

**I YEAR – I SEMESTER
COURSE CODE: 7MMA1C2**

CORE COURSE-II – ANALYSIS – I

Unit I

Basic Topology: Metric Spaces – Compact sets – Perfect sets – Connected sets.

Unit II

Numerical sequences and series; Convergent sequences, Subsequences, Cauchy sequences, Upper and Lower limits – Special sequences, Series, Series of non-negative terms. The number e – The root and ratio tests.

Unit III

Power series – Summation by parts – Absolute convergence – Addition and Multiplication of series – Rearrangements

Unit IV

Continuity: Limits of functions – Continuous functions, Continuity and Compactness, Continuity and Connectedness – Discontinuities – Monotonic functions – infinite limits and limits at infinity.

Unit V

Differentiation: The derivative of a real function – Mean value theorems – the continuity of derivatives – L'Hospital's rule – Derivatives of Higher order – Taylor's theorem Differentiation of vector – valued functions.

Text Book

Walter Rudin, Principles of Mathematical Analysis, III Edition (Relevant portions of chapters II, III, IV & V), McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976.

Books for Supplementary Reading and Reference:

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1. H.L.Royden, Real Analysis, Macmillan Publ.co., Inc. 4th edition, New York, 1993.
 2. V.Ganapathy Iyer, Mathematical Analysis, Tata McGraw Hill, New Delhi, 1970.
 3. T.M.Apostol, Mathematical Analysis, Narosa Publ. House, New Delhi, 1985.



Constructs a sequence $\{n_k\}$ as follows

Let n_1 be the smallest positive integer such that

$x_{n_1} \in E$ Choose n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1} ($k=2, 3, 4, \dots$)

Let n_k be the smallest integer greater than n_{k-1} such that $x_{n_k} \in E$

put $f(k) = n_k$ ($k=1, 2, 3, \dots$) we get a 1-1

Correspondence between E and J

Hence E is countable



Hence the proof.

o Definition

Let $\{E_\alpha\}$ be the collection of sets then the union of the sets E_α is defined by the set 'S'

$$S = \{x : x \in E_\alpha \text{ for atleast one } \alpha\}$$

$$S = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha$$

Note:-

If $x \in A$ where A is the set of all positive integers then $S = \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} E_m$

If $A = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ then

$$S = \bigcup_{m=1}^n E_m \text{ (or) } S = E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_n$$

The intersection of the set E_α :

Let $\{E_\alpha\}$ be the collection of the sets then the intersection of the sets E_α is defined by the set 'P'

$$P = \{x : x \in E_\alpha \text{ for every } \alpha\}$$

$$P = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_\alpha$$

Note:-

If $A \cap B$ is non-empty A and B intersects otherwise they are disjoint

Example:- 1) Let $E_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $E_2 = \{2, 3, 4\}$

Theorem 1.3

Let A be a countable set and let B_n be the set of all n (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) where $a_k \in A$ ($k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$) and the elements a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n need not be distinct. Then B_n is countable.

Proof:

We prove this theorem by induction method.

If $n=1$

Clearly, $A=B$ then B is countable. (6)

Assume that B_{n-1} is countable ($n=2, 3, \dots$)

Claim: B_n is countable

The elements of B_n are of the form (b, a) where $b \in B_{n-1}$ and $a \in A$ for every fixed b .

The set of pairs (b, a) is equivalent to A

Hence (b, a) is countable

Thus B_n is the union of a countable sets

B_n is countable (By Thm 1.2)

Corollary

Hence Proved

Proof: The set of all rational numbers is countable

Since every rational number is of the form b/a where a and b are integers

We consider it by the set of pairs (a, b)

$\therefore B_2$ is countable (By Thm 1.3)

\therefore The set of fractions b/a is countable

Theorem: 1.4

Hence Proved

v10 Let A be the set of all sequences whose elements are the digit 0 and 1 then A is uncountable

19. If X is a metric space and $E \subset X$ then a) E is closed
 b) $E = \bar{E}$ iff E is closed c) $\bar{E} \subset F$ for any closed set $F \subset X$ such that $E \subset F$

Proof: a) Let X be a metric space and $E \subset X$

We claim \bar{E} is closed

Let $p \in \bar{E}$ and $p \notin E$ 15

then p is neither a point of E nor a limit point of E

$\therefore p$ has a neighbourhood

which does not intersect E

\therefore The complement of \bar{E} is open

By theorem,

Thus the set E is open iff its complement is closed

$\therefore E$ is closed

b) Suppose $E = \bar{E}$

We claim: E is closed

By (a) E is closed

Conversely,

Suppose E is closed

then every limit point of E is a point of E and by the definition of closure $\bar{E} = E \cup E'$

Where E' is the set of all limit points of E in X

$\therefore E = \bar{E}$

c) Suppose F is closed

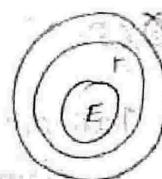
Let $\bar{E} \subset F$

Then $F' \subset F$ [F is closed]

