

Math 131AH – Honors Real Analysis I

University of California, Los Angeles

Duc Vu

Winter 2021

This is math 131AH – Honors Real Analysis I taught by Professor Visan, and our TA is Thierry Laurens. We meet weekly on MWF from 10:00am – 10:50am for lectures. There are two textbooks used for the class, *Principles of Mathematical Analysis* by Rudin and *Metric Spaces* by Copson. You can find other lecture notes at my [github](#) site. Please let me know through my [email](#) if you spot any mathematical errors/typos.

Contents

1	Lec 1: Jan 4, 2021	3
1.1	Logical Statments & Basic Set Theory	3
2	Lec 2: Jan 6, 2021	6
2.1	Mathematical Induction	6
3	Lec 3: Jan 8, 2021	11
3.1	Equivalence Relation	11
3.2	Equivalence Class	11
4	Lec 4: Jan 11, 2021	14
4.1	Field & Ordered Field	14
5	Lec 5: Jan 13, 2021	18
5.1	Ordered Field (Cont'd)	18
6	Lec 6: Jan 15, 2021	21
6.1	Least Upper Bound & Greatest Lower Bound	21
7	Lec 7: Jan 20, 2021	25
7.1	Lec 6 (Cont'd)	25
8	Dis 1: Jan 7, 2021	28
8.1	Logical Statements	28
8.2	Induction	29
9	Dis 2: Jan 14, 2021	30
9.1	Induction (Cont'd)	30
9.2	Fields	31

10 Dis 3: Jan 21, 2021	34
10.1 Upper and Lower Bounds	34
10.2 Dedekind Cuts	35

List of Theorems

7.1 Existence of \mathbb{R}	25
7.2 Archimedean Property	25

List of Definitions

3.1 Equivalence Relation	11
3.4 Equivalence Class	11
4.1 Field	14
4.6 Order Relation	16
4.8 Ordered Field	17
6.1 Boundedness – Maximum and Minimum	21
6.5 Least Upper Bound	22
6.7 Greatest Lower Bound	23
6.8 Bound Property	23
7.7 Dense Set	27
10.3 Dedekind Cuts	35

§1 | Lec 1: Jan 4, 2021

§1.1 Logical Statments & Basic Set Theory

Let A and B be two statements. We write

- A if A is true.
- not A if A is false.
- A and B if both A and B are true.
- A or B if A is true or B is true or both A and B are true (inclusive “or” – it is not either A or B).
- $\underbrace{A \implies B}$: if $(A \text{ and } B)$ or $(\text{not } A)$ – We read this “ A implies B ” or “If A then B ”.

In this case, B is at least as true as A . In particular, a false statement can imply anything.

Example 1.1

Consider the following statement: If x is a natural number (i.e., $x \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, then $x \geq 1$. In this case, $A = “x \text{ is a natural number}”$, $B = “x \geq 1”$. Taking $x = 3$, we get a $T \implies T$. Taking $x = \pi$ we get $F \implies T$. If $x = 0$, we get $F \implies F$.

Example 1.2

Consider the statement: $\underbrace{\text{If a number is less than 10}}_A, \underbrace{\text{then it's less than 20}}_B$.

Taking

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number} &= 5, & T &\implies T \\ &= 15, & F &\implies T \\ &= 25, & F &\implies F \end{aligned}$$

We write $\underbrace{A \iff B}$ if A and B are true together or false together. We read this as “ A is equivalent to B ” or “ A if and only if B ”. Compare these notions to similar ones from set theory. Let X is an ambient space. Let A and B be subsets of X . Then

$$\begin{aligned} A^c &= \{x \in X; x \notin A\} \\ A \cap B &= \{x \in X; x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\} \\ A \cup B &= \{x \in X; x \in A \text{ or } x \in B \text{ or } x \in A \cap B\} \\ A \subseteq B &\text{ corresponds to } A \implies B \\ A = B &\quad A \iff B \end{aligned}$$

Truth table:

A	B	not A	A and B	A or B	$A \implies B$	$A \iff B$
T	T	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T	F
F	F	T	F	F	T	T

Example 1.3

Using the truth table show that $A \implies B$ is logically equivalent to (not A) or B.

A	B	$A \implies B$	not A	(not A) or B
T	T	T	F	T
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T

Homework 1.1. Using the truth table prove De Morgan's laws:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{not } (A \text{ and } B) &= (\text{not } A) \text{ or } (\text{not } B) \\ \text{not } (A \text{ or } B) &= (\text{not } A) \text{ and } (\text{not } B)\end{aligned}$$

Compare this to

$$\begin{aligned}(A \cap B)^c &= A^c \cup B^c \\ (A \cup B)^c &= A^c \cap B^c\end{aligned}$$

Exercise 1.1. Negate the following statement: If A then B.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{not}(A \implies B) &= \text{not}((\text{not } A) \text{ or } B) \\ &= [\text{not}(\text{not } A) \text{ and } (\text{not } B)] \\ &= A \text{ and } (\text{not } B)\end{aligned}$$

The negation is "A is true and B is false".

Example 1.4

Negate the following sentence: If I speak in front of the class, I am nervous.
I speak in front of the class and I am not nervous.

Quantifiers:

- \forall reads "for all" or "for any"
- \exists reads "there is" or "there exists"

The negation of $\forall A, B$ is true is $\exists A$ s.t. B is false.

The negation of $\exists A, B$ is true is $\forall A, B$ is false.

Example 1.5

Negate the following: Every student had coffee or is late for class.

\forall student (had coffee) or (is late for class)

\exists student s.t. not[(had coffee) or (is late for class)]

\exists student s.t. not (had coffee) and not (is late for class)

Ans: There is a student that did not have coffee and is not late for class.

§2 | Lec 2: Jan 6, 2021

§2.1 Mathematical Induction

The natural numbers – $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$; they satisfy the Peano axioms:

N1 $1 \in \mathbb{N}$

N2 If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $n + 1 \in \mathbb{N}$

N3 1 is not the successor of any natural number.

N4 If $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n + 1 = m + 1$ then $n = m$

N5 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Assume that S satisfies the following two conditions:

(i) $1 \in S$

(ii) If $n \in S$ then $n + 1 \in S$

Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Axiom N5 forms the basis for mathematical induction. Assume we want to prove that a property $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then it suffices to verify two steps:

Step 1 (base step): $P(1)$ holds.

Step 2 (inductive step): If $P(n)$ is true for some $n \geq 1$, then $P(n + 1)$ is also true, i.e., $P(n) \implies P(n + 1) \forall n \geq 1$.

Indeed, if we let

$$S = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : P(n) \text{ holds}\}$$

then Step 1 implies $1 \in S$ and Step 2 implies if $n \in S$ then $n + 1 \in S$. By Axiom N5 we deduce $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Example 2.1

Prove that

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Solution: We argue by mathematical induction. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ let $P(n)$ denote the statement

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

Step 1 (Base step): $P(1)$ is the statement

$$1^2 = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{6}$$

which is true, so $P(1)$ holds.

