

Corollary (iii). For $x \in \mathbb{R}$ & an integer k s.t. $x-1 \leq k < x$

Proof: for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ & $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $x < n$ $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $x > m$

from (i) and (ii) $m < x < n$ for which $k < x$
choose largest k from $m, m+1, m+2, \dots, n$ for which $k+1 \geq x$
 $k < x$ is possible as the set $\{m, m+1, \dots, n\}$ is finite
 $\Rightarrow k < n, k \geq n-1 \Rightarrow n-1 \leq k < x$

Rational density theorem: Between any 2 real no.s a, b with $a < b$ \exists a rational no. $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t. $a < r < b$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ proof: $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$
if $\epsilon > 0$, $a = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{R}$ using archimedean principle

$\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $n > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ i.e. $\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$

Proof: $b-a > 0$ by above result $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $n > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$

$\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{n} < b-a$ (i)

$$\Rightarrow a < b - \frac{1}{n} \Leftrightarrow na < nb - 1$$

Let $n \in \mathbb{R}$ put $x = nb$ in corollary (ii)

$\Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $nb-1 \leq k < nb$

$$\Rightarrow na < k < nb$$

$$a < \frac{k}{n} < b$$

$\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$ set A , $P(A)$ -powerset of A

Cantor's theorem: does there exist a surjective map b/w A & $P(A)$

set value map/fn

$\phi: A \rightarrow P(A)$ Is it onto? NO

Proof: assume there's an onto fn

if $a \in A$, $\phi(a)$ is a set

Example 1: let b denote any real number and let
 $S = \{x \mid x \text{ is a rational no. and } x < b\}$. Find lub of S .
 S is bounded above so it has lub in \mathbb{R} [Any bounded above subset of \mathbb{R} has an lub in \mathbb{R} here its \mathbb{Q}]
let $c = \text{lub } S$ $c \leq b \rightarrow$ upper bound
if $c = b$ it is proved and $\text{lub } S = b$
if $c < b$ \exists a rational no. x & $c < x < b$ $\rightarrow \emptyset$

27/7/18 Th¹: If a and b are real nos & $a > 1$ then \exists a natural no. n s.t. $a^n > b$

Proof: suppose $a^n \leq b \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. consider set $S = \{x \mid x = a^n, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$
then the set S is bounded above [\because there is a 'b' s.t. $a^n \leq b \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$]
by completeness principle lub S exists. let $c = \text{lub } S$
as $a > 1$, $ac > c$ or $c < ac \Rightarrow \frac{c}{a} < c$

$\exists a^n \in S$ s.t. $a^n > \frac{c}{a}$ (if $a^n \leq \frac{c}{a}$ $\frac{c}{a}$ becomes upper bound
and $a > 1 \Rightarrow \frac{c}{a} < c$ i.e. c is not

$a^{n+1} > c$ so $a^{n+1} \in S$ lub of $S \therefore \Rightarrow$)

hence \leftarrow because c is an upper bound but \exists an element in S which is greater than c

\therefore set ~~$\{a^n > b, n \in \mathbb{N}, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$~~ is an unbounded above set.

Corollary $S = \{10^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ this set S is unbounded above [i.e. we can't find $a \in \mathbb{R}$ for which $10^n < a \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$]

Proof: take $a = 10$ in th 1

let S be a nonempty set in \mathbb{R} . A real no. b where b is not necessarily in S is said to be a lower bound if
 $x \geq b \forall x \in S$ \leftarrow \nwarrow \nearrow \searrow
lower bound S upper bound

Greater lower bound (glb / inf / infimum) of S .
 $\alpha = \text{glb } S$ if (i) $x \geq \alpha \forall x \in S$ (ii) if β is a lower bound then $\alpha > \beta$
for all such β of S .

• if $a \in S$, then $\text{glb } S = \text{minimum of } S$

$$\text{ex: sup of } \left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} = 1, 1 \notin \left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$$

Completeness axiom for bounded below set:

Any bounded below subset of \mathbb{R} has a greatest lower bound.

Bounded set: A set is said to be bounded if it is both bounded from below or bounded above.

In general \mathbb{R} is not a bounded set but extended set $\mathbb{R} \cup \{\pm\infty\}$ [extended real no. system] is a bounded set.

$$\begin{aligned} a + \infty &= \infty \\ a - \infty &= -\infty \quad \text{where } a \in \mathbb{R} \\ a \cdot \infty &= \infty, a > 0 \\ a \cdot (-\infty) &= -\infty, a < 0 \end{aligned}$$

if S is unbounded above, $\sup S = +\infty$

similarly if S is unbounded below, $\text{glb } S = -\infty$

Prob 1:

Show that $\text{lub } \left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} = 1$

Proof: $\frac{n}{n+1} < \frac{n+1}{n+1} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow \frac{n}{n+1} < 1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ i.e. 1 is an upper bound of S

suppose $\text{lub } S = c < 1$ then $1 - c > 0$ so $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

for $n > 1, n \in \mathbb{N}$

we see that $\frac{n-1}{n} \in S$ so (\rightarrow) since c is smaller than all elements

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} &< 1 - c \\ \Rightarrow c &< 1 - \frac{1}{n} = \frac{n-1}{n} \end{aligned}$$

for $n=1 \quad \frac{1}{1} < 1 - c \Rightarrow 0 < -c \Rightarrow c < 0 \Rightarrow c$ is smaller than all elements of $S \quad \therefore \rightarrow$ hence $\text{lub } S \geq 1 //$

Prob 2: An upper bound c of $S \neq \emptyset$ in \mathbb{R} is the lub of S iff $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists$ an element $s_\epsilon \in S$ s.t. $c - \epsilon < s_\epsilon \leq c$

Prob 3: A lower bound b of $S \neq \emptyset, s \in \mathbb{R}$ is the glb of S iff $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists s_\epsilon \in S$ s.t. $b \leq s_\epsilon < b + \epsilon$

Proof: Assume $a \neq b$. If $0 \leq a-b < \epsilon$ for every $\epsilon > 0$, then $a=b$

Let $c = a-b$. $0 \leq c < \epsilon \text{ if } \epsilon > 0 \quad \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon} < 1$

Prob 2 proof: suppose c is an upper bound of S satisfying the following conditions: i.e. $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists s_\epsilon \in S$ s.t. $c-\epsilon < s_\epsilon \leq c$

if $b < c$, suppose lub $S = b$ w.l.o.g. $\epsilon = c-b$, $\exists s_\epsilon \in S$ s.t.
 $b = c - \epsilon < s_\epsilon$ i.e. b is not an upper bound
 \Rightarrow lub of $S = c$ ← i.e. $b < c$ is wrong.

converse: given c is the lub of S
to show that $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists s_\epsilon \in S$ s.t. $c-\epsilon < s_\epsilon \leq c$
 c is lub, $\epsilon > 0$, $c-\epsilon < c \rightarrow c-\epsilon$ is not an upper bound
because if it is an upper bound then $c-\epsilon$ is lub which is
← as c is lub.
 $\therefore c-\epsilon$ is not upper bound, $\exists s_\epsilon \in S$ s.t. $s_\epsilon > c-\epsilon$
 $\Rightarrow c-\epsilon < s_\epsilon \leq c$

Prob 3 proof: suppose b is an lower bound of S satisfying the following condition: i.e. $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists s_\epsilon \in S$ s.t. $b \leq s_\epsilon < b+\epsilon$

assume $c > b$, glb $S = c$ w.l.o.g. $\epsilon = c-b$ w.l.o.g.
 $s_\epsilon < b+(c-b) \Rightarrow s_\epsilon < c$
 $\Rightarrow c$ is not an lower bound
 $\Rightarrow c > b$ is wrong
 $\Rightarrow c \leq b$ ← if $c < b$ then c can't be glb
 $\Rightarrow c = b$
 \therefore glb of $S = b$ //

Let A, B be two non-empty sets.
 one-to-one correspondence between A and B if there exists a
 fn $f: A \rightarrow B$ (i) f is one-to-one } bijective
 (ii) f is onto

Two sets A and B are said to be equivalent if \exists a
 one-to-one correspondence between A and B & we denote it
 by $A \approx B$
 ↳ equivalence relation

$A \approx A$ $f(x) = x \quad \forall x \in A$; is a reflexive relation

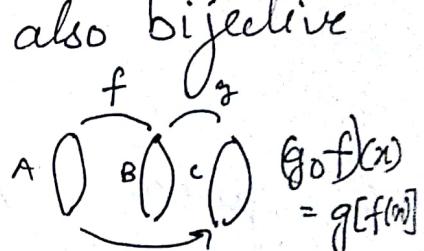
$$A \approx B \Rightarrow B \approx A$$

$f: A \rightarrow B$ is bijective then $f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$ is also bijective
 hence $B \approx A$

$$A \approx B, B \approx C \Rightarrow A \approx C$$

$f: A \rightarrow B$ (bijective) $g: B \rightarrow C$ (bijective)

$g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$ is also bijective \because composition of two bijective fn
 is also bijective.



