

## IV.6. The Homotopic Version of Cauchy's Theorem and Simple Connectivity

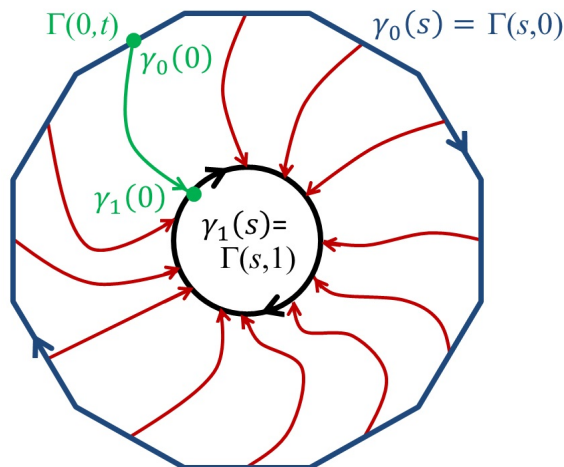
**Note.** In this section, we give a more thorough version of Cauchy's Theorem. Informally, we show that if path  $\gamma_0$  can be continuously transformed into path  $\gamma_1$  over the region of analyticity of function  $f$ , then  $\int_{\gamma_0} f = \int_{\gamma_1} f$ . This is accomplished in Cauchy's Theorem, Third Version (Theorem IV.6.7). The process of continuously transforming is accomplished through a "homotopy."

**Definition IV.6.1.** Let  $\gamma_0, \gamma_1 : [0, 1] \rightarrow G$  be two closed rectifiable curves in a region  $G$ . Then  $\gamma_0$  is *homotopic* to  $\gamma_1$  in  $G$  if there is a continuous function  $\Gamma : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow G$  such that

$$\begin{cases} \Gamma(s, 0) = \gamma_0(s) \text{ and } \Gamma(s, 1) = \gamma_1(s) \text{ for } s \in [0, 1] \\ \Gamma(0, t) = \Gamma(1, t) \text{ for } t \in [0, 1]. \end{cases}$$

$\Gamma$  is a *homotopy*, and this is denoted  $\gamma_0 \sim \gamma_1$  (where  $G$  is understood).

**Note.** Closed rectifiable paths  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$ , and homotopy  $\Gamma$  are related as follows:



**Note.** We have that for each  $t \in [0, 1]$ ,  $\gamma_t(s) = \Gamma(s, t)$  is closed. However, we do not require  $\gamma_t(s)$  to be rectifiable, though this will, in practice, be the case.

**Note IV.6.A.** It is fairly easy to show that “homotopic,”  $\sim$ , is an equivalence relation. We have that  $\sim$  is reflexive and  $\gamma \sim \gamma$ , as is shown by homotopy  $\Gamma(s, t) = \gamma(s)$ . If  $\gamma_0 \sim \gamma_1$  under homotopy  $\Gamma(s, t)$ , then  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_0$  as is shown by homotopy  $\Lambda(s, t) = \Gamma(s, 1 - t)$ . Hence  $\sim$  is symmetric. Suppose  $\gamma_0 \sim \gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ , say under homotopies  $\Gamma(s, t)$  and  $\Lambda(s, t)$  respectively. Then

$$\Phi(s, t) = \begin{cases} \Gamma(s, 2t) & \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq 1/2 \\ \Lambda(s, 2t - 1) & \text{for } 1/2 < t \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

