## Course 214

# Section 1: Basic Theorems of Complex Analysis

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## 1 Basic Theorems of Complex Analysis

#### 1.1 The Complex Plane

A complex number is a number of the form x + iy, where x and y are real numbers, and  $i^2 = -1$ . The real numbers x and y are uniquely determined by the complex number x + iy, and are referred to as the real and imaginary parts of this complex number.

The algebraic operations of addition, subtraction and multiplication are defined on complex numbers according to the formulae

$$(x+yi)+(u+iv) = (x+u)+i(y+v), \quad (x+yi)-(u+iv) = (x-u)+i(y-v),$$
  
 $(x+yi)\times(u+iv) = (xu-yv)+i(xv+yu),$ 

where x, y, u and v are real numbers.

We regard a real number x as coinciding with the complex number  $x + i \times 0$ . Note that the operations of addition, subtraction and multiplication of complex numbers defined as above extend the corresponding operations on the set of real numbers.

The set  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers, with the operations of addition and multiplication defined above, has the following properties:

- (i)  $z_1 + z_2 = z_2 + z_1$  for all  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ ;
- (ii)  $z_1 + (z_2 + z_3) = (z_1 + z_2) + z_3$  for all  $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{C}$ ;
- (iii) there exists a complex number 0 with the property that z+0=0+z=z for all complex numbers z;
- (iv) given any complex number z, there exists a complex number -z such that z + (-z) = (-z) + z = 0;
- (v)  $z_1 \times z_2 = z_2 \times z_1$  for all  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ ;
- (vi)  $z_1 \times (z_2 \times z_3) = z_1 \times (z_2 \times z_3)$  for all  $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{C}$ ;
- (vii) there exists a complex number 1 with the property that  $z \times 1 = 1 \times z = z$  for all complex numbers z;
- (viii) given any complex number z satisfying  $z \neq 0$ , there exists a complex number  $z^{-1}$  such that  $z \times z^{-1} = z^{-1} \times z = 1$ ;
- (ix)  $z_1 \times (z_2 + z_3) = (z_1 \times z_2) + (z_1 \times z_3)$  and  $(z_1 + z_2) \times z_3 = (z_1 \times z_3) + (z_2 \times z_3)$  for all  $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{C}$ .

To verify property (viii), we note that if z is a non-zero complex number, where z = x + iy for some real numbers x and y, and if  $z^{-1}$  is given by the formula

$$z^{-1} = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} - i\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2},$$

then  $z \times z^{-1} = z^{-1} \times z = 1$ .

Given complex numbers z and w, with  $w \neq 0$ , we define the quotient z/w (i.e., z divided by w) by the formula  $z/w = zw^{-1}$ .

The conjugate  $\overline{z}$  of a complex number z is defined such that  $\overline{x+iy}=x-iy$  for all real numbers x and y. The modulus |z| of a complex number z is defined such that  $|x+iy|=\sqrt{x^2+y^2}$  for all real numbers x and y. Note that  $|\overline{z}|=|z|$  for all complex numbers z. Also  $\overline{z+w}=\overline{z}+\overline{w}$  for all complex numbers z and w. The real part Re z of a complex number satisfies the formula  $2\operatorname{Re} z=z+\overline{z}$ . Now  $|\operatorname{Re} z|\leq |z|$ . It follows that  $|z+\overline{z}|\leq 2|z|$  for all complex numbers z.

Straightforward calculations show that  $z\overline{z} = |z|^2$  for all complex numbers z, from which it easily follows that  $z^{-1} = |z|^{-2}\overline{z}$  for all non-zero complex numbers z.

Let z and w be complex numbers, and let z = x + iy and w = u + iv, where x, y, u and v are real numbers. Then

$$|zw|^{2} = (xu - yv)^{2} + (xv + yu)^{2}$$

$$= (x^{2}u^{2} + y^{2}v^{2} - 2xyuv) + (x^{2}v^{2} + y^{2}u^{2} + 2xyuv)$$

$$= (x^{2} + y^{2})(u^{2} + v^{2}) = |z|^{2} |w|^{2}$$

It follows that |zw| = |z| |w| for all complex numbers z and w.

Let z and w be complex numbers. Then

$$|z+w|^2 = (z+w)(\overline{z}+\overline{w}) = z\overline{z} + z\overline{w} + w\overline{z} + w\overline{w}$$

$$= |z|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re} z\overline{w} + |w|^2$$

$$\leq |z|^2 + 2|z\overline{w}| + |w|^2 = |z|^2 + 2|z||w| + |w|^2$$

$$= (|z| + |w|)^2.$$

It follows that  $|z+w| \leq |z| + |w|$  for all complex numbers z and w.

We define the *distance* from a complex number z to a complex number w to be the quantity |w-z|. Thus if z=x+iy and w=u+iv then

$$|w - z| = \sqrt{(x - u)^2 + (y - v)^2}.$$

We picture the complex numbers as representing points of the Euclidean plane. A complex number x + iy, where x and y are real numbers, represents the point of the plane whose Cartesian coordinates (with respect to an

appropriate origin) are (x, y). The fact that |w - z| represents the distance between the points of the plane represented by the complex numbers z and w is an immediate consequence of Pythagoras' Theorem.

Let  $z_1$ ,  $z_2$  and  $z_3$  be complex numbers. Then

$$|z_3 - z_1| = |(z_3 - z_2) + (z_2 - z_1)| \le |z_3 - z_2| + |z_2 - z_1|.$$

This important inequality is known as the *Triangle Inequality*. It corresponds to the geometric statement that the length of any side of a triangle in the Euclidean plane is less than or equal to the sum of the lengths of the other two sides.

#### 1.2 Infinite Sequences of Complex Numbers

**Definition** A sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  of complex numbers is said to *converge* to some complex number l if the following criterion is satisfied:

given any positive real number  $\varepsilon$ , there exists some natural number N such that  $|a_j - l| < \varepsilon$  for all natural numbers j satisfying  $j \ge N$ .

The complex number l is referred to as the limit of the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$ , and is denoted by  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j$ .

A sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  of complex numbers is said to be *bounded* if there exists some real number  $R \geq 0$  such that  $|a_j| \leq R$  for all positive integers j. Every convergent sequence of complex numbers is bounded.

**Example** Let w be a complex number satisfying |w| < 1. Then the infinite sequence  $w, w^2, w^3, \ldots$  converges to 0. Indeed suppose that  $\varepsilon > 0$  is given. We can choose some positive integer N large enough to ensure that  $|w|^N < \varepsilon$ . Then  $|w^j| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $j \ge N$ .

**Lemma 1.1** Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be an infinite sequence of complex numbers, and, for each positive integer j, let  $a_j = x_j + iy_j$ , where  $x_j$  and  $y_j$  are real numbers. Then  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j = l$  for some complex number l if and only if  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} x_j = p$  and  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} y_j = q$ , where p and q are real numbers satisfying p + iq = l.

**Proof** Let l be a complex number, and let l=p+iq, where p and q are real numbers. Suppose that  $\lim_{j\to+\infty}a_j=l$ . Then, given any positive real number  $\varepsilon$ ,

there exists some natural number N such that  $|a_j - l| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $j \ge N$ . But then  $|x_j - p| < \varepsilon$  and  $|y_j - q| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $j \ge N$ . We conclude that  $x_j \to p$  and  $y_j \to q$  as  $j \to +\infty$ .

Conversely suppose that  $\lim_{j\to+\infty} x_j = p$  and  $\lim_{j\to+\infty} y_j = q$ . Let some positive real number  $\varepsilon$  be given. Then there exist natural numbers  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  such that  $|x_j-p|<\varepsilon/\sqrt{2}$  whenever  $j\geq N_1$  and  $|y_j-q|<\varepsilon/\sqrt{2}$  whenever  $j\geq N_2$ . Let N be the maximum of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . If  $j\geq N$  then

$$|a_j - l|^2 = |x_j - p|^2 + |y_j - q|^2 < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 = \varepsilon^2,$$

and thus  $|a_j - l| < \varepsilon$ . This shows that  $a_j \to l$  as  $j \to +\infty$ , as required.

