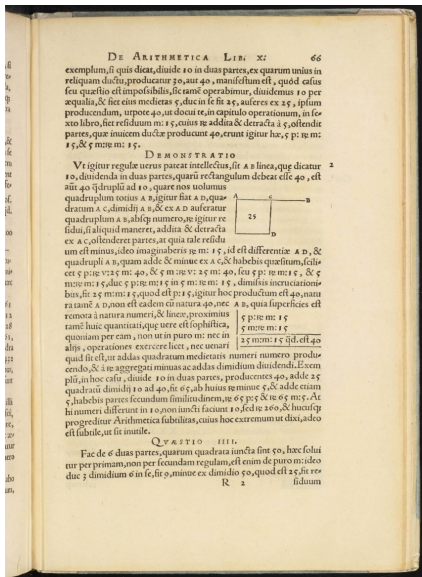


Cardano and complex numbers



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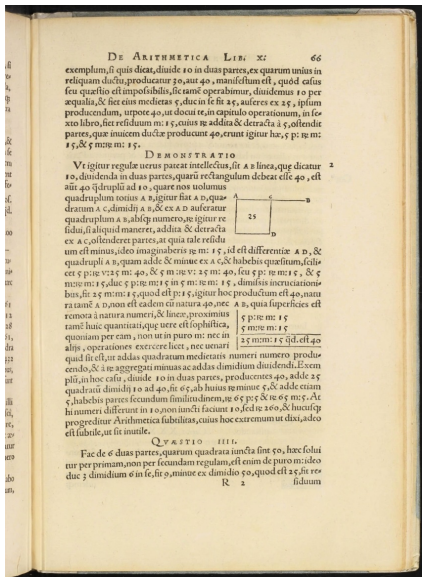
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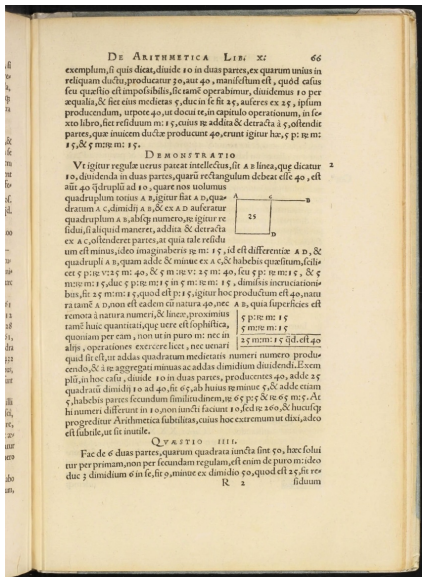


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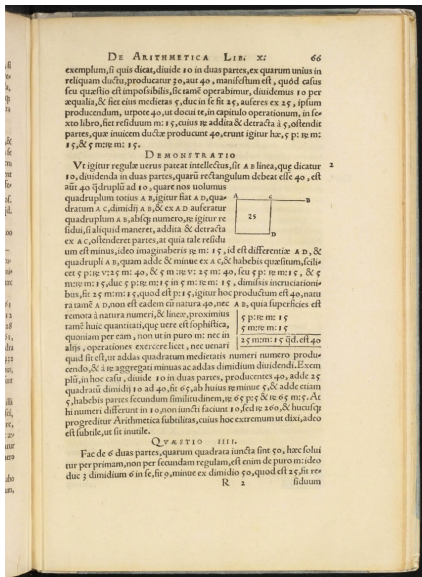


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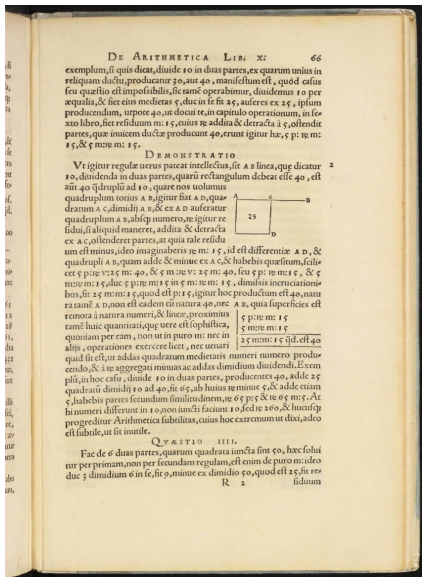
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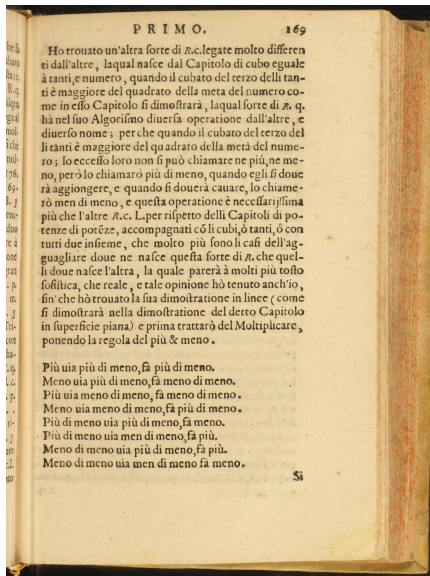
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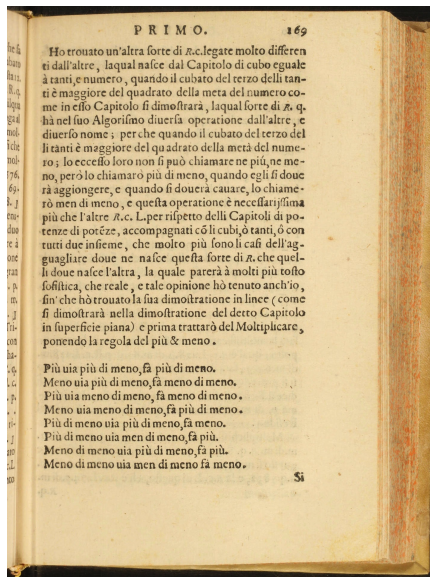
But regarded such ideas as absurd and useless

Bombelli and complex numbers

“Another sort of cube root much different from the former . . .”



