

Real Analysis

Peano's Axioms :-

The properties of the natural numbers are called the peano's Axioms.

- $1 \in N$, i.e; 1 is a natural number and ' N ' is a non-empty set.
- for each element $n \in N$, there is a unique element $n+1 \in N$ called successor of small 'n' i.e; each element of N has a successor in N .
- For each $n \in N$ and $n \neq 1$, 1 is not the successor of any element of N .
- For every $n, m \in N$, with $n \neq m$ and $m \neq n$ distinct element in ' N ' has distinct successor i.e each successor is unique.
- if ' A ' is a subset or equal $A \subseteq N$ & $1 \in A$ and some $A \subseteq N$, $1 \in A$ and $p \in A \Rightarrow p+1 \in A$, then $A = N$.
- When we add 2 natural number we get a natural number but inverse operat["] (-) i.e subtraction is not possible always if the domain is a set of Natural Number.

Thereafter we use these facts without notice.

$a + b = b$, $\forall a, b \in N$ for $a=b$ or $a>b$ there is no solution in domain N .

This equat["] gives solution within the domain N for only $a < b$, we consider the equat["]
 $n+3=2$ and its sol["] is not in

domains 'N'.

- So, -ve integers $I = -1, -2, \dots$,
& $a + (-a) = 0 \forall a \in N$, are included in domains I.
which constitute the system of integer.
- The concept of fractⁿ for the & -ve numbers and 0 is
called system of rational no. for eqtⁿ $an = b \forall a \in I$
& $a \neq b$ hence, system of rational number is denoted
by " \mathbb{Q} " is denoted by $\frac{p}{q}$, where $q \neq 0, p, q \in I$
- The process of extracting the root, there is a no. \mathbb{Q} whose square
- The system of rational no. is further extended by
introduction of so called irrational number or; $\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \pi$, ...
- The union or combination of rational or irrational number
is the Real number and the set of real no. is also
called real line.

(i) $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational (Prove)

Solⁿ: To Prove: $\sqrt{2}$ is a irrational number.

Solⁿ: Let us suppose the $\sqrt{2}$ is a rational number,
then it can be written as $\frac{p}{q}$ form, where $p \neq q$
are relatively prime that are not both even no.'s.
In other ways, we can say that p & q are relative
prime.

i.e.: the greatest common division is 1.

Thus, we have

$$\frac{p}{q} = \sqrt{2} \quad (q \neq 0)$$

$$q\sqrt{2} = p \Rightarrow 2q^2 = p^2$$

This shows p^2 is even $\Rightarrow p$ is also even

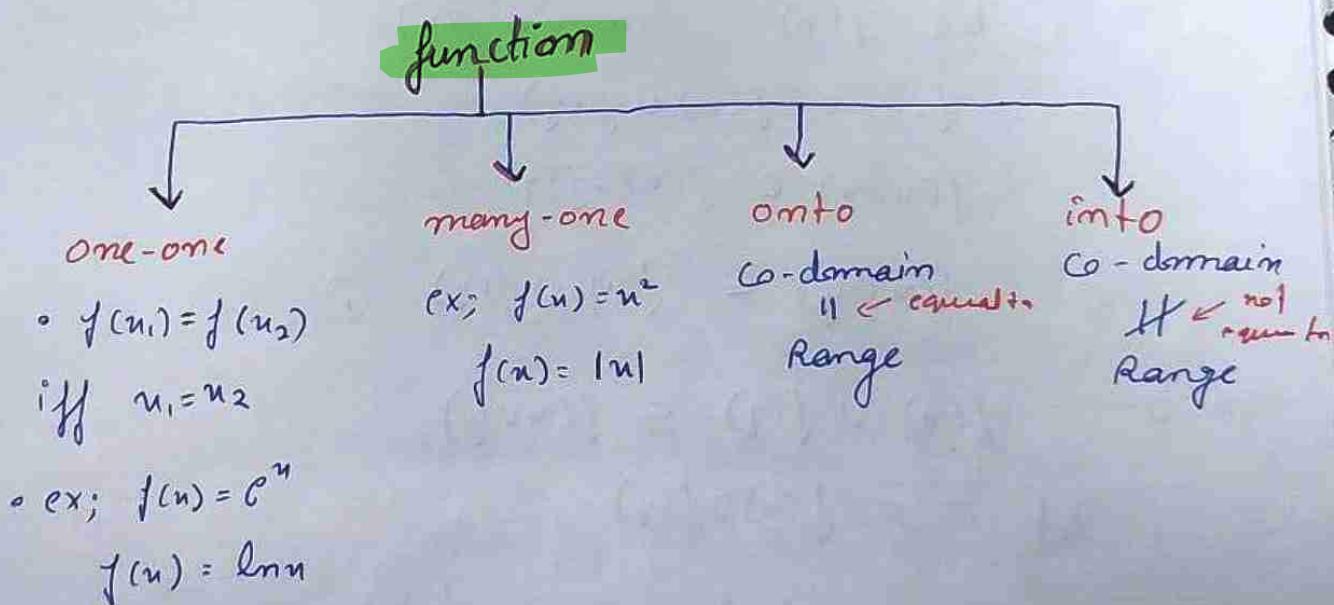
So that p^2 is divisible by 4. i.e. n^2 is also even \Rightarrow the n is even. Now both p & q are even it contradict our assumption.