**Proposition 1.2** Let  $(a_j)$  and  $(b_j)$  be convergent infinite sequences of complex numbers. Then the sequences  $(a_j+b_j)$ ,  $(a_j-b_j)$  and  $(a_jb_j)$  are convergent, and

$$\lim_{j \to +\infty} (a_j + b_j) = \lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j + \lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j,$$

$$\lim_{j \to +\infty} (a_j - b_j) = \lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j - \lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j,$$

$$\lim_{j \to +\infty} (a_j b_j) = \left(\lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j\right) \left(\lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j\right).$$

If in addition  $b_j \neq 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j \neq 0$ , then the sequence  $(a_j/b_j)$  is convergent, and

$$\lim_{j \to +\infty} \frac{a_j}{b_j} = \frac{\lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j}{\lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j}.$$

**Proof** Let  $l = \lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j$  and  $m = \lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j$ .

Let some positive real number  $\varepsilon$  be given. It follows from the definition of limits that there exist natural numbers  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  such that  $|a_j - l| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  whenever  $j \geq N_1$  and  $|b_j - m| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  whenever  $j \geq N_2$ . Let N be the maximum of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . If  $j \geq N$  then

$$|a_j + b_j - (l+m)| \le |a_j - l| + |b_j - m| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon = \varepsilon.$$

Thus  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} (a_j + b_j) = l + m$ .

Let c be some complex number. We show that  $\lim_{j\to+\infty}(cb_j)=cm$ . Now, given any positive real number  $\varepsilon$ , we can choose a positive number  $\delta$  small enough to ensure that  $|c|\delta<\varepsilon$ . Now  $\lim_{j\to+\infty}b_j=m$ , and therefore there exists

some natural number N such that  $|b_j - m| < \delta$  whenever  $j \ge N$ . But then  $|cb_j - cm| = |c||b_j - m| \le |c|\delta < \varepsilon$  whenever  $j \ge N$ . This shows that  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} (cb_j) = cm$ .

On applying this result with c = -1, we see that  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} (-b_j) = -m$ . It follows that  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} (a_j - b_j) = l - m$ .

Next we prove that if  $u_1, u_2, u_3, \ldots$  and  $v_1, v_2, v_3, \ldots$  are infinite sequences of complex numbers, and if  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} u_j = 0$  and  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} v_j = 0$  then  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} (u_j v_j) = 0$ . Let some positive number  $\varepsilon$  be given. Then there exist positive integers  $N_3$  and  $N_4$  such that  $|u_j| < \sqrt{\varepsilon}$  whenever  $j \geq N_3$  and  $|v_j| < \sqrt{\varepsilon}$  whenever  $j \geq N_4$ . Let N be the maximum of  $N_3$  and  $N_4$ . If  $j \geq N$  then  $|u_j| < \sqrt{\varepsilon}$  and  $|v_j| < \sqrt{\varepsilon}$ , and therefore  $|u_j v_j| < \varepsilon$ . It follows that  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} (u_j v_j) = 0$ .

We can apply this result with  $u_j = a_j - l$  and  $v_j = b_j - m$  for all positive integers j, where Let  $l = \lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j$  and  $m = \lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j$ . Now  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} u_j = 0$  and  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} v_j = 0$ . It follows that

$$0 = \lim_{j \to +\infty} (u_j v_j) = \lim_{j \to +\infty} ((a_j - l)(b_j - m))$$

$$= \lim_{j \to +\infty} (a_j b_j - lb_j - ma_j + lm)$$

$$= \lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j b_j - l\lim_{j \to +\infty} b_j - m\lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j + lm = \lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j b_j - lm.$$

and therefore  $\lim_{j\to+\infty} (a_j b_j) = lm$ .

Finally suppose that  $b_j \neq 0$  for all positive integers j, and that  $m \neq 0$ . Then, given any positive real number  $\varepsilon$  there exists some natural number  $N_5$  such that

$$|b_j - m| < \frac{1}{2} |m|^2 \varepsilon$$
 and  $|b_j - m| < \frac{1}{2} |m|$ 

whenever  $j \geq N_5$ . But then if  $j \geq N_5$  then  $|b_j| \geq |m| - |b_j - m| > \frac{1}{2}|m|$ , and therefore

$$\left|\frac{1}{b_j} - \frac{1}{m}\right| = \left|\frac{m - b_j}{mb_j}\right| \le \frac{2}{|m|^2}|b_j - m| < \varepsilon.$$

Thus  $\lim_{j\to+\infty} (1/b_j) = 1/m$ . It follows that  $\lim_{j\to+\infty} (a_j/b_j) = l/m$ , as required.

#### 1.3 The Least Upper Bound Principle

A widely-used basic principle of real analysis, from which many important theorems ultimately derive, is the Least Upper Bound Principle.

Let S be a subset of the set  $\mathbb{R}$  of real numbers. A real number u is said to be an *upper bound* of the set S of  $x \leq u$  for all  $x \in S$ . The set S is said to be *bounded above* if such an upper bound exists.

**Definition** Let S be some set of real numbers which is bounded above. A real number s is said to be the *least upper bound* (or *supremum*) of S (denoted by  $\sup S$ ) if s is an upper bound of S and  $s \leq u$  for all upper bounds u of S.

**Example** The real number 2 is the least upper bound of the sets  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq 2\}$  and  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < 2\}$ . Note that the first of these sets contains its least upper bound, whereas the second set does not.

The Least Upper Bound Principle may be stated as follows:

given any non-empty S subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above, there exists a *least upper bound* sup S for the set S.

A lower bound of a set S of real numbers is a real number l with the property that  $l \leq x$  for all  $x \in S$ . A set S of real numbers is said to be bounded below if such a lower bound exists. If S is bounded below, then there exists a greatest lower bound (or infimum) inf S of the set S. Indeed inf  $S = -\sup\{x \in \mathbb{R} : -x \in S\}$ .

#### 1.4 Monotonic Sequences

An infinite sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  of real numbers is said to be *strictly increasing* if  $a_{j+1} > a_j$  for all j, *strictly decreasing* if  $a_{j+1} < a_j$  for all j, non-decreasing if  $a_{j+1} \ge a_j$  for all j, or non-increasing if  $a_{j+1} \le a_j$  for all j. A sequence satisfying any one of these conditions is said to be monotonic; thus a monotonic sequence is either non-decreasing or non-increasing.

**Theorem 1.3** Any bounded non-decreasing sequence of real numbers is is convergent. Similarly any bounded non-increasing sequence of real numbers is convergent.

**Proof** Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be a bounded non-decreasing sequence of real numbers. It follows from the Least Upper Bound Principle that there exists a least upper bound l for the set  $\{a_j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . We claim that the sequence converges to l.

Let  $\varepsilon>0$  be given. We must show that there exists some natural number N such that  $|a_j-l|<\varepsilon$  whenever  $j\geq N$ . Now  $l-\varepsilon$  is not an upper bound for the set  $\{a_j:j\in\mathbb{N}\}$  (since l is the least upper bound), and therefore there must exist some natural number N such that  $a_N>l-\varepsilon$ . But then  $l-\varepsilon< a_j\leq l$  whenever  $j\geq N$ , since the sequence is non-decreasing and bounded above by l. Thus  $|a_j-l|<\varepsilon$  whenever  $j\geq N$ . Therefore  $a_j\to l$  as  $j\to +\infty$ , as required.