Bombelli and complex numbers



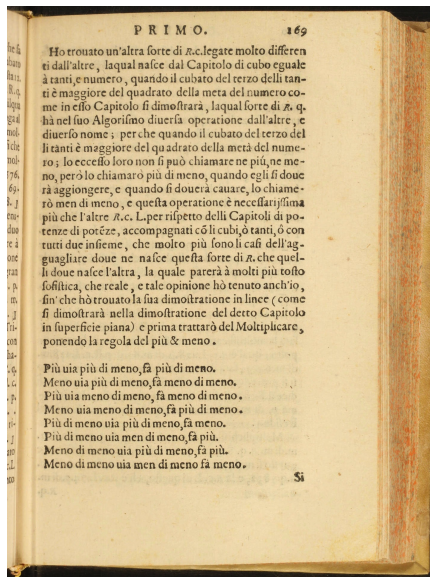
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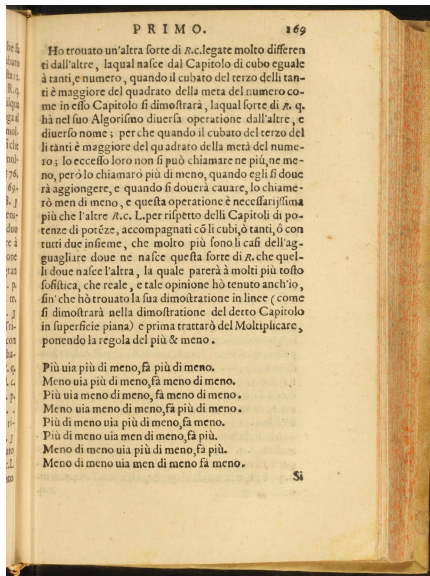
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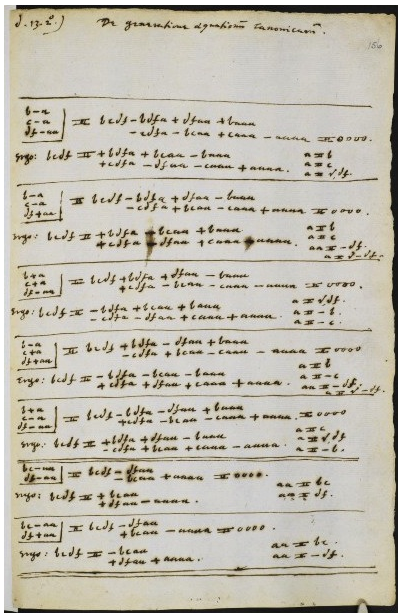
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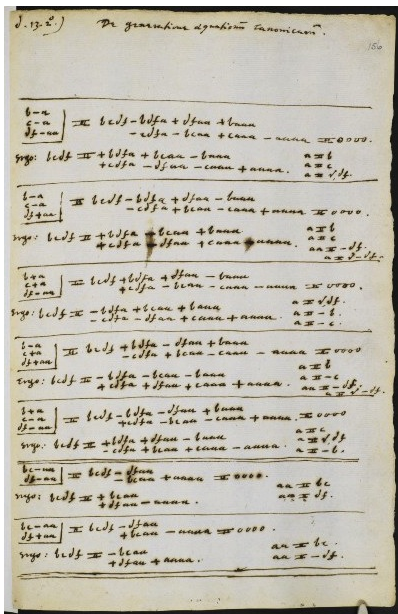
Complex numbers justified through practical use?

Harriot and complex numbers



Add MS 6783 f. 156

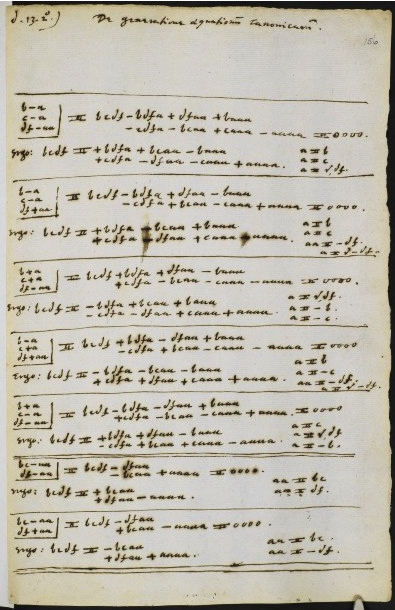
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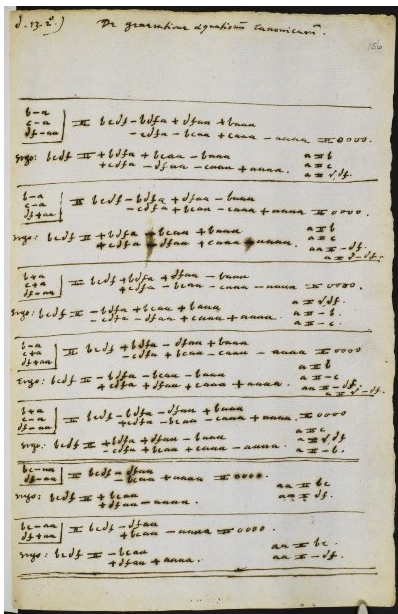