$J = \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ whole numbers = $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

$I = \mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

$J_n = \text{set of } n \text{ elements} = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

Finite set: A set A is said to be finite if \exists a set J_n
 s.t. $A \approx J_n$

Infinite set: A set which is not finite is an infinite set

Countable set / Denumerable / Enumerable: A set A is
 countable set if $A \approx J$

A set 'A' is said to be atmost countable if it is
 either finite or countable.

A set which is not countable is uncountable set.

A sequence ^{in set A} is a map $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ $f(n) = x_n \quad x_n \in A \forall n$

$$\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}f(1) &= x_1 \\f(2) &= x_2 \\&\vdots \\f(n) &= x_n\end{aligned}$$

if all these $x_n \in A$ then
its a sequence in A

$$\begin{aligned}J: 1 &2 &3 &4 &5 &6 &7 &8 &9 &\dots \\I: 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \dots\end{aligned}$$

$f: J \rightarrow I$ given $f(n) = \frac{n}{2}$ if n is even

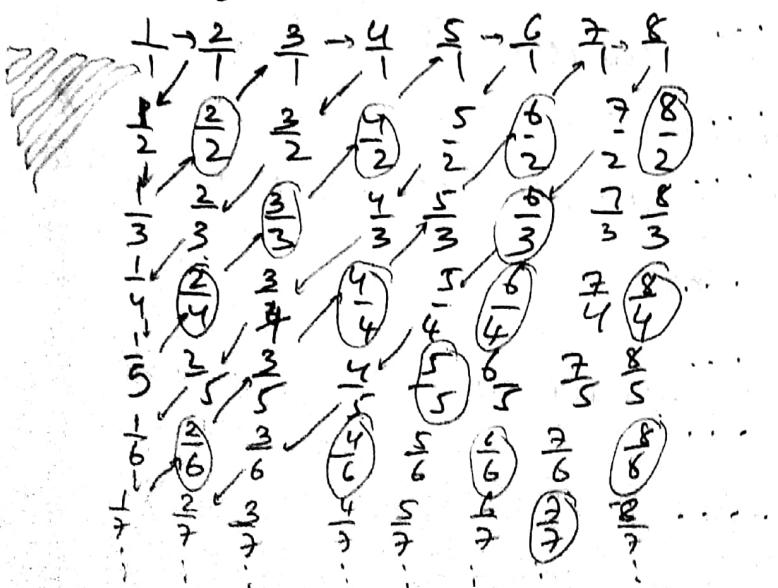
$$= -\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)$$
 if n is odd

hence set of natural nos., integers are equivalent sets.

J^* : set of even numbers $f(n) = 2n \quad J \rightarrow 2J$ so $J \approx 2J$
[here $2J \subset J$ still $J, 2J$ are equivalent sets]
(proper subset)

A set A is said to be infinite iff it has one-to-one correspondence with one of its proper subsets.

\mathbb{Q}^+ : set of pos. rational nos. = $\left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p, q \geq 0, p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$



(Cantor approach)

by following indicated path
skipping those fractions
which have already been
encountered in the path,

we define a function f

$$\begin{aligned}f(1) &= 1/1 & f(2) &= 2/1 & f(3) &= 1/2 \\f(4) &= 1/3 & f(5) &= 3/1 & f(6) &= 4/1 \\f(7) &= 3/2 & f(8) &= 2/3 & f(9) &= 1/4 \\f(10) &= 1/5 & f(11) &= 5/1 & \dots\end{aligned}$$

An arbitrary rational no. $\frac{a}{b}$ is located in ath column and bth row.
of this arrangement e.g.: is reached after finitely many steps of the

Thm: The set of all positive rationals $\mathbb{Q}^+ = \{ \frac{p}{q} : p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \}$ is countable.

$f: J \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^+$
bijective

$$\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}^+ \cup (-\mathbb{Q}^+) \cup \{0\}$$

• A is countable, B is countable, $A \cup B$ is countable

A_α if $\alpha \in I$ α is an index

$\bigcup A_\alpha$: arbitrary union of A_α

$\bigcap A_\alpha$: " intersection of A_α

$$\underline{\bigcup A_\alpha} = \{x | x \in A_\alpha \text{ for some } \alpha\} \quad \underline{\bigcap A_\alpha} = \{x | x \in A_\alpha \forall \alpha\}$$

when $I = J$

$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \rightarrow$ countable union $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \rightarrow$ countable intersection

$f: \mathbb{Q}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ $f(n) = n \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is countable ($\because \mathbb{Q}^+$ is countable)

countable union of countable sets is countable hence \mathbb{Q} is countable.

Proof: By defn. of \mathbb{Q}^+ , every element of \mathbb{Q}^+ can be written in the form p/q , $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now consider the following arrangement in which the n th row consists of all fractions with denominator n and numerators with $1, 2, 3, \dots$ successive and the n th column consists of all fractions with numerator m and denominator $1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$ etc.

type listed above. That means some no. n is associated with a/b .

"Hence proved"

Theorem: set of all real numbers between 0 and 1 is uncountable.

$$E = \{x : 0 < x < 1\}$$

(ii) $T \subseteq S$, T is uncountable $\Rightarrow S$ is uncountable

3/8/18 [skipped] $I = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < x < 1\}$ is uncountable

Theorem: The set of all real nos between 0 and 1 is uncountable.

Proof: we know every real no. can be represented as non-terminating decimal (some are repeating, others are non-repeating)

Assume that the set of all real numbers b/w 0 and 1 is countable so let f a one-to-one correspondence

$$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow I \quad f(1) = 0 \cdot a_1 a_2 \dots a_{10} \dots \\ f(2) = 0 \cdot a_2 a_2 \dots a_{2n} \dots \\ f(n) = 0 \cdot a_n a_{n2} \dots a_{nn} \dots$$

each a_{ij} satisfies $0 \leq a_{ij} \leq 9$

Note: In case where two representations are possible such that $\frac{1}{4} = 0.2499\dots = 0.2500\dots$ & $\frac{4}{3} = 0.7999\dots = 0.8000\dots$, choose the repetition of 9 than 0 in each case.

This establishes the uniqueness of representation

trailing '9' > trailing '0'

let us consider a no. $0 < c < 1$ s.t. $c \in f(\mathbb{N})$ $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow I$

let $c = 0 \cdot c_1 c_2 c_3 c_4 c_5 c_6 \dots$, construct 'a' as follows

let 'a' be a no. b/w 1 & 9 not equal to a_{ii}

by construction 'a' differs from all the numbers already on the list.

so we reject the assumption that the real no. b/w 0 & 1 are countable.

Theorem: show that \mathbb{R} is uncountable

Proof: we know that the set $I = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < x < 1\}$ is uncountable and also $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ $\therefore I$ is uncountable

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is uncountable

$$[0, 1] \approx [0, 1] \approx [0, 1]$$

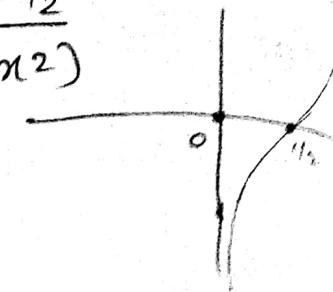
Thm: There is a one-to-one correspondence from the open interval $(0, 1)$ and \mathbb{R} (entire real set)

Proof: define a map $f: (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$0 < x_1 < x_2 < 1 \Rightarrow f(x_1) < f(x_2)$$

$\therefore f$ is strictly increasing

$$f(x) = \frac{x - 1/2}{(x - x^2)}$$



Thm: the interval $(0, 1)$ & $[0, 1]$ have the same cardinality.

