

MA 509 - REAL ANALYSIS - LECTURE 9

Defn. Let A & Ω be sets. Suppose that with each element α of A there is associated a subset of Ω , denoted by E_α .

The set whose elements are the sets E_α will be denoted by $\{E_\alpha\}$.

Example: $A = \{x : x \in \mathbb{R}, 0 < x \leq 1\} = (0, 1]$.

For every $\alpha \in A$, let $E_\alpha = \{y : y \in \mathbb{R}, 0 < y < \alpha\} = (0, \alpha)$.

Then:

(i) $E_x \subset E_z$ iff $0 < x \leq z \leq 1$.

(ii) $\bigcup_{x \in A} E_x = E_1$.

(iii) $\bigcap_{x \in A} E_x = \emptyset$.

Proof of (iii): For every $y > 0$, if $x < y$, then $y \notin E_x$.

Hence $y \notin \bigcap_{x \in A} E_x$.

Thm. 2.2 Let $\{E_n\}, n \in \mathbb{J}$, be a sequence of countable sets. Let $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$. Then S is countable.

(In particular, a countable union of countable sets is countable.)

Proof: Let every set E_n be arranged in a seq: $\{x_{nk}\}, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Consider the infinite array

x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	\dots
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	\dots
x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}	x_{34}	\dots
x_{41}	x_{42}	x_{43}	x_{44}	\dots
\dots				

For each $n \in \mathbb{J}$, the elements of E_n form the n^{th} row. Note that the above array contains all the elements of S .

Arrange the above elements in the sequence

$x_{11}; x_{21}, x_{12}; x_{31}, x_{22}, x_{13}; x_{41}, x_{32}, x_{23}, x_{14}; \dots$

If any 2 of the sets E_n have elements in common, they will appear more than once in the above sequence.

Hence there is a subset T of the set of natural numbers such that $S \sim T$ so that S is at most countable (by Thm. 2.1).

But E, cS and E, c is infinite $\Rightarrow S$ is infinite.

$\Rightarrow S$ is countable.




Remark: A finite union of countable sets is countable.

Cor. 2.3 Suppose A is at most countable, and for every $\alpha \in A$, B_α is at most countable. Let

$$T = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} B_\alpha.$$

Then T is at most countable.

In other words, an at most countable union of at most countable sets is at most countable.

Proof: Note that $T \subseteq \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ from Thm. 2.2. 

Theorem 2.4 Let A be a countable set, and let B_n be the set of all n -tuples (a_1, \dots, a_n) , where $a_k \in A$, $1 \leq k \leq n$, and the elements a_1, \dots, a_n need not be distinct. Then B_n is countable.


Proof: ① B_1 is countable as $B_1 = A$.

② Suppose B_{n-1} is countable, where $n \in \mathbb{J}$, $n > 1$.

③ The elements of B_n can be written in the form (b, a) , where $b \in B_{n-1}$ and $a \in A$.

Now let b be fixed. Then

$\{(b, a) : b \in B_{n-1} \text{ fixed, } a \in A\} \sim A$, and hence countable. Thus, B_n is a countable union of countable sets, and hence, by Thm. 2.2, is countable.

$\Rightarrow B_n$ is countable by induction $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. 

Cor. 2.5 The set of all rational numbers is countable.

Proof: Let $n=2$ in Theorem 2.4 and note that (a,b) can be identified with a rational $r = \frac{a}{b}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. □

Thm. 2.6 Let A be the set of all sequences whose elements are the digits 0 & 1. Then A is uncountable.

Proof: Let $E \subseteq A$ be countable. Let $E = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$. Note that each s_i is a string consisting of 0's & 1's. We construct a new sequence s as follows:

- If n^{th} digit in s_n is 1, the n^{th} digit of s is 0
- If n^{th} digit in s_n is 0, that in s is 1.

So $s \neq s_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (as it differs at at least one place.)

$\Rightarrow s \notin E$ so that $E \subsetneq A$ (i.e., E is a proper subset of A).

Thus, every countable subset of A is a proper subset of A .

$\Rightarrow A$ is uncountable, for if A were countable, the above sentence would imply $A \subsetneq A$, which is absurd. □

Remark: This process is called Cantor's diagonalization.

Cor. 2.7 \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

Proof: We assume that every real number has a binary representation (base 2). Then the result follows from the above theorem.

□

METRIC SPACES

Defn. A metric space X is a set such that with any two elements p, q of X (called points), there is associated a real number $d(p, q)$ (called the distance from p to q) s.t.

(a) $d(p, q) > 0$ if $p \neq q$ & $d(p, p) = 0$.

(b) $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$

(c) $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$ for any $r \in X$.

(d is called the distance function or metric.)

Ex: ① \mathbb{R} is a metric space.

② \mathbb{R}^k (Euclidean space) with the metric $d(\bar{x} - \bar{y}) = |\bar{x} - \bar{y}|$, ($x, y \in \mathbb{R}^k$).

③ $\mathcal{C}(K)$

• Every subset of a metric space is a metric space.