$E' \subset F \Rightarrow E \subset F$ and $E' \subset F'$

$\Rightarrow E \cup E' \subset F \Rightarrow E' \subset F$

Hence $\bar{E} \subset F$



$\forall p \in E$ for any $p \in E$

any ϵ

thus $E = \text{any}$

conversely, let ϵ_1 be open in x and $E = \text{any}$. Then every $p \in E$ has a neighbourhood $V_{p \in E}$

thus $V_{p \in E} \subset E$

E is open relative to Y

Definition: Open cover

By an open cover of a set E in a metric space X , we mean a collection $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open subsets of X such that $E \subset \bigcup G_\alpha$

Definition: Subcover

A subcollection of $\{G_\alpha\}$ which itself is an open cover is called subcover

Definition: compact (1.12)

A subset k of a metric space X is said to be compact if every open cover of k contains a finite cover. (i.e.) If $\{G_\alpha\}$ is an open cover of k , then there are finitely many indices $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ such that $k \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup G_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n}$

Theorem 1.13

April 16 Suppose $k \subset Y \subset X$ then k is compact relative to X iff k is compact relative to Y

Proof: Let $k \subset Y \subset X$

Suppose k is compact relative to X

We claim: k is compact relative to Y

Let $\{V_\alpha\}$ be a collection of sets open relative to Y such that $k \subset \bigcup V_\alpha$

By theorem 1.12 suppose $Y \subset X$, A subset E of Y is open relative to Y iff $E = Y \cap G_1$ for some open subset G_1 of X

Then the set G_1 is open relative to X

such that $V_\alpha = Y \cap G_{1\alpha}, \forall \alpha$

Since k is compact relative to X , then we have

$k \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n}$, for some choice of finitely many indices $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$

since $k \subset Y$ then we have

$$k \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup G_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n}$$

$$\Rightarrow k \subset Y_1 \cup G_{\alpha_1} \cup G_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n} \cap Y$$

$$\Rightarrow k \subset V_{\alpha_1} \cup V_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{\alpha_n}$$

Hence k is compact relative to Y

We claim :- k is compact relative to X

Let $\{G_k\}$ be a collection of open subsets of X which covers k . Let $V_\alpha = \bigcap_{k=1}^n G_k$

then $k \subset V_{\alpha_1} \cup V_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{\alpha_n}$ will hold for some choice of $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$

Since $V_\alpha \subset G_\alpha$ then we have,

$$k \subset V_{\alpha_1} \cup V_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{\alpha_n}$$

$$\Rightarrow k \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup G_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n}$$

Hence k is compact relative to X

19. Theorem 1.14

compact subsets of metric space are closed

Proof:- Let k has compact subset of a metric space X
we claim: k is closed

i.e) To Prove that the complement of k is open subset of X

Let $p \in X$

then $p \notin k$ and let $q \in k$

Let V_q and W_q be the neighbourhood p and q respectively. of radius less than $\frac{1}{2} d(p, q)$

Since k is compact then there exist a finitely many points q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n in k such that $V_{q_i} \cap k \neq \emptyset$ for all i .

Let $x \in H$

Then there exist a neighbourhood N of x with radius r , such that $N \subset G_i$ ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$)

Let $r = \min(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n)$

Let N be the neighbourhood of x with radius r
then $N \subset G_i$ for $i=1, 2, \dots, n$

$$\therefore N \subset \bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i;$$

$$\text{ie) } N \subset H$$

(14)

Thus H is open

Set $\bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$ is open

d) Let f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n be a collection of closed sets

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

Since F_i is closed ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$)

$\therefore F_i^c$ is open

By theorem

For any collection G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n of open sets

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$$
 is open

$$\text{By } \oplus \quad \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i \right)^c \text{ is open}$$

$$\therefore \bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i \text{ is closed}$$

Thus for any finite collection F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n of closed sets

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$$
 is closed

Definition:

If X is a metric space. If $E \subset X$ and if E' denotes the sets of all limit points of E in X then the closure of E is the set $\bar{E} = E \cup E'$

which is a \Rightarrow to I_n is not covered by any finite subcollection of $\mathcal{P}G_k$.

Theorem 1.21 Hence k -cell is compact

From Heine - Borel theorem

a) If a set E in R^k has one of the following three properties, then it has the other two (a) E is closed and bounded (b) E is compact (c) Every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E

Proof:- $a \Rightarrow b$

Suppose E is closed and bounded

then $E \subset I$, for some k -cell I

By theorem 1.20 $[E \subset R^k]$

Every k -cell is compact

Hence E is compact

$b \Rightarrow c$

Suppose E is compact

We claim:- If every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E By theorem 1.17

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

Hence every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E

$c \Rightarrow a$

Suppose every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E

We claim:- E is closed and bounded

Suppose E is not bounded

then E contains points x_n with $|x_n| > n$

($n = 1, 2, \dots$) then the set S contains of these point

x_n is an infinite increasing sequence

It has no limit point of E

which is a \Rightarrow to every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E