Proof: let $A = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \mid n > 1, n \text{ is an } \mathbb{Z} \right\}$

$$\text{if } x \in (0, 1) - A \quad f(x) = x$$

$$f\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n-1} \quad n > 1$$

Thm:

Well ordering principle: every non empty set of +ve integers contains a least element.

Thm: If $A \rightarrow \infty$ subset of \mathbb{N} , then $A \approx |\mathbb{N}|$ i.e. A is countable

Proof: since $A \neq \emptyset \& A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ By well ordering principle $\exists a_1$ (smallest integer) s.t. $a_1 \in A$ since A is ∞

Thm:

Proof:

let a_2 be the smallest element of $A - \{a_1\}$ since A is not finite we continue this process to get $a_{n+1} \in A - \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ so the sequence a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n contains every element of A and the mapping $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$$f(a_n) = n$$

f is a bijection i.e. A is countable

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he

$f(A)$

Thm: Infinite subset of a countable set is countable.

Proof: suppose $E \subset A$ and E is infinite. As A is countable we arrange the elements 'x' of A in a sequence $\{x_n\}$ of distinct elements. Construct a sequence $\{n_k\}$ as follows, let n_1 be the smallest +ve \mathbb{Z} s.t. $n_1 \in E$ having chosen n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1} ($k=2, 3, \dots$)

let n_k be the smallest integer greater than n_{k-1}

set n_{k+1} s.t. $x_{n_{k+1}} \in E$

$$f(k) = x_{n_k} \quad (k=1, 2, \dots) \quad \mathbb{N} \rightarrow E \quad f(k) = x_{n_k}$$

Thm: A_α is countable then $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ is countable

Thm: Show that set of rational no. is countable

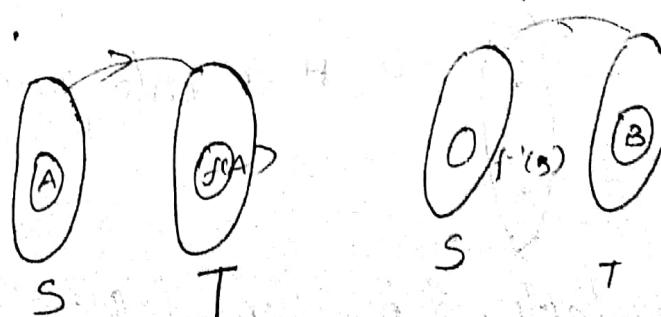
Proof: we know \mathbb{Q}^+ is countable and \mathbb{Q}^- is equivalent to \mathbb{Q}^+

$f(\mathbb{Q}^+) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^-$ $f(n) = -n$
 $fog: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^-$ is a bijection

$$\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}^+ \cup \mathbb{Q}^- \cup \{0\} \quad K: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^+ \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{Q}$$

hence \mathbb{Q} countable.

$$f: S \rightarrow T$$



$$f(A) = \text{Image of } A : f(A) = \{f(n) \mid n \in A\}$$

$x \in A \cap B$

$$x \in A \Rightarrow f(x) \in f(A) \quad y \in f(A) \Rightarrow$$

$$x \in B \Rightarrow f(x) \in f(B) \quad y \in f(B)$$

Thm: $f(A \cap B) \neq f(A) \cap f(B)$

Proof: $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3\}$ $T = \{t_1, t_2\}$

 $A = \{s_1, s_2\} \quad B = \{s_2, s_3\}$
 $f: S \rightarrow T \quad f(s_1) = t_1 \quad f(s_2) = t_2 \quad f(s_3) = t_1$
 $A \cap B = \{s_2\}$
 $f(A \cap B) = t_2 \quad f(A) = \{t_1, t_2\} \quad f(B) = \{t_2, t_1\}$
 $t_2 \neq \{t_1, t_2\}$

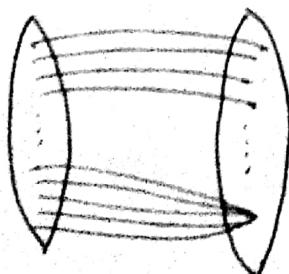
8/8/18 The following statements are equivalent-

- (a) S is atmost countable
- (b) there exists a surjection of \mathbb{N} onto S
- (c) there exists an injection of S into \mathbb{N}

Proof: (a) \Rightarrow (b): Given: S is atmost countable.

If S is finite, \exists a bijection h from set \mathbb{N} onto S and we define a map H on \mathbb{N} by $H: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow S$ by

$$H(k) = \begin{cases} h(k) & \text{for } k=1, 2, 3, \dots, n \\ h(n) & \text{for } k > n \end{cases}$$



i.e. H is onto from \mathbb{N} to S

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \\ \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \\ h(1) = x_1, \quad h(2) = x_2, \dots, h(n) = x_n \end{array} \right\}$$

If S is countable, \exists bijection $h: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow S$

Proof: (b) \Rightarrow (c): If $H: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow S$ is onto
 define $H_1: S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ by taking $H_1(s)$ as the least element
 in the set. $H^{-1}(s) = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : H(n) = s\}$ (well ordering
 principle)

To show that H_1 is one-to-one, $H_1(s) = H_1(t) \Rightarrow s = t$

now if $s, t \in S$

$$n_{st} = H_1(s) = H_1(t) \quad (n_{st} \in \mathbb{N})$$

i.e. $H(n_{st}) = s \Rightarrow s = t \Rightarrow$ Hence, H_1 is one-one.

$$H(n_{st}) = t$$

Proof: (c) \Rightarrow (a): If $H_1: S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is one-to-one then

$H_1: S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is one-to-one then $H_1: S \rightarrow H_1(S)$ is bijective.

then $H_1(S) \subset \mathbb{N}$

\mathbb{N} is countable $\Rightarrow H_1(S)$ is countable

$$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow H_1(S) \quad f^{-1}: H_1(S) \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

$$H_1: S \rightarrow H_1(S) \quad H_1: S \rightarrow H_1(S): \xrightarrow{f^{-1}} \mathbb{N}$$

$f^{-1}H_1: S \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow$ i.e. S is countable.

Theorem: Let A be the set of all sequences whose elements are digits 0 and 1. This set A is uncountable?

[The elements of A are sequences like 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, ...]

Proof: let E be a countable subset of A .

As E is countable, E consists of the sequences s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots

$E = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$
 we construct a sequence s as follows. If the n^{th} digit in s_n
 is 1, we let the n^{th} digit of s be 0 or vice versa. Then
 the sequence 's' differs from every element of E in at least
 one place. i.e. $s \notin E$ but $s \in A$ hence $E \neq A$

\Rightarrow Any countable subset of A is a proper subset of A , hence A is not countable.
 (for otherwise A would be a proper subset of A , which is absurd).