Step 2 (Inductive step): Assume that $P(n)$ holds for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We want to know $P(n+1)$ holds. We know

$$1^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

Let's add $(n+1)^2$ to both sides of $P(n)$

$$\begin{aligned} 1^2 + \dots + n^2 + (n+1)^2 &= \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} + (n+1)^2 \\ &= (n+1) \left[\frac{n(2n+1)}{6} + n+1 \right] \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)}{6} \end{aligned}$$

So $P(n+1)$ holds.

Collecting the two steps, we conclude $P(n)$ holds $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. □

Example 2.2

Prove that $2^n > n^2$ for all $n \geq 5$.

Solution: We argue by mathematical induction. For $n \geq 5$ let $P(n)$ denote the statement $2^n > n^2$.

Step 1 (base step): $P(5)$ is the statement

$$32 = 2^5 > 5^2 = 25$$

which is true. So $P(5)$ holds.

Step 2 (Inductive step): Assume $P(n)$ is true for some $n \geq 5$ and we want to prove $P(n+1)$. We know

$$2^n > n^2$$

Let us manipulate the above inequality to get $P(n+1)$

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{n+1} &> 2n^2 = (n+1)^2 + n^2 - 2n - 1 \\ 2^{n+1} &> (n+1)^2 + (n-1)^2 - 2 \end{aligned}$$

As $n \geq 5$ we have $(n-1)^2 - 2 \geq 4^2 - 2 = 14 \geq 0$. So

$$2^{n+1} > (n+1)^2$$

So $P(n+1)$ holds.

Collecting the two steps, we conclude that $P(n)$ holds $\forall n \geq 5$. □

Remark 2.3. Each of the two steps are essential when arguing by induction. Note that $P(1)$ is true. However, our proof of the second step fails if $n = 1$: $(1-1)^2 - 2 = -2 < 0$. Note that our proof of the second step is valid as soon as

$$(n-1)^2 - 2 \geq 0 \iff (n-1)^2 \geq 2 \iff n-1 \geq 2 \iff n \geq 3$$

However, $P(3)$ fails.

Example 2.4

Prove by mathematical induction that the number $4^n + 15n - 1$ is divisible by 9 for all $n \geq 1$.

Solution: We'll argue by induction. For $n \geq 1$, let $P(n)$ denote the statement that " $4^n + 15n - 1$ is divisible by 9". We write this $9/(4^n + 15n - 1)$.

Step 1: $4^1 + 15 \cdot 1 - 1 = 18 = 9 \cdot 2$. This is divisible by 9, so $P(1)$ holds.

Step 2: Assume $P(n)$ is true for some $n \geq 1$. We want to show $P(n+1)$ holds.

$$\begin{aligned} 4^{n+1} + 15(n+1) - 1 &= 4(4^n + 15n - 1) - 60n + 4 + 15n + 14 \\ &= 4(4^n + 15n - 1) - 45n + 18 \\ &= 4(4^n + 15n - 1) - 9(5n - 2) \end{aligned}$$

By the inductive hypothesis, $9/(4^n + 15n - 1) \implies 9/4(4^n + 15n - 1)$. Also $9/9 \underbrace{(5n - 2)}_{\in \mathbb{N}}$.

So

$$9/[4(4^n + 15n - 1) - 9(5n - 2)]$$

So $P(n+1)$ holds. Collecting the two steps, we conclude $P(n)$ holds $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

Example 2.5

Compute the following sum and then use mathematical induction to prove your answer: for $n \geq 1$

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 5} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 7} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)}$$

Solution: Note that $\frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{1}{2n+1} \right] \forall n \geq 1$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 5} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)} &= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{5} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{1}{2n+1} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{2n}{2n+1} = \frac{n}{2n+1} \end{aligned}$$

For $n \geq 1$, let $P(n)$ denote the statement

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 5} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)} = \frac{n}{2n+1}$$

Step 1: $P(1)$ becomes $\frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} = \frac{1}{3}$, which is true. So $P(1)$ holds.

Step 2: Assume $P(n)$ holds for some $n \geq 1$. We want to show $P(n+1)$. We know

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)} = \frac{n}{2n+1}$$

Let's add $\frac{1}{(2n+1)(2n+3)}$ to both sides

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2n+1)(2n+3)} &= \frac{n}{2n+1} + \frac{1}{(2n+1)(2n+3)} \\ &= \frac{2n^2 + 3n + 1}{(2n+1)(2n+3)} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{(2n+1)(2n+3)} \\ &= \frac{n+1}{2n+3} \end{aligned}$$

So $P(n+1)$ holds.

Collecting the two steps, we conclude $P(n)$ holds for $\forall n \geq 1$. □

§3 | Lec 3: Jan 8, 2021

§3.1 Equivalence Relation

The set of integers is $\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \cup \{-n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Definition 3.1 (Equivalence Relation) — An equivalence relation \sim on a non-empty set A satisfies the following three properties:

- Reflexivity: $a \sim a, \forall a \in A$
- Symmetry: If $a, b \in A$ are such that $a \sim b$, then $b \sim a$
- Transitivity: If $a, b, c \in A$ are such that $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, then $a \sim c$.

Example 3.2

$=$ is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .

Example 3.3

Let $q \in \mathbb{N}, q > 1$. For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we write $a \sim b$ if $q/(a - b)$. This is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} . Indeed, it suffices to check 3 properties:

- Reflexivity: If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $a - a = 0$, which is divisible by q . So $q/(a - a) \iff a \sim a$.
- Symmetry: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \sim b \iff q/(a - b)$ which means there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $a - b = kq \implies b - a = \underbrace{-k}_{\in \mathbb{Z}} \cdot q$. So $q/(b - a) \iff b \sim a$.
- Transitivity: Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, $a \sim b \iff q/(a - b) \implies \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $a - b = q \cdot n$. And $b \sim c \iff q/(b - c) \implies \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $b - c = q \cdot m$. So, we must have $a - c = q \underbrace{(n + m)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}}$. So $q/(a - c) \iff a \sim c$.

§3.2 Equivalence Class

Definition 3.4 (Equivalence Class) — Let \sim denote an equivalence relation on a non-empty set A . The equivalence class of an element $a \in A$ is given by

$$C(a) = \{b \in A : a \sim b\}$$

Proposition 3.5 (Properties of Equivalence Classes)

Let \sim denote an equivalence relation on a non-empty set A . Then

1. $a \in C(a) \quad \forall a \in A$.
2. If $a, b \in A$ are such that $a \sim b$, then $C(a) = C(b)$.
3. If $a, b \in A$ are such that $a \not\sim b$, then $C(a) \cap C(b) = \emptyset$.
4. $A = \bigcup_{a \in A} C(a)$

Proof. 1. By reflexivity, $a \sim a \quad \forall a \in A \implies a \in C(a) \quad \forall a \in A$.

2. Assume $a, b \in A$ with $a \sim b$. Let's show $C(a) \subseteq C(b)$. Let $c \in C(a)$ be arbitrary. Then $a \sim c$ (by definition). As $a \sim b$ (by hypothesis), which implies $b \sim a$ (by symmetry). By transitivity, we obtain $b \sim c \implies c \in C(b)$. This proves that $C(a) \subseteq C(b)$.

A similar argument shows that $C(b) \subseteq C(a)$. Putting the two together, we obtain $C(a) = C(b)$.