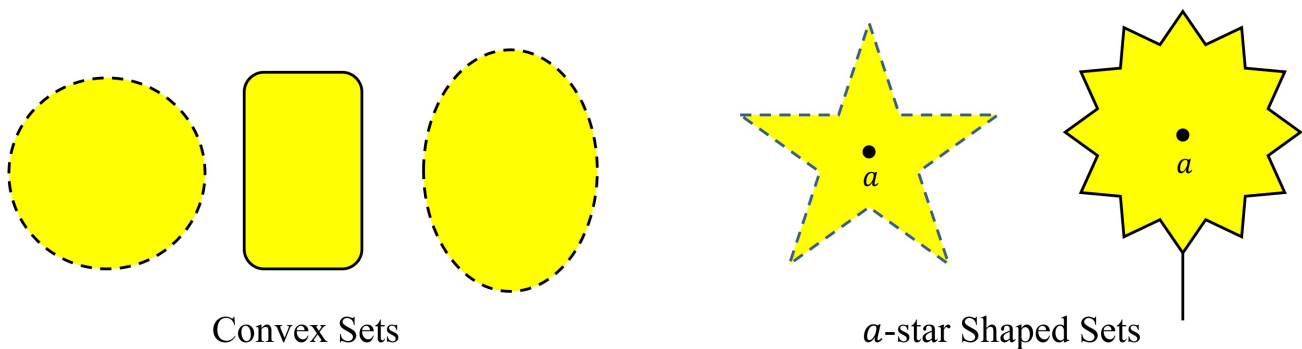
is a homotopy between  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_2$ , so that  $\sim$  is transitive. Therefore,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

**Note IV.6.B.** In [Section IV.4. The Index of a Closed Curve](#) we saw how to find the inverse of a path  $\gamma$  (we denoted the inverse as  $-\gamma$ ) and how to add paths  $\gamma$  and  $\sigma$  where  $\gamma(1) = \sigma(0)$  (denoted  $\gamma + \sigma$ ). We now give a brief description of the use of these ideas in the area of algebraic topology. This information can be found in Appendix A of Andrew Wallace's *Algebraic Topology: Homology and Cohomology* (NY: W. A. Benjamin, 1970). This book is still in print through Dover Publications, but can also be viewed online on the [archive.org](#) (accessed 12/6/2023). We can form a group out of the equivalence classes of closed paths “based” at some point  $x \in E$ . It can also be shown that the set of equivalence classes (called *homotopy classes*) of closed paths based at  $x$  form a group under the operation  $+$  given in our Section IV.4 (Theorem A-6). This group is called the *fundamental group of E*

with respect to the base point  $x$  and is denoted  $\pi(E, x)$  (Definition A-9). If points  $x, y \in E$  can be joined by a path in  $E$ , then  $\pi(E, x) \cong \pi(E, y)$  (Theorem A-7). In fact, the fundamental group of a space  $E$  is a topological invariant of the space; that is, if spaces  $E$  and  $F$  are homeomorphic (i.e., there is a one to one and onto continuous mapping from  $E$  to  $F$ ) then the fundamental group of  $E$  is isomorphic to the fundamental group of  $F$  (Exercise A-4).

**Definition.** A set  $G$  is *convex* if given any two points  $a$  and  $b$  in  $G$ , the line segment joining  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $[a, b]$ , lies entirely in  $G$ . The set  $G$  is *star shaped* if there is a point  $a$  in  $G$  such that for each  $z \in G$ , the line segment  $[a, z]$  lies entirely in  $G$ . Such a set is *a-star shaped*.

**Note.** Some examples of convex and  $a$ -star shaped sets are the following:



**Proposition IV.6.4.** Let  $G$  be an open set which is  $a$ -star shaped. If  $\gamma_0$  is the curve which is constantly equal to  $a$  (that is,  $\gamma_0(t) = a$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ ), then every closed rectifiable curve in  $G$  is homotopic to  $\gamma_0$ .

**Definition.** If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in  $G$  then  $\gamma$  is *homotopic to zero* ( $\gamma \sim 0$ ) if  $\gamma$  is homotopic to a constant curve.

**Note.** The equivalence class of all curves homotopic to zero form the identity element in the fundamental group of  $G$  (hence the terminology).

**Note.** We now link Cauchy's Theorem to curve homotopy. The Second Version of Cauchy's Theorem is a special case of the Third Version. We offer a proof of the Third Version, so we skip a proof of the Second Version.

**Theorem IV.6.6. Cauchy's Theorem (Second Version).**

If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is an analytic function and  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in  $G$  such that  $\gamma \sim 0$ , then  $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$ .