If the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  is bounded and non-increasing then the sequence  $-a_1, -a_2, -a_3, \ldots$  is bounded and non-decreasing, and is therefore convergent. It follows that the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  is also convergent.

### 1.5 Upper and Lower Limits of Bounded Sequences of Real Numbers

Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be a bounded infinite sequence of real numbers, and, for each positive integer j, let

$$S_i = \{a_i, a_{i+1}, a_{i+2}, \ldots\} = \{a_k : k \ge j\}.$$

The sets  $S_1, S_2, S_3, \ldots$  are all bounded. It follows that there exist well-defined infinite sequences  $u_1, u_2, u_3, \ldots$  and  $l_1, l_2, l_3, \ldots$  of real numbers, where  $u_j = \sup S_j$  and  $l_j = \inf S_j$  for all positive integers j. Now  $S_{j+1}$  is a subset of  $S_j$  for each positive integer j, and therefore  $u_{j+1} \leq u_j$  and  $l_{j+1} \geq l_j$  for each positive integer j. It follows that the bounded infinite sequence  $(u_j: j \in \mathbb{N})$  is a non-increasing sequence, and is therefore convergent (Theorem 1.3). Similarly the bounded infinite sequence  $(l_j: j \in \mathbb{N})$  is a non-decreasing sequence, and is therefore convergent. We define

$$\lim \sup_{j \to +\infty} a_j = \lim_{j \to +\infty} u_j = \lim_{j \to +\infty} \sup \{a_j, a_{j+1}, a_{j+2}, \ldots\},$$
  
$$\lim \inf_{j \to +\infty} a_j = \lim_{j \to +\infty} l_j = \lim_{j \to +\infty} \inf \{a_j, a_{j+1}, a_{j+2}, \ldots\}.$$

The quantity  $\limsup_{j\to +\infty} a_j$  is referred to as the *upper limit* of the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  The quantity  $\liminf_{j\to +\infty} a_j$  is referred to as the *lower limit* of the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$ 

Note that every bounded infinite sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  of real numbers has a well-defined upper limit  $\limsup_{j \to +\infty} a_j$  and a well-defined lower limit  $\liminf_{j \to +\infty} a_j$ .

**Lemma 1.4** Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be a bounded infinite sequence of real numbers, and let  $u = \limsup_{j \to +\infty} a_j$ . Then, given any positive real number  $\varepsilon$ , and given any positive integer N, there exists a positive integer j such that  $j \geq N$  and  $|a_j - u| < \varepsilon$ .

**Proof** It follows from the definition of upper limits that  $u = \lim_{j \to +\infty} u_j$ , where  $u_j = \sup\{a_k : k \geq j\}$ . Moreover the infinite sequence  $u_1, u_2, u_3, \ldots$  is non-increasing. Therefore there exists some positive integer m such that  $m \geq N$  and  $u \leq u_m < u + \varepsilon$ . Then  $a_j \leq u_m < u + \varepsilon$  whenever  $j \geq m$ . Moreover  $u - \varepsilon$  is not an upper bound on the set  $\{a_j : j \geq m\}$ , because  $u_m$  is the least upper bound of this set. Therefore there exists some positive integer j such that  $j \geq m$  and  $a_j > u - \varepsilon$ . Then  $j \geq N$  and  $|a_j - u| < \varepsilon$ , as required.

#### 1.6 The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be an infinite sequence of real or complex numbers. A *sub-sequence* of this sequence is a sequence that is of the form  $a_{m_1}, a_{m_2}, a_{m_3}, \ldots$ , where  $m_1, m_2, m_3, \ldots$  are positive integers satisfying  $m_1 < m_2 < m_3 < \cdots$ . Thus, for example,  $a_2, a_4, a_6, \ldots$  and  $a_1, a_4, a_9, \ldots$  are subsequences of the given sequence.

**Proposition 1.5** Any bounded infinite sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  of real numbers has a subsequence which converges to the upper limit  $\limsup_{j \to +\infty} a_j$  of the given sequence.

**Proof** Let  $u = \limsup_{j \to +\infty} a_j$ . It follows from Lemma 1.4 that, given positive integers j and  $k_j$  for which  $|a_{k_j} - u| < 1/j$ , there exists some positive integer  $k_{j+1}$  satisfying  $k_{j+1} > k_j$  for which  $|a_{k_{j+1}} - u| < 1/(j+1)$ . Therefore there exists an increasing sequence  $k_1, k_2, k_3, \ldots$  of positive integers such that  $|a_{k_j} - u| < 1/j$  for all positive integers j. Then  $a_{k_1}, a_{k_2}, a_{k_3}$  is a subsequence of  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  which converges to the upper limit of the sequence, as required.

The following theorem, known as the *Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem*, is an immediate consequence of Proposition 1.5.

**Theorem 1.6** (Bolzano-Weierstrass) Every bounded sequence of real numbers has a convergent subsequence.

**Theorem 1.7** (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem for Complex Sequences) Every bounded sequence of complex numbers has a convergent subsequence

**Proof** Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be a bounded sequence of complex numbers, and, for each positive integer j, let  $a_j = x_j + iy_j$ , where  $x_j$  are  $y_j$  are real numbers. The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem for sequences of real numbers (Theorem 1.6) guarantees the existence of a subsequence  $a_{j_1}, a_{j_2}, a_{j_3}, \ldots$  of the given sequence such that the real parts  $x_{j_1}, x_{j_2}, x_{j_3}, \ldots$  converge. A further application of Theorem 1.6 then allows to replace this subsequence by a subsequence of itself in order to ensure that the imaginary parts  $y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, y_{j_3}, \ldots$  also converge. But then  $a_{j_1}, a_{j_2}, a_{j_3}, \ldots$  is a convergent subsequence of  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$ , by Lemma 1.1.

#### 1.7 Cauchy's Criterion for Convergence

**Definition** A sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  of complex numbers is said to be a *Cauchy sequence* if the following condition is satisfied:

for every real number  $\varepsilon$  satisfying  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists some natural number N such that  $|a_j - a_k| < \varepsilon$  for all natural numbers j and k satisfying  $j \geq N$  and  $k \geq N$ .

**Lemma 1.8** Every Cauchy sequence of complex numbers is bounded.

**Proof** Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be a Cauchy sequence. Then there exists some natural number N such that  $|a_j - a_k| < 1$  whenever  $j \ge N$  and  $k \ge N$ . In particular,  $|a_j| \le |a_N| + 1$  whenever  $j \ge N$ . Therefore  $|a_j| \le R$  for all positive integers j, where R is the maximum of the real numbers  $|a_1|, |a_2|, \ldots, |a_{N-1}|$  and  $|a_N| + 1$ . Thus the sequence is bounded, as required.

The following important result is known as Cauchy's Criterion for convergence, or as the General Principle of Convergence.

**Theorem 1.9** (Cauchy's Criterion for Convergence) An infinite sequence of complex numbers is convergent if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.

**Proof** First we show that convergent sequences are Cauchy sequences. Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be a convergent sequence, and let  $l = \lim_{n \to +\infty} a_j$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists some natural number N such that  $|a_j - l| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  for all  $j \geq N$ . Thus if  $j \geq N$  and  $k \geq N$  then  $|a_j - l| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  and  $|a_k - l| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$ , and hence

$$|a_j - a_k| = |(a_j - l) - (a_k - l)| \le |a_j - l| + |a_k - l| < \varepsilon.$$

Thus the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  is a Cauchy sequence.