9/8/18 A_m is a sequence of atmost countable sets so

$$\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} A_m \text{ is atmost countable}$$

$\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Sigma} A_\alpha$ - is arbitrary union

Proof: Given A_m is atmost countable so for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\phi_m: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A_m \text{ be a surjection}$$

Define a map $\psi: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ by $\psi(m, n) = \phi_m(n)$, $A = \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} A_m$

To show that ψ is onto, if $a \in A$ i.e. $a \in A_m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$

Hence \exists a least $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $a = \phi_m(n)$

$$\therefore a = \psi(m, n), \psi \text{ is onto.}$$

$\rightarrow P(\mathbb{N})$: Power set of natural no. is uncountable

Show that there is no onto/bijection map from A to $P(A)$

Suppose $\exists \psi: A \rightarrow P(A)$ which is surjective

$$\begin{cases} a \in A & \left\langle \begin{array}{l} a \in \psi(a) \\ a \notin \psi(a) \end{array} \right. \\ & \psi(a) \text{ is a set} \end{cases} \in P(A)$$

$D = \{a \in A \mid a \notin \psi(a)\}$ then $D \subseteq A \Rightarrow D \in P(A)$

as ψ is onto for $D \in P(A)$ $\exists a_0 \in A$ s.t. $\psi(a_0) = D$

if $a_0 \in \psi(a_0)$, $a_0 \notin D$ " if $a_0 \notin \psi(a_0)$, $a_0 \in D$

$$\text{but } \psi(a_0) = D$$

$\therefore \Leftarrow$ There is no onto map from a set to its power set.

prove that if $0 \leq a - b \epsilon \epsilon & \epsilon > 0$ then $a = b$

If $0 \leq a \epsilon \epsilon & \epsilon, a = 0$

Suppose $a \neq 0$ i.e. $a > 0$ define $\epsilon_0 = \frac{a}{2} > 0$ (wlog)

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq a < \frac{a}{2} \Rightarrow a < a/2 \text{ (not possible)} \therefore a \neq 0 \\ \Rightarrow a = 0$$

Let $c = a - b$, using $\epsilon = 0 \therefore a - b = 0 \therefore a = b$

METRIC

Let $X \neq \emptyset$, a mapping $d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called metric if the following conditions hold:

1. $d(x, y) \geq 0$ & $x, y \in X$
2. $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ & $x, y \in X$
3. $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$ Triangle inequality

Metric space: (X, d) is called a metric space where X is a non-empty set and d is a metric.

• $(\mathbb{R}, d=1, 1)$ is a metric space

$$(1) d(x, y) = |x - y| \geq 0 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(2) d(x, x) = |x - x| = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(3) d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$$

$$d(x, z) = |x - z| = |x - y + y - z| \leq |x - y| + |y - z| \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$$

$$(2) d(x, y) = |x - y| = |y - x| = d(y, x)$$

• (\mathbb{R}, d) with $d = |x^2 - y^2|$ is not a metric space

$$\therefore d(1, -1) = |1^2 - (-1)^2| = 0, 1 \neq -1$$

$$\bullet (\mathbb{R}, d) \quad d = \frac{|x - y|}{1 + |x - y|} \quad d(y, z) = \frac{|y - z|}{1 + |y - z|} \quad d(z, x) = \frac{|z - x|}{1 + |z - x|}$$

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• (\mathbb{R}^n, d)

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n); x_j \in \mathbb{R} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$y \in \mathbb{R}^n, y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n); y_j \in \mathbb{R} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Dot product or scalar product of x and y

$$x \cdot y = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j y_j$$

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

$$x = (x_1, x_2) \quad y = (y_1, y_2)$$

$$x \cdot y = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2$$

$\|x\|$ = length of vector from origin to x

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{(x_1 - 0)^2 + (x_2 - 0)^2} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, to prove $d(x_1, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x_1, z)$

usual metric

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - y_j)^2}$$

Prob: for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ define $d^*(x, y) = \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|}$

test whether d^* is a metric space or not

Soln: $|x-y| \geq 0 \Rightarrow d^*(x, y) \geq 0 \quad 1+|x-y| > 0$

$$d^*(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|} = 0 \Rightarrow |x-y| = 0 \Rightarrow x = y$$

$$\therefore d^*(x, y) = 0 \text{ iff } x = y.$$

$$d^*(y, x) = \frac{|y-x|}{1+|y-x|} = \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|} = d^*(x, y)$$

$$d^*(x_1, y) + d^*(y, x_2) \geq d^*(x_1, x_2) !!$$

$$\frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|} + \frac{|y-z|}{1+|y-z|} \geq \frac{|x-z|}{1+|x-z|}$$

$$\frac{|x-y| + |y-z| + |x-z|}{(1+|x-y|)(1+|y-z|)} \geq \frac{|x-z|}{1+|x-z|}$$

$$1+|x-y| + |y-z| + |x-z| \geq 1+|x-z|$$

$$\frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|} + |y-z| + |x-z|$$

$$\frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|} + \frac{|y-z|}{1+|y-z|} \geq \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y| + |y-z|} + \frac{|y-z|}{1+|x-y| + |y-z|}$$

— ①

$$\boxed{m \geq k \geq 0 \quad \frac{m}{1+m} \geq \frac{k}{1+k}}$$

$$\frac{m}{1+m} + \frac{k}{1+k} \geq \frac{m}{1+m+k} + \frac{k}{1+m+k}$$

$$\frac{m}{1+m} + \frac{k}{1+k} \geq \frac{m}{1+m+k} + \frac{k}{1+m+k}$$

from ① and ②

$$\frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|} + \frac{|y-z|}{1+|y-z|} \geq \frac{|x-y| + |y-z|}{1+|x-y| + |y-z|} \geq \frac{|x-z|}{1+|x-z|} //$$

In \mathbb{R} , $d_1(x, y) = |x^2 - y^2|$ is not a metric.
 $d_2(x, y) = \sqrt{|x-y|}$ is a metric.
 $d_3(x, y) = \text{gls} \{ d_1, d_2 \}$

Pg 444 | Ex 11 | W.M.D.M.: for any x, y , define $d_1(x, y) = \sqrt{|x-y|}$
 $d_2(x, y) = |x-y|$ $d_3(x, y) = \frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|}$ a metric
 $d_1: d_1(x, y) \geq 0$ & $d_1(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y \Leftrightarrow d_1(x, y) = d_2(x, y)$
 d_1 is not a metric
 $d_2: (x-y)^2 + (y-z)^2 \geq yz \cdot (x-z)^2$?
 \downarrow
not true in all cases.
Ex: $x=0, y=1, z=-1$
 $1+1 \neq 4 \times$ $\therefore d_1$ is not a metric

$d_2: \sqrt{|x-y|} \geq 0$ $\sqrt{|x-y|} = 0 \Leftrightarrow x=y$ is in metric: some always & not
out
 d_2 is a metric

d_3 : not symmetric $|x-y| = d_3(x, y) \neq d_3(y, x) = |y-x|$ d_3 is not a metric

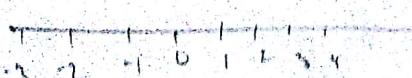
→ Let X be a metric space (X, d) , $Y \subset X$, then (Y, d) is also a metric space. i.e. a subset of metric space is also a metric space.

1. Neighbourhood: of a point p with radius r $r > 0$ $p \in X$ is a set $N_r(p) = \{q \in X \mid d(p, q) < r\}$

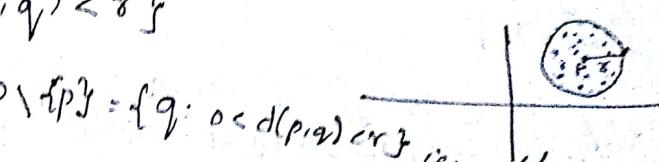
detected neighbourhood: $N'_r(p) = N_r(p) \setminus \{p\} = \{q : 0 < d(p, q) < r\}$

2. Limit point
A point p is said to be an limit point of E if every neighbourhood of p has a point, $q \neq p$ if every neighbourhood $N_r(p) = n(p, r)$ intersects the set at $q \neq p$ other than p .

\mathbb{Z} $1 \in \mathbb{R}$



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i.e. the circle with center p intersects the set at $q \neq p$ other than p .

$$\text{for } x, y \in \mathbb{R} \quad d_1(x, y) = |x - y|$$

$$d_2(x, y) = 2|x - y|$$

$$d_3(x, y) = \min\{2, |x - y|\}$$

$$\text{Pg 44 [Ex 11.1] w.rudin: for } x, y \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ define } d_1(x, y) = |x - y|^2$$

$$d_2(x, y) = \sqrt{|x - y|}$$

$$d_3(x, y) = |x - y| \quad d_4(x, y) = \frac{|x - y|}{1 + |x - y|} \text{ a metric}$$

$$d_1: d_1(x, y) \geq 0 \quad d_1(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow |x - y|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow x = y \quad d_1(x, y) = d_4(x, y)$$

$$\text{but } (x - y)^2 + (y - z)^2 \geq y \cdot (x - z)^2 ?$$

not true in all cases.

$$\text{Ex: } x=0, y=1, z=2$$

$$1+1 \geq 4 \times \quad \therefore d_1 \text{ is not a metric}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x - y &= a \\ y - z &= b \\ z - x &= c \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a + b + c &= 0 \\ a^2 + b^2 &\geq c^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a + b &= -c \\ a^2 + b^2 + 2ab &= c^2 \\ a^2 + b^2 &\geq c^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$d_2: \sqrt{|x - y|} \geq 0 \quad \sqrt{|x - y|} = 0 \Rightarrow x = y$$

d_2 is a metric

IQ in midsem: some $d(x, y)$ is only or not
solve rudin!!

$$d_3: \text{not symmetric, } |x - y| = d_3(x, y) \neq d_3(y, x) = |y - x| \quad d_3 \text{ not met}$$

→ Let X be a metric space (X, d) , $Y \subset X$ then (Y, d) is also a metric space. i.e. a subset of metric space is also a met

sp.