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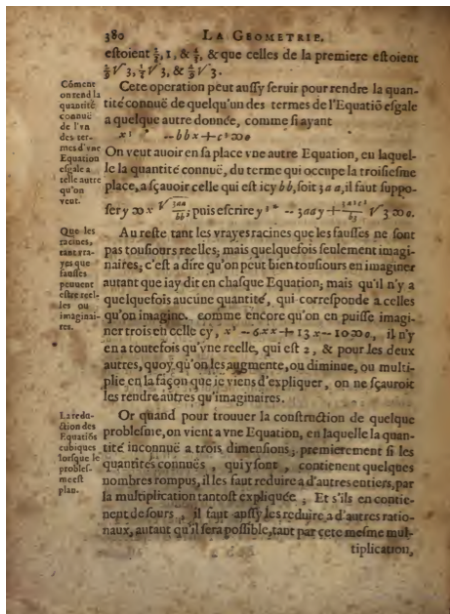
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Muriel Seltman & Robert Goulding, *Thomas Harriot's Artis analyticae praxis: an English translation with commentary*, Springer, 2007

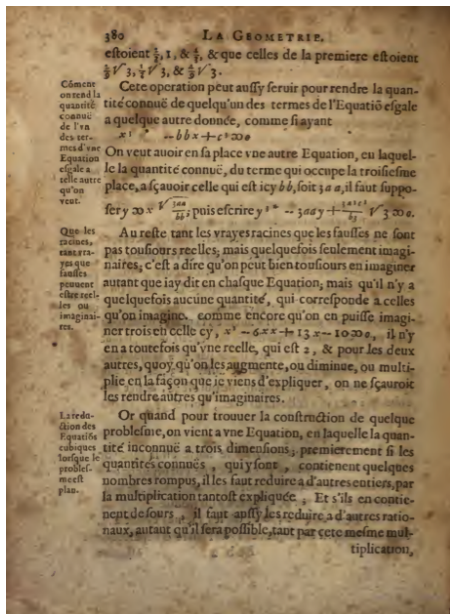
Descartes and 'imaginaries'



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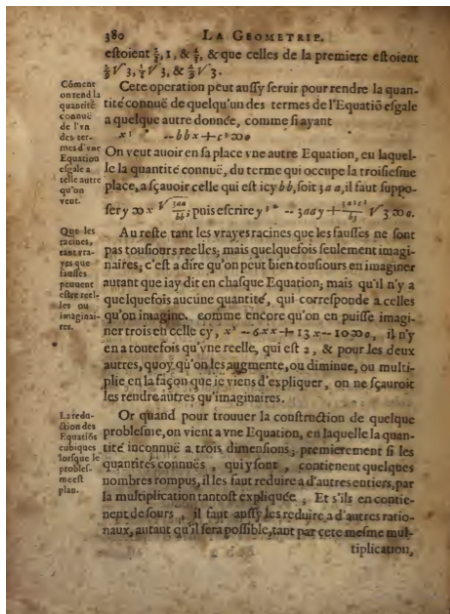
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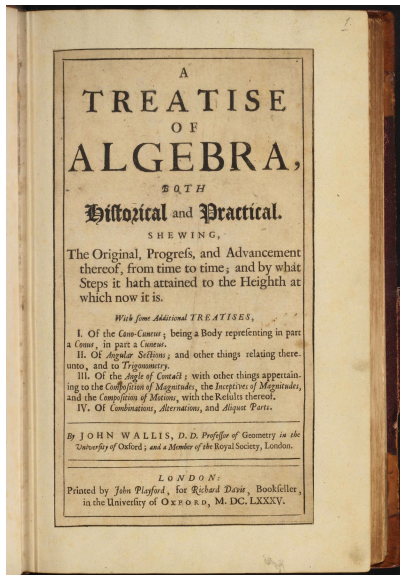
Didn't regard them as
numbers

Ideas about complex numbers in the later 17th century

John Wallis, *A treatise of algebra* (1685): complex numbers based on insights derived from

- ▶ Euclidean geometry
- ▶ trigonometry
- ▶ properties of conics

(See: *Mathematics emerging*, §15.1.1.)



Wallis: justification of imaginary numbers



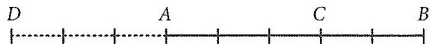
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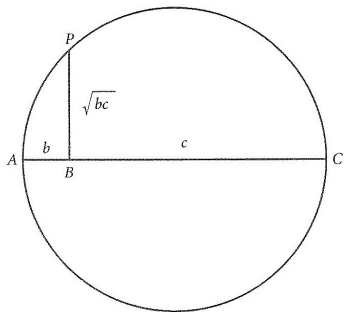
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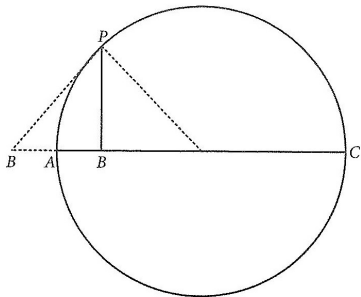
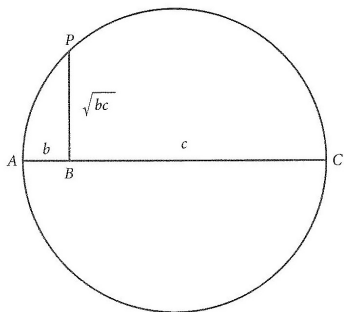
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- ▶ If instead we lose 26 units of land, but gain 10, then we have lost 16 units overall, or gained -16 . The area in question (assumed to be a square) might therefore be viewed as having side $\sqrt{-16}$.

