

Real Analysis - A Long Form Mathematics Textbook Chapter 1

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1.5 The Completeness Axiom

The set \mathbb{R} has two binary operations, addition(+) and multiplication (*), and is the unique set satisfying the following axioms:

- Axiom 1: (Commutative Law), If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then $a + b = b + a$ and $a * b = b * a$
- Axiom 2: (Distributive Law), If $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $a * (b + c) = a * b + a * c$
- Axiom 3: (Associative Law), If $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ and $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$
- Axiom 4: (Identity Law). There are special elements $0, 1 \in \mathbb{R}$, where $a + 0 = a$ and $a * 1 = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$
- Axiom 5: (Inverse Law). For each $a \in \mathbb{R}$, there is an element $-a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a + (-a) = 0$. If $a \neq 0$, then there is also an element $a^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a * a^{-1} = 1$
- Axiom 6: (Order Axiom). There is nonempty subset $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, called the positive elements, such that
 - If $a, b \in P$, then $a + b \in P$ and $a * b \in P$
 - If $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a \neq 0$, then either $a \in P$ or $-a \in P$, but not both.

- Axiom 7: (Completeness Axiom). Given any nonempty $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ where A is bounded above, A has a least upper bound. In other words, $\sup(A) \in \mathbb{R}$ for every such A .

Theorem 1.24 (Suprema analytically). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then $\sup(A) = \alpha$ if and only if

- α is an upper bound of A , and
- Given any $\epsilon > 0$, $\alpha - \epsilon$ is not an upper bound of A . That is, there is some $x \in A$ for which $x > \alpha - \epsilon$

Likewise, $\inf(A) = \beta$ iff

- β is a lower bound of A , and
- Given any $\epsilon > 0$, $\beta + \epsilon$ is not a lower bound of A . That is there is some $x \in A$ for which $x < \beta + \epsilon$

1.7 The Archimedean Principle

Lemma 1.26 (The Archimedean Property). If a and b are real numbers with $a > 0$, then there exists a natural number n such that $na > b$. In particular, for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $1/n < \epsilon$.

Principle 1.34 (Well-ordering principle). Every non-empty subset of natural numbers contains a smallest element.

Exercises

Exercise 1.1

Explain the error in the following proof that $2=1$. Let $x = y$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 x^2 &= xy \\
 x^2 - y^2 &= xy - y^2 \\
 (x + y)(x - y) &= y(x - y) \\
 x + y &= y \\
 2y &= y \\
 2 &= 1
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

answer: by dividing by $(x-y)$, the proof is essentially dividing by zero, which is mathematicall undefined; thus this invalidates the entire proof.

Exercise 1.2

Which of the following statements are true? Give a short explanation for each of your answers.

- For ever $n \in N$, there is $m \in N$ such that $m > n$.
- For every $m \in N$, there is an $n \in N$ such that $m > n$.
- There is an $m \in N$ such that for every $n \in N$, $m \geq n$.
- There is an $n \in N$ such that for every $m \in N$, $m \geq n$.
- There is an $n \in R$ such that for every $m \in R$, $m \geq n$.
- For every pair $x < y$ of integers, there is an integer z such that $x < z < y$.
- For every pair $x < y$ of real numbers, there is a real number z such that $x < z < y$.

answer:

- True. For any natural number n , choosing $m = n + 1$ satisfies $m > n$. Natural numbers are unbounded above.
- False. If $m=1$, there is no $n \in N$ with $n < 1$.
- False. There is no largest natural number; N is infinite.
- True. Let $n=1$. For all $m \in N$, $m \geq 1$.
- False. Real numbers extend to $-\infty$; no universal lower bound $n \in R$.
- False. If x and y are consecutive integers (e.g., $x = 2, y = 3$), no integer z exists between them.
- True. For real numbers, $z = (x + y)/2$ always satisfies $x < z < y$.

Exercise 1.3

If A and B are two boxes (possibly with things inside), describe the following in terms of boxes:

- $A \setminus B$
- $P(A)$
- $|A|$

answers:

- Imagine looking inside box A and taking out any item that is also found in box B . What remains in A are only those things that are not in B .
- Think of every possible way you could select items from box A (including selecting none, or all). Each possible selection is itself a (possibly empty) box. The collection of all these possible boxes is $P(A)$.
- Open box A and count how many items are inside. That count is $|A|$.

Exercise 1.4

If $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots, A_n$ are all boxes (possibly with things inside), describe the following in terms of boxes:

- $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$
- $\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i$

answers:

- If an item exists in at least one box, it appears once in the union box.
- If even one box lacks an item, it is excluded from the intersection.