$\therefore \sqrt{2}$ is a irrational number

functⁿ.

let A & B be any two sets. A functⁿ f on A into B is a subset of $A \times B$ (and hence is a set of ordered pair (a, b)) with the property that each $a \in A$ belongs to precisely one pair (a, b) .

Instead of $(n, y) \in f$ we usually write $y = f(n)$, then y is called the image of n under f .



Theorem 1: The image of the union of two sets is the union of images. or.

if $f: A \rightarrow B$ & $x \in A$ and $y \in B$.

$$\text{then } f(u \cup y) = f(u) \cup f(y)$$

Proof: (i) $f(u \cup y) \subseteq f(u) \cup f(y)$

$$(ii) f(u) \cup f(y) \subseteq f(u \cup y)$$

$$\text{Part 1: } f(u \cup y) \subseteq f(u) \cup f(y)$$

Let b belongs to $f(x \cup y)$, then $b \in f(a)$ for some $a \in x \cup y$.

$\therefore a \in u$ or $a \in y$.

then $f(a) \in f(u)$ or $f(a) \in f(v)$

$b \in f(n)$ or $b \in f(y)$

$$f(a) \in f(u) \cup f(y)$$

$$f(u \cup y) \subseteq f(u) \cup f(y) \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Part 2: } f(u) \cup f(y) \subseteq f(u \cup y)$$

Let $c \in \{u\} \cup \{y\}$

$$\Rightarrow c \in f(u) \text{ or } c \in f(y)$$

$\Rightarrow c$ is the image of some point in X

$$\therefore c \in f(x \cup x)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) \cup f(y) \subseteq f(x \cup y) \quad \textcircled{c}$$

from \textcircled{a} & \textcircled{c} we conclude that.

$$f(x \cup y) = f(x) \cup f(y).$$

Thm 2: The inverse image of the union of two sets is the union of the inverse images.

$$x \in A \text{ & } y \in A \text{ then } f^{-1}(x \cup y) = f^{-1}(x) \cup f^{-1}(y)$$

$$\text{Proof } f^{-1}(x \cup y) = f^{-1}(x) \cup f^{-1}(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} a \in f^{-1}(x \cup y) &\Leftrightarrow f(a) \in x \cup y \\ &\Leftrightarrow f(a) \in x \text{ or } f(a) \in y \\ &\Leftrightarrow a \in f^{-1}(x) \text{ or } a \in f^{-1}(y) \\ &\Leftrightarrow a \in f^{-1}(x) \cup f^{-1}(y) \end{aligned}$$

Thm 3: If $f: A \rightarrow B$ if $x \in B$, $y \in B$, then

$$f^{-1}(x \cap y) = f^{-1}(x) \cap f^{-1}(y)$$

$$\text{Proof: } f^{-1}(x \cap y) = f^{-1}(x) \cap f^{-1}(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{let } b \in f^{-1}(x \cap y) &\Leftrightarrow f(b) \in x \cap y \\ &\Leftrightarrow f(b) \in x \text{ & } f(b) \in y \\ &\Leftrightarrow b \in f^{-1}(x) \text{ & } b \in f^{-1}(y) \\ &\Leftrightarrow b \in f^{-1}(x \cap y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore f^{-1}(x \cap y) = f^{-1}(x) \cap f^{-1}(y)$$