Theorem 1.20 Every k -cell is compact APT-19
 Proof: Let I be a k -cell consisting of all points $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$
 such that $a_j \leq x_j \leq b_j$, ($1 \leq j \leq k$) (22)
 Put $\delta = \left[\sum_{j=1}^k (b_j - a_j)^2 \right]^{1/2}$
 Then $|x-y| \leq \delta$ if $x, y \in I$
 Suppose k -cell is not compact then there exist an open cover $\{G_\alpha\}$ of I which contains no finite subcover of I . Also put $c_j = (a_j + b_j)/2$
 The intervals $[a_j, c_j]$ and $[c_j, b_j]$ then the determines 2^{k-1} k -cells Q_i whose union is I
 At least one of these sets Q_i cell is I_1
 It's cannot be covered by any finite subcollection $\{G_{\alpha}\}$ we next subdivide I_1 and continue the process, we get
 a) $I_1 \supset I_1 \supset I_2 \dots$
 b) I_1 is not covered by any finite subcollection of $\{G_{\alpha}\}$
 c) If $x \in I_1$ and $y \in I_1$ then $|x-y| \leq 2^{-n}$.
 By (a) and theorem 1.19,
 let k be the positive integers. If $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of k -cell such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ ($n=1, 2, \dots$) then
 $\cap I_n$ is non-empty
 Then there exist a point r^* which lies in every I_n (i.e.) $r^* \in G_\alpha$ for some α .
 Since G_α is open then there exist $r > 0$ such that $|y-r^*| < r \Rightarrow y \in G_\alpha$
 If n is so large that $2^{-n} \delta < r$

Now by (iii) V_{n+1} satisfies our induction hypotheses and the construct can proceed

$$\text{Put } k_n = \overline{V_n \cap P}$$

since $\overline{V_n}$ is closed and bounded

i.e., $\overline{V_n}$ is compact

Since $x_n \notin k_{n+1}$ no point of P lies in $\overline{\cap}^0 k_n$

i.e., $k_n \subset P \Rightarrow \overline{\cap}^0 k_n$ is empty!

By (iii) and $k_n > k_{n+1}$. By (ii)

which is contradiction sets such that

$$k_n > k_{n+1} \quad (n=1, 2, \dots)$$

then $\overline{\cap}^0 k_n$ is non-empty.

Hence P is uncountable.

Note:-

Every interval $[a, b]$ is uncountable in particular the set of all real numbers is uncountable.

Definition :- Cantor set.

Let E_0 be the interval $[0, 1]$ Remove the segment $(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$ and let E_1 be the union of the intervals $[0, \frac{1}{3}]$ $[\frac{2}{3}, 1]$ Removed the middle thirds of these intervals, and let E_2 be the union of these intervals and let E_3 be the union of these intervals $[0, \frac{1}{9}]$ $[\frac{2}{9}, \frac{3}{9}]$ $[\frac{5}{9}, \frac{7}{9}]$ $[\frac{8}{9}, 1]$... then we obtain a sequences of compact sets E_n such that

a) $E_1 \supset E_2 \supset \dots$

b) E_n is the union of 2^n intervals each of length 3^{-n} . The set $P = \overline{\cap}_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ is called cantor set

Definition :-

E is perfect - If E is closed and if every point of E is a limit point of E .

Theorem 1.11

Let E be a non-empty set of real numbers which is bounded above. Let $y = \sup E$. Then $y \in E$. Hence $y \in E$ if E is closed.

Proof:- Let E be a non-empty set of real numbers. Let $y \in \sup E$ [which is bounded above]

Claim: $y \in E$

(16)

Assume that $y \notin E$

For any $h > 0$, then there exist a point $x \in E$ such that $y - h < x < y$. Hence $y - h$ is an upper bound of E which is $\Rightarrow E$.
 $\therefore y$ is a limit point of E .
Hence $y \in \bar{E}$ [as $y \in E$ and $y \in \bar{E}$] $\Rightarrow y \in \text{closed}$

Definition:-

Let X be a metric space and let $E \subset Y \subset X$. E is open relative to Y . If to each $p \in E$ then there exist $r > 0$ such that $d(p, q) < r$

WQ. Theorem 1.12 \checkmark AP. 19
sm 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 .

proof:- Suppose $Y \subset X$ and E is open relative to Y .
then $E \subset Y \subset X$

To each $p \in E$, then there exist $r_p > 0$
such that $d(p, q) < r_p \quad q \in Y \Rightarrow q \in E$

Let V_p be the set of all $q \in X$ such that
 $d(p, q) < r_p$. Let $G = \bigcup_{p \in E} V_p$

Then G is open set of X [by theorem 1.5 & 1.9 (ii)]

We claim: $E = G \cap Y$

[Every neighbourhood is an open set and for any collection $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open sets $\bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$ is open].

since $p \in V_p \quad \forall p \in E$ it is clear that
 $E \subset G \cap Y$ By our choice of V_p we have

By theorem 1.20 where I is a k -cell.

