Lecture 1

Remarks: Basic ordering properties are assumed to be true.

Definition 1. Boundedness: The subset $A \in R$ is said to be bounded above if $\exists M$ such that $M > x \ \forall x \in A$. And it is bounded below if $\exists m$ such that $m < x \ \forall x \in A$. If A has both then it is called bounded.

Definition 2. Least Upper Bound (lub) Axiom: If A is nonempty subset of R and it is bounded above, then A has a least upper bound in R.

Theorem 1. If A is nonempty subset in R and it is bounded below, then it has a greatest lower bound in R.

Proof. We first create a set T of lower bounds of A

$$T = \{ m \mid m < x \ \forall x \in A \}$$

T is non-empty since A is bounded below. Now, we need to prove that there exits a supremum of T which is also a lower bound of A.

Since, set T is bounded above by all the elements of set A, it should have a least upper bound, say M such that $M > m \quad \forall m \in T$. Also, every element of A is an upper bound of T hence by definition of supremum, we can say $M \leq x \quad \forall x \in A$ hence M is the lower bound of A. This makes it the greatest lower bound.

Lemma 1. Suppose $A \neq \phi$ and s = lub(A) then for any y such that y < s, $\exists a \in A$ such that $y < a \leq s$.

Proof. Suppose for contradiction, \nexists any element a such that y < a. This means that $y \ge a, \forall a \in A \implies y$ is upper bound of set A. But y is already less than least upper bound of set A. Hence contradiction.

Therefore, $\exists a \in A \text{ such that } y < a \leq s$.

Theorem 2. Archimedean Property: Given any positive real numbers $x, y \exists n \in N$ such that nx > y.

Proof. Let a set $A = \{nx \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Suppose for contradiction $nx \leq y$. Then y is the upper bound of the set A.

Let a x > 0, then y - x < y hence y - x is not the upper bound of the set A. This means that $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $y - x < mx \implies y < mx + x \implies y < (m+1)x$ which is impossible since $(m+1)x \in A$ and y is upper bound of the A. nx > y is true.

Theorem 3. If A and B are the two non empty bounded subsets of R, such that $x \leq y \ \forall x \in A \ and \ \forall y \in B \ then \ sup(A) \leq inf(B)$

Proof. Let a be the supremum of A and b be the infimum of B. Therefore, $a \ge x \ \forall x \in A$ and $b \le y \ \forall y \in B$. Also, A is bounded above by B and elements of B are the upper bound for A. Hence, $a \le y \ \forall y \in B$. This means that a is the lower bound of B and a is sup(A). In other words, $sup(A) \le inf(B)$. \square

Theorem 4. Given any two real number a, b with $a < b, \exists \mathbb{Q}$ between a and b.

Proof. Since b-a>0. Take two positive number b-a and $1 \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that n(b-a)>1.

TBD □

Theorem 5. Any monotone increasing sequence of real numbers that is bounded above converges to some real number.

Proof. Let x_n be a monotone increasing sequence in \mathbb{R} that is bounded above hence there exits a s such that $s = lub\{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$

Suppose $\epsilon > 0 \implies s - \epsilon < s$ and $s - \epsilon$ is not the upper bound of the x_n .

Using lemma 1, we can say that $\exists x_{\epsilon} \in x_n$ such that $s - \epsilon < x_{\epsilon} < s$.

Using monotone condition, for some $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$, we have,

$$s - \epsilon < x_n < s < s + \epsilon \quad \forall n > n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$$

Hence $|x_n - s| < \epsilon$. x_n converges to $s \ \forall n > n_0$.

Remark. Nested Interval theorem $\approx lub \approx theorem 4$

Theorem 6. Nested Interval theorem: Suppose $\{I_n\}$ is the sequence of closed and bounded non-empty intervals such that $I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \ldots$ then:

1.
$$\bigcap_{n>1} I_n \neq \phi.$$

2. If the sequence of the length of the intervals goes to 0 then $\bigcap_{n\geq 1} I_n = \{x\}$.

Proof. Let I_n be an interval $[a_n, b_n]$ with $a_m < b_n \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, a_n is the increasing sequence and b_n is the decreasing sequence. b_n is upper bound of a_n hence, $a_n < \inf(b_n)$.