(see: Leo Corry, *A brief history of numbers*, OUP, 2015, pp. 184–185)

Wallis: imaginary numbers as geometric means



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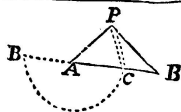
“A new Impossibility in Algebra”

John Wallis, *A treatise of algebra*, p. 267 ‘Of negative squares’:
... requires a new Impossibility in Algebra

CHAP. LXVII. *Of Negative Squares.*

267

Suppose again, $AP = 15$, $PC = 12$, (and therefore $AC = \sqrt{225 - 144} = \sqrt{81} = 9$;) $PB = 20$ (and therefore $BC = \sqrt{400 - 144} = \sqrt{256} = \pm 16$, or -16 ;) Then is $AB = 9 \mp 16 = 25$, or $AB = 9 - 16 = -7$. The one Affirmative, the other Negative. (The same values would be, but with contrary Signs, if we take $AC = \sqrt{81} = -9$: That is, $AB = -9 \mp 16 = \mp 7$, $AB = -9 - 16 = -25$.)



Which gives indeed (as before) a double value of AB , $\sqrt{175}$, $\mp \sqrt{-81}$, and $\sqrt{175}$, $-\sqrt{-81}$: But such as requires a new Impossibility in Algebra, (which in Lateral Equations doth not happen;) not that of a Negative Root, or a Quantity less than nothing; (as before,) but the Root of a Negative Square. Which in strictness of speech, cannot be: since that no Real Root (Affirmative or Negative,) being Multiplied into itself, will make a Negative Square.

Complex numbers in the 18th century (1)



Nature remained unclear:

“that amphibian between being and not-being, which we call the imaginary root of negative unity” (Leibniz, 1702)

But complex numbers were increasingly being used ...

Complex numbers in the 18th century (2)

296 MEMOIRES DE L'ACADEMIE ROYALE
boles, dépend en partie de la quadrature du cercle, & en
partie de la quadrature de l'hyperbole ou de la description
de la Logarithmique.

*Manières abrégées de transformer les différentielles
composées en simples, & réciproquement; Et même
les simples imaginaires en réelles composées.*

PROBL. I. Transformer la différentielle $\frac{adz}{bb-xx}$ en
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Corol. On transformera de même la différentielle $\frac{adz}{bb+xx}$
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PROBL. II. Transformer la différentielle $\frac{adz}{bb+xx}$ en
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Johann Bernoulli, 'Solution d'un
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No worries about the validity of
switching between real and complex
integrals

(See *Mathematics emerging*,
§15.2.1)

Complex numbers in the 18th century (3)

[192]

How EQUATIONS are to be solv'd.

AFTER therefore in the Solution of a Question you are come to an Equation, and that Equation is duly reduc'd and order'd; when the Quantities which are suppos'd given, are really given in Numbers, those Numbers are to be substituted in their room in the Equation, and you'll have a Numeral Equation, whose Root being extracted will satisfy the Question. As if in the Division of an Angle into five equal Parts, by putting r for the Radius of the Circle, q for the Chord of the Complement of the propos'd Angle to two right ones, and x for the Chord of the Complement of the fifth Part of that Angle, I had come to this Equation, $x^5 - 5rrx^3 + 5r^4x - r^5q = 0$. Where in any particular Case the Radius r is given in Numbers, and the Line q subtending the Complement of the given Angle; as if Radius were 10, and the Chord 3; I substitute those Numbers in the Equation for r and q , and there comes out the Numeral Equation $x^5 - 500x^3 + 50000x - 30000 = 0$, whereof the Root being extracted will be x , or the Line subtending the Complement of the fifth Part of that given Angle.

But the Root is a Number which being substituted in the Equation for the Letter or Species signifying the Root, will make all the Terms vanish. Thus Unity is the Root of the Equation $x^4 - 19x^2 + 49x - 30 = 0$, because being writ for x it produces $1 - 19 + 49 - 30$, that is, nothing. And thus, if for x you write the Number 3, or the Negative Number -5 , and in both Cases there will be produc'd nothing, the Affirmative and Negative Terms in these four Cases destroying one another; then since any of the Numbers written in the Equation fulfils the Condition of x , by making all the Terms of the Equation together equal to nothing, any of them will be the Root of the Equation.

And that you may not wonder that the same Equation may have several Roots, you must know that there may be more Solutions [than one] of the same Problem. As if there was sought the Interfection of two given Circles; there are two Interfections, and consequently the Question admits two Answers; and then the Equation determining
the

Isaac Newton, *Universal Arithmetick*, 1728:

p. 195: "it is just that the Roots of Equations should be often impossible, lest they should exhibit the cases of Problems that are impossible as if they are possible"

Complex numbers in the 18th century (3)

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How EQUATIONS are to be solv'd.

AFTER therefore in the Solution of a Question you are come to an Equation, and that Equation is duly reduc'd and order'd; when the Quantities which are suppos'd given, are really given in Numbers, those Numbers are to be substituted in their room in the Equation, and you'll have a Numeral Equation, whose Root being extracted will satisfy the Question. As if in the Division of an Angle into five equal Parts, by putting r for the Radius of the Circle, q for the Chord of the Complement of the propos'd Angle to two right ones, and x for the Chord of the Complement of the fifth Part of that Angle, I had come to this Equation, $x^5 - 5rrx^3 + 5r^4x - r^5q = 0$. Where in any particular Case the Radius r is given in Numbers, and the Line q subtending the Complement of the given Angle; as if Radius were 10, and the Chord 3; I substitute those Numbers in the Equation for r and q , and there comes out the Numeral Equation $x^5 - 500x^3 + 50000x - 30000 = 0$, whereof the Root being extracted will be x , or the Line subtending the Complement of the fifth Part of that given Angle.

But the Root is a Number which being substituted in the Equation for the Letter or Species signifying the Root, will make all the Terms vanish. Thus Unity is the Root of the Equation $x^5 - 500x^3 + 50000x - 30000 = 0$, because being writ for x it produces $1 - 1 - 19 + 49 - 30$, that is, nothing. And thus, if for x you write the Number 3, or the Negative Number -5 , and in both Cases there will be produc'd nothing, the Affirmative and Negative Terms in these four Cases destroying one another; then since any of the Numbers written in the Equation fulfils the Condition of x , by making all the Terms of the Equation together equal to nothing, any of them will be the Root of the Equation.