Conversely we must show that any Cauchy sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  is convergent. Now Cauchy sequences are bounded, by Lemma 1.8. The sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  therefore has a convergent subsequence  $a_{k_1}, a_{k_2}, a_{k_3}, \ldots$ , by the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem (Theorem 1.7). Let  $l = \lim_{m \to +\infty} a_{k_m}$ . We claim that the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  itself converges to l.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists some natural number N such that  $|a_j - a_k| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  whenever  $j \geq N$  and  $k \geq N$  (since the sequence is a Cauchy sequence). Let m be chosen large enough to ensure that  $k_m \geq N$  and  $|a_{k_m} - l| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$ . Then

$$|a_j - l| \le |a_j - a_{k_m}| + |a_{k_m} - l| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon = \varepsilon$$

whenever  $j \geq N$ , and thus  $a_j \to l$  as  $j \to +\infty$ , as required.

#### 1.8 Limits of Functions of a Complex Variable

Let D be a subset of the set  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers A complex number w is said to be a *limit point* of D if and only if, given any  $\delta > 0$ , there exists  $z \in D$  satisfying  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$ .

A complex number w belonging to some subset D of the complex plane is said to be an *isolated point* of D if it is not a limit point of D. Thus an element w of D is an isolated point of D if and only if there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\{z \in D : |z - w| < \delta\} = \{w\}$ .

**Definition** Let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function defined over some subset D of  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let w be a limit point of D. A complex number l is said to be the limit of the function f as z tends to w in D if, given any real number  $\varepsilon$  satisfying  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some real number  $\delta$  satisfying  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - l| < \varepsilon$  for all  $z \in D$  satisfying  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$ .

**Lemma 1.10** Let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  be a complex-valued function defined over some subset D of the complex plane, and let w be a limit point of D. Then the limit  $\lim_{z\to w} f(z)$ , if it exists, is unique.

**Proof** Suppose that  $\lim_{z\to w} f(z) = l$  and  $\lim_{z\to w} f(z) = m$ . We must show that l=m. Let  $\varepsilon>0$  be given. Then there exist  $\delta_1>0$  and  $\delta_2>0$  such that  $|f(z)-l|<\varepsilon$  whenever  $z\in D$  satisfies  $0<|z-w|<\delta_1$  and  $|f(z)-m|<\varepsilon$  whenever  $z\in D$  satisfies  $0<|z-w|<\delta_2$ . Choose  $z\in D$  satisfying  $0<|z-w|<\delta$ , where  $\delta$  is the minimum of  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$ . (This is possible since w is a limit point of D.) Then  $|f(z)-l|<\varepsilon$  and  $|f(z)-m|<\varepsilon$ , and hence

$$|l - m| \le |l - f(z)| + |f(z) - m| < 2\varepsilon$$

by the Triangle Inequality. Since  $|l-m| < 2\varepsilon$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we conclude that l=m, as required.

**Proposition 1.11** Let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  and  $g: D \to \mathbb{C}$  be functions defined over some subset D of  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let w be a limit point of D. Suppose that  $\lim_{z \to w} f(z)$  and  $\lim_{z \to w} g(z)$  exist. Then  $\lim_{z \to w} (f(z) + g(z))$ ,  $\lim_{z \to w} (f(z) - g(z))$  and  $\lim_{z \to w} (f(z)g(z))$  exist, and

$$\begin{split} &\lim_{z \to w} \left( f(z) + g(z) \right) &= \lim_{z \to w} f(z) + \lim_{z \to w} g(z), \\ &\lim_{z \to w} \left( f(z) - g(z) \right) &= \lim_{z \to w} f(z) - \lim_{z \to w} g(z), \\ &\lim_{z \to w} \left( f(z) g(z) \right) &= \lim_{z \to w} f(z) \lim_{z \to w} g(z). \end{split}$$

If in addition  $g(z) \neq 0$  for all  $z \in D$  and  $\lim_{z \to w} g(z) \neq 0$ , then  $\lim_{z \to w} f(z)/g(z)$ exists, and

$$\lim_{z \to w} \frac{f(z)}{g(z)} = \frac{\lim_{z \to w} f(z)}{\lim_{z \to w} g(z)}.$$

**Proof** Let  $l = \lim_{z \to w} f(z)$  and  $m = \lim_{z \to w} g(z)$ . First we prove that  $\lim_{z \to w} (f(z) + g(z)) = l + m$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. We must prove that there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) + g(z) - (l+m)| < \varepsilon$ for all  $z \in D$  satisfying  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$ . Now there exist  $\delta_1 > 0$  and  $\delta_2 > 0$ such that  $|f(z)-l|<\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  for all  $z\in D$  satisfying  $0<|z-w|<\delta_1$ , and  $|g(z)-m|<\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  for all  $z\in D$  satisfying  $0<|z-w|<\delta_2$ , since  $l=\lim_{z\to w}f(z)$ and  $m = \lim_{z \to w} g(z)$ . Let  $\delta$  be the minimum of  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$ . If  $z \in D$  satisfies  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$  then  $|f(z) - l| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  and  $|g(z) - m| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$ , and hence

$$|f(z) + g(z) - (l+m)| \le |f(z) - l| + |g(z) - m| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon = \varepsilon$$

This shows that  $\lim_{z\to w} (f(z)+g(z))=l+m$ . Let c be some complex number. We show that  $\lim_{z\to w} (cg(z))=cm$ . Let some positive number  $\varepsilon$  be given. Choose a positive number  $\varepsilon_1$  small enough to ensure that  $|c|\varepsilon_1 < \varepsilon$ . Then there exists some real number  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|g(z)-m|<\varepsilon_1$  whenever  $0<|z-w|<\delta$ . But then

$$|cg(z) - cm| = |c||g(z) - m| \le |c|\varepsilon_1 < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$ . Thus

$$\lim_{z \to w} (cg(z)) = cm.$$

If we combine this result, for c = -1, with the previous result, we see that  $\lim_{z \to w} (-g(z)) = -m$ , and therefore  $\lim_{z \to w} (f(z) - g(z)) = l - m$ .

Next we show that if  $p: D \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $q: D \to \mathbb{R}$  are functions with the property that  $\lim_{z\to w} p(z) = \lim_{z\to w} q(z) = 0$ , then  $\lim_{z\to w} (p(z)q(z)) = 0$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exist real numbers  $\delta_1 > 0$  and  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $|p(z)| < \sqrt{\varepsilon}$ whenever  $0 < |z - w| < \delta_1$  and  $|q(z)| < \sqrt{\varepsilon}$  whenever  $0 < |z - w| < \delta_2$ . Let  $\delta$  be the minimum of  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$ . If  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$  then  $|p(z)q(z)| < \varepsilon$ . We deduce that  $\lim_{z \to w} (p(z)q(z)) = 0$ .

We can apply this result with p(z) = f(z) - l and q(z) = g(z) - m for all  $z \in D$ . Using the results we have already obtained, we see that

$$\begin{array}{ll} 0 & = & \lim_{z \to w} (p(z)q(z)) = \lim_{z \to w} (f(z)g(z) - f(z)m - lg(z) + lm) \\ & = & \lim_{z \to w} (f(z)g(z)) - m \lim_{z \to w} f(z) - l \lim_{z \to w} g(z) + lm = \lim_{z \to w} (f(z)g(z)) - lm. \end{array}$$

Thus  $\lim_{z\to w}(f(z)g(z))=lm$ . Next we show that if  $h\colon D\to R$  is a function that is non-zero throughout D, and if  $\lim_{z\to w}h(z)\to 1$  then  $\lim_{z\to w}(1/h(z))=1$ . Let  $\varepsilon>0$  be given. Let  $\varepsilon_0$  be the minimum of  $\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Then there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|h(z) - 1| < \varepsilon_0$  whenever  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$ . Thus if  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$  then  $|h(z) - 1| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  and  $|h(z)| \ge 1 - |1 - h(z)| > \frac{1}{2}$ . But then

$$\left| \frac{1}{h(z)} - 1 \right| = \left| \frac{h(z) - 1}{h(z)} \right| = \frac{|h(z) - 1|}{|h(z)|} < 2|h(z) - 1| < \varepsilon.$$

We deduce that  $\lim 1/h(z) = 1$ . If we apply this result with h(z) = g(z)/m, where  $m \neq 0$ , we deduce that  $\lim m/g(z) = 1$ , and thus  $\lim 1/g(z) = 1/m$ . The result we have already obtained for products of functions then enables us to deduce that

$$\lim_{z \to w} (f(z)/g(z)) = l/m.$$

#### Continuous Functions of a Complex Variable. 1.9

**Definition** Let D be a subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function on D. Let w be an element of D. The function f is said to be *continuous* at w if, given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $z \in D$  satisfying  $|z - w| < \delta$ . If f is continuous at every element of D then we say that f is continuous on D.