3. We argue by contradiction. Assume that $a, b \in A$ are such that $a \not\sim b$, but $C(a) \cap C(b) \neq \emptyset$. Let $c \in C(a) \cap C(b)$.

$$\begin{aligned} c \in C(a) &\implies a \sim c \\ c \in C(b) &\implies b \sim c \implies c \sim b \quad (\text{by symmetry}) \end{aligned}$$

By transitivity, $a \sim b$. This contradicts the hypothesis $a \not\sim b$. This proves that if $a \not\sim b$ then $C(a) \cap C(b) = \emptyset$.

4. Clearly, $C(a) \subseteq A \quad \forall a \in A$, we get

$$\bigcup_{a \in A} C(a) \subseteq A$$

Conversely, $A = \bigcup_{a \in A} \{a\} \subseteq \bigcup_{a \in A} C(a)$. Putting everything together, we obtain $A = \bigcup_{a \in A} C(a)$. \square

Example 3.6

Take $q = 2$ in our previous example: for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we write $a \sim b$ if $2 \mid (a - b)$. The equivalence classes are

$$\begin{aligned} C(0) &= \{a \in \mathbb{Z} : 2 \mid (a - 0)\} = \{2n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \\ C(1) &= \{a \in \mathbb{Z} : 2 \mid (a - 1)\} = \{2n + 1 : n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \\ \mathbb{Z} &= C(0) \cup C(1) \end{aligned}$$

Let $F = \{(a, b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} : b \neq 0\}$. If $(a, b), (c, d) \in F$ we write $(a, b) \sim (c, d)$ if $ad = bc$.

Example 3.7

$$(1, 2) \sim (2, 4) \sim (3, 6) \sim (-4, -8).$$

Lemma 3.8

\sim is an equivalence relation on F .

Proof. We have to check 3 properties:

- Reflexivity: Fix $(a, b) \in F$. As $ab = ba$ we have $(a, b) \sim (a, b)$

- Symmetry: Let $(a, b), (c, d) \in F$ such that

$$(a, b) \sim (c, d) \iff ad = bc \iff cb = da \iff (c, d) \sim (a, b)$$

- Transitivity: Let $(a, b), (c, d), (e, f) \in F$ such that $(a, b) \sim (c, d)$ and $(c, d) \sim (e, f)$.

$$(a, b) \sim (c, d) \iff ad = bc \implies adf = bcf$$

$$(c, d) \sim (e, f) \iff cf = de \implies cfb = deb$$

$$\implies adf = deb \implies \underbrace{d}_{\neq 0}(af - be) = 0, \text{ so } af = be \iff (a, b) \sim (e, f).$$

□

For $(a, b) \in F$, we denote its equivalence class by $\frac{a}{b}$. We define addition and multiplication of equivalence classes as follows:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd}; \quad \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}$$

We have to check that these operations are well-defined. Specifically, if $(a, b) \sim (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \sim (c', d')$ then

$$(ad + bc, bd) \sim (a'd' + b'c', b'd') \tag{1}$$

$$(ac, bd) \sim (a'c', b'd') \tag{2}$$

Let's check (1). We want to show

$$(ad + bc)b'd' = bd(a'd' + b'c')$$

We know

$$(a, b) \sim (a', b') \iff ab' = ba' \quad | \cdot dd'$$

$$(c, d) \sim (c', d') \iff cd' = dc' \quad | \cdot bb'$$

Adding the two (after multiplying the two terms) together, we have

$$ab'dd' + cd'bb' = ba'dd' + dc'bb'$$

$$(ad + bc)b'd' = bd(a'd' + b'c')$$

This proves addition is well defined.

The set of rational numbers is

Hw: Check (2)

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} : (a, b) \in F \right\}$$

§4 | Lec 4: Jan 11, 2021

§4.1 Field & Ordered Field

Definition 4.1 (Field) — A field is a set F with at least two elements with two operators: addition (denoted $+$) and multiplication (denoted \cdot) that satisfy the following

- A1) Closure: if $a, b \in F$ then $a + b \in F$
- A2) Commutativity: if $a, b \in F$ then $a + b = b + a$
- A3) Associativity: if $a, b, c \in F$ then $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$
- A4) Identity: $\exists 0 \in F$ s.t. $a + 0 = 0 + a = a \forall a \in F$
- A5) Inverse: $\forall a \in F \exists (-a) \in F$ s.t. $a + (-a) = -a + a = 0$
- M1) Closure: if $a, b \in F$ then $a \cdot b \in F$
- M2) Commutativity: if $a, b \in F$ then $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$
- M3) Associativity: if $a, b, c \in F$ then $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$
- M4) Identity: $\exists 1 \in F$ s.t. $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a \forall a \in F$
- M5) Inverse: $\forall a \in F \setminus \{0\} \exists a^{-1} \in F$ s.t. $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$
- D) Distributivity: if $a, b, c \in F$ then $(a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$

Example 4.2

$(\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot)$ is not a field. A4 fails.

Example 4.3

$(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is not a field. M5 fails.

Example 4.4

$(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ is a field.

Hw

Recall:

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} : (a, b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}) \right\}$$

where $\frac{a}{b}$ denotes the equivalence class of $(a, b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\})$ with respect to the equivalence relation

$$(a, b) \sim (c, d) \iff a \cdot d = b \cdot c$$

Note $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{2}{4}$ because $(1, 2) \sim (2, 4)$. We defined

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd} \quad \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}$$

Additive identity $\frac{0}{1}$ equivalence class $(0, 1)$.

Multiplicative identity $\frac{1}{1}$ equivalence class of $(1, 1)$.

Additive inverse: $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ has inverse $-\frac{a}{b}$

Multiplicative inverse: $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{\frac{0}{1}\}$ has inverse $\frac{b}{a}$.

Proposition 4.5

Let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field. Then

1. The additive and multiplicative identities are unique.
2. The additive and multiplicative inverses are unique.
3. If $a, b, c \in F$ s.t. $a + b = a + c$ then $b = c$. In particular, if $a + b = a$ then $b = 0$.
- 3'. If $a, b, c \in F$ s.t. $a \neq 0$ and $a \cdot b = a \cdot c$ then $b = c$. In particular, $a \neq 0$ and $a \cdot b = a$ then $b = 1$.
4. $a \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot a = 0 \forall a \in F$.
5. If $a, b \in F$ then $(-a) \cdot b = a \cdot (-b) = -(a \cdot b)$
6. If $a, b \in F$ then $(-a) \cdot (-b) = a \cdot b$
7. If $a \cdot b = 0$ then $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

Proof. 1. We'll show the additive identity is unique. Assume

$$\exists 0, 0' \in F \text{ s.t. } \forall a \in F, \begin{cases} a + 0 = 0 + a = a & (i) \\ a + 0' = 0' + a = a & (ii) \end{cases}$$

Take $a = 0'$ in (i) and $a = 0$ in (ii) to get

$$\begin{cases} 0' + 0 = 0' \\ 0' + 0 = 0 \end{cases} \implies 0 = 0'$$

2. We'll show that the additive inverse is unique. Let $a \in F$. Assume $\exists(-a), a' \in F$ s.t.

$$\begin{cases} -a + a = a + (-a) = 0 \\ a' + a = a + a' = 0 \end{cases}$$

We have

$$a' + a = 0 \quad | + (-a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (a' + a) + (-a) &= 0 + (-a) \xrightarrow{A3, A4} a' + (a + (-a)) = -a \\ &\xrightarrow{A5} a' + 0 = -a \xrightarrow{A4} a' = -a \end{aligned}$$

3. Assume $a + b = a + c$ | $+(-a)$ to the left

$$\begin{aligned} -a + (a + b) &= -a + (a + c) \\ \xrightarrow{A3} (-a + a) + b &= (-a + a) + c \\ \xrightarrow{A5} 0 + b = 0 + c &\xrightarrow{A4} b = c \end{aligned}$$

So if $a + b = a = a + 0$, then $b = 0$.