1. Neighbourhood: of a point p with radius $r > 0$ $p \in X$ is a set $N_r(p) = \{q \in X \mid d(p, q) < r\}$



detached neighbourhood: $N'_r(p) = N_r(p) \setminus \{p\} = \{q : 0 < d(p, q) < r\}$

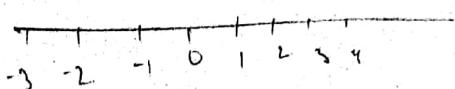
2. Limit point

A point p is said to be a limit point of E if every neighbourhood of p has a point, $q \neq p$ such that the circle with center p intersects the set at q other than p .

if every nbhd $N_r(p) = n(p, r)$

intersects the set at $q \neq p$ other than p

$$\pi \quad 1 \in \mathbb{R}$$



3. Isolated pt. of E and $p \notin E$ not a limit pt. of E
 called an isolated point.
4. E is closed if every limit pt. of E is a pt. of E
5. A point p is said to be an interior pt. of E if $N_r(p) \subset E$
6. E is open if every point of E is an interior pt. OPEN SET
7. $E^c = \{x | x \notin E\}$
8. Perfect set: E is perfect if it is closed and every pt. of E is a limit pt. of E .
9. Bounded set: A set E is said to be bounded if $\exists r \in \mathbb{R}, M \in \mathbb{R}$
 s.t. $d(p, q) < M \forall p, q \in E$
10. Dense: A set E is said to be dense in X if
 * every point of X is a limit pt. of E or pt. of E or both.



Thm: Every neighbourhood is an open set.

Let $E = N_r(p)$ be a neighbourhood of p with radius r .
 To show that E is open i.e. every pt. of E is an interior pt. of E . Let $q \in E$ i.e. $d(p, q) < r$.
 $r - d(p, q) > 0$.
 Let $h = r - d(p, q)$, so $h > 0$.
 $d(p, q) = r - h$.
 for all points s in metric space, construct nbhd taking q as centre &
 such that $d(q, s) < h$.
 $d(p, s) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, s) < r$.
 $d(p, s) < r \Rightarrow s \in E$

3. Isolated pt: if $p \in E$ and p is not a limit point, it is called an isolated point.
4. E is closed if every limit of E is a pt. of E
5. A point p is said to be an interior pt of E if \exists a nbhd $N_r(p)$ st. $N_r(p) \subset E$
6. E is open if every point of E is an interior pt. OPEN SET
7. $E^c = \{x | x \notin E\}$
8. Perfect set: E is perfect if it is closed and every pt. of E is a limit pt. of E .
9. Bounded set: A set E is said to be bounded if $\exists q \in X, M \in \mathbb{R}$
- st. $d(p, q) < M \forall p \in E$
10. Dense: A set E is said to be dense in X if every point of X is a limit pt. of E or pt. of E or both.



Thm: Every neighbourhood is an open set.

let $E = N_r(p)$ be a neighbourhood of p with radius r
 to show that E is open i.e. every pt. of E is an
 interior pt. of E . let $q \in E$ i.e. $d(p, q) < r$

$r - d(p, q) > 0$

let $h = r - d(p, q)$. so $h > 0$.

$d(p, q) = r - h$

for all points s in metric space, construct nbhd
 taking q as centre &
 with that $d(q, s) < h$ taking q as centre &
 s as radius.

$$\begin{aligned} d(p, s) &\leq d(p, q) + d(q, s) \\ &\leq r - h + d(q, s) \end{aligned}$$

$$d(p, s) < r \Rightarrow s \in E$$

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$N(p, \epsilon)$ is the neighbourhood with centre 'p' and radius ϵ
 $N_p(\epsilon) = \{q \in X \mid d(p, q) < \epsilon\}$

$N(p, \epsilon)$ is an open set i.e. every pt. of $N(p, \epsilon)$ is an interior pt.

Thm. If E be a subset of X , if p is a limit pt. of E & every neighbourhood of p contains infinitely many pts. of E .

Corollary: If the set E is finite, it doesn't have a limit pt.

Proof: Because if it has a limit pt., then clearly nbhd of pt. intersects the set into infinitely many pts. but its not possible as the set E contains infinite points.

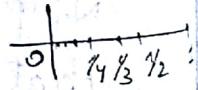
Every finite set is closed

Proof: It doesn't have a limit point so it's vacuously true.

Consider: $E = \{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\} \rightarrow$ infinite set
Is it closed?

0 is a limit point of E as in any neighbourhood $N(0, \epsilon)$ but $0 \notin E$

∴ set is not closed

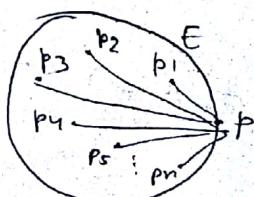


Proof (\$): suppose \exists a deleted neighbourhood N of p s.t. $N(N(p, \epsilon) - \{p\})$ contains only finite no. of pts p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n of E

$$d(p, p_1) > 0, d(p, p_2) > 0, \dots, d(p, p_n) > 0$$

let $\gamma = \min \{d(p_1, p_2), d(p_1, p_3), \dots, d(p, p_n)\}$
min. of finite numbers is finite, i.e. $\gamma > 0$

Now $N_\gamma(p)$ will not intersect any pt. other than p . Hence p is not a limit pt.



Examples: let us consider the following examples subsets of \mathbb{R}^2 :

- (a) the set of all complex number z s.t. $|z| < 1$ (7/7/18)
- " $|z| \leq 1$ closed
- (b) " open
- (c) A finite set closed
- (d) The set of integers closed
- (e) $E = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n=1, 2, \dots \right\}$ d, e, g are subsets of \mathbb{R}
- (f) The set of all complex no.s (i.e. \mathbb{R}^2)
- (g) Open interval $(a, b) = \{x : a < x < b\}$

	closed	open	perfect	bounded
(a)	NO	YES	NO	Yes
(b)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
(c)	Yes	No	No	No
(d)	Yes	No	No	Yes
(e)	NO	X No	Yes	NO
(f)	Yes	YES	NO	Yes
(g)	No	X NO		

yes - subset of \mathbb{R} - open
no - " \mathbb{R}^2 - closed

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$$(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x < b\}$$

$$[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$$

$$a_j < b_j \quad \forall j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$$

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

$$k\text{-cell} = \{x \mid a_j \leq x_j \leq b_j \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, k\}$$

- cells are closed bounded intervals
cells are rectangular



→ A subset $E \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ is said to be convex if $\forall x, y \in E$

$$\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y \in E \quad 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$$

open ball in \mathbb{R}^k : $B(x, \gamma) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid |y-x| < \gamma\}$
 closed " " $\bar{B}(x, \gamma) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid |y-x| \leq \gamma\}$

\bar{B} ~~is~~ convex sets

• $x_j \in E$ - $\begin{cases} \sum \lambda_j x_j \text{ linear combination} \\ \lambda_j \geq 0 \quad \sum \lambda_j = 1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow$ convex combination

• Let $y, z \in B(x, \gamma)$ i.e. $|y-x| < \gamma$ $|z-x| < \gamma$

prove $\lambda y + (1-\lambda)z \in B(x, \gamma)$ (or) $\lambda z + (1-\lambda)y \in B(x, \gamma)$

$$|\lambda y + (1-\lambda)z - x|$$

$$= |\lambda(y-x) + \lambda z - x + (1-\lambda)z| \quad \text{By triangle inequality}$$

$$= |\lambda(y-x) + (1-\lambda)(z-x)| \leq \lambda|y-x| + (1-\lambda)|z-x|$$

$$< \lambda\gamma + (1-\lambda)\gamma$$

applies for $B \cap \bar{B} \subseteq \gamma \leq \gamma$

let $\{G_\alpha\}$ be a collection of subsets of \mathbb{R}

$\{F_\alpha\}$ " " " "

suppose $\{G_\alpha\}$ is open $\forall \alpha$, $\{F_\alpha\}$ is closed $\forall \alpha$

consider the arbitrary union $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_\alpha$ if G_α is open then this union is also

arbitrary union of open set is open

" intersection " closed " " closed $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_\alpha \rightarrow$ closed

finite union of closed sets is closed $\bigcap_{j=1}^n G_j \rightarrow$ open

finite intersection of open set is open $\bigcup_{j=1}^n F_j \rightarrow$ closed

$$G_m = (-1/m, 1/m)$$

$\bigcap G_m = \{0\} \rightarrow$ not closed \Rightarrow infinite intersection of open set is not open.