**Lemma 1.12** A complex-valued function  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  defined on some subset D of  $\mathbb C$  is continuous on D if and only if  $\lim_{z\to w} f(z) = f(w)$  for all limit points w of D that belong to D.

**Proof** Every element w of the domain D of the function f is either a limit point of D or an isolated point of D. If w is an isolated point of D then it follows from the definition of continuity that every complex-valued function with domain D is continuous at w. If w is a limit point D, then comparison of the relevant definitions shows that the function f is continuous at w if and only if  $\lim_{z\to w} f(z) = f(w)$ . The result follows.

Given functions  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  and  $g: D \to \mathbb{C}$  defined over some subset D of  $\mathbb{C}$ , we denote by f+g, f-g,  $f \cdot g$  and f/g the functions on D defined by

$$(f+g)(z) = f(z) + g(z),$$
  $(f-g)(z) = f(z) - g(z),$   
 $(f \cdot g)(z) = f(z)g(z),$   $(f/g)(z) = f(z)/g(z).$ 

**Proposition 1.13** Let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  and  $g: D \to \mathbb{C}$  be functions defined over some subset D of  $\mathbb{C}$ . Suppose that f and g are continuous at some element w of D. Then the functions f+g, f-g and  $f\cdot g$  are also continuous at w. If moreover the function g is everywhere non-zero on D then the function f/g is continuous at w.

**Proof** This result follows directly using Proposition 1.11 and the relationship between continuity and limits described above.

**Proposition 1.14** Let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  and  $g: E \to \mathbb{C}$  be functions defined on D and E respectively, where D and E are subsets of the complex plane satisfying  $f(D) \subset E$ . Let w be an element of D. Suppose that the function f is continuous at w and that the function g is continuous at f(w). Then the composition  $g \circ f$  of f and g is continuous at w.

**Proof** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists some  $\eta > 0$  such that  $|g(z) - g(f(w))| < \varepsilon$  for all  $z \in E$  satisfying  $|z - f(w)| < \eta$ . But then there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \eta$  for all  $z \in D$  satisfying  $|z - w| < \delta$ . Thus if  $|z - w| < \delta$  then  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \eta$ , and therefore  $|g(f(z)) - g(f(w))| < \varepsilon$ . Hence  $g \circ f$  is continuous at w.

**Lemma 1.15** Let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  be a function defined on some subset D of  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  be a sequence of complex numbers belonging to D. Suppose that  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} a_j = w$ , where  $w \in D$ , and that f is continuous at w. Then  $\lim_{j \to +\infty} f(a_j) = f(w)$ .

**Proof** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $z \in D$  satisfying  $|z - w| < \delta$ . But then there exists some positive integer N such that  $|a_j - w| < \delta$  for all j satisfying  $j \geq N$ . Thus  $|f(a_j) - f(w)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $j \geq N$ . Hence  $f(a_j) \to f(w)$  as  $j \to +\infty$ .

**Proposition 1.16** Let  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  and  $g: E \to \mathbb{C}$  be functions defined on D and E respectively, where D and E are subsets of  $\mathbb{C}$  satisfying  $f(D) \subset E$ . Let w be a limit point of D, and let l be an element of E. Suppose that  $\lim_{z\to w} f(z) = l$  and that the function g is continuous at l. Then  $\lim_{z\to w} g(f(z)) = g(l)$ .

**Proof** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists some  $\eta > 0$  such that  $|g(z) - g(l)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $z \in E$  satisfying  $|z - l| < \eta$ . But then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - l| < \eta$  for all  $z \in D$  satisfying  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$ . Thus if  $0 < |z - w| < \delta$  then  $|f(z) - l| < \eta$ , and therefore  $|g(f(z)) - g(l)| < \varepsilon$ . Hence  $\lim_{z \to w} g(f(z)) = g(l)$ .

#### 1.10 The Intermediate Value Theorem

**Proposition 1.17** Let  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{Z}$  continuous integer-valued function defined on a closed interval [a,b]. Then the function f is constant.

**Proof** Let

 $S = \{x \in [a, b] : f \text{ is constant on the interval } [a, x]\},$ 

and let  $s = \sup S$ . Now  $s \in [a, b]$ , and therefore the function f is continuous at s. Therefore there exists some real number  $\delta$  satisfying  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(s)| < \frac{1}{2}$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$  satisfying  $|x - s| < \delta$ . But the function f is integer-valued. It follows that f(x) = f(s) for all  $x \in [a, b]$  satisfying  $|x - s| < \delta$ . Now  $s - \delta$  is not an upper bound for the set S. Therefore there exists some element  $x_0$  of S satisfying  $s - \delta < x_0 \le s$ . But then  $f(x) = f(s) = f(x_0) = f(a)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$  satisfying  $s \le x < s + \delta$ , and therefore the function f is constant on the interval [a, x] for all  $x \in [a, b]$  satisfying  $s \le x < s + \delta$ . Thus  $s \in [a, b] \cap [s, s + \delta) \subset S$ . In particular  $s \in S$ . Now  $s \in S$  cannot contain any elements  $s \in S$  of  $s \in S$  and therefore  $s \in S$  and therefore  $s \in S$  and thus the function  $s \in S$  for all  $s \in S$  and thus the function  $s \in S$  and therefore  $s \in S$  and thus the function  $s \in S$  and the function  $s \in S$  and therefore  $s \in S$  and thus the function  $s \in S$  and the interval  $s \in S$  are quired.

**Theorem 1.18** (The Intermediate Value Theorem) Let a and b be real numbers satisfying a < b, and let  $f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function defined on the interval [a,b]. Let c be a real number which lies between f(a) and f(b) (so that either  $f(a) \le c \le f(b)$  or else  $f(a) \ge c \ge f(b)$ .) Then there exists some  $s \in [a,b]$  for which f(s) = c.

**Proof** Let c be a real number which lies between f(a) and f(b), and let  $g_c: \mathbb{R} \setminus \{c\} \to \mathbb{Z}$  be the continuous integer-valued function on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{c\}$  defined such that  $g_c(x) = 0$  whenever x < c and  $g_c(x) = 1$  if x > c. Suppose that c were not in the range of the function f. Then the composition function  $g_c \circ f: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  would be a continuous integer-valued function defined throughout the interval [a, b]. This function would not be constant, since  $g_c(f(a)) \neq g_c(f(b))$ . But every continuous integer-valued function on the interval [a, b] is constant (Proposition 1.17). It follows that every real number c lying between f(a) and f(b) must belong to the range of the function f, as required.

**Corollary 1.19** Let  $f:[a,b] \to [c,d]$  be a strictly increasing continuous function mapping an interval [a,b] into an interval [c,d], where a,b,c and d are real numbers satisfying a < b and c < d. Suppose that f(a) = c and f(b) = d. Then the function f has a continuous inverse  $f^{-1}:[c,d] \to [a,b]$ .

**Proof** Let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be distinct real numbers belonging to the interval [a, b] then either  $x_1 < x_2$ , in which case  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$  or  $x_1 > x_2$ , in which case  $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$ . Thus  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$  whenever  $x_1 \neq x_2$ . It follows that the function f is injective. The Intermediate Value Theorem (Theorem 1.18) ensures that f is surjective. It follows that the function f has a well-defined inverse  $f^{-1}: [c, d] \to [a, b]$ . It only remains to show that this inverse function is continuous.