Exercise 1.5

Prove that each of the following holds for any sets A and B .

- $A \cup B = A$ iff $B \subseteq A$
- $A \cap B = A$ iff $A \subseteq B$
- $A \setminus B = A$ iff $A \cap B = \emptyset$
- $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ iff $A \subseteq B$

answers:

- (forward) If $A \cup B = A$, every element of B must already be in A . Thus $B \subseteq A$. (reverse) If $B \subseteq A$, combining A and B adds no new elements, so $A \cup B = A$
- (forward) if $A \cap B = A$, all elements of A are in B , so $A \subseteq B$. (reverse) if $A \subseteq B$, the intersection $A \cap B$ contains exactly A .
- (forward) if $A \setminus B = A$, no elements of A are in B , so $A \cap B = \emptyset$. (reverse) if $A \cap B = \emptyset$, removing B from A leaves A unchanged.
- (forward) if $A \setminus B = \emptyset$, all elements of A are in B , so $A \subseteq B$. (reverse) if $A \subseteq B$, removing B from A removes all elements, leaving \emptyset

Exercise 1.6

Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $A \subseteq X$ and $B \subseteq Y$.

- Prove that $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$
- Give an example where $f(f^{-1}(B)) \neq B$
- Prove that $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$
- Give an example where $A \neq f^{-1}(f(A))$

answers:

- Let $y \in f(f^{-1}(B))$. By definition, there exists $x \in f^{-1}(B)$ such that $f(x) = y$. Since $x \in f^{-1}(B)$, $f(x) \in B$ by the definition of preimage. Thus $y = f(x) \in B$. Therefore, $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$

- Let $f: \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \{a, b, c\}$ with $f(1) = a$ and $f(2) = b$. Take $B = \{a, b, c\}$. $f^{-1}(B) = \{1, 2\}$. $f(f^{-1}(B)) = f(\{1, 2\}) = \{a, b\} \neq B$
- Let $x \in A$. Then $f(x) \in f(X)$. By definition of preimage, $x \in f^{-1}(f(A))$. Thus, $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$
- Let $f: \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \{a\}$ with $f(1) = f(2) = a$. Take $A = \{1\}$. $f(A) = \{a\}$. $f^{-1}(f(A)) = f^{-1}(\{a\}) = \{1, 2\} \neq A$

Exercise 1.7

Suppose that $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow X$ are functions and that the composite $g \circ f$ is the identity function $\text{id}_X: X \rightarrow X$. (The identity function sends every element to itself: $\text{id}(x) = x$) Show that f must be a one-to-one function and that g must be an onto function.

answer:

- f is injective

Assume $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ for some $x_1, x_2 \in X$. Applying g to both sides: $g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2))$ since $g \circ f = \text{id}_X$, this simplifies to: $x_1 = x_2$. Thus, $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \rightarrow x_1 = x_2$, proving f is injective.

- g is surjective

For any $x \in X$, let $y = f(x) \in Y$. Applying g to y : $g(y) = g(f(x)) = x$. Thus, every $x \in X$ has preimage $y = f(x) \in Y$ under g , proving g is surjective.

Exercises 1.8

The following are special cases of De Morgan's laws

- Prove that $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$

(a) $(A \cap B)^c \subseteq A^c \cup B^c$

Let $x \in (A \cap B)^c$. Then $x \notin A \cap B$, so $x \notin A$ or $x \notin B$. Thus, $x \in A^c$ or $x \in B^c$. Therefore $x \in A^c \cup B^c$.

(b) $A^c \cup B^c \subseteq (A \cap B)^c$

Let $x \in A^c \cup B^c$. Then $x \in A^c$ or $x \in B^c$, so $x \notin A$ or $x \notin B$. Thus, $x \notin A \cap B$, so $x \in (A \cap B)^c$

- Prove that $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$

(a) $(A \cup B)^c \subseteq A^c \cap B^c$

Let $x \in (A \cup B)^c$. Then $x \notin A \cup B$, so $x \notin A$ and $x \notin B$. Thus, $x \in A^c$ and $x \in B^c$, so $x \in A^c \cap B^c$.