- \mathbb{R} is both open and closed
 - complement of open set is closed
 - "closed" open
 τ (subsets of \mathbb{R}) i.e. $\tau = \{\text{Gras}\}$
 - A collection $\{\text{Gras}\}$ of open sets is said to be a topology if
- (a) $\emptyset, \mathbb{R} \in \tau$
- (b) $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_\alpha \in \tau$ (b), (c) are prop. of open sets
hence τ is an open collection
- (c) $\bigcap_{j=1}^n G_j \in \tau$ (\mathbb{R}, τ) is called a topological space.

consider $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$

τ is a topology \because (a), (b), (c) are satisfied.

$\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{a\}, \{b\}\} \rightarrow$ not a topology $\therefore ?$

Thm: Let $\{E_\alpha\}$ be a (finite or infinite) collection of sets

then $(\bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha)^c = \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha^c$

arbitrary union

Proof: Let $A = (\bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha)^c$, $B = \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha^c$: To show that $A = B$ we prove $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$

let $x \in A$ i.e. $x \notin \bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha$ i.e. $x \notin E_\alpha$ for any α

i.e. $x \notin \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha$ $\Rightarrow x \in E_\alpha^c$ for any α

i.e. $x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha^c$ $\Rightarrow x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha^c$ i.e. $x \in B$

i.e. $A \subseteq B$

similarly let $x \in B$ i.e. $x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha^c$ i.e. $x \in E_\alpha^c$ for all α

i.e. $x \notin E_\alpha$ for all α

i.e. $x \notin \bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha$

$\Rightarrow x \in (\bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha)^c \Rightarrow x \in A$

$\therefore B \subseteq A$

$$(\bigcup_{\alpha} A_{\alpha})^c = \bigcap_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}^c$$

to prove countable union of sets
consider the sets $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, A_{n+1}, A_{n+2}, \dots$
 $A_{n+1} = \emptyset = A_{n+2} = A_{n+3} = \dots$



Thm:

- A set E is open if E^c is closed.

Proof: suppose E^c is closed. to show that E is open. we have to prove every pt. of E is an interior pt.

let $x \in E \Rightarrow x \notin E^c$. Given E^c is closed, x is not a limit point of E^c i.e. \exists a nbhd N of x s.t. $N \cap E^c = \emptyset$.

$\Rightarrow x \in N \subset E$ i.e. E is open.

suppose E is open, to show that E^c is closed

Thm: ~~A set E is closed if E^c is open.~~

- ie. every pt. is a limit pt. let x be a limit pt. of E^c
- ie. every nbhd of x contains pts of E^c . hence x is not an interior pt. of E , since E is open, $x \notin E$ i.e. $x \in E^c$
- hence E^c is closed.

corollary: A set F is closed if F^c is open.

replace E^c by F in above thm.

Thm: For any collection $\{G_{\alpha}\}$ of open sets,

$\bigcup_{\alpha} G_{\alpha}$ is open

(b) For any collection $\{F_{\alpha}\}$ of closed sets, $\bigcap_{\alpha} F_{\alpha}$ is closed

(c) " finite collection G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n of open sets

$\bigcap_{j=1}^n G_j$ is open

(d) For any finite collection F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n of closed sets,

$\bigcup_{j=1}^n F_j$ is closed.

(a) $A = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_\alpha$ prove every pt. of A is an interior pt. of A.

$\therefore G_\alpha$ is open.

let $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in G_\alpha$ for some α

as G_α is open $\forall \alpha \exists$ neighbourhood N_x

s.t. $x \in N_x \subset G_\alpha$ i.e. x is an interior pt. of G_α

(a) & (c); (b) & (d) \exists topology ϕ, R are both open and closed

union - some α
intersect - $\forall \alpha$

23/8/18 Theorem: A Topology on \mathbb{R} : A collection \mathcal{T} is said to be a topology on \mathbb{R} if (a) $\phi, \mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{T}$ (b) $\{A_\alpha : \alpha \in I\} \Rightarrow \bigcup A_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$
 (c) $\bigcap_{j=1}^n A_j \in \mathcal{T}$

$(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{T})$ is called a topological space

Proof: (a) let $G_I = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_\alpha$ to show that G_I is open i.e. every pt. of G_I is an interior pt. of G_I .

let $x \in G_I \Rightarrow x \in G_\alpha$ for some α i.e. x is an interior pt. of G_α

i.e. $\exists N(x, r) \subset G_\alpha$

$$\bigcup N(x, r) \subset \bigcup G_\alpha = G_I \quad ; \quad N(x, r) \subset G_I$$

$$(b) (\bigcap_{\alpha} F_\alpha)^c = \bigcup_{\alpha} F_\alpha^c$$

F_α is closed $\Rightarrow F_\alpha^c$ is open $\Rightarrow \bigcup F_\alpha^c$ is open

$\Rightarrow (\bigcup F_\alpha^c)^c$ is closed

$\Rightarrow \bigcap F_\alpha$ is closed

(c) let $G_I = \bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$ $x \in G_I \Rightarrow x \in G_i \forall i$ but G_i is open

$\exists r_i > 0$ s.t. $N(x, r_i) \subset G_i$ $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

define $r = \min(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n)$ $r > 0$
 now $N(x, r) \subset N(x, r_i) \forall i$ $\rightarrow N(x, r) \subset G_I$

$$N(x, r) \subset N(x, r_1) \subset N(x, r_2) \subset \dots \subset N(x, r_n)$$

$$N(x, r) \subset N(x, r_1) \subset N(x, r_2) \subset \dots \subset N(x, r_n)$$

$$(d) \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i \right)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i^c$$

F_i^c is open set for each i

so $\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i^c$ is open [proved in (c)]
 $\Rightarrow \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i^c \right)^c = \bigcup_{j=1}^m F_j$ is closed

→ we cannot drop finiteness in (c) and (d) respectively.
 → let $G_n = (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n})$, G_n is open ^{subset of \mathbb{R}} for each n

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}) = \{0\}$$

let $x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n})$ $-\frac{1}{n} < x < \frac{1}{n}$ similarly $x > -\frac{1}{n} \forall n$
 $n < \frac{1}{n} \forall n \Rightarrow x \geq 0 \forall n$
 $\Rightarrow x \leq 0 \therefore x = 0$

$$\rightarrow \text{set } F_n = [-1 + \frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n}]$$

$$F_1 = [0, 0] = \{0\} \quad F_3 = [-\frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}]$$

$$F_2 = [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}] \quad F_4 = [-\frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{4}]$$

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} F_i = (-1, 1) \text{ prof: at } x \in \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$$

$$\text{ie } x \in F_n \text{ for some } n$$

$$-1 + \frac{1}{n} \leq x \leq 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

$$-1 < -1 + \frac{1}{n} \leq x \leq 1 - \frac{1}{n} < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow -1 < x < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in (-1, 1)$$

24/8/18

E^c

let E' denotes the set of all limit pts. of E

$$E = E \cup E'$$

closure of a set

$$E = E \cup E'$$

$$E' \subset \bar{E}$$

$$E \subset \bar{E}$$

$$E = (0, 1) \quad E' = [0, 1]$$

$$E = \{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

$$E' = \{0\}$$

Theorem: If X is a metric space and $E \subset X$,

(a) \bar{E} is closed

(b) $E = \bar{E}$ iff E is closed

(c) $\bar{E} \subset F$ for every closed set $F \subset X$ s.t. $E \subset F$

Proof: a) If $p \in X \Rightarrow p \in \bar{E}$, the result follows

i.e. \bar{E} is closed.