Let y be a real number satisfying c < y < d, and let x be the unique real number such that a < x < b and f(x) = y. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. We can then choose  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$  such that  $x - \varepsilon < x_1 < x < x_2 < x + \varepsilon$ . Let  $y_1 = f(x_1)$  and  $y_2 = f(x_2)$ . Then  $y_1 < y < y_2$ . Choose  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\delta < y - y_1$  and  $\delta < y_2 - y$ . If  $v \in [c, d]$  satisfies  $|v - y| < \delta$  then  $y_1 < v < y_2$  and therefore  $x_1 < f^{-1}(v) < x_2$ . But then  $|f^{-1}(v) - f^{-1}(y)| < \varepsilon$ . We conclude that the function  $f^{-1}$ :  $[c, d] \to [a, b]$  is continuous at all elements in the interior of the interval [a, b]. A similar argument shows that it is continuous at the endpoints of this interval. Thus the function f has a continuous inverse, as required.

#### 1.11 Uniform Convergence

Let D be a subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  and let  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots$ , be a sequence of functions mapping D into  $\mathbb{C}$ . We say that the infinite sequence  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots$  converges uniformly on D to a function  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$  if, given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some natural number N such that  $|f_j(z) - f(z)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $z \in D$  and for all natural numbers j satisfying  $j \geq N$ , where the value of N chosen does not depend on the value of z.

**Theorem 1.20** Let D be a subset of  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots$  be a sequence of continuous functions mapping D into  $\mathbb{C}$  which is uniformly convergent on D to some function  $f: D \to \mathbb{C}$ . Then the function f is continuous on D.

**Proof** Let w be an element of D. We wish to show that the function f is continuous at w. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. We must show that there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $z \in D$  satisfies  $|z - w| < \delta$ . Now we can find some value of N, independent of z, with the property that  $|f_j(z) - f(z)| < \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon$  for all  $z \in D$  and for all  $j \geq N$ . Choose any j satisfying  $j \geq N$ . We can find some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f_j(z) - f_j(w)| < \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon$  whenever  $z \in D$  satisfies  $|z - w| < \delta$ , since the function  $f_j$  is continuous at w. But then

$$|f(z) - f(w)| \leq |f(z) - f_j(z)| + |f_j(z) - f_j(w)| + |f_j(w) - f(w)|$$
  
$$< \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon = \varepsilon$$

#### 1.12 Open Sets in the Complex Plane

Let w be a complex number, and let r be a non-negative real number. We define the *open disk* D(w,r) of radius r about w to be the subset

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - w| < r\}$$

of the complex plane consisting of all complex numbers that lie within a distance r of w.

**Definition** A subset V of the complex plane is said to be *open* if and only if, given any element v of V, there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $D(v, \delta) \subset V$ , where  $D(w, \delta)$  is the open disc of radius  $\delta$  about v.

By convention, we regard the empty set  $\emptyset$  as being an open subset of the complex plane. (The criterion given above is satisfied vacuously in the case when V is the empty set.)

**Example** Let c be a real number, and let  $H = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z > c\}$ . Given  $w \in H$ , let  $\delta = \operatorname{Re} w - c$ . Then  $\delta > 0$ . Now  $\operatorname{Re} z - \operatorname{Re} w > -|z - w|$  for all complex numbers z, and therefore  $\operatorname{Re} z > c$  for all complex numbers z satisfying  $|z - w| < \delta$ . Thus  $D(w, \delta) \subset H$ , where  $D(w, \delta)$  denotes the open disk of radius  $\delta$  about w. Thus H is an open set in the complex plane. Similarly  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z < c\}$ ,  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Im} z > c\}$  and  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Im} z < c\}$  are open sets in the complex plane.

**Lemma 1.21** Given any complex number w and any positive real number r, the open disk D(w, r) of radius r about w is an open set in the complex plane.

**Proof** Let z be an element of the open disk D(w,r). We must show that there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $D(z,\delta) \subset D(w,r)$ . Let  $\delta = r - |z-w|$ . Then  $\delta > 0$ , since |z-w| < r. Moreover if  $z_1 \in D(z,\delta)$  then

$$|z_1 - w| \le |z_1 - z| + |z - w| < \delta + |z - w| = r,$$

by the Triangle Inequality, and hence  $z_1 \in D(w,r)$ . Thus  $D(z,\delta) \subset D(w,r)$ . This shows that D(w,r) is an open set, as required.

**Lemma 1.22** Given any complex number w and any positive real number r, the set  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z-w| > r\}$  is an open set in the complex plane.

**Proof** Let z be a complex number satisfying |z - w| > r, and let  $z_1$  be a complex number satisfying  $|z_1 - z| < \delta$ , where  $\delta = |z - w| - r$ . Then

$$|z - w| \le |z - z_1| + |z_1 - w|,$$

by the Triangle Inequality, and therefore

$$|z_1 - w| \ge |z - w| - |z_1 - z| > |z - w| - \delta = r.$$

Thus the open disk  $D(z, \delta)$  of radius  $\delta$  about z is contained in the given set. The result follows.

**Proposition 1.23** The collection of open sets in the complex plane has the following properties:—

- (i) the empty set  $\emptyset$  and the whole complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$  are both open sets;
- (ii) the union of any collection of open sets is itself an open set;
- (iii) the intersection of any finite collection of open sets is itself an open set.

**Proof** The empty set  $\emptyset$  is an open set by convention. Moreover the definition of an open set is satisfied trivially by the whole complex plane. This proves (i).

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be any collection of open sets in the complex plane, and let W denote the union of all the open sets belonging to  $\mathcal{A}$ . We must show that W is itself an open set. Let  $z \in W$ . Then  $z \in V$  for some set V belonging to the collection  $\mathcal{A}$ . It follows that there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $D(z, \delta) \subset V$ , where  $D(z, \delta)$  denotes the open disk of radius  $\delta$  about z. But  $V \subset W$ , and thus  $D(z, \delta) \subset W$ . This shows that W is an open set. This proves (ii).

Finally let  $V_1, V_2, V_3, \ldots, V_k$  be a *finite* collection of open sets in the complex plane, and let V denote the intersection  $V_1 \cap V_2 \cap \cdots \cap V_k$  of these sets. Let  $z \in V$ . Now  $z \in V_j$  for  $j = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ , and therefore there exist strictly positive real numbers  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_k$  such that  $D(z, \delta_j) \subset V_j$  for  $j = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ . Let  $\delta$  be the minimum of  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_k$ . Then  $\delta > 0$ . (This is where we need the fact that we are dealing with a finite collection of sets.) Now  $D(z, \delta) \subset D(z, \delta_j) \subset V_j$  for  $j = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ , and thus  $D(z, \delta) \subset V$ . Thus the intersection V of the sets  $V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k$  is itself an open set. This proves (iii).

**Example** The set  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z-3| < 2 \text{ and } \operatorname{Re} z > 1\}$  is an open set in the complex plane, as it is the intersection of the open disk of radius 2 about 3 with the open set  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z > 1\}$ .

**Example** The set  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z-3| < 2 \text{ or } \operatorname{Re} z > 1\}$  is an open set in the complex plane, as it is the union of the open disk of radius 2 about 3 and the open set  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z > 1\}$ .

Example The set

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - n| < \frac{1}{2} \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

is an open set in the complex plane, since it is the union of the open disks of radius  $\frac{1}{2}$  centred on integers.