Every k -cell is compact

$\therefore I$ is compact

By theorem 1.21 For $E \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ the following are equivalent

a) E is closed and bounded

(b) E is compact

(c) Every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E
 $\therefore E$ has a limit point in \mathbb{R}^k .

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Perfect sets.

Definition. Countable.

Let J denote the set of all positive integers. A set A is said to be countable if there exist a one-to-one map from A to J .

Theorem : 1.23

Let P be a non-empty perfect set in \mathbb{R}^k then P is uncountable.

Proof. Let P be a non-empty perfect set in \mathbb{R}^k

Since P has a limit point and P must be infinite we claim P is uncountable.

Suppose P is countable say $P = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$.

let V_i be any neighbourhood of x_i . If V_i consists of all $y \in \mathbb{R}^k$ such that $|y - x_i| < r$

The closure of V_i of x_i is the set of all $y \in \mathbb{R}^k$ such that $|y - x_i| \leq r$

Suppose V_n has been constructed so that $V_n \cap P$ is non-empty.

Since every point p is a limit point of P and neighbourhood V_{n+1} such that

i) $\overline{V_{n+1}} \subset V_n$

ii) $x_n \notin \overline{V_{n+1}}$

iii) $V_{n+1} \cap P$ is non-empty

Let P be a limit point of the set E

claim: Every neighbourhood of P contains infinitely many points of E

Suppose there is a neighbourhood of P which contains only a finite number of points of E

Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be those points of $N(P)$ which are distinct from P

$$\text{put } r = \min (1 \leq m \leq n), d(P, a_m)$$

since $P \neq a_i$, $d(P, a_i) > 0$ for all $i=1, 2, \dots$

$$\therefore r > 0$$

i.e) The neighbourhood $N_r(P)$ contains no points a of E such that $a \neq P$

P is not a limit point of E

which is contradiction to our assumption

Hence every neighbourhood of P contains infinitely many points of E

Corollary:

A finite point set has no limit point

Theorem 1.7
Let $\{E_\alpha\}$ be a finite (or) infinite collection of sets

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

Proof: Let $x \in \left(\bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha \right)^c$

$$\therefore x \notin \bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha$$

i.e) $x \notin E_\alpha$ for any α

$$\therefore x \in E_\alpha^c \text{ for every } \alpha$$

$$\therefore x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} (E_\alpha)^c$$

$$\therefore \left(\bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha \right)^c \subset \bigcap_{\alpha} (E_\alpha)^c \rightarrow ①$$

now, Let $x \in \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha^c$

i.e) $x \in E_\alpha^c$ for every α

b) For any collection $\{F_\alpha\}$ of closed sets $\bigcap F_\alpha$ is closed

c) For any finite collection G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n of open sets $\bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i$ is open

d) For any finite collection F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n of closed sets $\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i$ is closed

Proof: Let $\{G_\alpha\}$ be a collection of open sets

$$\text{Let } G_1 = \bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$$

Let $x \in G_1$

then $x \in G_\alpha$ for some α

since x is an interior point of G_α

Hence for any collection $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open sets $\bigcup G_\alpha$ is open

d) b) Let $\{F_\alpha\}$ be a collection of closed sets

By theorem 1.7

$$(\bigcap F_\alpha)^c = \bigcup_\alpha F_\alpha^c \rightarrow \textcircled{*}$$

since F_α is closed, i.e. F_α^c is open

By theorem

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

i.e. $\bigcup_\alpha F_\alpha^c$ is open

$\therefore \bigcup_\alpha F_\alpha^c$ is open

since $(\bigcap F_\alpha)^c$ is open [\because by $\textcircled{*}$]

for Hence $\bigcap F_\alpha$ is closed

Thus any collection $\{F_\alpha\}$ of closed sets $\bigcap F_\alpha$ is closed

c) Let G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n be a collection of open sets

$$\text{Let } H = \bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} c) \quad \text{Now, } d(x, z) &= |x - z| \\ &\leq |x - y| + |y - z| \\ &\leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$$

$\therefore d(x, y)$ satisfies the three conditions of the metric
 $\therefore d(x, y)$ is metric

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

$[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$

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

$(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$

k -cell

④ Definition

If $a_i < b_i$ for $i=1, 2, \dots, k$ the set of all points $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ in \mathbb{R}^k whose co-ordinates satisfy the inequalities $a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i$ ($1 \leq i \leq k$) is called a k -cell

Remark: 1-cell is an interval

2-cell is a rectangle

Definition

open Ball

If $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $r > 0$ then open ball B with center at x and radius r is defined by

$$B(x, r) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^k : |y - x| < r\}$$

Definition: Closed Ball

If $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $r > 0$ the closed ball B with center at x and radius r is defined by

$$B[x, r] = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^k : |y - x| \leq r\}$$

Definition: convex

A set $E \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ is said to be convex. If $\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y \in E$ where $x \in E$, $y \in E$ and $0 < \lambda < 1$

- vii) The complement of E (denoted by E^c),
 P is the set of all points $p \in X$ such that
 $p \notin E$
- viii) E is perfect if E is closed and if every point
of E is a limit point of E
- ix) E is bounded if there is a real number m
and a point $q \in X$ such that $d(p, q) < m$ for
all $p \in E$ 10
- (x) E is called dense set in X if every point of
 X is a limit point of E or a point of E or both.