(b) $A^c \cap B^c \subseteq (A \cup B)^c$

Let $x \in A^c \cap B^c$. Then $x \in A^c$ and $x \in B^c$, so $x \notin A$ and $x \notin B$. Thus $x \notin A \cup B$, so $x \in (A \cup B)^c$. Therefore, $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$

0.1 Exercise 1.9

- Prove that $\sqrt{3}$ is irrational

Assume $\sqrt{3}$ is rational, so $\sqrt{3} = a/b$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are coprime. Squaring both sides: $3 = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \implies 3b^2 = a^2$. This implies a^2 is divisible by 3, so a must also be divisible by 3 (by the fundamental theorem of arithmetic). Let $a = 3k$. Substituting: $3b^2 = (3k)^2 \implies 3b^2 = 9k^2 \implies b^2 = 3k^2$. Thus, b^2 is divisible by 3, so b is also divisible by 3. This contradicts a and b being coprime. Hence, $\sqrt{3}$ is irrational.

- What goes wrong when you try to adapt your argument from part (a) to show that $\sqrt{4}$ is irrational?
- In part (a) you proved that $\sqrt{3}$ to be irrational, and essentially the same proof shows that $\sqrt{5}$ is irrational. By considering their product or otherwise, prove that $\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{5}$ and $\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{5}$ are either both rational or both irrational. Deduce that they must both be irrational.

Exercise 1.10

Prove that the multiplicative identity in a field is unique.

Let F be a field. Suppose there exist two multiplicative identities 1 and e in F . By definition of a multiplicative identity, for all $a \in F$:

$$1 \times a = a \text{ and } e \times a = a$$

Consider the case where $a = e$. Applying the identity property of 1 :

$$1 \times e = e$$

Now consider the case where $a = 1$. Applying the identity property of e :

$$e \times 1 = 1$$

In a field, multiplication is commutative ($a \times b = b \times a$), so:

$$1 \times e = e \times 1$$

From (1),(2) and (3), we conclude:

$$e = 1$$

Thus, there cannot be two distinct multiplicative identities in F . The multiplicative identity is unique.

Exercise 1.11

Given an ordered field F , recall that we defined the positive elements to be a nonempty subset $P \subseteq F$ that satisfies both the following conditions:

- (i) If $a, b \in P$, then $a + b \in P$ and $a \times b \in P$
- (ii) If $a \in F$ and $a \neq 0$, then either $a \in P$ or $-a \in P$, but not both.

- Give an example of some $P_1 \subseteq R$ that satisfies (i) but not (ii)

$$P_1 = R \text{ (the entire set of real numbers)}$$

Satisfies (i): Closed under addition and multiplication

Fails (ii): For any $a \neq 0$, both a and $-a$ belong to P_1 , violating the "exactly one" requirement.

- Give an example of some $P_2 \subseteq R$ that satisfies (ii) but not (i)

$$P_2 = \{x \in R \mid (x > 0 \text{ and } x \notin Z) \text{ or } (x < 0 \text{ and } x \in Z)\}$$

Satisfies (ii): For every $a \neq 0$: if a is positive non-integer, $a \in P_2$. If a is a positive integer, $-a \in P_2$. If a is negative integer, $a \in P_2$. If a is negative non-integer, $-a \in P_2$.

Fails (i): $0.5 \in P_2$ and $0.5 \in P_2$ but $0.5 + 0.5 = 1 \notin P_2$. $-1 \in P_2$ and $0.5 \in P_2$, but $-1 + 0.5 = -0.5 \notin P_2$.

Exercises 1.12

Assume that F is an ordered field and $a, b, c, d \in F$ with $a < b$ and $c < d$.

- Show that $a + c < b + d$ Step 1: use the additive property of inequalities in ordered fields: If $a < b$, then $a + c < b + c$. If $c < d$, then $b + c < b + d$.
Step 2: By transitivity of $<$: $a + c < b + c < b + d \implies a + c < b + d$

- Prove that it is not necessarily true that $ac < bd$.

Counter example:

Let $F = \mathbb{R}$, and choose: $a = -2$, $b = -1$, $c = -3$, $d = -2$.

- $a \leq b$ (since $-2 \leq -1$) and $c \leq d$ (since $-3 \leq -2$)
- Compute $ac = (-2)(-3) = 6$ and $bd = (-1)(-2) = 2$
- $6 \not\leq 2$, so $ac < bd$ fails.

Exercise 1.13

Let a, b and ϵ be elements of an ordered field.

- Show that if $a < b + \epsilon$ for every $\epsilon > 0$, then $a \leq b$.

Suppose, for contradiction, that $a > b$. Then $a - b > 0$. Let $\epsilon = a - b$, which is a positive number. Plug this into the assumption $a < b + \epsilon = a$. This says $a < a$, which is impossible. Therefore, our assumption that $a > b$ must be false. So it must be that $a \leq b$.