**Example** For each natural number k, let

$$D(0, 1/k) = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} : k|z| < 1 \}.$$

Now each set D(0,1/k) is an open disk of radius 1/k about the origin, and is therefore an open set in the complex plane. However the intersection of the sets D(0,1/k) for all natural numbers k is the set  $\{0\}$ , and thus the intersection of the open sets D(0,1/k) for all natural numbers k is not itself an open set in the complex plane. This example demonstrates that infinite intersections of open sets need not be open.

**Lemma 1.24** A sequence  $z_1, z_2, z_3, \ldots$  of complex numbers converges to a complex number w if and only if, given any open set V which contains w, there exists some natural number N such that  $z_j \in V$  for all j satisfying  $j \geq N$ .

**Proof** Suppose that the sequence  $z_1, z_2, z_3, \ldots$  has the property that, given any open set V which contains w, there exists some natural number N such that  $z_j \in V$  whenever  $j \geq N$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. The open disk  $D(w, \varepsilon)$  of radius  $\varepsilon$  about w is an open set by Lemma 1.21. Therefore there exists some natural number N such that  $z_j \in D(w, \varepsilon)$  whenever  $j \geq N$ . Thus  $|z_j - w| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $j \geq N$ . This shows that the sequence converges to w.

Conversely, suppose that the sequence  $z_1, z_2, z_3, \ldots$  converges to w. Let V be an open set which contains w. Then there exists some  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that the open disk  $D(w, \varepsilon)$  of radius  $\varepsilon$  about w is a subset of V. Thus there exists some  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that V contains all complex numbers z that satisfy  $|z-w| < \varepsilon$ . But there exists some natural number N with the property that  $|z_j - w| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $j \geq N$ , since the sequence converges to w. Therefore  $z_j \in V$  whenever  $j \geq N$ , as required.

#### 1.13 Interiors

**Definition** Let A be a subset of the complex plane. The *interior* of A is the subset of A consisting of those complex numbers w for which there exists some positive real number  $\delta$  such that  $D(w, \delta) \subset A$ , where  $D(w, \delta)$  denotes the open disk of radius  $\delta$  centred on w.

A straightforward application of Lemma 1.21 shows that if A is a subset of the complex plane then the interior of A is an open set.

#### 1.14 Closed Sets in the Complex Plane

A subset F of the complex plane is said to be *closed* if its complement  $\mathbb{C} \setminus F$  is open. (Recall that  $\mathbb{C} \setminus F = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z \notin F\}$ .)

**Example** The sets  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z \geq c\}$ ,  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z \leq c\}$ , and  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : z = c\}$  are closed sets in the complex plane for each real number c, since the complements of these sets are open subsets of the complex plane.

**Example** Let w be a complex number, and let r be a non-negative real number. Then  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z-w| \le r\}$  and  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z-w| \ge r\}$  are closed sets in the complex plane. In particular, the set  $\{w\}$  consisting of a single complex number w is a closed set. (These results follow immediately using Lemma 1.21 and Lemma 1.22 and the definition of closed sets.)

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be some collection of subsets of a set X. Then

$$X \setminus \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{A}} S = \bigcap_{S \in \mathcal{A}} (X \setminus S), \qquad X \setminus \bigcap_{S \in \mathcal{A}} S = \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{A}} (X \setminus S)$$

(i.e., the complement of the union of some collection of subsets of X is the intersection of the complements of those sets, and the complement of the intersection of some collection of subsets of X is the union of the complements of those sets). The following result therefore follows directly from Proposition 1.23.

**Proposition 1.25** The collection of closed sets in the complex plane has the following properties:

- (i) the empty set  $\emptyset$  and the whole complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$  are both closed sets;
- (ii) the intersection of any collection of closed sets is itself closed;
- (iii) the union of any finite collection of closed sets is itself closed.

**Lemma 1.26** Let F be a closed set in the complex plane, and let  $z_1, z_2, z_3, \ldots$  be a sequence of complex numbers belonging to F which converges to a complex number w. Then  $w \in F$ .

**Proof** The complement  $\mathbb{C} \setminus F$  of F is open, since F is closed. Suppose that w were an element of  $\mathbb{C} \setminus F$ . It would then follow from Lemma 1.24 that  $z_j \in \mathbb{C} \setminus F$  for all values of j greater than some positive integer N, contradicting the fact that  $z_j \in F$  for all j. This contradiction shows that w must belong to F, as required.

**Lemma 1.27** Let F be a closed bounded set in the complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let U be an open set in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Suppose that  $F \subset U$ . Then there exists positive real number  $\delta$  such that  $|z - w| \ge \delta > 0$  for all  $z \in F$  and  $w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus U$ .

**Proof** Suppose that such a positive real number  $\delta$  did not exist. Then there would exist an infinite sequence  $(z_j:j\in\mathbb{N})$  of elements of F and a corresponding infinite sequence  $(w_j:j\in\mathbb{N})$  of elements of  $\mathbb{C}\setminus U$  such that  $|z_j-w_j|<1/j$  for all positive integers j. The sequence  $(z_j:j\in\mathbb{N})$  would be a bounded sequence of complex numbers, and would therefore have a convergent subsequence  $(z_{m_j}:j\in\mathbb{N})$  (Theorem 1.7). Let  $c=\lim_{j\to+\infty}z_{m_j}$ . Then  $c=\lim_{j\to+\infty}w_{m_j}$ , because  $\lim_{j\to+\infty}(z_{m_j}-w_{m_j})=0$ . But then  $c\in F$  and  $c\in\mathbb{C}\setminus U$ , because the sets F and  $c\in\mathbb{C}\setminus U$  are closed (Lemma 1.26). But this is impossible, as  $F\subset U$ . It follows that there must exist some positive real number  $\delta$  with the required properties.

#### 1.15 Closures

**Definition** Let A be a subset of the complex plane. The *closure* of A is the subset of the complex plane consisting of all complex numbers z with the property that, given any real number  $\delta$  satisfying  $\delta > 0$ , there exists some element a of A such that  $|z - a| < \delta$ . We denote the closure of A by  $\overline{A}$ .

Let A be a subset of the complex plane. Note that a complex number z belongs to the closure of A in X if and only if  $D(z, \delta) \cap A$  is a non-empty set for all positive real numbers  $\delta$ , where  $D(z, \delta)$  denotes the open disk of radius  $\delta$  centred on z.

**Lemma 1.28** Let A be a subset of the complex plane, and let w be an element of the closure  $\overline{A}$  of A. Then there exists an infinite sequence of elements of A which converges to w.

**Proof** For each positive integer j let  $z_j$  be an element of A satisfying  $|w - z_j| < 1/j$ . Then  $\lim_{i \to +\infty} z_j = w$ .

**Proposition 1.29** Let A be a subset of the complex plane. Then the closure  $\overline{A}$  of A is a closed set. Moreover if F is a closed set in the complex plane, and if  $A \subset F$  then  $\overline{A} \subset F$ .

**Proof** Let w be a complex number belonging to the complement  $X \setminus \overline{A}$  of  $\overline{A}$  in X, and, for any positive real number r let D(w,r) denote the open disk of radius r about w. Then there exists some real number  $\delta$  such that  $D(w, 2\delta) \cap A = \emptyset$ . Let z be an element of  $\overline{A}$ . Then there exists some element a of A such that  $|z - a| < \delta$ . Then

$$2\delta \le |w - a| \le |w - z| + |z - a| < |w - z| + \delta,$$

and therefore  $|w-z| > \delta$ . This shows that  $D(w, \delta) \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$ . We deduce that the complement of  $\overline{A}$  is an open set, and therefore  $\overline{A}$  is a closed set.

