

Mathematical analysis

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Chapter 1

Basic Topology

1.1 Set

Notation.

- $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- $A^n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) : a_i \in A\}$

Definition 1 (Finite; Countable). Let A be a set.

- A is *finite* if $A \sim \mathbb{N}_n$ for some n .
- A is *countable* if $A \sim \mathbb{N}$ or A is finite.
- A is *infinite* if A is not finite.
- A is *uncountable* if A is not countable.
- *A is *infinite* if $\exists B \subset A, A \sim B$

Definition 2 (Cardinality). Sets A, B have the same *Cardinality* denoted $A \sim B$ if there is a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$.

Remark. The relation \sim defined in Definition 2 is equivalent.

Definition 3 (Sequence). A *sequence* $\{x_n\}$ in X is $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$, where:

- $x_n \in X, n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $f(n) = x_n$

Proposition 1. Every subset of a countable set is countable.
(No uncountable set can be subset of a countable set)

Proof. Let A be a countable set,
If $E \subset A$ is finite, then countable.
If $E \subset A$ is infinite, then we construct a sequence to obtain a 1-1 correspondence between J and E . \square

Lemma 1.

- If $\exists f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow S$ that is surjection, then S is countable.
- If $\exists g : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ that is injection, then S is countable.

Proposition 2. Let $\{E_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a countable collection of countable sets.
Then

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$$

is countable.

Proposition 3. Let A be a countable set, then A^n is countable.

Corollary. The set of all rational numbers is countable.

Proposition 4. Let A be the set of all sequence $\{x_n\}$ in $\{0, 1\}$, then A is uncountable.

Corollary.

- $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ is uncountable.
- \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

1.2 Metric space

Definition 4 (Metric space; Points; Distance). Let X be a set. X is a metric space if:
 $\exists d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\forall p, q \in X$:

- $d(p, q) > 0$ if $p \neq q$;
 $d(p, p) = 0$
- $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$
- $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q), \forall r \in X$

where p, q are called *points*, and d is called a *distance function*.

Remark. Every subset of a metric space is still a metric space.

Example. The distance function on \mathbb{R}^k is defined by

$$d(x, y) = |x - y| \quad (x, y \in \mathbb{R}^k)$$

Definition 5 (Segment; Interval; k -cell).

- *segment* $(a, b) := \{x : a < x < b\}$
- *interval* $[a, b] := \{x : a \leq x \leq b\}$
- Let $a_i < b_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$. A k -cell is a set $\{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k : a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i\}$

Definition 6 (Ball). Let (X, d) be a metric space.

A *open ball* centered at $\mathbf{x} \in X$ with radius $r > 0$ is a set $\{\mathbf{y} \in X : d(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) < r\}$. A *closed ball* contains the open ball and the boundary where $d(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) = r$.

Definition 7 (Convex). A set $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ *convex* if

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y} \in E$$

for all $\mathbf{x} \in E, \mathbf{y} \in E, 0 < \lambda < 1$.

Remark. • Balls and k -cells are convex.

Geometrically, E is convex means for any two points in E , the line segment connects them is in E .

Definition 8. Let X be a metric space. Let $p, q \in X, E \subseteq X$.

- A *neighborhood* of a point p is an open ball centered at p with radius r .
- A point p is a *limit point* of the set E if every neighborhood of p contains a point $q \neq p$ such that $q \in E$.
- If $p \in E$ and p is not a limit point of E , then p is called an *isolated point* of E .
- E is *closed* if every limit point of E is a point of E .
- A point p is an *interior* point of E if there is a neighborhood N of p such that $N \subseteq E$.
- E is *open* if every point of E is an interior point of E .

- The *complement* of E (denoted by E^c) is $\{p \in X : p \notin E\}$.
- E is *perfect* if E is closed and if every point of E is a limit point of E .
- E is *bounded* if there is a real number b , and a point $q \in X$ such that $d(p, q) < b$ for all $p \in E$.
- E is *dense* in X if every point of X is a limit point of E , or a point of E , or both.

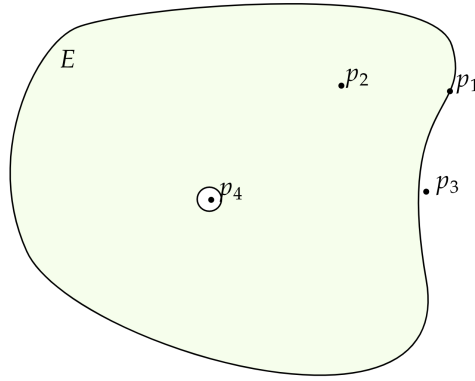


Figure 1.1: p_1, p_2 are limit points; p_3, p_4 are isolated points. Also, $p_1 \in E$ and p_1 is not interior point of E so E is not open. But E is closed.