- Use part (a) to show that if $|a - b| < \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$, then $a = b$

Suppose, for contradiction, that $a \neq b$. Then $|a - b| > 0$. Let $\epsilon = |a - b|/2$, which is still positive. By assumption $|a - b| < \epsilon = |a - b|/2$. But this says $|a - b| < |a - b|/2$, which is impossible unless $|a - b| = 0$. Therefore, our assumption that $a \neq b$ must be false. So $a = b$.

Exercise 1.14

Prove that the equality $|-ab| = |-a||-b|$ holds for all real numbers a and b .

Definition of absolute value: For any real number

$$x : |x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

- case 1: both $a \leq 0$ and $b \leq 0$

- $ab \geq 0$
- $|ab| = ab$

- $|a| = a, |b| = b$
- $|a||b| = ab$
- So, $|ab| = |a||b|$
- case 2: $a \geq 0, b < 0$
 - $ab \leq 0$
 - $|ab| = -(ab) = -ab$
 - $|a| = a, |b| = -b$
 - $|a||b| = a(-b) = -ab$
 - So, $|ab| = |a||b|$
- case 3: $a < 0, b \geq 0$ similar to case 2
- case 4: $a < 0, b < 0$
 - $ab \geq 0$
 - $|ab| = (-a)(-b) = ab$
 - $|a| = -a, |b| = -b$
 - $|a||b| = (-a)(-b) = ab$
 - So, $|ab| = |a||b|$

Exercise 1.15

For each of the following, find all numbers x which satisfy the expression.

- $|x - 4| = 7$
 $\{-3, 11\}$
- $|x - 4| < 7$
 $(-3, 11)$
- $|x + 2| < 1$
 $(-3, -1)$
- $|x - 1| + |x - 2| > 1$
 $(-\infty, 1) \cup (2, \infty)$

- $|x - 1| + |x + 1| > 1$

R

- $|x - 1||x + 1| = 0$

$\{-1, 1\}$

- $|x - 1||x + 2| = 3$

$\{\frac{-1+\sqrt{21}}{2}, \frac{-1-\sqrt{21}}{2}\}$

Exercise 1.16

Let $\max\{x, y\}$ denote the maximum of the real numbers x and y , and let $\min\{x, y\}$ denote the minimum. For example, $\min\{-1, 4\} = -1$, and also $\min\{-1, -1\} = -1$. Prove that

$$\max\{x, y\} = \frac{x+y+|y-x|}{2} \text{ and } \min\{x, y\} = \frac{x+y-|y-x|}{2}$$

Then find a formula for $\max\{x, y, z\}$ and $\min\{x, y, z\}$.

- Consider two cases to prove for maximum, minimum

- $y \geq x$

maximum: $\frac{x+y+|y-x|}{2} = \frac{x+y+y-x}{2} = y$

minimum: $\frac{x+y-|y-x|}{2} = \frac{x+y-y+x}{2} = x$

- $y < x$

maximum: $\frac{x+y+|y-x|}{2} = \frac{x+y+x-y}{2} = x$

minimum: $\frac{x+y-|y-x|}{2} = \frac{x+y-x+y}{2} = y$

Thus the formula holds for all $x, y \in R$

- extension to three variables

- maximum of three variables $\max\{x, y, z\} = \max(\max(x, y), z) = \frac{\frac{x+y+|y-x|}{2} + z + |z - \frac{x+y+|y-x|}{2}|}{2}$

- minimum of three variables $\min\{x, y, z\} = \min(\min(x, y), z) = \frac{\frac{x+y-|y-x|}{2} + z - |z - \frac{x+y-|y-x|}{2}|}{2}$

Exercise 1.17

Prove that if $a, b \in R$ and $0 < a < b$, then $a^n < b^n$ for any positive integer n .

- base case
given $0 < a < b$, the inequality holds by assumption.
- inductive step:
Assume $a^k < b^k$ for some integer $k \geq 1$. $a^{k+1} < ab^k$. Since $a < b$, then $ab^k < bb^k = b^{k+1}$. Thus, $a^{k+1} < b^{k+1}$.
- By induction, $a^n < b^n$ holds for all positive integers n .

Exercise 1.18

Prove that if a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are real numbers, then: $|a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n| \leq |a_1| + |a_2| + \dots + |a_n|$.

Use induction based on triangle inequality of two numbers to prove.

Exercise 1.19

Prove that $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k(k+1)} = \frac{n}{n+1}$ for every natural number n .

With partial fractions, we know $\frac{1}{k(k+1)} = \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1}$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k(k+1)} = (1/1 - 1/2) + (1/2 - 1/3) + \dots + (1/n - 1/(n+1)) = \frac{n}{n+1} \quad (2)$$