MATH H110: Homework 1

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1 Real Numbers

3. Recast the following English sentences in mathematics, using correct mathematical grammar. Preserve their meaning.

   (a) *2 is the smallest prime number.* Let $P \subset \mathbb{N}$ denote the set of prime numbers. Consider that $t = 2$ is clearly a member of P. Then for all $p \in P$, $t \leq P$.

   (b) *The area of any bounded plane region is bisected by some line parallel to x-axis.*

   Before we claim the above we must first rigorize the notion of a bounded plane region. The following uses a notion of open and closed sets in $\mathbb{R}^2$.

   Definition 1. *We say that $B_r(x_0)$ is an open ball of radius $r > 0$ if and only if*

   $$B_r(x_0) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \|x - x_0\| < r\}.$$

   Furthermore $\bar{B}_r(x_0)$ is a closed ball of radius $r > 0$ if and only if

   $$\bar{B}_r(x_0) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \|x - x_0\| \leq r\}.$$

   Using the above definition we now give our notion of a bounded plane reigon.

   Definition 2. *If A is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$ we will say that A is the area of a bounded plane region if and only if for every $x \in A$, there is an open or closed ball centered at x which is a subset of A.*

   Lastly, we give the notion of a parallel line to the x-axis

   Definition 3. *We say that $L_r \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is a line parallel to the x-axis at radius r if and only if*

   $$L_r = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \mid y = r\}.$$

   Now it is simple to propose the theorem of symantic equivalence to the question.

   Theorem 1. *Let A be the area of a bounded plane region in $\mathbb{R}^2$. Then, there exists some line parallel to the x-axis of height r, L_r, such that $L_r \cap A \neq \emptyset$ and both*

   $$A_L = \{(x, y) \in A \mid y < r\} \text{ and } A_U = \{(x, y) \in A \mid y \geq r\} \tag{1}$$

   are areas of bounded plane regions.

(c) *"All that glitters is mot gold."* Let G be the set of all object which glitter. Then let A be the set of all gold objects. $A \neq G$.

12. *Prove the following.*

Theorem 2. *There exists no smallest positive real number.*

Proof. Suppose that there exists a smallest real number, say $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Clearly $a > 0$ and so is $\frac{a}{2}$. Furthermore $\frac{a}{2} < a$, and hence we reach a contradiciton. Therefore does not exist a smallest postivie real number. $\square$

Theorem 3. *There exist no smallest positive rational number.*

Proof. Suppose that there exists a smallest rational number, say $q \in \mathbb{Q}$. Clearly $q > 0$ and so is $\frac{q}{2}$. Furthermore $\frac{q}{2} < q$, and hence we reach a contradiciton. Therefore does not exist a smallest postivie rational number. $\square$

Theorem 4. *Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then there does not exist a smallest real number y such that $y > x$.*

Proof. Suppose that such a y exists. Now consider $\frac{x+y}{2} = b$. Clearly $b > x$, and remarkably $b < y$. Hence y is not the smallest real number such that $y > x$. This leads to a contradiction, and therefore there is no smallest y satisfying the conditions.

$\square$

22. *Show the following.*

(a) Fixed points:

Theorem 5. *The function $f : A \to A$ has a fixed point if and only if the graph of f interesects the diagonal.*

Proof. We first show the right implication. If f has a fixed point, then there is some $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = a$. Now consider the graph of f,

$$f(A) = \{(a, f(a) \in A\}.$$

Since f has a fixed point, $f(A)$ contains (a, a). Hence the intersection of $f(A)$ with the diagonal of $A \times A$,D, must contain (a, a) at the least and hence is nonempty.

On the otherhand if the graph of f intersects the diagonal, then there exists some $(a, a) \in D$ such that $(a, a) \in f(A)$. Then by definition of the graph of f, $(a, a) = (a, f(a))$, which implies that $f(a) = a$. This completes the proof. $\square$

(b) Intermediate fixed point

Theorem 6. *Every continuous function $f : [0, 1] \to [0, 1]$ has at least one fixed-point.*

Proof. To show this we recall the intermediate value theorem. More specifically we want to find a function whose 0 exists on $[0,1]$ which implies the theorem. Consider that $f(x) = x$ implies that $0 = f(x) - x$, so let's simply let $q(x) = f(x) - x$. By definition of the bound on the codomain, $g(0) \geq 0$ and $g(1) \leq 0$. Then application of the intermediate value theorem yields that there exists at $c \in [0,1]$ with $g(c) = 0$. Hence, $f(a) = a$. This completes the proof. □

(c) No, consider the case of some function for which $f(x) > x$ on $(0,1)$. Such a function need not attain the value $f(0) = 0, f(1) = 1$ because such values could not possiblt exist on its graph. Hence, $f(x) \neq x$ for all x.

(d) No, consider the function $f(x) = x + 0.5$ when $0 \leq x < 0.5$, and $f(x) = x - 0.5$ when $0.5 \leq x \leq 1$. This function never is equivalent to $g(x) = x$.

23. *Show the following.*

(a) Dyadic squares:

Theorem 7. *If x and y are two dyadic squares, then they are either identical, intersect along a common edge, intersect at a common vertex, or do not intersect at all.*

Proof. Since we must show all cases, let us consider them with respect to the general definition of a planar dyadic cube. In particular, $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}_2^2$. Let us fix x such that

$$x = \left[\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k}\right]^2 \text{ and } y = \left[\frac{q}{2^k}, \frac{q+1}{2^k}\right]^2$$

for some $p, k, q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

If $q = p$, then $y = x$ naturaly. In the case that $q > p+1$ or $q+1 < p$, we have that $x \cap y = \emptyset$. Next consider intersections along different edges. If

$$y = \left[\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k}\right] \times \left[\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p+2}{2^k}\right],$$

then $y \cap x = [(\frac{p}{2^k} \frac{p+1}{2^k}), (\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k})]$. In general,

$$y = \left[\frac{p+r}{2^k}, \frac{p+r+1}{2^k}\right] \times \left[\frac{p+s}{2^k}, \frac{p+s+1}{2^k}\right]$$

implies the following intersections.

If $r = 1, s = 0$, then $x \cap y = \left[(\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p}{2^k}), (\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k})\right]$. If $r = -1, s = 0$, then $x \cap y = \left[(\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p}{2^k}), (\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k})\right]$. If $r = 0, s = 1$, then $x \cap y = \left[(\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k}), (\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k})\right]$. If $r = 0, s = -1$, then $x \cap y = \left[(\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p}{2^k}), (\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p}{2^k})\right]$.

Lastly we need to consider the vertex edge cases. If $r = 1, s = 1$, then $x \cap y = \{(\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k})\}$. If $r = -1, s = 1$, then $x \cap y = \{(\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p+1}{2^k})\}$. If $r = -1, s = -1$, then $x \cap y = \{(\frac{p}{2^k}, \frac{p}{2^k})\}$. If $r = 1, s = -1$, then $x \cap y = \{(\frac{p+1}{2^k}, \frac{p}{2^k})\}$.

Furthermore if r and s attain other values, we have those cases previously considered. Hence the proof is complete.

□

(b)