4.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &\stackrel{A4}{=} a \cdot (0 + 0) \stackrel{D}{=} a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0 \stackrel{(3)}{\implies} a \cdot 0 = 0 \\ 0 \cdot a &\stackrel{A4}{=} (0 + 0) \cdot a = 0 \cdot a + 0 \cdot a \stackrel{(3)}{\implies} 0 \cdot a = 0 \end{aligned}$$

5. $(-a) \cdot b + a \cdot b \stackrel{D}{=} (-a + a) \cdot \stackrel{A5}{=} 0 \cdot b \stackrel{(4)}{=} 0 \implies (-a) \cdot b = -(a \cdot b)$. Similarly, $a \cdot (-b) = -(a \cdot b)$.

6. $(-a) \cdot (-b) + [-(a \cdot b)] \stackrel{(5)}{=} (-a) \cdot (-b) + (-a) \cdot b \stackrel{D}{=} (-a)(-b + b) \stackrel{A5}{=} (-a) \cdot 0 \stackrel{(4)}{=} 0$. So $(-a) \cdot (-b) = a \cdot b$.

7. Assume $a \cdot b = 0$. Assume $a \neq 0$. Want to show $b = 0$. As $a \neq 0$ then $\exists a^{-1} \in F$ s.t. $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot b = 0 \quad | \cdot a^{-1} \text{ to the left} \\ a^{-1} \cdot (a \cdot b) = a^{-1} \cdot 0 \xrightarrow{M3,(4)} (a^{-1} \cdot a) \cdot b = 0 \xrightarrow{M5} 1 \cdot b = 0 \xrightarrow{M4} b = 0 \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Definition 4.6 (Order Relation) — An order relation $<$ on a non-empty set A satisfies the following properties:

- Trichotomy: if $a, b \in A$ then one and only one of the following statement holds: $a < b$ or $a = b$ or $b < a$.
- Transitivity: if $a, b, c \in A$ such that $a < b$ and $b < c$, then $a < c$.

Example 4.7

For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we write $a < b$ if $b - a \in \mathbb{N}$. This is an order relation.

Notation: We write

$$\begin{aligned} a > b &\text{ if } b < a \\ a \leq b &\text{ if } [a < b \text{ or } a = b] \\ a \geq b &\text{ if } b \leq a \end{aligned}$$

Definition 4.8 (Ordered Field) — Let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field. We say $(F, +, \cdot)$ is an ordered field if it is equipped with an order relation $<$ that satisfies the following

- 01) if $a, b, c \in F$ such that $a < b$ then $a + c < b + c$.
- 02) if $a, b, c \in F$ such that $a < b$ and $0 < c$ then $a \cdot c < b \cdot c$.

Note:

To check something is an ordered field, we have to check that it satisfies the properties of order relation and ordered field.

§5 | Lec 5: Jan 13, 2021

§5.1 Ordered Field (Cont'd)

Proposition 5.1

Let $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ be an ordered field. Then,

1. $a > 0 \iff -a < 0$.
2. If $a, b, c \in F$ are such that $a < b$ and $c < 0$, then $ac > bc$.
3. If $a \in F \setminus \{0\}$ then $a^2 = a \cdot a > 0$. In particular, $1 > 0$.
4. If $a, b \in F$ are such that $0 < a < b$ then $0 < b^{-1} < a^{-1}$.

Proof. 1. Let's prove " \implies ". Assume $a > 0$.

$$\xRightarrow{01} a + (-a) > 0 + (-a) \xRightarrow{A5, A4} 0 > -a$$

Let's prove " \impliedby ". Assume $-a < 0$

$$\xRightarrow{01} -a + a < 0 + a \xRightarrow{A5, A4} 0 < a$$

2. Assume $a < b$ and $c < 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{cases} a < b \\ c < 0 \end{cases} &\xRightarrow{01} -c > 0 && \xRightarrow{02} a \cdot (-c) < b \cdot (-c) \\ &&& \xRightarrow{01} -ac + (ac + bc) < -bc + (ac + bc) \\ &&& \xRightarrow{A3, A2} (-ac + ac) + bc < -bc + (bc + ac) \\ &&& \xRightarrow{A5, A3} 0 + bc < (-bc + bc) + ac \\ &&& \xRightarrow{A4, A5} bc < 0 + ac \\ &&& \xRightarrow{A4} bc < ac \end{aligned}$$

3. By trichotomy, exactly one of the following hold:

$$a > 0 \xRightarrow{02} a \cdot a > 0 \cdot a \implies a^2 > 0$$

or

$$a < 0 \xRightarrow{2)} a \cdot a > 0 \cdot a \implies a^2 > 0$$

4. First we show that if $a > 0$ then $a^{-1} > 0$. Let's argue by contradiction. Assume $\exists a \in F$ s.t. $a > 0$ but $a^{-1} < 0$. Then

$$\begin{cases} a > 0 \\ a^{-1} < 0 \end{cases} \xRightarrow{(2)} a \cdot a^{-1} < 0 \xRightarrow{M5} 1 < 0$$

This contradicts (3). So if $a > 0$ then $a^{-1} > 0$.

Say

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 < a < b \quad | \cdot a^{-1} \cdot b^{-1} \\
 &\xRightarrow{02} 0 \cdot (a^{-1} \cdot b^{-1}) < a \cdot (a^{-1} \cdot b^{-1}) < b \cdot (a^{-1} \cdot b^{-1}) \\
 &\xRightarrow{M3, M2} 0 < (a \cdot a^{-1}) \cdot b^{-1} < b \cdot (b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}) \\
 &\xRightarrow{M5, M3} 0 < 1 \cdot b^{-1} < (b \cdot b^{-1}) \cdot a^{-1} \\
 &\xRightarrow{M4, M5} 0 < b^{-1} < 1 \cdot a^{-1} \\
 &\xRightarrow{M4} 0 < b^{-1} < a^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 5.2

Let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field. The following are equivalent

- 1) F is an ordered field.
- 2) There exists $P \subseteq F$ that satisfies the following properties
 - 01') For every $a \in F$ one and only one of the following statements holds: $a \in P$ or $a = 0$ or $-a \in P$.
 - 02') If $a, b \in P$ then $a + b \in P$ and $a \cdot b \in P$.