Theorem 1.5

Every neighbourhood is an open set

Proof:- Let $E = N_r(P)$ be a neighbourhood

Let $q \in E$ $\therefore q \in N_r(P) \Rightarrow d(P, q) < r$

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

Then there exist a real number h such that

$d(P, s) = r - h$ for all points s such that

$d(P, s) < h$ Now, $d(P, s) < d(P, q) + d(q, s)$

$$< r - h + h$$

Hence $d(P, s) < r$

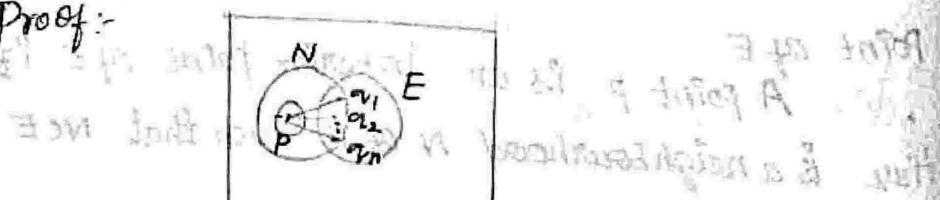
$$\therefore s \in N_r(P)$$

(e) q is an interior point of E

Thus E is open.

Theorem 1.6 10 If P is a limit point of a set E then every
neighbourhood of P contains infinitely many
points of E

Proof:-



UNIT-I

Basic Topology

Finite, countable and uncountable sets



1. Function From A to B

Let A and B be non-empty sets each elements x of A associates with an element of B in some manner then 'f' is said to be Function From A to B (or) mapping of A into B. then elements of B is denoted by $f(x)$. the set of all values of f is called the range of 'f'

2. Image:

Let A and B be two non-empty set and Let 'f' be a mapping of A into B if $E \subset A$ then the set of all elements $f(x)$ for $x \in E$ is said to be Image of E under 'f' denoted by $f(E)$

3. Inverse Image:

Let A and B be two non-empty sets and let 'f' be a mapping of A into B. If $E \subset B$ then inverse Image of E under 'f' is denoted by $f^{-1}(E)$ and defined by $f^{-1}(E) = \{x \in A, f(x) \in E\}$
If $y \in B$ $f^{-1}(y)$ is the set of all $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$

4. Injective:

Let A and B be two non-empty sets the function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is said to be one to one Function. if $x_1 = x_2$ whenever $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

then $E_1 \cup E_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and

$$E_1 \cap E_2 = \{2, 3\}$$

a) let $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$ For every $x \in A$

$$E_x = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : 0 \leq y \leq x\}$$

then i) $E_x \subseteq E_z$ iff $0 \leq x \leq z \leq 1$

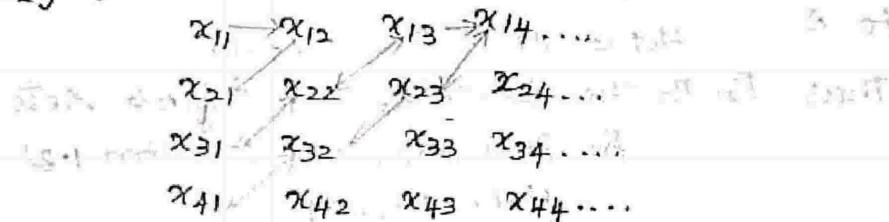
ii) $\bigcup_{x \in A} E_x = E$ (5)

iii) $\bigcap_{x \in A} E_x$ is empty.

Theorem 1.2

Let $\{E_n\}_{n=1,2,3,\dots}$ be a sequence of countable sets and put $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ then S is countable.

Proof: Let Every set E_n be arranged in a sequence $\{x_{n,k}\}_{k=1,2,\dots}$ consider these elements as-



This infinite array contains all elements of S . Arrange these elements in a sequence.

$$x_{1,1}, x_{2,1}, x_{1,2}, x_{3,1}, x_{2,2}, x_{1,3},$$

$$x_{4,1}, x_{3,2}, x_{2,3}, x_{1,4}, \dots \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

If any two of the sets E_n have elements in common. These will appear more than once in $\textcircled{1}$.

Hence $S \setminus T$ where T is the set of all the integers

Corollary: $\therefore S$ is countable

Suppose A is atmost countable and For every $\alpha \in A$,

B_α is atmost countable

$$\text{put } T = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} B_\alpha$$

Then T is atmost countable

* Countable sets are called enumerable (or) denumerable

* If $A \sim B$, we also say that A and B have the same cardinality number or A and B can be put in one to one correspondence

Ex: Prove that the set of all integer 'z' is countable.

Proof: Claim: $\mathbb{Z} \sim \mathbb{N}$

where $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$ (3)

and $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ we can define the function 'f' from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{Z} by

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} n/2 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \frac{-n-1}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

Then 'f' has a one to one correspondence between \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} . Hence \mathbb{Z} is countable.