Suppose $p \in X$ and $p \notin \bar{E}$.

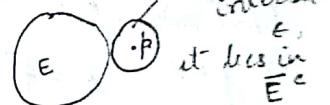
Hence p is neither a point of E nor a limit pt. of E .

Hence p has a neighbourhood which doesn't intersect E .

i.e. p is an interior pt. of \bar{E}^c i.e. \bar{E}^c is open

$\Rightarrow \bar{E}$ is closed.

\bar{E} is a set with boundary



Closure of a set is always closed in a metric space //

b) If $E = \bar{E}$, then E is closed [from (a)]

$\therefore \bar{E}$ is closed

If E is closed, to show that $E = \bar{E} \Rightarrow \bar{E} \subset E$

as E is closed, $E' \subset E$

$$E \cup E' \subset E \cup E$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{E} \subset E$$

we know $E \subset \bar{E} \therefore E = \bar{E}$

c) $A \subset B$ then $A' \subset B'$

proof: let $x \in A'$ be every nbhd of x intersects B .

as $A \subset B$ it intersects B also.

for every closed set ~~F~~ $F \supset E$ (F contains E)

$$\Rightarrow F \supset E'$$

$$\bar{F} = F \cup F'$$

$$\text{hence } \bar{F} \supset E'$$

$$F \cup E \supset E \cup E'$$

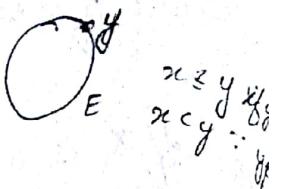
as F is closed, \bar{F} contains all its limit pts. i.e. $\bar{F} \supset F'$ as $F \supset E$

contains all its limit pts

Theorem: let E' be a nonempty set of real nos which is bounded above. let $y = \sup E'$. then $y \in \bar{E}$ hence $y \in E$ if E is closed.

Proof: if $y \in E$ then $y \in E = E \cup E'$

assume $y \notin E$. for any $h > 0$ there is a pt. $x \in E$ s.t. $y - h < x < y$



as $x \in E$, y is a least upper bound, $x \leq y$

but $x \neq y$ as $x \in E$ and $y \notin E$

hence $x < y$ hence $y - h < y$ which is smaller than y (\rightarrow)

suppose $y - h = x$ $x \leq y - h \Rightarrow y - h$ is an upper bound of E

$$\therefore y = \sup E$$

$\therefore y - h < x$ is true i.e. y is a limit pt. of $E \Rightarrow y \in \bar{E}$

$\rightarrow E \subset Y \subset X$ X -metric space Y -subset of X
= suppose E is open relative to Y then is E open relative to X ? NO

let $Y = \mathbb{R}$, $X = \mathbb{R}^2$, $E = (a, b)$ $\mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$
 $a \rightarrow (a, 0)$

(a, b) is open subset of \mathbb{R} but (a, b) is not an open subset of \mathbb{R}^2
Hence no nbhd of any pt. $x \in (a, b)$ contains inside (a, b)

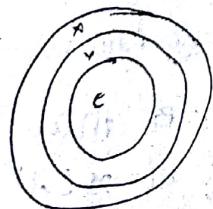
Thm: suppose $Y \subset X$. A subset E of Y is open relative to Y iff
 $E = Y \cap G$ for some open subset G of X .

$$E \subset Y \subset X$$

E is open in X

$\forall p \in E$, $\exists r_p$ s.t. $d(p, q) < r_p$, $q \in X$

$$\Rightarrow q \in E$$



bounded
E is open in Y. $\forall p \in E \exists r_p > 0$ s.t. $d(p, q) < r_p \Rightarrow q \in E$
Proof: suppose G is open in X and $E = Y \cap G$. To show that
E is open relative to Y, i.e. every pt. of E is an interior pt.
relative to Y.
 $\forall p \in E, p \in G$ as G is open, every nbhd V_p of p is contained
 $V_p \subset G$ in G.
 $\forall p \in V_p (V_p \cap Y) \subset (G \cap Y)$
 $(V_p \cap Y) \subset E \quad (\because E = Y \cap G)$

suppose E is open relative to Y. To each $p \in E$ there is a
r.e no. r_p s.t. $d(p, q) < r_p \Rightarrow q \in Y \Rightarrow q \in E$
let V_p be the set of all $q \in Y$ s.t. $d(p, q) < r_p$ and define
 $G = \bigcup_{p \in E} V_p$ - V_p is open and arbitrary union of open sets is open
as G is open subset of X

Now, since $p \in V_p, \forall p \in E \quad E \subset (G \cap Y) - (i)$
 $E \subset Y$ now by the choice of V_p , we have $V_p \cap Y \subset E$
 $E \subset G$ for every $p \in E$

$$[V_p \cap Y] \subset E$$
$$[G \cap Y] \subset E - (ii)$$

$$(i) \text{ & } (ii) \Rightarrow G \cap Y = E$$

OPEN COVERING
 $\rightarrow \{G_\alpha\}$ is a collection of open sets. It is called an
open cover of E if

$$E \subset \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_\alpha$$

zabdar (absent)
 \rightarrow A subset E of a metric space X is said to be compact
if every open covering of E has a finite subcovering.

$\{V_\alpha\}$ is an open covering

then $\{V_{\alpha_1}, V_{\alpha_2}, \dots, V_{\alpha_m}\}$ is a finite subcovering.

e.g. set $(0, 1)$ is not compact as the open covering

$I_n = (0, \frac{1}{n+1})$ does not have a finite subcovering.

$(0, 1)$ can't be covered by finite no. of I_1, I_2, \dots, I_k

Theorem: Suppose $K \subset Y \subset X$ then K is compact relative to Y .

iff K is compact relative to X . To show that K is

Proof: Let K be compact relative to X . As V_α is open in X

compact relative to Y . As V_α is open in X . As V_α is open in X .

let $\{V_\alpha\}$ be an open covering relative to Y . As V_α is open in X .

$V_\alpha = Y \cap G_\alpha$

$Y, \exists G_\alpha$ open in X s.t. $V_\alpha = Y \cap G_\alpha$

$\therefore K$ is compact \exists finite indices d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n s.t.

$$K \subset G_{d_1} \cup G_{d_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{d_n}$$

($K \subset X$ given)

$$(K \cap Y) \subset (G_{d_1} \cap G_{d_2} \cap \dots \cap Y)$$

$$\Rightarrow K \subset (G_{d_1} \cap Y) \cup (G_{d_2} \cap Y) \cup \dots \cup (G_{d_n} \cap Y)$$

$$K \subset V_{d_1} \cup V_{d_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{d_n}$$

Converse: let $\{G_\alpha\}$ be collection of open subsets of X which covers K and put $V_\alpha = Y \cap G_\alpha$ (K is compact)

V_α is open in Y , $V_\alpha \subset G_\alpha \subset X$

(relative to Y)

$$K \subset (V_{d_1} \cup V_{d_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{d_n}) \subset (G_{d_1} \cup G_{d_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{d_n})$$

Theorem: Compact subsets of metric spaces are closed.

Proof: Let K be a compact subset of a metric space X to show that K^c is open.

let $p \in K^c$
if $q \in K$, then
of each

as K is co
way

$p \in V_{q, r}$

i.e. K^c is

closed

Theorem:

Proof: let

let $\{V_\alpha\}$

Now, adj_Y

$\Omega = \{$

now Ω is

K is

and a



Corollary

Proof:

and a

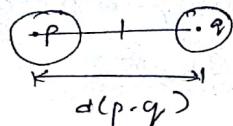
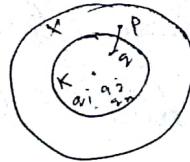
K is

$F_n K$

b_c

let $p \in X$ and $\mathcal{F} \subset K$

if $q \in K$, let V_q and W_q be the neighbourhood of $p \in q$
of radius $< \frac{1}{2} d(p, q)$



as K is compact $\exists q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n$ s.t. K is ~~completely~~ covered by

$$W_{q_1} \cup W_{q_2} \cup \dots \cup W_{q_n} = W$$

$$p \in V_{q_1} \cap V_{q_2} \cap \dots \cap V_{q_n} = V \subset K^c$$

i.e. K^c is open $\Rightarrow K$ is closed

30/8/18 Theorem: closed subsets of compact sets are compact.