For b_n , a_n is the lower bound of b_n i.e. $sup(a_n) < b_n$. If we combine all inequalities, we get

$$a_n \le \sup(a_n) \le \inf(b_n) \le b_n \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Using density theorem, we can say that \exists some \mathbb{Q} between $sup(a_n)$ and $inf(b_n)$. Hence, $\bigcap_{n\geq 1} I_n \neq \phi$.

Let the length of the interval to be $L = |b_n - a_n|$. Suppose for contradiction, we have two elements in $\bigcap_{n \ge 1} I_n$ instead of one, say x and y.

The distance between x and y is |y-x|. Since, $L \to 0$ hence $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for some $n_0 \ge n$, $|L| = |b_{n_0} - a_{n_0}| < \epsilon$ for some $\epsilon > 0$. Since $|L| \to 0$, we can choose ϵ such that it is smaller than |y-x|. Then, if interval contains any one of the point, it can not contain the other.

Lecture 2

Definition 3. Decimals representation of Real numbers: Let $z \in \mathbb{R}^+$ be given. Let n_0 be the largest integer such that $n_0 \leq z$. Let n_1 be the largest integer such that $n_0 + \frac{n_1}{10} \leq z$. As such, say n_k is defined for some k. Let n_{k+1} be the largest integer

such that $n_0 + \frac{n_1}{10^1} + \frac{n_1}{10^2} + \cdots + \frac{n_k}{10^k} + \frac{n_{k+1}}{10^{k+1}} \le z$. Consider the set of all such finite sums, i.e. the set of all

$$z_k = n_0 + \frac{n_1}{10^1} + \frac{n_1}{10^2} + \dots + \frac{n_k}{10^k} + \frac{n_{k+1}}{10^{k+1}} \le z$$

This set has a supremum and that is z itself. We symbolically write $z = n_0.n_1n_2...$

Lemma 2. Let p be an integer ≥ 2 . If $0 \leq a_n \leq p-1$, where a_n is an integer then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{p^n}$ converges to some x in [0,1].

Proof. Since $0 \le a_n \le p-1$, we can replace all a_n with p-1 and then we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{p^n} \le (p-1) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p^n} = 1$$

Therefore, the sequence is bounded, and it is monotonic increasing this means it converges to some $x \leq 1$ and x is already positive. Hence it converges to some x in [0,1].

Lemma 3. Conversely, given any $0 \le x \le 1, \exists \ a_n \in \mathbb{Z} \ and \ 0 \le a_n \le p-1 \ such that <math>x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{p^n}$.

Proof. Suppose we have $0 < x \le 1$ and a_1 is the largest integer such that $\frac{a_1}{p} < x \le 1$. Since x is bounded above by 1, we have $a_1 since <math>a_1$ is an integer. Similarly, find a_2 such that $\frac{a_1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{p^2} < x$. This can be achieved by Archimedean property. Also, note that $a_2 \le p-1$, since we have

$$\frac{a_1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{p^2} < x < 1$$

$$\frac{a_1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{p^2} \le \frac{p-1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{p^2} < 1 \quad (a_1 \le p-1)$$

$$1 - \frac{1}{p} + \frac{a_2}{p^2} < 1$$

$$\frac{a_2}{p^2} < \frac{1}{p}$$

$$a_2 < p$$

$$a_2 \le p - 1$$

Inductively, we can define a_n as the largest integer with $a_n \leq p-1$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{a_i}{p_i} < x$. Since $a_n < p$ TBD

Suppose $\{a_n\}$ is the bounded sequence in \mathbb{R} , we define two sets:

$$s_n := inf\{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\}$$

 $S_n := sup\{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\}$

Notice that $\inf_{k}(\{a_n\}) \leq s_n \leq \sup_{k}(\{s_n\})$

Definition 4. Limit superior and limit inferior: Let a_n be the bounded sequence of real numbers then

$$\lim \inf (a_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n$$
$$\lim \sup (a_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} S_n$$

Limit superior is the supremum of all subsequential limits of $\{a_n\}$. Similarly, limit inferior is the infimum of all subsequential limits of $\{a_n\}$.