Now let F be a closed set in the complex plane. Suppose that  $A \subset F$ . Let w be a complex number belonging to the complement  $\mathbb{C} \setminus F$  of F. Then there exists some real number  $\delta$  satisfying  $\delta > 0$  for which  $D(w, \delta) \cap F = \emptyset$ . But then  $D(w, \delta) \cap A = \emptyset$  and therefore  $w \notin \overline{A}$ . Thus  $X \setminus F \subset X \setminus \overline{A}$ , and therefore  $\overline{A} \subset F$ , as required.

#### 1.16 Continuous Functions and Open and Closed Sets

Let U be an open subset of the complex plane, and let  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  be a complex-valued function defined on U. We recall that the function f is continuous at an element w of U if, given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z) - f(w)| < \varepsilon$  for all elements z of U satisfying  $|z - w| < \delta$ . Moreover we can choose  $\delta$  small enough to ensure that the open disk of radius  $\delta$  about w is contained within the open set U. It follows that the function  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  is continuous at w if and only if, given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that the function f maps  $D(w, \delta)$  into  $D(f(w), \varepsilon)$  (where  $D(w, \delta)$  and  $D(f(w), \varepsilon)$  denote the open disks of radius  $\delta$  and  $\varepsilon$  about w and f(w) respectively).

Given any function  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$ , we denote by  $f^{-1}(V)$  the *preimage* of a subset V of  $\mathbb{C}$  under the map f, defined by  $f^{-1}(V) = \{z \in U : f(z) \in V\}$ .

**Proposition 1.30** Let U be an open set in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $f:U \to \mathbb{C}$  be a complex-valued function on U. The function f is continuous if and only if  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an open set for every open subset V of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Proof** Suppose that  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  is continuous. Let V be an open set in  $\mathbb{C}$ . We must show that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an open set. Let  $w \in f^{-1}(V)$ . Then  $f(w) \in V$ . But V is open, hence there exists some  $\varepsilon > 0$  with the property that  $D(f(w), \varepsilon) \subset V$ . But f is continuous at w. Therefore there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that f maps  $D(w, \delta)$  into  $D(f(w), \varepsilon)$  (see the remarks above). Thus  $f(z) \in V$  for all  $z \in D(w, \delta)$ , showing that  $D(w, \delta) \subset f^{-1}(V)$ . This shows that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an open set for every open set V in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Conversely suppose that  $f: U \to \mathbb{C}$  is a function with the property that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an open set for every open set V in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let  $w \in U$ . We must show that f is continuous at w. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then  $D(f(w), \varepsilon)$  is an open set in  $\mathbb{C}$ , by Lemma 1.21, hence  $f^{-1}(D(f(w), \varepsilon))$  is an open set which contains w. It follows that there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $D(w, \delta) \subset f^{-1}(D(f(w), \varepsilon))$ . Thus, given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that f maps  $D(w, \delta)$  into  $D(f(w), \varepsilon)$ . We conclude that f is continuous at w, as required.

Let U be an open subset of the complex plane, let  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous, and let c be some real number. Then the sets  $\{z \in U : f(z) > c\}$  and  $\{z \in U : f(z) < c\}$  are open sets, and, given real numbers a and b satisfying a < b, the set  $\{z \in U : a < f(z) < b\}$  is an open set.

#### 1.17 Continuous Functions on Closed Bounded Sets

We shall prove that continuous functions of a complex variable map closed bounded sets to closed bounded sets.

**Lemma 1.31** Let X be a closed bounded subset of the complex plane space  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  be a continuous complex-valued function defined on X. Then there exists some non-negative real number M such that  $|f(z)| \leq M$  for all  $z \in X$ .

**Proof** Suppose that the function f were not bounded on X. Then there would exist a sequence  $(z_j:j\in\mathbb{N})$  of complex numbers in X such that  $|f(z_j)|>j$  for all positive integers j. Now the sequence  $(z_j:j\in\mathbb{N})$  would be a bounded sequence of complex numbers, since the set X is bounded, and every bounded sequence of complex numbers has a convergent subsequence (Theorem 1.7). Therefore there would exist a subsequence  $(z_{m_j}:j\in\mathbb{N})$  of  $(z_j:j\in\mathbb{N})$  converging to some complex number w. Moreover w would belong to X, since X is closed (Lemma 1.26). Also it would follow from the continuity of the function f that  $\lim_{j\to+\infty} f(z_{m_j}) = f(w)$  (Lemma 1.15), and therefore  $|f(z_{m_j})| \leq |f(w)| + 1$  for all sufficiently large positive integers j. But this is impossible because  $|f(z_j)| > j$  for all positive integers j, and thus

 $|f(z_{m_j})| > m_j$  for all positive integers j, where  $m_j \to +\infty$  as  $j \to +\infty$ . Thus the assumption that the function f is unbounded on X leads to a contradiction. We conclude that the function f must be unbounded on X, as required.

**Theorem 1.32** Let X be a closed bounded set in the complex plane, and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  be a continuous complex-valued function on X. Then the function f maps X onto a closed bounded set f(X) in the complex plane.

**Proof** It follows from Lemma 1.31 that the set f(X) must be bounded. Let q be a complex number belonging to the closure  $\overline{f(A)}$  of f(A). Then there exists a sequence  $(z_j:j\in\mathbb{N})$  of complex numbers in X such that  $\lim_{j\to+\infty}f(z_j)=q$  (Lemma 1.28). Because the set X is both closed and bounded, this sequence is a bounded sequence in the complex plane, and therefore has a convergent subsequence  $(z_{m_j}:j\in\mathbb{N})$  (Theorem 1.7). Let  $w=\lim_{j\to+\infty}z_{m_j}$ . Then  $w\in X$ , because X is closed (Lemma 1.26). But then  $q=\lim_{j\to+\infty}f(z_{m_j})=f(w)$ , and therefore  $q\in f(A)$ . Thus every element of the closure of f(A) belongs to f(A) itself, and therefore f(A) is closed, as required.

#### 1.18 Uniform Continuity

**Definition** Let X and Y be subsets of the complex plane. A function  $f: X \to Y$  from X to Y is said to be to be *uniformly continuous* if, given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  (which does not depend on either z' or z) such that  $|f(z') - f(z)| < \varepsilon$  for all elements z' and z of X satisfying  $|z' - z| < \delta$ .

**Theorem 1.33** Let X be a subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  that is both closed and bounded. Then any continuous function  $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$  is uniformly continuous.

**Proof** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Suppose that there did not exist any  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(z') - f(z)| < \varepsilon$  for all complex numbers z' and z in X satisfying  $|z' - z| < \delta$ . Then, for each natural number j, there would exist elements  $u_j$  and  $v_j$  in X such that  $|u_j - v_j| < 1/j$  and  $|f(u_j) - f(v_j)| \ge \varepsilon$ . But the sequence  $u_1, u_2, u_3, \ldots$  would be bounded, since X is bounded, and thus would possess a subsequence  $u_{j_1}, u_{j_2}, u_{j_3}, \ldots$  converging to some complex number w (Theorem 1.7). Moreover  $w \in X$ , since X is closed. The sequence  $v_{j_1}, v_{j_2}, v_{j_3}, \ldots$  would also converge to w, since  $\lim_{k \to +\infty} |v_{j_k} - u_{j_k}| = 0$ . But then the sequences  $f(u_{j_1}), f(u_{j_2}), f(u_{j_3}), \ldots$  and  $f(v_{j_1}), f(v_{j_2}), f(v_{j_3}), \ldots$  would converge to f(w), since f is continuous (Lemma 1.15), and thus

 $\lim_{k\to +\infty} |f(u_{j_k})-f(v_{j_k})|=0$ . But this is impossible, since  $u_j$  and  $v_j$  have been chosen so that  $|f(u_j)-f(v_j)|\geq \varepsilon$  for all j. We conclude therefore that there must exist some  $\delta>0$  such that  $|f(z')-f(z)|<\varepsilon$  for all complex numbers z' and z in X satisfying  $|z'-z|<\delta$ , as required.