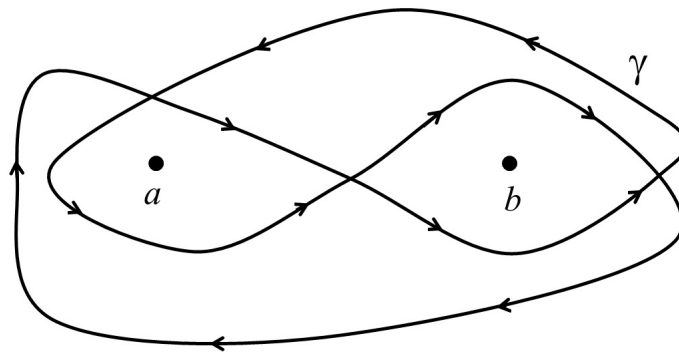
**Theorem IV.6.7. Cauchy's Theorem (Third Version).**

If  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  are two closed rectifiable curves in  $G$  and  $\gamma_0 \sim \gamma_1$ , then  $\int_{\gamma_0} f = \int_{\gamma_1} f$  for every function  $f$  analytic on  $G$ .

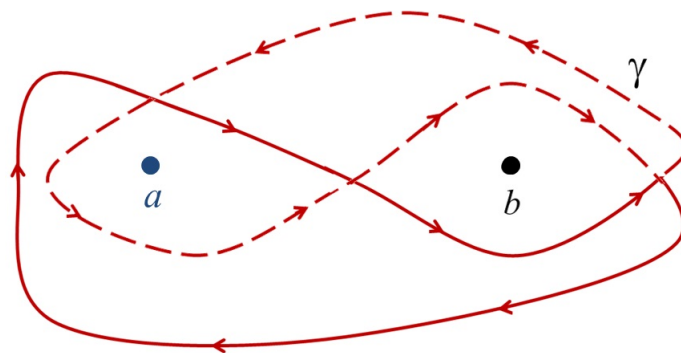
**Note.** The big idea in the proof of Cauchy's Theorem—Third Version is to get integrals over little quadrilaterals that lie inside small disks which are subsets of  $G$ , then to use Proposition IV.2.15. Now for the lengthy [proof of Theorem IV.6.7](#).

**Corollary IV.6.10.** If  $\gamma$  is a closed rectifiable curve in  $G$  such that  $\gamma \sim 0$ , then  $n(\gamma; w) = 0$  for all  $w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus G$ .

**Note.** The converse of Corollary 6.10 does not hold. Consider, for example, Problem IV.6.8: Let  $G = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{a, b\}$ ,  $a \neq b$ , and  $\gamma$ :



Then for all  $w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus G$  (which is just  $w = a$  and  $w = b$ ) we have  $n(\gamma; a) = n(\gamma; b) = 0$ :



$$n(\gamma; a) = 1 - 1 = 0$$

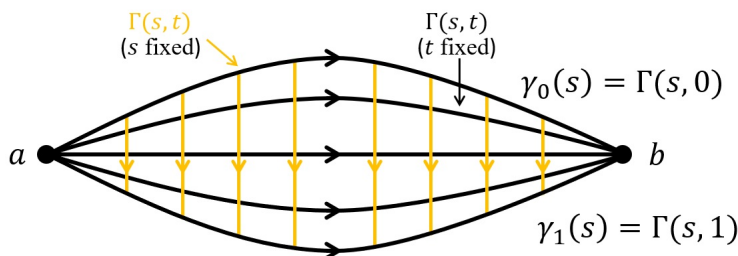
$$n(\gamma; b) = 0 - 0 = 0$$

However  $\gamma \not\sim 0$  (“convince yourself” as the text says—imagine nails at  $a$  and  $b$  and  $\gamma$  as a loop of string).