Note that s_n is the increasing sequence and S_n is the decreasing sequence and they are bounded on both sides. Hence, we can also say that using monotone convergence theorem

$$\lim \inf (a_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = \sup(s_n)$$
$$\lim \sup (a_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} S_n = \inf(S_n)$$

Theorem 7. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is bounded above iff limsup $a_n < \infty$ (is finite).

Theorem 8. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is bounded below iff $\liminf a_n < \infty$ (is finite).

Theorem 9. Given any sequence $\{a_n\}$ there exists a subsequence $\{a_{n_k}\}$ such that $a_{n_k} \to limsup(a_n)$.

Proof. TBD
$$\Box$$

Theorem 10. Given any sequence $\{a_n\}$ there exists a subsequence $\{a_{n_k}\}$ such that $a_{n_k} \to liminf(a_n)$.

Lecture 3

Definition 5. Finite Set: A set is finite if there exists a bijection between the set and the $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 11. \mathbb{N} is an infinite set.

Proof. Negation of above definition would be a set is infinite if there does not exists a bijection between $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ and \mathbb{N} . Suppose a function $f(\{1, 2, ..., n\}) \to \mathbb{N}$. We can have a natural number $f(1) + f(2) + \cdots + f(n) > f(i) \ \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$ that does not have a preimage in $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ hence the map is not bijective.

Theorem 12. A set is infinite iff there exists a one-one map from \mathbb{N} to the set.

Proof. \Longrightarrow) For $1 \in \mathbb{N}$ there exist a image in X say f(1). Now, take $2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that there exist a image $f(2) \in X \setminus \{1\}$. This means that $f(1) \neq f(2)$. Since for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we can have f(n) in $X \setminus \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ as X is also infinite. Hence, we have constructed a one-one map from $\mathbb{N} \to X$.

(\iff Since \mathbb{N} is infinite and we have a one-one mapping from $\mathbb{N} \to X$ therefore for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have only one $f(n) \in X$ and every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ has a image (it's a map). Hence, X is infinite.

Definition 6. Equivalent or Equipotent set: Two sets are equivalent or equipotent if there exists bijection between X and Y.

For example: Finite sets are equivalent to $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ for some fixed $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 7. Countably infinite set: A infinite set X is said to be countably infinite if there exists a bijection between X and \mathbb{N} .

Definition 8. Uncountably infinite set: A set is said to be uncountably infinite if it is not countably infinite set.

Example:

1. Countably infinite: bijective map between $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{N}$. The map will look line

$$n \to \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2} & n \in even \\ \frac{-(n+1)}{2} & n \in odd \end{cases}$$

2. $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ is also equivalent to \mathbb{N} i.e. countably infinite. Map will be $(m \times n) \to 2^m (2n-1) m$ and n are unique and m such that 2^m is the maximum multiple of 2.

Theorem 13. If A is an infinite subset of \mathbb{N} then there exists bijection between A and \mathbb{N} .

Corollary 1. Monotone Subsequence theorem: Any sequence $\{x_n\}$ of real numbers has a monotone subsequence

Proof. We define "peak" as any element x_m is called a peak if $x_m \ge x_n$ for all n > m. There cases can be two possible cases

- 1. Infinite peaks: This means that there exists $m_i's$ say $\{m_1, m_2, \dots\}$ such that $x_{m_i} > x_n$ for all $n > m_i$, and for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. We can arrange $m_i's$ in increasing order $m_1 < m_2 < \dots$ and $x_{m_1} > x_{m_2} > x_{m_3} > \dots$ is a decreasing subsequence.
- 2. Finite peaks: (0 or some $n \in \mathbb{N}$). Assume the peaks are $\{x_{m_1}, x_{m_2}, \ldots, x_{m_n}\}$, this means that there exists some $s_1 = m_n + 1, s \in \mathbb{N}$ such that x_{s_1} is not a peak. Therefore, there also exists some $s_2 > s_1$ such that $x_{s_1} < x_{s_2}$. Because of finite peaks x_{s_2} is also not a peak, hence for some $s_3 > s_2$, we have $x_{s_2} < x_{s_3}$. Proceeding with induction, we have $x_{s_1} < x_{s_2} < x_{s_3} < \ldots$ is a increasing sequence.

Theorem 14. \mathbb{Q} is a countably infinite set.