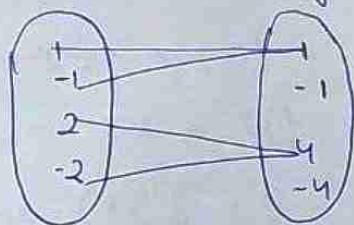
Thrm 4: It is necessarily true that the image of the intersection of two sets is equal to the intersection of images or if $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $x \in A$ & $y \in A$ then

$$f(x \cap y) \subset f(x) \cap f(y)$$

but the converse is not true necessarily.

$$f(x) \cap f(y) \neq f(x \cap y)$$

cont counter example : $f(n) = n^2$



Countable sets:

A set 'A' is said to be countable if A is equivalent to

$$\mathbb{N}, \quad A \equiv \mathbb{N}$$

i.e. if 'f' is one-one and onto from $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$, then the set A is countable.

- ex;
- the set of powers of 3 $\{1, 3, 9, \dots, 3^n\}$.
- set of all five even or odd number is countable
- The set of all ordered pair of integer.

Countable set $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ & bijective

Equivalent sets: Same number of elements.

Equal sets: Same elements.

Theorem 3: If A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots are countable sets, then $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ is countable i.e; the unions of countable sets are countable.

Proof: Since, A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots are countable set and every set A_n is assigned in a seqⁿ $\{a_{nk}\}$ $k = 1, 2, \dots$, we may write as follows.

$$A_1 = \{a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{13}, \dots, a_{1n}\}$$

$$A_2 = \{a_{21}, a_{22}, a_{23}, \dots, a_{2n}\}$$

$$A_3 = \{a_{31}, a_{32}, a_{33}, \dots, a_{3n}\}$$

⋮
⋮
⋮

$$A_n = \{a_{n1}, a_{n2}, a_{n3}, \dots, a_{nn}\}$$

now, we consider elements of the above sets. there is only one element a_{11} whose subscript sum is 2, there are 2 elements a_{21}, a_{12} whose subscript sum is 3,
 3, there are 3 elements a_{31}, a_{22}, a_{13} whose subscript sum is 4.

Explain

and so on. we observe that for any m integer m (sum of subscript) ≥ 2 , there are only $m-1$ elements.

now, we arrange them in order of the sum of subscript

$$a_n : a_{21}, a_{12}; a_{13}, a_{23} + a_{31}, \dots$$

we have renamed all the element a_{nk} which we have counted already.

\therefore we established a one-one & onto mapping b/w natural no.'s and $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ which proves that.

$$N \sim \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$$

Thus $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ is countable.

Theorem 6: The set of all rational no.'s are countable

Proof: It is sufficient to show that the set of all positive rational no.'s is countable, then the collectⁿ of +ve & -ve & zero can be represented as a single list.

i.e $Q^+ = \left\{ \frac{m}{n}, m, n \in N \right\}$, where fractⁿ ~~is~~ $\frac{n}{m}$

are written in the lowest terms arrange all ratios in an infinite matrix $\left[\frac{m}{n} \right]_{n,m=1}^{\infty}$

$1/1$	$1/2$	$1/3$	$1/4$	$1/5$	\dots
$2/1$	$2/2$	$2/3$	$2/4$	$2/5$	\dots
$3/1$	$3/2$	$3/3$	$3/4$	$3/5$	\dots
\vdots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots

and defined a map $f: N \rightarrow Q^+$ from the above sloping diagonals in successions.

now start at the lefthand corner and move along the north-east diagonal of these table

i.e; start with $1/1$ then move ~~along~~ toward

$2/1$ then $1/2$, again proceed to $3/1$, $2/2$ and move along $2/2$ and $1/3$ and so on.

when we hit a repetition [$2/2 = 1/1$] skip it.

$$f(1) = 2/1 = 1 \quad f(5) = \frac{1}{3} \quad f(9) = 1/4$$

$$f(2) = 2/1 = 2 \quad f(6) = 4/1 = 4 \quad f(10) = 5/1$$

$$f(3) = 1/2 \quad f(7) = 3/2 \quad f(11) = \dots$$

$$f(4) = 3/1 = 3 \quad f(8) = 2/3$$

Skipped $\{ 4/2 = f(2), 3/3 = f(1), 2/6 = \frac{1}{3} = f(5), \dots \}$

Clearly f is a bijective mapping thus $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Q}^+$
 \therefore The set of all rational numbers is countable.