And that you may not wonder that the same Equation may have several Roots, you must know that there may be more Solutions [than one] of the same Problem. As if there was sought the Interfection of two given Circles; there are two Interfections, and consequently the Question admits two Answers; and then the Equation determining the

Isaac Newton, *Universal Arithmetick*, 1728:

p. 195: "it is just that the Roots of Equations should be often impossible, lest they should exhibit the cases of Problems that are impossible as if they are possible" — complex numbers as an indicator of real-world solvability of problems

Complex numbers in the 18th century (4)

Leonhard Euler also used them freely:
e.g., in *Introductio in analysin
infinitorum*, 1748, §138:

$$e^{+\nu\sqrt{-1}} = \cos . \nu + \sqrt{-1} . \sin . \nu$$

$$e^{-\nu\sqrt{-1}} = \cos . \nu - \sqrt{-1} . \sin . \nu$$

(See *Mathematics emerging*, §9.2.3)



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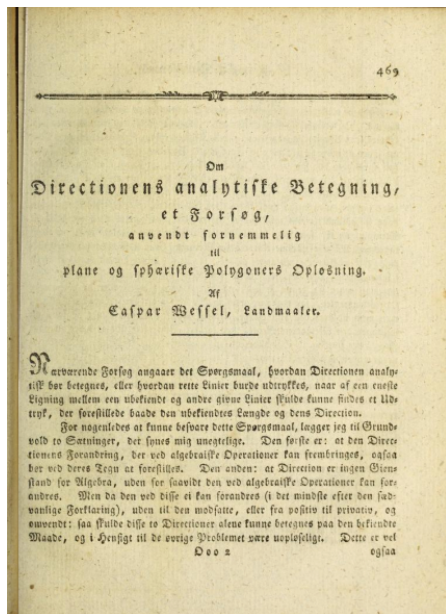
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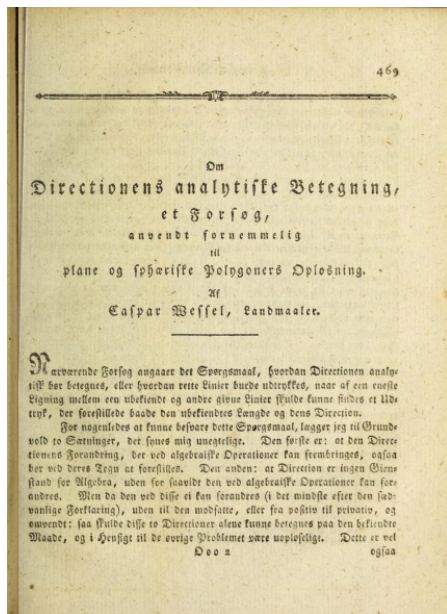
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- ▶ 1806: new proof by Argand
- ▶ 1821: Argand's proof appears in Cauchy's *Cours d'analyse*

New ways of viewing complex numbers



Caspar Wessel, 'Om Directionens analytiske Betegning ...' ['On the analytic representation of direction ...'], *Nye Samling af det Kongelige Danske Videnskabers Selskabs Skrifter*, 1799

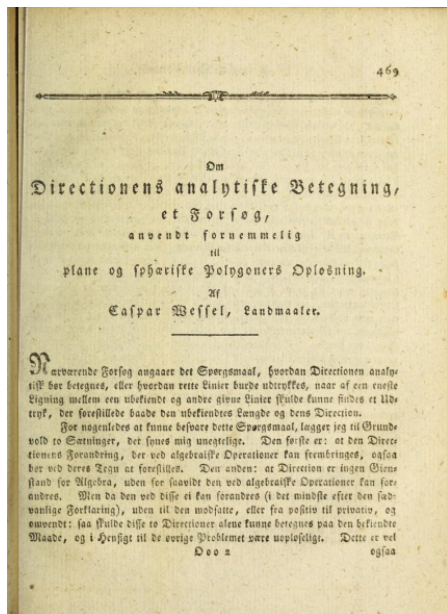
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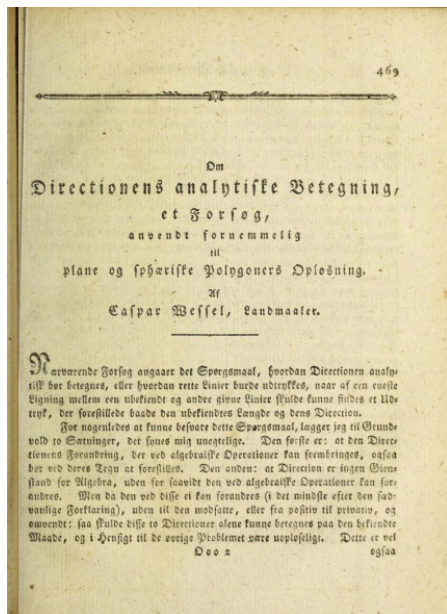
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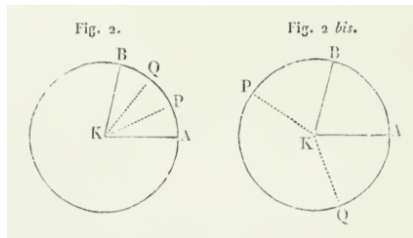
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French translation published in 1897

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Robert Argand, *Essay on a method of representing imaginary quantities . . .*, 1806



New ways of viewing complex numbers

*Transactions of the Royal Irish
Academy, 1837*

Complex numbers as ordered
pairs subject to specified rules:

*Theory of Conjugate Functions, or Algebraic Couples; with a Preliminary and
Elementary Essay on Algebra as the Science of Pure Time.*

By WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON,

*M.R.I.A., F.R.A.S., Hon. M.R.S.Ed. and Dub., Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and
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Astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Royal Astronomer of Ireland.*

Read November 4th, 1833, and June 1st, 1835.