**Note.** Next we consider homotopy of non-closed rectifiable curves.

**Definition.** If  $\gamma_0, \gamma_1 : [0, 1] \rightarrow G$  are two rectifiable curves in  $G$  such that  $\gamma_0(0) = \gamma_1(0) = a$  and  $\gamma_0(1) = \gamma_1(1) = b$ . Then  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  are *fixed-end-point homotopic* (“FEP” homotopic) if there is a continuous map  $\Gamma : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow G$  such that

$$\begin{cases} \Gamma(s, 0) = \gamma_0(s) \text{ and } \Gamma(s, 1) = \gamma_1(s) \text{ for } s \in [0, 1] \\ \Gamma(0, t) = a \text{ and } \Gamma(1, t) = b \text{ for } t \in [0, 1]. \end{cases}$$



**Note.** For two given points  $a, b \in G$ , the relation of fixed-end-point homotopic between curves with  $a$  and  $b$  as their initial and final end points (respectively) is an equivalence relation, as to be shown in Exercise IV.6.3. If  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  are rectifiable curves from  $a$  to  $b$ , then  $\gamma_0 + (-\gamma_1) = \gamma_0 - \gamma_1$  is a closed rectifiable curve. Suppose  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  are fixed-end-point homotopic, and let  $\Gamma$  be the homotopy. Define  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow G$  as

$$\gamma(s) = \begin{cases} \gamma_0(3s) & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq 1/3 \\ b & \text{for } 1/3 < s < 2/3 \\ -\gamma_1(3 - 3s) & \text{for } 2/3 \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Notice that  $\gamma$  starts at  $a$ , traces out  $\gamma_0$  to  $b$ , “sits” at  $b$  (for  $1/3 \leq s \leq 2/3$ ), and

then traces out  $-\gamma_1$  back to  $a$ . We now show that  $\gamma \sum 0$ . Define  $\Lambda : I^2 \rightarrow G$  as

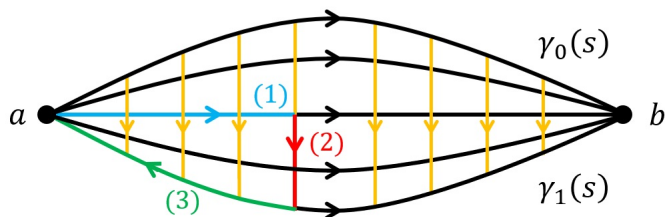
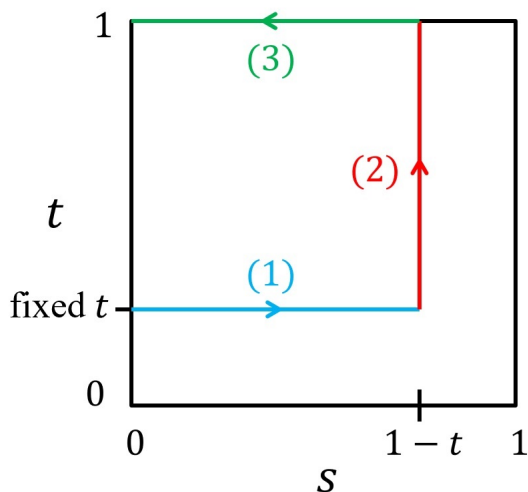
$$\Lambda(s, t) = \begin{cases} \Gamma(3s(1-t), t) & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq 1/3 \\ \Gamma(1-t, 3s-1+2t-3st) & \text{for } 1/3 < s < 2/3 \\ \gamma_1((3-3s)(1-t)) & \text{for } 2/3 \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Since

$$\Gamma(3s(1-t), t)|_{s=1/3} = \Gamma(1-t, t) = \gamma(1-t, 3s-1+2t-3st)|_{s=1/3},$$

$$\Gamma(1-t, 3s-1+2t-3st)|_{s=2/3} = \Gamma(1-t, 1) = -\gamma_1(t) = \gamma_1((3-3s)(1-t))|_{s=2/3},$$

and  $\Gamma$  and  $\gamma_1$  are continuous, then  $\Lambda(s, t)$  is continuous on  $I^2$ . Notice that for a fixed value of  $t$ , the first piece of  $\Lambda$  takes on the same values as  $\Gamma(s, t)$  for  $s$  ranging from 0 to  $1-t$ , the second piece of  $\Lambda$  takes on the same values as  $\Gamma(1-t, t')$  for  $t'$  ranging from  $t$  to 1, and the third piece of  $\Lambda$  takes on the same values as  $-\gamma_1(t')$  for  $t'$  ranging from  $1-t$  to 0. See the figure below.