Theorem 7: If N is a set of natural numbers then $N \times N$ is countable.

Proof: we consider the following collections of set \mathcal{A} countable.

$$A_1 = \{ (1,1) \quad (1,2) \quad (1,3) \quad \dots \quad (1,n) \dots \}$$

$$A_2 = \{ (2,1) \quad (2,2) \quad (2,3) \quad \dots \quad (2,n) \dots \}$$

$$A_3 = \{ (3,1) \quad (3,2) \quad (3,3) \quad \dots \quad (3,n) \dots \}$$

⋮
⋮

$$A_n = \{ (n,1) \quad (n,2) \quad (n,3) \quad \dots \quad (n,n) \dots \}$$

let functⁿ $f: N \rightarrow A$ be obtained/defined by
 $f(n,m) = m$, clearly it is bijective.

Thus A_n is equivalent to N i.e., $N \sim A_n$.

~~By the~~ ∵ $\{A_n\}$ is countable

By the theorem "union of countable set is countable"

$$\text{we have } N \times N = \cup \{A_n; n \in N\}.$$

∴ $N \times N$ itself is countable set.

Uncountable set: A set which is not countable is called uncountable set

$$\text{ex: } u = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{10} = 0.\dot{5}00000 = 0.499999\dots$$

"Shows that two decimals are distinct, that doesn't necessarily mean that they expressed distinct real no.'s"

Theorem 8: The set $[0, 1]$ is uncountable.

Proof: By contradiction we prove $[0, 1]$ is countable. Let us suppose that $[0, 1]$ is a countable set i.e; all the real no's lying in the segment $[0, 1]$ can be written/expressed in the form of an infinite decimal expansion and it can be arranged in the sequence as follows:

$$[0, 1] = \{u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_n\}.$$

for ex: instead of 0.19999 we could use $0.2000\dots$
∴ we can express u_i as follows.

$$u_1 = 0.a_{11}a_{12}a_{13}\dots$$

$$u_2 = 0.a_{21}a_{22}a_{23}\dots$$

$$u_3 = 0.a_{31}a_{32}a_{33}\dots$$

⋮

⋮

$$u_n = 0.a_{n1}a_{n2}a_{n3}\dots$$

where each a_{ij} is one of the no's $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$

$$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$$

now, we'll construct a real no's.

$$y = 0.b_1b_2b_3\dots b_n\dots$$

we choose each integer $b_n = ?_n; n \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$

from 1 to 9 s.t. $b_i \neq a_{ii}$. Then choose another integer

$b_2 \neq a_{22}$ and proceeding like then we have $b_m \neq a_{mm}$

since $b_i \neq a_{ii}$ if follows the $y \neq u_i$ and $b_2 \neq a_{22}$
means $y \neq u_2$ for each decimal places n . It means
the decimal expansion of y is different from the
decimal expansion of $u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_m, \dots$ listed above.

∴ the decimal expansion of y is unique, since
 $y \in [0, 1]$ this contradict the assumption that
every (real no./element) in $[0, 1]$ can be listed
as $u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_n, \dots$

∴ Thus the assumpt' that $[0, 1]$ is countable is wrong.

∴ $[0, 1]$ is not countable.

Thm 9: The set of all ~~real~~ no's are uncountable
Irrational.

Proof: Suppose, S is a set of irrational no. and countable.
we know that the set \mathbb{Q} of rational no.'s is countable.
 $\therefore R = S \cup \mathbb{Q}$ is also countable, but R is uncountable.
Hence, $S = R - \mathbb{Q}$ is also uncountable.

Thm 10: The set of all real no's are uncountable.

Proof: Let us suppose, R is a countable set & $[0, 1]$ is an infinite subset of R . Since, every infinite subset of a countable set is countable, then $[0, 1]$ is also countable. This is contradicting the theorem "8"
mention the theorem statement
hence, the set R is uncountable.