Remark: * A finite set cannot be equivalent to one of its Proper subsets.

A is finite if 'A' is equivalent to one of its Proper subsets.

q. The terms of the sequence:

A Function 'f' defined on the sets 'J' of all positive integer by $f(n) = x_n$ for all $n \in J$. then the sequence 'f' denoted by the symbol sequence $\{x_n\}$ or x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots . The value of f, x_n are called the terms of the sequence. If 'A' is a set and if $x_n \in A$ for all $n \in J$. Then $\{x_n\}$ is said to be a sequence in A (or) a sequence of element of A.

Note: The terms x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots of a sequence need not be distinct.

Theorem 1.1 Every infinite subset of a countable set A is countable.

Proof: Let $E \subset A$ and E is infinite.

Arrange the elements x of A in a sequence $\{x_n\}$.

Remark

open ball are convex. Let $x \in B(x, r)$, $z \in B(x, r)$ and $0 < \lambda < 1$

if $y \in B(x, r) \Rightarrow |y-x| < r$

if $z \in B(x, r) \Rightarrow |z-x| < r$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} |\lambda y + (1-\lambda)z - x| &= |\lambda y + \lambda z - \lambda x + (1-\lambda)z - x| \\ &= |\lambda(y-z) + (1-\lambda)(z-x)| \\ &\leq \lambda |y-z| + (1-\lambda) |z-x| \\ &< \lambda r + (1-\lambda)r < \lambda r + (1-\lambda)r + r \\ &= r \end{aligned}$$

(9)

$$|\lambda y + (1-\lambda)z - x| < r$$
$$\Rightarrow \lambda y + (1-\lambda)z \in B(x, r)$$

D open balls are convex

a) closed balls are convex

3) k -cells are convex

Some Definitions

i) A neighbourhood of a point p is a set $N_r(p)$ defined by $N_r(p) = \{q : d(p, q) < r\}$

The number ' r ' is called the radius of $N_r(p)$

ii) A point ' p ' is a limit point of the set E . If every neighbourhood of p contains a point $q \neq p$ such that $q \in E$

iii) If $p \in E$ and ' p' is not a limit point of E then p is called an isolated point of E

iv) E is closed if every limit point of E is a point of E

v) E is open if every point of E is an interior point of E

(vi) A point p is an interior point of E if

there is a neighbourhood N of p such that $N \subseteq E$

For all $x_1 \in A$, $x_2 \in A$

(2)

5. Surjective:

Let A and B be two non-empty sets. The function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is said to be onto function if $f(A) = B$.

i.e.) Every element of B has a pre-image in A .

6. Bijection:

If function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is both one-one and onto then f is called a bijection.

7. Equivalent:

If there exists a 1-1 mapping of A onto B then we say that A and B are equivalent.

We write $A \sim B$

Remark:- The relation \sim has the following

Properties

Reflexive: $A \sim A$

Symmetric: If $A \sim B$ then $B \sim A$

Transitive: If $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C$ then $A \sim C$

Any reflexive with these three properties is called an equivalence relation.

Countable and uncountable:

For any positive integer n . Let $J_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ for any set A

* A is finite if $A \sim J_n$, for some n

* A is infinite if A is not finite

* A is countable if $A \sim J$

* A is uncountable if A is neither finite nor countable

* A is at most countable if A is finite or countable

Theorem 1.24

smw P is perfect \Leftrightarrow Cantor is perfect

Proof: To show that P is perfect

It is enough to show that P contains no isolated points

Let $x \in P$

(27)

Let σ be any segment containing x

let I_n be the interval of E_n which contains x

Now, we choose n large enough so that

$I_n \subset \sigma$ Let x_n be a end point of I_n such that

$x_n \neq x$ It follows from the construction P such that

$x_n \in P$

Hence x is a limit point of P

Hence P is perfect

Hence E has at least one limit point

Theorem 1.18

If $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of intervals in \mathbb{R} such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ ($n=1, 2, \dots$) then $\bigcap I_n$ is non-empty.

Proof: Let $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$

(21)

Let E be the set of all a_n

then E is non-empty and bounded above

let x be the sup of E

If m and n are positive integers then $a_m \leq a_n \leq b_n$ since $b_m \leq b_n$

so that, $x \leq b_m$ for each m

Since it is obvious that $a_m \leq x$

$\therefore x \in I_m$ for $m=1, 2, \dots, n$

Hence $\bigcap I_n$ is non-empty.

Theorem 1.19

Let k be a positive integer. If $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of k -cells such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ ($n=1, 2, \dots$) then $\bigcap I_n$ is non-empty.

Proof: Let k be a positive integer.

Let $\{I_n\}$ be a sequence of k -cells such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ where ($n=1, 2, \dots$)

We define $I_n \circ j = [a_{nj}, b_{nj}]$

By theorem 1.1

If I_n is a sequence of an interval in \mathbb{R} such that $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ where $n=1, 2, \dots$ then

$\bigcap I_n$ is non-empty.