General Introductory Remarks.

THE Study of Algebra may be pursued in three very different schools, the Practical, the Philological, or the Theoretical, according as Algebra itself is accounted an Instrument, or a Language, or a Contemplation; according as ease of operation, or symmetry of expression, or clearness of thought, (the *opere*, the *fari*, or the *aspere*,) is eminently prized and sought for. The Practical person seeks a Rule which he may apply, the Philological person seeks a Formula which he may write, the Theoretical person seeks a Theorem on which he may meditate. The felt imperfections of Algebra are of three answering kinds. The Practical Algebraist complains of imperfection when he finds his Instrument limited in power; when a rule, which he could happily apply to many cases, can be hardly or not at all applied by him to some new case; when it fails to enable him to do or to discover something else, in some other Art, or in some other Science, to which Algebra with him was but subordinate, and for the sake of which and not for its own sake, he studied Algebra. The Philological Algebraist complains of imperfection, when his Language presents him with an Anomaly; when he finds an Exception disturb the simplicity of his Notation, or the symmetrical structure of his Syntax; when a Formula must be written with precaution, and a Symbolism is not universal. The Theoretical Algebraist complains of imperfection, when the clearness of his Contemplation is obscured; when the Reasonings of his Science seem anywhere to oppose each other, or become in any part too complex or too little valid for his belief to rest firmly upon them; or when, though trial may have taught him that a rule is useful, or that a formula gives true results, he cannot prove that rule, nor understand that formula: when he cannot rise to intuition from induction, or cannot look beyond the signs to the things signified.

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Led to the search for **triples**, and thence to **quaternions**

Part 2: Functions of a Complex Variable

Complex analysis

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- ▶ Cauchy (1814): inspired by Laplace, set to work on the problem

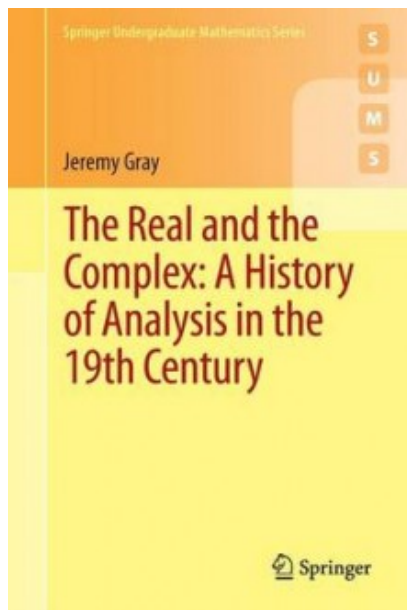
Sources for the origins of complex analysis

Secondary:

- ▶ Katz: §17.3 (3rd ed.); §22.3 (brief ed.)
- ▶ Frank Smithies: *Cauchy and the creation of complex function theory*, Cambridge University Press, 1997

Primary: as quoted by Smithies; some extracts reproduced in *Mathematics emerging*, §15.2.

Real and complex analysis united



Cauchy as 'creator' of complex analysis

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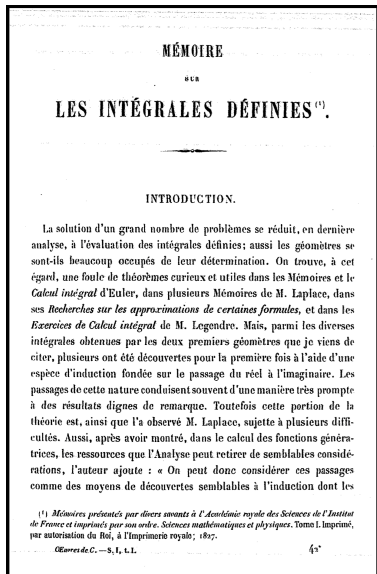
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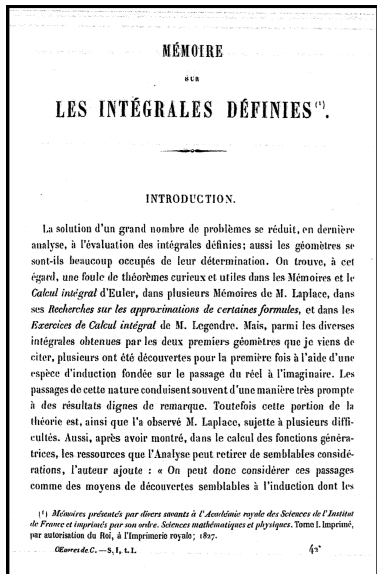
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Cauchy's first 'Mémoire' (1814/1827)



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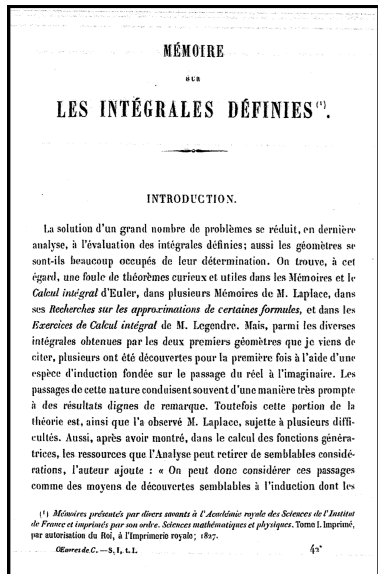