Bounded below: A set $S \subset R$ of real no's is said to be bounded below if there exist a real no. k s.t.

$$k \leq u \quad \forall u \in S.$$

The real no. k is called a lower bound of S .

ex: $N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ i.e. $1 \leq n \quad n \in N$

Bounded Above: The set $S \subset R$ of real no's is said to be bounded above if \exists a real no. l s.t

$$u \leq l \quad \forall u \in S$$

The real no. l is called an upper bound of S .

ex: $I = \{-1, -2, -3, \dots\}$ i.e. $n \leq -1 \quad n \in I$

Bounded set: A set is said to be bounded if it is bounded above as well as bounded below.

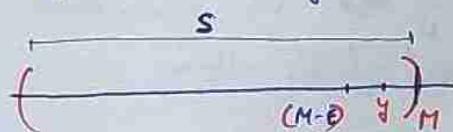
So, a set S is bounded if $\exists k, K \in S$ s.t.



Least upper bound (sup): The smallest member in the set of all upper bound of a set is called the L.U.B or supremum (sup).

Properties: $S = M$ equivalent to hold the next (i) & (ii)

- (i) M is an upper bound of S i.e., $u \leq M \forall u \in S$.
- (ii) No number less than ' M ' can be upper bound of S , i.e., $\exists \epsilon > 0 \exists y \in S$ s.t. $(M - \epsilon) < y \leq M$



Necessity: For $\epsilon > 0$ $(M - \epsilon)$ is not an upper bound of S
 $\Rightarrow \exists y \in S$ s.t. $(M - \epsilon) < y \leq M$ (by Property (i)).

Sufficient: by (i) M is upper bound of S .
So, by (ii) we see M is the LUB.

Greatest lower bound (Inf): The greatest member in the set of all lower bound of a set ' S ' is called G.L.B or Infimum

Properties: $\inf S = m$ equivalent to hold the next (i) & (ii).

- (i) m is the lower bound of set S .

- (ii) no-no. greater than m can be lower bound of S
i.e., $\exists \epsilon > 0 \exists y \in S$ s.t. $m \leq y < (m + \epsilon)$

Necessity: for $\epsilon > 0$, $(m + \epsilon)$.

Sufficient: by (i) 'm' is lower bound of 'S' so by (ii) we say that 'm' is the G.L.B.

ex; $N = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, 10\}$. $\inf(N) = 1$.
 $\sup(N) = 10$.

Theorem 10: Supremum of any set is unique, i.e; the set A cannot have more than one sup/inf.

Proof: Suppose that 'S' is a non-empty set and we have to show that $\sup S$ is unique.

let m & m' be two sups of the set (S), that is both m & m' are also upper bound of 'S' then.

If m is the LUB then m' is an upper bound then
 $m' \geq m$ (i)

similarly if m' is the LUB then m is an upper bound
then $m \geq m'$ (ii)

from (i) & (ii). we have $m = m'$
hence, the sup of the set is unique.

The completeness axiom:

1. every non-empty set of real no. which is bounded above, has the \sup [L.U.B] in \mathbb{R} .
2. Every non-empty set of real no. which is bounded below has the \inf [G.L.B] in \mathbb{R} .

say

The Archimedean Property of Real number.

Theorem: If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x > 0$ then ~~there~~ there is a +ve integer n s.t. $nx > y$.

Proof: (i) If $y \leq 0$ then the theorem is true.
 (ii) we need to show that the following.

Proving by contradiction: If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y > 0$ then $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $nx > y$. Suppose this is false. Then $nx \leq y \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

now, let $S = \{nx : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{x, 2x, 3x, \dots\} \leq y$. Thus the set 'S' bounded above and y will be a upper bound of 'S' $\{$ by completeness Axiom.

$\sup S = M$ i.e. M is L.U.B of 'S'
 $\Rightarrow M$ is the upper bound of 'S' i.e., $nx \leq M$
 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\Rightarrow (n+1)x \leq M \quad (\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow nx \in \mathbb{N})$$

$$\Rightarrow nx \leq M - n \quad \{ (M-n) \text{ is the upper bound of } S \}$$

$$\Rightarrow M - n < M \quad (\because n > 0)$$

Hence we have the upper bound $(M-n)$ less than $\sup S$ which is M which is a contradiction. \therefore

$\therefore x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y > 0$ then $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $nx > y$.