\therefore For each j the sequence $\{I_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ satisfies.

Hence there exist a real number $x_{j\#}$ ($1 \leq j \leq k$) such that $a_{nj} \leq x_{j\#} \leq b_{nj}$ ($1 \leq j \leq k$)

($n=1, 2, \dots$) Now we take $x^{\#} = (x_1^{\#}, x_2^{\#}, \dots, x_k^{\#})$

$\therefore x^{\#} \in I_n$ for $n=1, 2, \dots$

Hence $\bigcap I_n$ is non-empty.

Proof: Let E' be a countable subset of A .
 Let E consist of the sequence s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots .
 We construct a sequence 's' as follows:
 If the n^{th} digit in s_n is 1, then n^{th} digit of s is 1.
 Then the sequence 's' differs from every number
 of E at least one place. 7
 Hence $s \notin E$, but $s \in A$.
 $\therefore E$ is a proper subset of ' A '.
 Hence every countable subset of ' A ' is a proper
 subset of A . Hence A is uncountable.

5^m Metric Space 2m
 Now A non-empty set X is said to be metric space if a function $d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies the following conditions
 i) $d(P, Q) = 0$ if $P = Q$
 ii) $d(P, Q) = d(Q, P)$
 iii) $d(P, Q) \leq d(P, R) + d(R, Q)$ for every $R \in X$
 A real number $d(P, Q)$ is called the distance from P to Q and the function d is called a distance function (or) Metric.

Example: Prove that $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ is metric.
 Proof: Clearly, $d(x, y) = |x - y| > 0$ if $x \neq y$.
 Suppose if $x = y$
 $d(x, x) = |x - x| = 0$
 $\therefore d(x, x) = 0$
 b) $d(x, y) = |x - y| = |y - x| = d(y, x)$
 $\therefore d(x, y) = d(y, x)$

such that $k \subset W_{q_1} \cup W_{q_2} \cup \dots \cup W_{q_m} = W$

If $V = v_{q_1} \cap v_{q_2} \cap \dots \cap v_{q_m}$

Then V is a neighbourhood of p which does not intersect W . Hence $V \subset k^c$.

$\therefore p$ is an interior point of k^c .

$\therefore k^c$ is an open subset

Hence k is closed.

By Theorem 1.15
Closed subset of a compact sets are compact

Proof: Suppose $F \subset k^c$

Let F be a closed set and let k be a compact

We claim: F is compact

Let $\{V_\alpha\}$ be an open cover of F

If F is disjointed to $\{V_\alpha\}$ then we obtained an open cover $\{U_\alpha\}$ of k

Since k is compact, then there is a finite subcollection Φ of $\{U_\alpha\}$ which covers k .

(i) $\Phi = k$

If F is a member of Φ then we may remove it from Φ and still retain an open cover of F

A finite sets collection of $\{V_\alpha\}$

Cover F $\therefore F$ is compact

Note: If F is closed and k is compact then $F \cap k$ is compact.

Theorem 1.16

If $\{k_\alpha\}$ is a collection of compact subsets of a metric space X such that the intersection of every non-empty sub collection of $\{k_\alpha\}$ is non-empty then $\bigcap_{\alpha} k_\alpha$ is non-empty.

Proof: Let k_1 be a member of $\{k_\alpha\}$

Let $G_\alpha = k_\alpha^c$

Assume that no point k_1 belongs to every k_i , then the sets G_{ik} form an open cover of k_1 .

Since k_1 is compact then there exist a finitely many indices $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$

$$k_1 \subset U_{\alpha_1} \cup U_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup U_{\alpha_n}$$

(20)

But this means that $k_{\alpha_1}, k_{\alpha_2}, \dots, k_{\alpha_n}$ which is $\not\in$ to our assumption

Result:- Hence $\{k_\alpha\}$ is non-empty.

If $\{k_n\}$ is a sequence of non-empty compact sets such that $k_n > k_{n+1}$ ($n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$) then

$\cap k_n$ is non-empty.

Theorem 1.17.

If E is an infinite subset of a compact K , then E has a limit point $p \in K$.

Proof:- Let K be a compact set

Let E be an infinite subset of K .

We claim : E has a limit point $p \in K$.

(i) To prove, E has at least one limit point

Suppose E has no limit point.

Let $q \in K$

Since q is not a limit point of E ,

then there exists a neighbourhood V_q such that

$$V_q \cap (E - \{q\}) = \emptyset$$

$$\therefore V_q \cap E = \begin{cases} \{q\} & \text{if } q \in E \\ \emptyset & \text{if } q \notin E \end{cases}$$

Now, $\{V_q | q \in K\}$ is an open cover for K .

Also, each V_q covers at most one point of infinite subset E .

Hence this open cover cannot have a finite subcover which is a contradiction.