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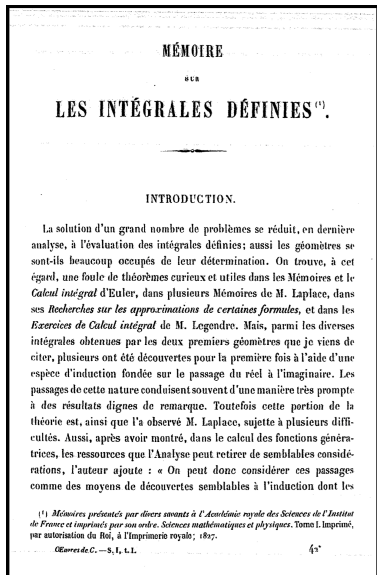


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Complex numbers in the *Cours d'analyse* (1821)

176

COURS D'ANALYSE.

toute expression symbolique de la forme

$$a + \zeta \sqrt{-1},$$

a , ζ désignant deux quantités réelles; et l'on dit que deux expressions imaginaires

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sont *égales* entre elles, lorsqu'il y a égalité de part et d'autre, 1.^o entre les parties réelles a et γ , 2.^o entre les coefficients de $\sqrt{-1}$, savoir, ζ et δ . L'égalité de deux expressions imaginaires s'indique, comme celle de deux quantités réelles, par le signe =; et il en résulte ce qu'on appelle une *équation imaginaire*. Cela posé, toute équation imaginaire n'est que la représentation symbolique de deux équations entre quantités réelles. Par exemple, l'équation symbolique

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Consideration of multi-functions — which are the most natural branches to take?

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sont *égales* entre elles, lorsqu'il y a égalité de part et d'autre, 1.^o entre les parties réelles a et γ , 2.^o entre les coefficients de $\sqrt{-1}$, savoir, ζ et δ . L'égalité de deux expressions imaginaires s'indique, comme celle de deux quantités réelles, par le signe =; et il en résulte ce qu'on appelle une *équation imaginaire*. Cela posé, toute équation imaginaire n'est que la représentation symbolique de deux équations entre quantités réelles. Par exemple, l'équation symbolique

$$a + \zeta \sqrt{-1} = \gamma + \delta \sqrt{-1}$$

équivalent seule aux deux équations réelles

$$a = \gamma, \quad \zeta = \delta.$$

Lorsque, dans l'expression imaginaire

$$a + \zeta \sqrt{-1},$$

le coefficient ζ de $\sqrt{-1}$ s'évanouit, le terme $\zeta \sqrt{-1}$ est censé réduit à zéro, et l'expression elle-même à la quantité réelle a . En vertu de cette convention, les expressions imaginaires comprennent, comme cas particuliers, les quantités réelles.

Les expressions imaginaires peuvent être sou-

Defined as “symbolic expressions”

$$a + b\sqrt{-1}$$

55-page development of formal definitions and properties

Consideration of multi-functions — which are the most natural branches to take?

Sought to extend ideas for real functions to the complex case, particularly those relating to power series and convergence

Cauchy's second 'Mémoire' (1825)

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Direct adaptation of definition of real integral to the complex case:

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Direct adaptation of definition of real integral to the complex case:

$$\int_{x_0 + y_0\sqrt{-1}}^{X + Y\sqrt{-1}} f(z) dz$$

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NB. No explicit definition of a function of a complex variable; tacit assumption of differentiability, hence that the Cauchy–Riemann equations hold.

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(Gauss had found this in 1811, alongside a similar definition of a complex integral, but did not publish.)

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For the case where $f(x + y\sqrt{-1})$ becomes infinite at the point $x = a, y = b$, Cauchy considered the limit

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With a natural extension of this result for multiple and/or higher-order singularities, this became an ancestor of **Cauchy's residue theorem** — developed as part of Cauchy's **calculus of residues** in a paper of 1826 ('Sur un nouveau genre de calcul').

Taylor's Theorem for complex analytic functions

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1841: extension to negative powers — Laurent's Theorem.

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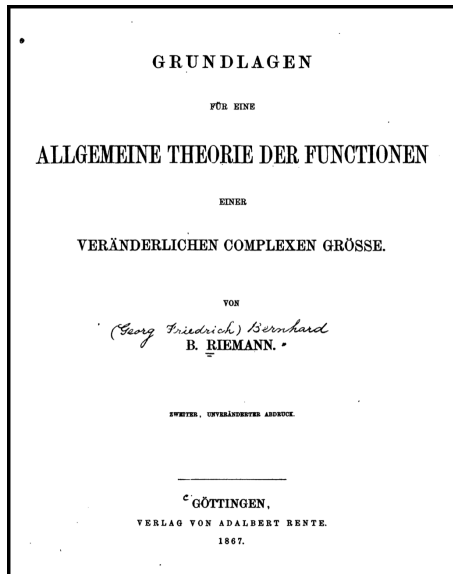
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Point to note: Cauchy may be credited with many of the fundamental ideas of complex analysis, **but this does not mean that they appeared fully-formed.**