Proof. Let's show $1) \implies 2)$. Define $P = \{a \in F : a > 0\}$. Let's check (01'). Fix $a \in F$. By trichotomy for the order relation on F we get that exactly one of the following statements is true:

- $a > 0 \implies a \in P$.
- $a = 0$.
- $a < 0 \implies -a > 0 \implies -a \in P$.

Let's check (02'). Fix $a, b \in P$.

$$\begin{cases} a \in P \implies a > 0 \\ b \in P \implies b > 0 \end{cases} \xRightarrow{01} a + b > 0 + b \stackrel{A4}{=} b > 0 \implies a + b \in P$$

And

$$\begin{cases} a \in P \implies a > 0 \\ b \in P \implies b > 0 \end{cases} | \cdot b \xRightarrow{02} a \cdot b > 0 \cdot b = 0 \implies a \cdot b \in P$$

Let's check that $2) \implies 1)$.

For $a, b \in F$ we write $a < b$ if $b - a \in P$. Let's check this is an order relation.

- Trichotomy: Fix $a, b \in F$. By 01') exactly one of the following hold:

$$\begin{aligned} b - a \in P &\implies a < b \\ b - a = 0 &\implies a = b \\ -(b - a) \in P &\implies a - b \in P \implies b < a \end{aligned}$$

- Transitivity Assume $a, b, c \in F$ s.t. $a < b$ and $b < c$

$$\begin{cases} a < b \implies b - a \in P \\ b < c \implies c - b \in P \end{cases} \xrightarrow{02'} (b - a) + (c - b) \in P \implies c - a \in P \implies a < c$$

Now let's check that with this order relation, F is an ordered field. We have to check 01 and 02.

$$01) \text{ Fix } a, b, c \in F \text{ s.t. } a < b \implies b - a \in P \implies b - a \in P \implies (b + c) - (a + c) \in P \implies a + c < b + c.$$

$$02) \text{ Fix } a, b, c \in F \text{ s.t. } a < b \text{ and } 0 < c$$

$$\begin{cases} a < b \implies b - a \in P \\ 0 < c \implies c - 0 = c \in P \end{cases} \xrightarrow{02'} (b - a) \cdot c \in P \xrightarrow{D} b \cdot c - a \cdot c \in P \implies a \cdot c < b \cdot c$$

□

We extend the order relation $<$ from \mathbb{Z} to the field $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ by writing $\frac{a}{b} > 0$ if $a \cdot b > 0$. Let's see this is well defined. Specifically, we need to show that if $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$, i.e., $(a, b) \sim (c, d)$ and $a \cdot b > 0$ then $c \cdot d > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} (a, b) \sim (c, d) &\implies a \cdot d = b \cdot c \quad | \cdot (ad) \\ &\implies 0 < (ad)^2 = (ab) \cdot (cd) \text{ where } a \cdot d \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\begin{cases} 0 < (ab) \cdot (cd) \\ 0 < ab \end{cases} \implies cd > 0 \implies \frac{c}{d} > 0$$

Let $P = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q} : \frac{a}{b} > 0 \right\}$. By the theorem, to prove that \mathbb{Q} is an ordered field, it suffices to show that P satisfies (01') and (02').

Hw: check (01') and (02')

§6 | Lec 6: Jan 15, 2021

§6.1 Least Upper Bound & Greatest Lower Bound

Definition 6.1 (Boundedness – Maximum and Minimum) — Let $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ be an ordered field. Let $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq F$. We say that A is bounded above if $\exists M \in F$ s.t. $a \leq M \forall a \in A$. Then M is called an upper bound for A . If moreover, $M \in A$ then we say that M is the maximum of A .

We say that A is bounded below if $\exists m \in F$ s.t. $m \leq a \forall a \in A$. Then m is called a lower bound for A . If moreover, $m \in A$ then we say that m is the minimum of A .

We say that A is bounded if A is bounded both above and below.

Example 6.2

$$A = \left\{ 1 + \frac{(-1)^n}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}.$$

- 3 is an upper bound for A .
- $\frac{3}{2}$ is the maximum of A .
- 0 is a lower bound for A ; 0 is the minimum of A .

Example 6.3

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : 0 < x^4 \leq 16\} \text{ bounded.}$$

- 2 is the maximum of A .
- -2 is the minimum of A .

Example 6.4

$A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\}$ bounded.

- 2 is an upper bound for A .
- -2 is lower bound for A .
- A does not have a maximum. Indeed, let $x \in A$. We'll construct $y \in A$ s.t. $y > x$. Define $y = x + \frac{2-x^2}{2+x}$.

$$x \in A \implies x \in \mathbb{Q} \implies 2 - x^2, 2 + x \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$$x \in A \implies 2 + x > 0 \implies \frac{1}{2+x} \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$$\implies \frac{2-x^2}{2+x} \in \mathbb{Q} \implies y \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ (i). Also note}$$

$$\begin{cases} 2 - x^2 > 0 \text{ (as } x \in A) \\ 2 + x > 0 \implies \frac{1}{2+x} > 0 \end{cases} \implies \frac{2 - x^2}{2 + x} > 0$$

$$\text{So } y = x + \frac{2-x^2}{2+x} > x \text{ (ii). Let's compute } y^2 = \left(\frac{2x+x^2+2-x^2}{2+x} \right)^2 = \frac{2(x^2+4x+4)+2x^2-4}{x^2+4x+4} = 2 + \underbrace{\frac{2(x^2-2)}{(x+2)^2}}_{<0}. \text{ So } y^2 < 2. \text{ (iii)}$$

So collecting (i) – (iii) we get $y \in A$ and $y > x$.

Homework 6.1. Show that the maximum and minimum of a set are unique, if they exist.

Definition 6.5 (Least Upper Bound) — Let $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ be an ordered field. Let $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq F$ and assume A is bounded above. We say that L is the least upper bound of A if it satisfies:

1. L is an upper bound of A .
2. If M is an upper bound of A then $L \leq M$.

We write $L = \sup A$ and we say L is the supremum of A .

Lemma 6.6

The least upper bound of a set is unique, if it exists.

Proof. Say that a set $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq F$, A bounded above, admits two least upper bounds L, M .

L is a least upper bound $\xRightarrow{(1)}$ L is an upper bound for A .

M is a least upper bound $\xRightarrow{(2)}$ $M \leq L$.

M is a least upper bound for $A \xRightarrow{(1)} M$ is an upper bound for $A \implies L$ is a least upper bound for $A \xRightarrow{(2)} L \leq m$. So $L = M$. \square

Definition 6.7 (Greatest Lower Bound) — Let $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ be an ordered field. Let $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq F$ and assume A is bounded below. We say that l is the greatest lower bound of A if it satisfies

1. l is a lower bound of A .
2. If m is a lower bound of A then $m \leq l$.

We write $l = \inf A$ and we say l is the infimum of A .

Homework 6.2. Show that the greatest lower bound of a set is unique if it exists.

Definition 6.8 (Bound Property) — Let $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ be an ordered field. Let $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq F$. We say that S has the least upper bound property if it satisfies the following: For any non-empty subset A of S is bounded above, there exists a least upper bound of A and $\sup A \in S$.

We say that S has the greatest lower bound property if it satisfies the following: $\forall \emptyset \neq A \subseteq S$ with A bounded below, $\exists \inf A \in S$.