$\therefore K$ is nonempty.

i.e) $x \notin E_\alpha$ For any α

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

i.e) $x \in (\bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha)^c$

$$\therefore \bigcap_{\alpha} E_\alpha^c \subset (\bigcup_{\alpha} E_\alpha)^c \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

From $\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$ we get,

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

(12)

5m Theorem : 1.8

2m. NOV - 18

viii) The set E is open iff its complement is closed
 $(E^c$ is closed)

Proof: Let X be a metric space and $E \subset X$

Suppose E^c is closed

We claim: E is open

Let $x \in E$, then $x \notin E^c$

$\therefore x$ is not a limit point of E^c

Hence there exist a neighbourhood N of x such that
 $E^c \cap N$ is empty.

i.e) $N \subset E$

$\therefore x$ is an interior point of E

Hence E is open

Conversely, suppose E is open

claim: E^c is closed

Let x be a limit point of E^c

then every neighbourhood of x contains a point
of E^c $\therefore x$ is not an interior point of E

Since E is open

i.e) $x \notin E^c$

Hence E^c is closed.

Theorem: 1.9

a) For any collection $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open sets $\bigcup_{\alpha} G_\alpha$ is
open

Now, suppose every infinite subset of E has a limit points in E

we claim: E is closed

Suppose E is not closed

then there exist a point $x_0 \in R^k$ which is a limit point of E but not a point in E

For $n=1, 2, \dots$ there are some points $x_n \in E$ such that $|x_n - x_0| < 1/n$

Let S be the set of these points x_n . Then S is finite otherwise $|x_n - x_0|$ could has a positive value for infinitely many values n .

$\therefore S$ has x_0 as a limit point in R^k for if $y \in R^k, y \neq x_0$

$$\text{then } |x_n - y| = |(x_n - x_0) + (x_0 - y)|$$

$$E \cdot |x_n - y| - |x_0 - y| \geq |x_0 - y| - |x_0 - x_n|$$

$$\text{Since } n \geq 1, |x_n - x_0| \leq 1/n$$

$$\therefore |x_n - y| - |x_0 - x_n| \geq |x_0 - y| - 1/n$$

$$\geq 1/n \cdot |x_0 - y|$$

For all but finitely many n

Hence y is not a limit point of S

Thus S has no limit point in E

which is $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ to our assumption

$\therefore E$ is closed

From ① & ②, we have,

E is closed and bounded

Theorem 1.22 weierstrass theorem

Every bounded infinite subset of R^k has a limit point in R^k

Proof:- Let E be a bounded infinite subset

of R^k we claim: E has a limit point in R

Since E is bounded

(V)

Unit-II convergent sequences

A sequence $\{P_n\}$ in a metric space is said to converge, if there is a point $P \in X$ with the following property, for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an integer $N \in \mathbb{Z} : m \geq N$ implies that $d(P_n, P) < \epsilon$ [Here d denotes the distance in X .]

In this case we also say that $\{P_n\}$ converges to ω or that P is the limit of $\{P_n\}$ and we write $\{P_n\} \rightarrow P$.

Or, \lim

$$n \rightarrow \infty P_n = P.$$

If $\{P_n\}$ does not converge it is said to be divergent.

Bounded:

The set of all points $P_n (n=1, 2, \dots)$ is the range of $\{P_n\}$. The range of a sequence may be a finite set or it may be an infinite set. The sequence $\{P_n\}$ is said to be bounded if its range is bounded.

unit - III

power series

①

Defn:

Given a sequence $\{c_n\}$ of complex numbers, the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ is called a power series.

note:

when numbers c_n are called the coefficient of the series, z is a complex numbers.

Thm: 3.89

Given the power series $\sum c_n z^n$. put
 $\alpha = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}$, $R = \frac{1}{\alpha}$ then $\sum c_n z^n$ converges $|z| < R$ and it diverges $|z| > R$.

PF:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} \quad \text{no take } c_n = c_n z^n$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|c_n \cdot z^n|}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{|c_n| |z^n|}$$

Algebraic unit - IV of real numbers

Limit of a function: defn

Let x and y be metric space.

Suppose $E \subset X$, f maps E into Y and P is a limit point of E . we write

$$f(x) \rightarrow q \text{ as } x \rightarrow P \text{ or}$$

if $\lim_{x \rightarrow P} f(x) = q$ then

q is called a limit point of E .
if there is a point q such that with the following property. For every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that not

$$\exists x \in E \text{ s.t. } d_Y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$$

for all points $x \in E$ for which

$$\text{when } \forall x \in E \text{ s.t. } d_X(x, P) < \delta$$

Q

Simplification: $P = (0, 0)$ by defn

Let X and Y be metric space. and $E \subset X$. f maps E into Y and P is a limit point of E . Then, not

exists $\lim_{x \rightarrow P} f(x) = q < \delta$ prove, not

Left limit:

A function f is said to have l as the left at $x=a$ if given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $a-\delta < x < a \Rightarrow |f(x) - l| < \epsilon$ and we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = l$ denoted by $f(a^-)$

Unit - V

Definition:

Let f be defined on $[a, b]$ for any $x \in [a, b]$ from the quotient

$$\phi(t) = \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}, \quad (a < t < b, t \neq x)$$

and define

$$f'(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}$$