Proof: let $F \subset K \subset X$. F is closed subset of X . K is compact

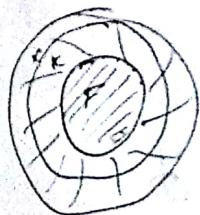
let $\{V_\alpha\}$ be an open covering of F .

now add in ~~F^c~~ to the collection $\{V_\alpha\}$

$$\Omega = \{V_\alpha \cup F^c\}$$

now Ω is a covering of K

K is compact \exists a finite subcovering Φ which covers K
and also covers F as $F \subset K$



$$\{F^c \cup V_\alpha\}$$

In Φ if F^c is there we can remove it.
still the subcollection is finite i.e.
 F is compact

Corollary: F is closed and K is compact subsets of X . Then
 $F \cap K$ is compact.

Prof: $F \cap K \subset K$ [i.e. show that intersection of closed set
and compact set is closed]

K is compact $\Rightarrow K$ is closed.

$F \cap K$ (intersection of closed sets is closed)

closed

Theorem: Let $\{K_\alpha\}$ be a collection of compact subsets of E . Then $\bigcap K_\alpha \neq \emptyset$.

Proof: By contradiction. Assume $\bigcap K_\alpha = \emptyset$. Then $\{G_\alpha\} = \{E \setminus K_\alpha\}$ is an open covering of E . For each α , $K_\alpha \subset G_\alpha$.

for each α , $K_\alpha \cap K_{\alpha_1} \cap \dots \cap K_{\alpha_n} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \bigcap K_\alpha \neq \emptyset$

Proof: Fix K_1 , from the collection $\{K_\alpha\}$ and put $G_1 = E \setminus K_1$

so $\{G_\alpha\}$ is an open covering (i.e. collection of open sets)

assume that no point of K_1 belongs to K_α

hence $\{G_\alpha\}$ is an open covering of K_1

as K_1 is compact \exists indices a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n s.t.

$$K_1 \subset G_{a_1} \cup G_{a_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{a_n}$$

$$\cdot K_1 \cap K_{a_1} \cap K_{a_2} \cap \dots \cap K_{a_n} \neq \emptyset \Leftrightarrow \therefore \bigcap K_\alpha \neq \emptyset$$

Corollary: If $\{K_\alpha\}$ is a sequence of non-empty compact sets s.t. $K_n \supset K_{n+1}$ ($n=1, 2, \dots$) then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset$

i.e. $K_1 \supset K_2$ (K_1 contains K_2)

$K_2 \supset K_3$ (K_2 contains K_3)

;

Proof: $K_n \supset K_{n+1} \Rightarrow \bigcap_{n=1}^m K_n = K_m \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset$

Theorem: If E is an infinite subset of a compact set K then E has a limit point in K .

ECK

$$E = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\} \quad K = [0, 1]$$

Proof: suppose no point of K were a limit pt. of E , then each $q \in K$ would have a nbhd V_2 containing almost one pt of E (namely $q \in E$). Hence E can't be covered by finitely many V_2 is open $\forall q \in X$ and hence $K \neq$ is not covered by finitely many V_2 (as $E \subset K$). So K is not compact which contradicts as K is compact.

Theorem: If $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of closed & bounded intervals i.e. $[a_n, b_n]$ in \mathbb{R} such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ ($n=1, 2, \dots$)

then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$

Proof: let $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$, a_n, b_n are finite real nos.

$$I_1 = [a_1, b_1] \quad I_2 = [a_2, b_2] \quad I_3 = [a_3, b_3] \quad \vdots \quad I_n = [a_n, b_n]$$

let $E = \{a_n \mid a_n \in I_n\}$ then $E \neq \emptyset$ and bounded above by b_1 . \therefore supremum exists. let $x = \sup E$ (due to completeness principle)

if m and n are +ve integers then $a_n \leq a_{n+m} \leq b_{n+m} \leq b_n$
 $i.e. x \leq b_n \quad a_n \leq x \Rightarrow a_n \leq x \leq b_n$ $\therefore x \in I_n \quad \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$

Theorem: let $\{I_n\}$ be a sequence of k -cells with $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ ($n=1, 2, \dots$)

then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$

Proof: let $I_n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \mid a_{n,j} \leq x_j \leq b_{n,j}, 1 \leq j \leq k\}$

$$I_{n,j} = [a_{n,j}, b_{n,j}] \quad n=1, 2, \dots \quad j=1, 2, \dots, k$$

for fixed j the sequence satisfies the hypothesis of the previous theorem
 hence $\exists x_j^* (1 \leq j \leq k)$ s.t. $a_{n,j} \leq x_j^* \leq b_{n,j} (n=1, 2, \dots, k)$

$$x^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_k^*) \quad \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset.$$

$$x^* \in I_n \text{ for } n=1, 2, \dots$$

A complex no. z is said to be algebraic if there are integers a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n not all zero such that

$$a_0 z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + a_2 z^{n-2} + \dots + a_n = 0$$

i.e. a complex no. is algebraic if it's a root of a poly. eqn. with integer coefficients.

for any +ve natural no. N there are only finitely many eqns. with $|a_0| + |a_1| + |a_2| + \dots + |a_n| = N^n$

Construct a bounded set of real nos. with exactly 3 limit points.

$$A = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\} \cup \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right\} \cup \left\{ 2 + \frac{1}{n} \right\} \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$0, 1, 2$ are limit pts of A

8. Is every pt. of every open set $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ a limit pt. of E ? Y ? No

" " " " closed "

$$A = \{(0, 0)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$A' = \{(0, 0)\}' = \emptyset$$

6. let E' be the set of all limit pts of a set E . Prove that E' is closed. Prove that E and \bar{E} have the same limit pt.

Do E and E' always have the same limit pt.? No

$$E = \{\frac{1}{n}\} \quad E' = \{0\} \quad (E')' = \emptyset$$

10. let X be an infinite set. define $d(p, q) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \neq q \\ 0 & \text{if } p = q \end{cases}$

i) prove that d is a metric

ii) which subsets of the resulting metric space are open?

$$d(p, q) = 0 \text{ or } d(p, q) = 1 \therefore d(p, q) \geq 0 \quad \text{closed?}$$

$$d(p, q) = 0 \Leftrightarrow p = q \quad \text{compact?}$$

$$d(p, q) = 0 \text{ if } p = q$$

$$d(q, p) = 0 \therefore p = q$$

$$d(p, q) = 1 \text{ if } p \neq q$$

$$d(q, p) = 1 \therefore p \neq q \Rightarrow q \neq p$$

$$\therefore d(p, q) = d(q, p)$$

$$d(p, q) \leq d(p, w) + d(w, q) \quad \forall p, q, w \in X$$

- $p = q = w : 0 \leq 0+0 \leftarrow p \neq w \neq q : 1 \leq 1+1 \leftarrow$
- $p = w \neq q : 1 \leq 0+1 \leftarrow p \neq w = q : 1 \leq 1+0 \leftarrow$
- $p = q \neq w : 0 \leq 1+1 \leftarrow$

every subset of X is open as well as closed w.r.t discrete metric.
 $\forall p \in X$, p is not a limit pt.

$$\text{since } d(p, q) = 1 > \frac{1}{2} \text{ if } p \neq q$$

there exists a nhbd $N_{\frac{1}{2}}(p)$ of p containing no pt. of $q \neq p$ s.t. $q \in X$

$$N_{\frac{1}{2}}(p) = \{q \in X : d(p, q) < \frac{1}{2}\} = \{p\}$$

$A \subset X$, A is open. every subset is open. $X - (X - A) \rightarrow$ subset is open so its complement is closed.
 $= A$ is closed
 $\therefore A$ is not compact.