Example 6.9

$(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot, <)$ is an ordered field.

$\emptyset \neq \mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$, \mathbb{N} has the least upper bound property. Indeed if $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, A bounded above, then the largest elements in A is the least upper bound of A and $\sup A \in \mathbb{N}$. \mathbb{N} also has the greatest lower bound property.

Example 6.10

$(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot, <)$ is an ordered field.

$\emptyset \neq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$, \mathbb{Q} does not have the least upper bound property.

Indeed, $\emptyset \neq A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \geq 0 \text{ and } x^2 < 2\} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$. A is bounded above by 2. However, $\sup A = \sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proposition 6.11

Let $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ be an ordered field. Then F has the least upper bound property if and only if it has the greatest lower bound property.

Proof. (\implies) Assume F has the least upper bound property. Let $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq F$ bounded below. WTS $\exists \inf A \in F$. A is bounded below $\implies \exists m \in F$ s.t. $m \leq a \forall a \in A$. Let

$B = \{b \in F : b \text{ is a lower bound for } A\}$. Note $B \neq \emptyset$ (as $m \in B$), $B \subseteq F$, B is bounded above (every element in A is an upper bound for B) and F has the least upper bound property $\implies \sup B \in F$.

Claim 6.1. $\sup B = \inf A$.

(Cont'd – Lec 7)

□

§7 | Lec 7: Jan 20, 2021

§7.1 Lec 6 (Cont'd)

Proof. (Cont'd of proposition 6.11)

Claim 7.1. $\sup B = \inf A$.

Method 1:

- $\sup B$ is a lower bound for A . Indeed, let $a \in A$. We know that $a \geq b \quad \forall b \in B$. $\sup B$ is the least upper bound for $B \implies a \geq \sup B$. As $a \in A$ was arbitrary, we conclude that $\sup B \leq a \quad \forall a \in A$ and so $\sup B$ is a lower bound for A .
- If l is a lower bound for A then $l \leq \sup B$. Well, l is a lower bound for $A \implies l \in B$ and $\sup B$ is an upper bound for B . So $l \leq \sup B$.

Collecting the two bullet points above, we find that $\inf A = \sup B$.

Method 2: Let $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq F$ s.t. A is bounded below. Let $B = \{-a : a \in A\}$. Note $B \subseteq F$ by A5. $B \neq \emptyset$ because $A \neq \emptyset$. B is bounded above: indeed if m is a lower bound for A then $-m$ is an upper bound for B .

$$m \leq a \quad \forall a \in A \implies -m \geq -a \quad \forall a \in A$$

F has the least upper bound property. Altogether, it implies that $\sup B \in F$. In Hw3, you show $-\sup B = \inf A \in F$ (by A5). \square

Homework 7.1. Prove the “ \Leftarrow ” direction.

Theorem 7.1 (Existence of \mathbb{R})

There exists an ordered field with the least upper bound property. We denote it \mathbb{R} and we call it the set of real numbers. \mathbb{R} contains \mathbb{Q} as a subfield. Moreover, we have the following uniqueness property: If $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ is an ordered field with the least upper bound property, then F is order isomorphic with \mathbb{R} , that is, there exists a bijection $\phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow F$ such that

$$\text{i) } \phi(\underbrace{x + y}_{\mathbb{R}}) = \phi(x) \underbrace{+}_{F} \phi(y)$$

$$\text{ii) } \phi(\underbrace{x \cdot y}_{\mathbb{R}}) = \phi(x) \underbrace{\cdot}_{F} \phi(y)$$

$$\text{iii) If } \underbrace{x < y}_{\mathbb{R}} \text{ then } \phi(x) \underbrace{<}_F \phi(y)$$

Theorem 7.2 (Archimedean Property)

\mathbb{R} has the Archimedean property, that is, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \quad \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } x < n$.

Proof. We argue by contradiction. Assume

$$\exists x_0 \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } x_0 \geq n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Then $\emptyset \neq \mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. \mathbb{N} is bounded above by x_0 . \mathbb{R} has the least upper bound property $\implies \exists L = \sup \mathbb{N} \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\begin{cases} L = \sup \mathbb{N} \\ L - 1 < L \end{cases} \implies L - 1 \text{ is not an upper bound for } \mathbb{N}$$

$\implies \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $n_0 > L - 1$. So $\sup \mathbb{N} = L < n_0 + 1 \in \mathbb{N}$, which is a contradiction. \square

Remark 7.3. \mathbb{Q} has the Archimedean property.

If $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ is s.t. then choose $n = 1$. For $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ is s.t. $r > 0$, then write $r = \frac{p}{q}$ with $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$. Choose $n = p + 1$ since $\frac{p}{q} < p + 1$.

Corollary 7.4

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a > 0, b > 0$ then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $n \cdot a > b$.

Proof. Apply the Archimedean Property to $x = \frac{b}{a}$. \square

Corollary 7.5

If $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$.

Proof. Apply the Archimedean property to $x = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$. \square

Lemma 7.6

For any $a \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $N \leq a \leq N + 1$.

Proof. Case 1: $a = 0$. Take $N = 0$.

Case 2: $a > 0$. Consider $A = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \leq a\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $A \neq \emptyset (0 \in A)$. A is bounded above by a . \mathbb{R} has the least upper bound property. So $\exists L = \sup A \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$L - 1 < L = \sup A \implies L - 1 \text{ is not an upper bound for } A$$

$\implies \exists N \in A$ s.t. $L - 1 < N \implies L < N + 1$ but $L = \sup A$, so $N + 1 \notin A$. So

$$\begin{cases} N \in A \implies N \leq a \\ N + 1 \notin A \implies N + 1 > a \end{cases} \implies N \leq a < N + 1$$

Case 3: $a < 0 \implies -a > 0$. By case 2, $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $n \leq -a < n + 1$. So $-n - 1 < a \leq -n$. If $a = -n$, let $N = -n$ and so $N \leq a < N + 1$. If $a < -n$ let $N = -n - 1$ and so $N \leq a < N + 1$. \square

Definition 7.7 (Dense Set) — We say that a subset A of \mathbb{R} is dense in \mathbb{R} if for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x < y$ there exists $a \in A$ such that $x < a < y$.

Lemma 7.8

\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x < y$. Since $y - x > 0$ by corollary 7.5, $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{n} < y - x \implies \frac{1}{n} + x < y$.

Consider $nx \in \mathbb{R}$. By the lemma 7.6, $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t.

$$m \leq nx < m + 1 \implies \frac{m}{n} \leq x < \frac{m + 1}{n}$$

Then

$$x < \frac{m + 1}{n} = \frac{m}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \leq x + \frac{1}{n} < y$$

w where $\frac{m+1}{n} \in \mathbb{Q}$. □

Lemma 7.9

$\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is dense in \mathbb{R} .

§8 | Dis 1: Jan 7, 2021

§8.1 Logical Statements

Example 8.1

Negate the following statements:

- a) If there is a job worth doing, then it is worth doing well.

$\text{not}(\text{If } A \text{ then } B) = A \text{ and } (\text{not } B)$

“There is a job worth doing, and it is not worth doing well.”

- b) Every cloud has a silver lining.