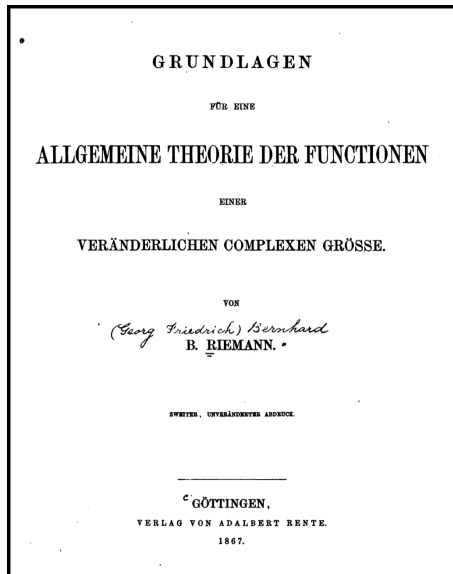
Riemann on complex analysis



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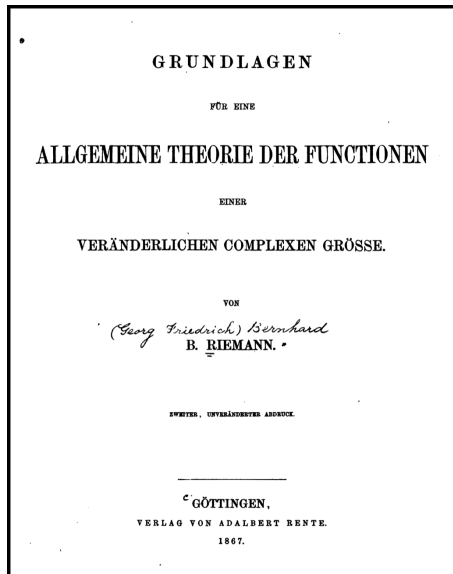


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That is: $\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z+\delta) - f(z)}{\delta}$ exists

Riemann on complex analysis

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Für die folgenden Betrachtungen beschränken wir die Veränderlichkeit der Grössen x, y auf ein endliches Gebiet, indem wir als Ort des Punktes O nicht mehr die Ebene A selbst, sondern eine über dieselbe ausgebreitete Fläche T betrachten. Wir wählen diese Einkleidung, bei der es unanstössig sein wird, von aufeinander liegenden Flächen zu reden, um die Möglichkeit offen zu lassen, dass der Ort des Punktes O über denselben Theil der Ebene sich mehrfach erstrecke; setzen jedoch für einen solchen Fall voraus, dass die auf einander liegenden Flächen-theile nicht längs einer Linie zusammenhängen, so dass eine Umfaltung der Fläche, oder eine Spaltung in auf einander liegende Theile nicht vorkommt.

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so erhält, dass er und zwar nur dann für je zwei Werthe von dx und dy denselben Werth haben wird, wenn

$$\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dy} \quad \text{und} \quad \frac{dv}{dx} = -\frac{du}{dy}$$

ist. Diese Bedingungen sind also hinreichend und notwendig, damit $w = u + vi$ eine Function von $z = x + yi$ sei. Für die einzelnen Glieder dieser Function fliessen aus ihnen die folgenden:

$$\frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 u}{dy^2} = 0, \quad \frac{d^2 v}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 v}{dy^2} = 0,$$

welche für die Untersuchung der Eigenschaften, die einem Gliede einer solchen Function einzeln betrachtet zukommen, die Grundlage bilden. Wir werden den Beweis für die wichtigsten dieser Eigenschaften einer eingehenderen Betrachtung der vollständigen Function voraufgeben lassen, zuvor aber noch einige Punkte, welche allgemeineren Gebieten angehören, erörtern und festlegen, um uns den Boden für jene Untersuchungen zu ebenen.

5.

Für die folgenden Betrachtungen beschränken wir die Veränderlichkeit der Grössen x, y auf ein endliches Gebiet, indem wir als Ort des Punktes O nicht mehr die Ebene A selbst, sondern eine über dieselbe ausgebreitete Fläche T betrachten. Wir wählen diese Einkleidung, bei der es unanständig sein wird, von aufeinander liegenden Flächen zu reden, um die Möglichkeit offen zu lassen, dass der Ort des Punktes O über denselben Theil der Ebene sich mehrfach erstrecke; setzen jedoch für einen solchen Fall voraus, dass die auf einander liegenden Flächenstücke nicht längs einer Linie zusammenhängen, so dass eine Umfaltung der Fläche, oder eine Spaltung in auf einander liegende Theile nicht vorkommt.

Die Anzahl der in jedem Theile der Ebene auf einander liegenden Flächenstücke ist alsdann vollkommen bestimmt, wenn die Begrenzung der Lage und dem Sinne nach (d. h. ihre innere und äussere Seite) gegeben ist; ihr Verlauf kann sich jedoch noch verschieden gestalten.

In der That, ziehen wir durch den von der Fläche bedeckten Theil der Ebene eine beliebige Linie l , so ändert sich die Anzahl der über einander liegenden Flächenstücke nur beim Ueberschreiten der Begrenzung, und zwar beim Uebertritt von Aussen nach Innen um $+1$, im entgegengesetzten Falle um -1 , und ist also überall bestimmt. Längs des Ufers dieser Linie setzt sich nun jeder angrenzende Flächenstück auf ganz bestimmte Art fort, so lange die Linie die Begrenzung nicht trifft, da eine Unbestimmtheit jedenfalls nur in einem einzelnen Punkte und also entweder in einem Punkte der Linie selbst oder in einer endlichen Entfernung von derselben Statt hat; wir können daher, wenn wir unsere Betrachtung auf einen im Innern der Fläche verlaufenden Theil der Linie l und zu beiden Seiten auf einen hinreichend kleinen Flächenstreifen beschränken, von bestimmten angrenzenden Flächenstücken reden, deren Anzahl auf jeder Seite gleich ist, und die wir, indem wir der Linie eine bestimmte Richtung beilegen, auf der Linken mit a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , auf der Rechten mit a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n bezeichnen. Jeder Flächenstück a wird sich dann in einem der Flächenstücke a' fortsetzen; dieser wird zwar im Allgemeinen für den ganzen Lauf der Linie l derselbe sein, kann sich jedoch für besondere Lagen von l in einem ihrer Punkte ändern. Nehmen wir an, dass oberhalb eines solchen Punktes σ (d. h.

Cauchy–Riemann equations now taken as fundamental to the theory

Other key concepts appear explicitly:

- ▶ harmonic functions;
- ▶ conformality (a complex function preserves angles wherever its derivative does not vanish);
- ▶ ...

Early impact limited by abstraction and restricted publication