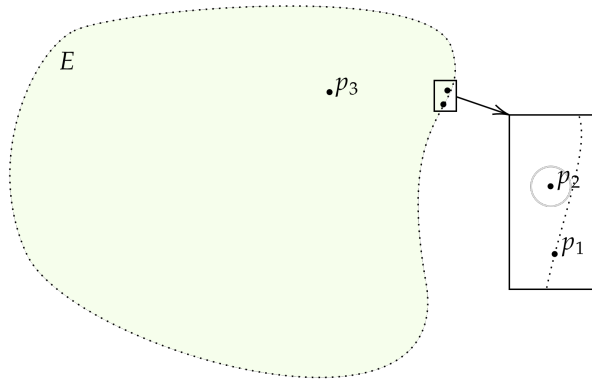


Figure 1.2: p_1 is a limit point but not in E ; p_2 is an interior point; all three are limit points. E is open but not closed.

Example. Let the following be subsets of \mathbb{R}^2 .

1. $\{z : z \in \mathbb{C}, |z| < 1\}$

2. $\{z : z \in \mathbb{C}, |z| \leq 1\}$
3. A finite set.
4. \mathbb{Z}
5. $\{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$
6. \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{R}^2
7. The segment (a, b)

Example	Closed	Open	Perfect	Bounded
1	No	Yes	No	Yes
2	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
3	Yes	No	No	Yes
4	Yes	No	No	No
5	No	No	No	Yes
6	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
7	No	†	No	Yes

† Yes if $(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}$, No if $(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$

Definition 9 (Relatively Open). Let $E \subset Y \subset X$, where (X, d) is a metric space. Then E is *open relative to Y* if E is an open set of the metric space (Y, d) .

Remark. The segment (a, b) is open relative to \mathbb{R} but not \mathbb{R}^2 .

Proposition 5.

1. Every neighborhood is an open set.
2. If p is a limit point of a set E , then every neighborhood of p contains infinitely many points of E .
 - 2.1. A finite point set has no limit points.
3. A set E is open if and only if its complement is closed.

Proof.

1. .
2. .
3. If E is open, assume $\exists x \in E^c$, such that x is a limit point of E^c and $x \notin E^c$. Then $x \in E$ and x is an interior point in E , implies there exists a neighborhood N of x , such that $N \subseteq E$, implies $N \not\subseteq E^c$, implies that x is not a limit point of E^c , which contradicts to the assumption. E^c is closed.

If E^c is closed, $\forall x \in E$, $x \notin E^c$, and x is not a limit point of E^c , implies there exists a neighbor N of x such that $N \not\subseteq E^c$, implies $N \subseteq E$. E is open. \square

Proposition 6.

1. For any collection $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open sets, $\bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$ is open.
2. For any collection $\{F_\alpha\}$ of closed sets, $\bigcap_\alpha F_\alpha$ is closed.
3. For any finite collection $\{G_1, \dots, G_n\}$ of open sets, $\bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$ is open.
4. For any finite collection $\{F_1, \dots, F_n\}$ of closed sets, $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$ is closed.

Proof.

1. Trivial.
2. Follow from 1, apply De Morgan's Law and **Proposition 5-3**.
3. Trivial.
4. Follow from 3 as in 2.

\square

Definition 10 (Closure). Let X be a metric space.

Let $E \subset X$, and E' be the set of all limit points of E , then the *closure* of E is $\bar{E} = E \cup E'$.

Proposition 7. Let X be a metric space and $E \subset X$, then

1. \bar{E} is closed.
2. $E = \bar{E} \Leftrightarrow E$ is closed.
3. $\bar{E} \subset F$ for every closed set $F \subset X$ such that $E \subset F$. (\bar{E} is the smallest closed set containing E)

Proof.

1. Let $x \in \bar{E}^c = E^c \cap E'^c$. Since $x \notin E$ and is not a limit point of E , so there exists a neighbor N of x , such that $N \cap E = \emptyset$, implies $N \cap E' = \emptyset$ (check this one using contradiction), implies $N \subset E^c \cap E'^c$. \bar{E}^c is open.
2. Trivial.
3. Let $F \subset X$ be closed and $E \subset F$, then $F' \subset F$. Since $E' \subset F'$, so $E' \subset F \Rightarrow \bar{E} = E \cup E' \subset F$.

\square

Proposition 8. Let E be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} bounded above.
Then $\sup(E) \in \bar{E}$, and $(E \text{ is closed}) \Rightarrow (\sup(E) \in E)$

Proposition 9. Let $E \subset Y \subset X$ where (X, d) is a metric space.
 E is open relative to Y if and only if $\exists G$, s.t. G is open relative to X and $E = G \cap Y$.

Proof. TODO □

1.2.1 Compactness in Metric Space

Definition 11 (Open cover). Let X be a metric space.
An *open cover* of $E \subseteq X$ is $\{G_\alpha\}$, where G_α is an open subset of X , and $E \subseteq \bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$.

Definition 12 (Compact). Let X be a metric space, and K a subset of X .
 K is *compact* if every open cover of K contains a finite subcover that covers K .

Proposition 10. Suppose $K \subseteq Y \subseteq X$. Then K is compact relative to Y if and only if K is compact relative to X .