$\text{not } (\forall A, B \text{ is true}) = \exists A \text{ s.t. } B \text{ is false}$

“There is a cloud without a silver lining.”

Example 8.2

Let P, Q, R be statements about elements $x \in X$. Negate the following:

- a) For every $x \in X$, $P(x)$ is true or $(Q(x) \implies R(x))$.

$\text{not } (\forall x \in X, (P(x) \text{ or } (Q(x) \implies R(x))))$ which is equivalent to $\exists x \in X$ s.t. $(\text{not } P(x))$ and $(Q(x))$ and $(\text{not } R(x))$.

There exists $x \in X$ s.t. $P(x)$ is false, $Q(x)$ is true, and $R(x)$ is false.

- b) There is $x \in X$ such that for every $y \in X$ not equal to x , $P(y)$, $Q(y)$, and $R(y)$ are true. Use similar approach, we have

For every $x \in X$, there is $y \in X$ not equal to x such that $P(y)$, $Q(y)$ or $R(y)$ is false.

Example 8.3

Suppose X, Y, Z are statements and we know $X \implies Y$ and $X \implies Z$. Can we conclude the following: $(X \text{ and } (\text{not } Y)) \implies Z$.

X	Y	Z	$X \implies Y$	$X \implies Z$	$X \text{ and not } Y$	the above
T	T	T	T	T	F	T
T	T	F	T	F		
T	F	T	F			
T	F	F	F			
F	T	T	T	T	F	T
F	T	F	T	T	F	T
F	F	T	T	T	F	T
F	F	F	T	T	F	T

So this statement is true.

§8.2 Induction

Example 8.4

Prove that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n^3 + 2n$ is divisible by 3.

- Base case: $n = 1 - n^3 + 2n = 3$ which is divisible by 3.
- Inductive step: Assume $n^3 + 2n$ is divisible by 3. Want to show $(n+1)^3 + 2(n+1)$ is divisible by 3.

$$\begin{aligned}(n+1)^3 + 2(n+1) &= n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1 + 2n + 2 \\&= \underbrace{(n^3 + 2n)}_{=3k \text{ for some } k} + 3n^2 + 3n + 3 \\&= 3 \underbrace{(k + n^2 + n + 1)}_{\text{an integer}}\end{aligned}$$

which is divisible by 3. By induction, statement is true $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. □

§9 | Dis 2: Jan 14, 2021

§9.1 Induction (Cont'd)

Example 9.1

Find and prove a formula for

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} + \sqrt{k+1}}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{k} + \sqrt{k+1}} = \frac{\sqrt{k+1} - \sqrt{k}}{(\sqrt{k+1} + \sqrt{k})(\sqrt{k+1} - \sqrt{k})}$$

$$= \sqrt{k+1} - \sqrt{k}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} + \sqrt{k+1}} = \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{1} \quad (*)$$

Claim 9.1. $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} + \sqrt{k+1}} = \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{1} \quad \forall n \geq 1 \quad (P(n))$

Proof. We'll use induction

- Base case: $n = 1$

$$\sum_{k=1}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} + \sqrt{k+1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1} + \sqrt{2}} \stackrel{(*)}{=} \sqrt{2} - \sqrt{1}$$

So $P(1)$ is true.

- Inductive step: Assume $P(n)$ true. Want to show $P(n+1)$ is true

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} + \sqrt{k+1}} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{k} + \sqrt{k+1}} + \frac{1}{\underbrace{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n+2}}_{=\sqrt{n+2} - \sqrt{n+1}}}$$

$$= \sqrt{n+2} - \sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{1}$$

$$= \sqrt{n+2} - \sqrt{1}$$

This is $P(n+1)$

Together, we conclude $P(n)$ is true $\forall n \geq 1$ by induction. □

Example 9.2

Define the sequence

$$a_1 = 3, a_2 = 5, \text{ and } a_n = 3a_{n-1} - 2a_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 3$$

Prove that $a_n = 2^n + 1$.

Proof. Let $P(n)$ be the statement $a_n = 2^n + 1$. We'll use induction

- Inductive step: Assume $P(n)$ and $P(n-1)$ are true. Want $P(n+1)$ true:

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n+1} &= 3a_n - 2a_{n-1} = 3(2^n + 1) - 2(2^{n-1} + 1) \\ &= 3 \cdot 2^n + 3 - 2^n - 2 = 2^{n+1} + 1 \end{aligned}$$

This is $P(n+1)$.

- Base case:

$$\begin{aligned} n = 1 : a_1 &= 3, 2^1 + 1 = 3, \quad P(1) \text{ true} \\ n = 2 : a_2 &= 5, 2^2 + 1 = 5, \quad P(2) \text{ true} \end{aligned}$$

Together, we conclude $P(n)$ is true $\forall n \geq 1$ by induction. □

Remark 9.3. We can formulate this as regular induction for $Q(n) = (P(n) \text{ and } P(n-1))$.

§9.2 Fields

Example 9.4

Let $F = \{0, 1, \alpha\}$ with the operations

$+$	0	1	α
0	0	1	α
1	1	α	0
α	α	0	1

\cdot	0	1	α
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	α
α	0	α	1

a) Show that $(F, +, \cdot)$ is a field.

Addition:

- $a, b \in F \implies a + b \in F$: True, since entries of the $+$ table are elements of F .
- $a, b \in F \implies a + b = b + a$: True, since entries above diagonal are same as below the diagonal.
- $a, b, c \in F \implies (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$: Check $3^3 = 27$ cases individually. For this example, they're all true.
- $a + 0 = a = 0 + a \forall a \in F$: True, since column and row for 0 are unaltered.
- $\forall a \in F \exists (-a) \in F$ s.t. $a + (-a) = 0 = (-a) + a$

Multiplication:

- $a, b \in F \implies a \cdot b \in F$: True, since entries of \cdot table are elements of F .
- $a, b \in F \implies a \cdot b = b \cdot a$: True, since table is symmetric across the diagonal.
- $a, b, c \in F \implies (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$: Check 27 cases. All true.
- $a \cdot 1 = a = 1 \cdot a \forall a \in F$: True, since column and row for 1 are unaltered.
- $\forall a \in F \setminus \{0\} \exists a^{-1}$ s.t. $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1 = a^{-1} \cdot a$: True, since every nonzero column and row contain a 1.

Distributivity: $a, b, c \in F \implies (a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$. We'll check all cases. Let $a, b, c \in F$

1. Case $c = 0$. From table

$$(a + b) \cdot 0 = 0, \quad a \cdot 0 + b \cdot 0 = 0 + 0 = 0$$

2. Case $c = 1$

$$(a + b) \cdot 1 = a + b, \quad a \cdot 1 + b \cdot 1 = a + b$$

Example 9.5 (Cont'd (from above)) 3. Case $c = \alpha$ choices for $a, b \in F$:

a	b	$(a + b) \cdot \alpha$	$a \cdot \alpha + b \cdot \alpha$	Equal?
0	0	$0 \cdot \alpha = 0$	$0 + 0 = 0$	✓
0	1	$1 \cdot \alpha = \alpha$	$0 + \alpha = \alpha$	✓
0	α	$\alpha \cdot \alpha = 1$	$0 + 1 = 1$	✓
1	0	$1 \cdot \alpha = \alpha$	$\alpha + 0 = \alpha$	✓
1	1	$\alpha \cdot \alpha = 1$	$\alpha + \alpha = 1$	✓
1	α	$0 \cdot \alpha = 0$	$\alpha + 1 = 0$	✓
α	0	$\alpha \cdot \alpha = 1$	$1 + 0 = 1$	✓
α	1	$0 \cdot \alpha = 0$	$1 + \alpha = 0$	✓
α	α	$1 \cdot \alpha = \alpha$	$1 + 1 = \alpha$	✓

b) Show that there is not order relation on F that makes F an ordered field.
 Idea: $1 + 1 + \dots + 1$ is eventually on the “other side” of 1.