Theorem 15. Any interval in \mathbb{R} is an uncountable set.

$$Proof.$$
 TBD

Definition 9. Suppose $X \neq \phi$. A partial order on X is a relation R on X such that R is

- 1. Reflexive.
- 2. Anti-symmetric $\implies aRb, bRa \implies a = b$
- 3. Transitive.

Examples:

1. $R = " \le "$ is a partial order.

 $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{A})$ is power set of A and $X, Y \subset A$ then $X \leq Y$ iff $X \subseteq Y$.

Lecture 4

Definition 10. Given $E \subset X$ where X is partially order set, we say E is totally ordered if any two elements of E are comparable i.e. if $e_1, e_2 \in E$, then $e_1 \leq e_2$ or $e_2 \leq e_1$. Totally ordered \equiv linearly order \equiv chain.

Definition 11. Upper bound of E: An element is $x \in X$ is called upper bound of E if for any $x' \in E$, we have $x' \leq x$. x is called the maximal element if $x' \geq x \implies x' = x$.

For maximal element, x should be an upper bound for set E and x should belong to E

Let $X \neq \phi$. \mathcal{F} is a collection of subsets of X (element of $\mathcal{P}(X)$). An element $F \in \mathcal{F}$ is a upper bound for a subfamily \mathcal{F}' of \mathcal{F} provided every member of \mathcal{F}' is a subset of F.

F will be the maximal element of \mathcal{F} if it is not a proper subset (means not contained in) of any member in \mathcal{F} .

Lemma 4. Zorn's lemma: Let X be a partially order set. If every totally ordered subset of X is bounded above then X has a maximal element.

Definition 12. Cardinality of X: Two sets A and B have same cardinality if there exists a bijection between them. Set X has cardinal number α means that there exists a set Y equivalent to X with number of elements equal to α .

If α and β are cardinal numbers of set X and set Y such that $\alpha \leq \beta$ then there exists a one-one mapping from $X \to Y$.

Theorem 16. Cantor-Schroeder-Bernstein theorem: If there exists a one-one mapping from $X \to Y$ and $Y \to X$ then there exists a bijection between X and Y.

Limits of functions

Definition 13. Limit point: A point $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is called a limit point of a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ if for every neighbourhood $(a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon), \epsilon > 0$ there exists $x \in X$ such that $a \neq x$.

For a function f defined on $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, f converges to some l means that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - l| < \epsilon \ \forall x \in X \ni |x - a| < \delta$$

Limit of functions as limit of sequences-

Proposition 1. Let $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ and let a be a limit of X. Then $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = l$ if and only if for every sequence $\{x_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ in X that converges to a and $x_n \neq a$ for all n, the sequence $\{f(x_n)\}_{n\geq 1}$ converges to l.

A function f is continuous on X if it is continuous in every point in X.

Definition 14. Continuity of f: A function f is said to be continuous at some point $x \in X$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that for all $y \in X$ and $|y - x| < \delta$, we have $|f(y) - f(x)| < \epsilon$.

A function f is continuous at a limit point $a \in X$ if and only if f(a) is defined and $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$.

Proposition 2. Let f be a real valued funtion defined on subset X of \mathbb{R} and $a \in X$ is the limit point of X. Then f is continuous at a if and only if for every sequence $\{x_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ that converges to a and $x_n \neq a$ for every n, we have $\lim f(x_n) = f(\lim x_n) = f(a)$. Continuous function preserve convergence (maps convergent sequence into convergent sequences).

Theorem 17. Bolzano intermediate value theorem: Let I be an interval and $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$, if $a, b \in I$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfies $f(a) < \alpha < f(b)$ or $f(a) > \alpha > f(b)$ then there exists a point $c \in I$ between a and b such that $f(c) = \alpha$.

Sequences of functions

Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. If for every $n = 1, 2, \ldots$, we assigned a real valued function f_n defined on X then $\{f_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is called sequence of functions.

Metric Spaces

Definition 15. Let $X \neq \phi$. A metric on X is a function $d: X \times X \to [0, \infty)$ such that

1.
$$d(x,y) = 0 \implies x = y$$

$$2. \ d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$

3.
$$d(x,y) \le d(x,z) + d(z,y)$$
 for any $x, y, z \in X$.