Now  $\Lambda(0, t) = \Gamma(0, t) = a$  and  $\Lambda(1, t) = -\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_1(1) = b$ . Also

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(s, 0) &= \begin{cases} \Gamma(3s, 0) & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq 1/3 \\ \Gamma(1, 3s - 1) & \text{for } 1/3 < s < 2/3 \\ \gamma_1(3 - 3s) & \text{for } 2/3 \leq s \leq 1 \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} \gamma_0(3s) & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq 1/3 \\ b & \text{for } 1/3 < s < 2/3 \\ \gamma_1(3 - 3s) & \text{for } 2/3 \leq s \leq 1 \end{cases} \\ &= \gamma(s), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(s, 1) &= \begin{cases} \Gamma(0, t) & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq 1/3 \\ \Gamma(0, 1) & \text{for } 1/3 < s < 2/3 \\ \gamma_1(0) & \text{for } 2/3 \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} a & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq 1/3 \\ a & \text{for } 1/3 < s < 2/3 \\ a & \text{for } 2/3 \leq s \leq 1 \end{cases} \\ &= a. \end{aligned}$$

So by definition,  $\gamma$  is a constant curve (i.e.,  $\gamma(t) = a$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ ) and  $\gamma \sim 0$ . By Cauchy's Theorem Second Version (Theorem 6.6) we have  $\int_{\gamma} f = \int_{\gamma_0 - \gamma_1} f = 0$ , from which we get the next theorem.

**Theorem IV.6.13. Independence of Path Theorem.**

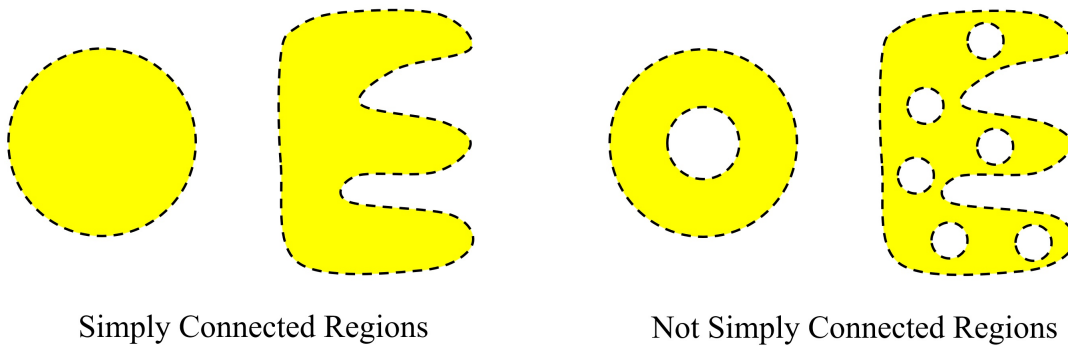
If  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  are two rectifiable curves in  $G$  from  $a$  and  $b$  and  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  are fixed-end-point homotopic then  $\int_{\gamma_0} f = \int_{\gamma_1} f$  for any function  $f$  analytic in  $G$ .



**Note.** The following definition is really a topological concept.

**Definition.** An open set  $G$  is *simply connected* if  $G$  is connected and every closed curve  $\gamma$  is homotopic to zero.

**Note.** A region is simply connected if it is connected and has “no holes”:



**Note.** We have already seen a region that is not simple in connection with Cauchy's Theorem (First Version). See Note IV-5-A. In that case we required that simple closed curves  $\gamma_k$  have winding numbers which sum to 0 got all points outside of region  $G$  on which function  $f$  is analytic (i.e.,  $\sum_{k=1}^m N(\gamma_k; w) = 0$  for all  $w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus G$ ). This insured that the sum of the integrals over the  $\gamma_k$  of  $f$  was 0. In the next version of Cauchy's Theorem, we consider only one closed rectifiable curve, but we have region  $G$  as a simply connected so that the winding number of  $\gamma$  about all points outside of  $G$  is 0. Predictably, this implies that the integral of  $f$  over  $\gamma$  is 0.