Proof. Suppose $(F, +, \cdot, <)$ is an ordered field. By trichotomy, either $0 < 1, 0 = 1, 0 > 1$.

- Case $0 = 1$: Impossible, since they are different elements of F .
- Case $0 < 1$: Apply $(a < b \implies a + c < b + c)$ with $c = 1$:

$$0 < 1 \xrightarrow{+1} 1 < \alpha \xrightarrow{+1} \alpha < 0$$

By transitivity, $1 < \alpha$ and $\alpha < 0 \implies 1 < 0$. This contradicts $0 < 1$.

- Case $0 > 1$: Replace “ $>$ ” by “ $<$ ” above, get $1 > 0$ at the end. A contradiction.

All three cases are impossible, so no “ $<$ ” exists. □

§10 | Dis 3: Jan 21, 2021

§10.1 Upper and Lower Bounds

Example 10.1

Suppose $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ are non-empty s.t. $x \leq y \quad \forall x \in A, \forall y \in B$.

a) Show that $\sup A \leq y \forall y \in B$.

Suppose not. $\exists b \in B$ s.t. $\sup A > b$.

Claim 10.1. If $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ nonempty and $b < \sup A$, then $\exists a \in A$ s.t. $b < a$.

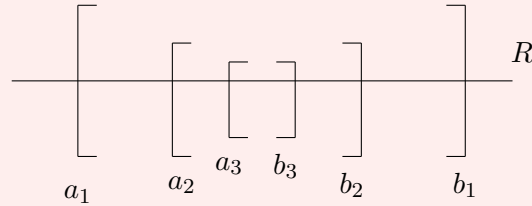
Suppose not. Then $\forall a \in A, b \geq a \implies b$ is an upper bound for $a \implies b \geq \sup A$, contradicting $b < \sup A$. \square

By the claim, $\exists a \in A$ s.t. $b < a \leq \sup A$. But $a \leq b$ by given since $a \in A, b \in B$, which is a contradiction.

b) Show $\sup A \leq \inf B$.

Part a) $\implies \sup A$ is a lower bound for $B \implies \sup A \leq \inf B$ since $B \neq \emptyset$ and \mathbb{R} has greatest lower bound property. \square

Example 10.2 a) Suppose $I_n = [a_n, b_n] \neq \emptyset$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$ and $b_{n+1} \leq b_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Prove $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x \in I_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.



Let $x := \sup \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. We will show $x \in I_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Note that $a_n \leq x \forall n$ since x is an upper bound for the a'_n s.

Claim 10.2. $x \leq b_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Suppose not. Then $\exists n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $b_{n_1} < x$. Since x is the least upper bound, $\exists n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $b_{n_1} < a_{n_2} \leq x$ by claim 10.1.

Then $I_{n_1} \cap I_{n_2} \neq \emptyset$. But $n_1 \geq n_2$ or $n_1 \leq n_2$, so $I_{n_1} \subseteq I_{n_2}$ or $I_{n_2} \subseteq I_{n_1}$ and hence $\emptyset = I_{n_1} \cap I_{n_2} = I_{\max\{n_1, n_2\}}$ – a contradiction.

Altogether, $a_n \leq x \leq b_n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, so $x \in I_n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

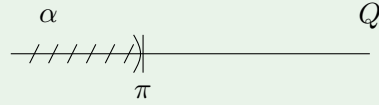
b) Show that the conclusion is false if the I_n are open intervals.

Let $I_n = (0, \frac{1}{n})$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Suppose $\exists x \in I_n \forall n$. Then $x \in I_1$, so $x > 0$. By the Archimedean Property, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{N} < x$. Then $x \notin I_n \forall n \geq N$. \square

§10.2 Dedekind Cuts

Definition 10.3 (Dedekind Cuts) — $\alpha \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is a cut if

- (I) $\alpha \neq \emptyset, \mathbb{Q}$
- (II) $p \in \alpha, q \in \mathbb{Q}, q < p \implies q \in \alpha$.
- (III) $p \in \alpha \implies \exists r \in \alpha$ s.t. $p < r$.



Example 10.4

Let $R := \{\alpha \subseteq \mathbb{Q} : \alpha \text{ is a cut}\}$ and for $\alpha, \beta \in R$ define

$$\alpha + \beta = \{r + s : r \in \alpha \text{ and } s \in \beta\}$$

Show that this satisfies A1-A5.

A1) $\alpha, \beta \in R \implies \alpha + \beta \in R$. Note $\alpha + \beta \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ since $r + s \in \mathbb{Q}$ for $r, s \in \mathbb{Q}$.

- (I) $\alpha + \beta \neq \emptyset$ since $\alpha, \beta \neq \emptyset$. Since $\alpha, \beta \neq \mathbb{Q}, \exists a \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \alpha$ and $b \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \beta$. For any $r \in \alpha, s \in \beta \implies r < a, s < b$ by (II) $\implies r + s < a + b \implies a + b \notin \alpha + \beta$ by (II). $\implies \alpha + \beta \neq \mathbb{Q}$.
- (II) Let $r + s \in \alpha + \beta$ and $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t. $q < r + s \implies q - s < r \implies q - s \in \alpha$ by (II) $\implies q = (q - s) + s \in \alpha + \beta$.
- (III) Let $r + s \in \alpha + \beta \implies r \in \alpha \implies \exists t \in \alpha$ s.t. $r < t \implies t + s \in \alpha + \beta$ and $r + s < t + s$.

A2) $\alpha, \beta \in R \implies \alpha + \beta = \beta + \alpha$.

$\alpha + \beta = \{r + s : r \in \alpha \text{ and } s \in \beta\}$. Since $+$ is commutative on $\mathbb{Q}, r + s = s + r$. So

$$\alpha + \beta = \{s + r : s \in \beta \text{ and } r \in \alpha\} = \beta + \alpha$$

A3) $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in R \implies (\alpha + \beta) + \gamma = \alpha + (\beta + \gamma)$

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha + \beta) + \gamma &= \{p + t : p \in \alpha + \beta \text{ and } t \in \gamma\} \\ &= \{(r + s) + t : r \in \alpha \text{ and } s \in \beta \text{ and } t \in \gamma\} \\ &= \{r + (s + t) : r \in \alpha \text{ and } s \in \beta \text{ and } t \in \gamma\} \\ &= \{r + q : r \in \alpha \text{ and } q \in \beta + \gamma\} = \alpha + (\beta + \gamma) \end{aligned}$$