**Theorem IV.6.15. Cauchy's Theorem (Fourth Version).**

If  $G$  is simply connected then  $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$  for every closed rectifiable curve and every analytic function  $f$  on  $G$ .

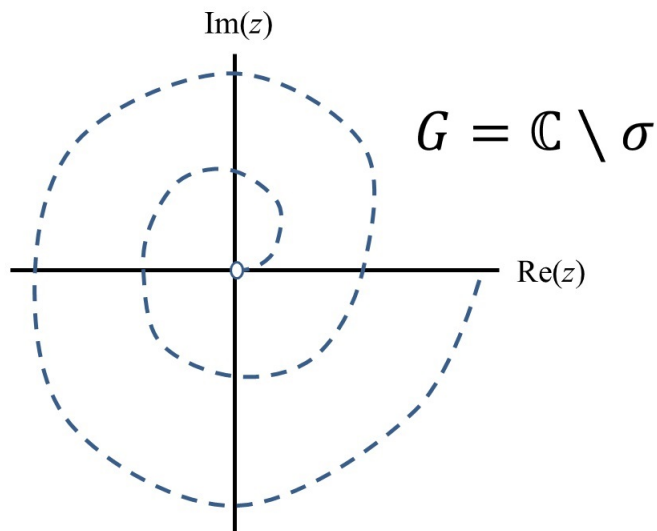
**Note.** The following brings primitives back into the picture. Recall that  $\int_{\gamma} f = 0$  if  $\gamma$  is closed and  $f$  is continuous with a primitive on  $G$  (by Theorem IV.1.18, our Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, or by Corollary IV.1.22).

**Corollary IV.6.16.** If open  $G$  is simply connected and  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic in  $G$  then  $f$  has a primitive in  $G$ .

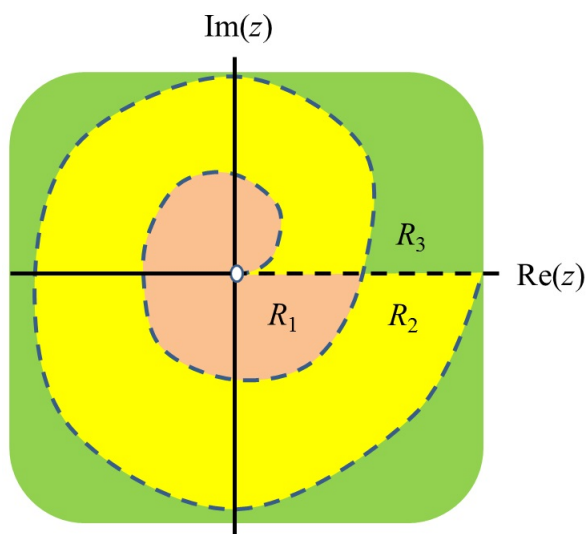
**Note.** The Next result is similar to Corollary 6.16, but deals with branches of the logarithm.

**Corollary IV.6.17.** Let  $G$  be simply connected and let  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be an analytic function such that  $f(z) \neq 0$  for any  $z \in G$ . Then there is an analytic function  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $f(z) = \exp(g(z))$  (i.e.,  $g$  is a branch of  $\log(f(z))$  on  $G$ ). If  $z_0 \in G$  and  $e^{w_0} = f(z_0)$ , we may choose  $g$  such that  $g(z_0) = w_0$ .

**Note.** Corollary 6.17 verifies some observations we have made about branches of the logarithm. For example, let  $\sigma = \{z \mid z = te^{it}, t \in [0, \infty)\}$ :



Then  $G$  is simply connected,  $f(z) = z$  is nonzero on  $G$ , and so there is a branch of the logarithm on  $G$ . One such branch can be defined as follows. Consider a partition of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \sigma$  into regions:



For  $z \in R_n$  define  $\log(z) = \log |z| + \theta i$  where  $\theta$  is an argument of  $z$  in  $(2\pi(n-1), 2\pi n]$ .

*Revised: 12/7/2023*