## Completeness of $\mathbb{R}$

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**Theorem.** The real numbers form a complete metric space.

Notation: We denote the set of non-negative real numbers as  $\mathbb{R}^+$ .

We begin by providing a way to measure distances in a space.

**Definition 1** (Metric). Let X be a set and  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}^+$  be a map. We say d is a *metric* if and only if all of the following hold.

- 1. For all  $x, y \in X$ , d(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y.
- 2. For all  $x, y \in X$ , d(x, y) = d(y, x) (symmetric property).
- 3. For all  $x, y, z \in X$ ,  $d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, x)$  (triangle inequality).

If d is a metric on X, we say (X, d) forms a metric space.

For example,  $(\mathbb{Q}, d)$  and  $(\mathbb{R}, d)$  where d(x, y) = |x - y| is a metric space, and more generally,  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_n)$  where  $d_n$  is the Euclidean distance is also a metric space. Now that we have a way to talk about distances in spaces we can talk about convergence of sequences in those spaces.

**Definition 2** (Convergent Sequence). Let (X,d) be a metric space and let  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in X. We say  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges to some  $a\in X$ , denoted  $a_n\to a$  if and only if for all  $\varepsilon>0$  there exists a  $N_\varepsilon\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(a_n,a)<\varepsilon$  for all  $n\geq N_\varepsilon$ .

However, convergence is often too strong a condition to prove, and moreover convergence also requires a proposed limit. Therefore, we introduce the notion of a *Cauchy Sequence* where the terms get arbitrarily close to each other.

**Definition 3** (Cauchy Sequence). Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in X. We say  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a *Cauchy sequence* if and only if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(a_n, a_m) < \varepsilon$  for all  $n, m \geq N_{\varepsilon}$ .

Note, however that Cauchy sequences are not always convergent in their space. For example consider the sequence given by

$$a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n.$$

We know these terms are rational and thus  $a_n$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -valued sequence. Furthermore, the sequence is in fact Cauchy. However, the limit of this sequence as n approaches infinity is e and thus, this Cauchy sequence does not converge in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , but it does in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

This leads us to a notion of *completeness* in a metric space.

**Definition 4** (Complete Metric Space). Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then we say (X, d) is *complete* if and only if every Cauchy sequence in X converges in X.

By this definition of completeness,  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete as shown by our prior example. However,  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete.

Before we get into any theorems here, we need a notion of boundedness for subsets of the real numbers.

**Definition 5** (Bounded). Let S be a subset of the real numbers. Then S is bounded if and only if there exists an M > 0 such that  $S \subseteq [-M, M]$ .

We also need to invoke a famous theorem due to Bolzano and Weierstrass, which states that any bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  has a subsequence that is convergent in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 1** (Bolzano-Weierstrass). Let  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a bounded  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued sequence. Then there exists a  $\{a_{n_k}\}\subseteq\{a_n\}$  such that  $a_{n_k}$  converges to some  $a\in\mathbb{R}$ .

Proof. Let  $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be bounded. Then there exists an  $M\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset[-M,M]\subset\mathbb{R}$ . Bisect [-M,M] into [-M,0],[0,M]. At least one half has infinitely many sequence points, call this one  $I_1$ . Pick a sequence point  $x_{n_1}\in I_1$ . Bisect  $I_1$  and call the half with infinitely many sequence points  $I_2$ . Pick a sequence point  $x_{n_2}\in I_2$  such that the index  $n_2>n_1$ . Iterate this process, that is bisect  $I_k$  and call the half with infinitely many points  $I_{k+1}$ . Then choose a sequence point  $x_{n_{k+1}}\in I_{k+1}$  with the property that the index  $n_{k+1}>n_k>\ldots>n_1$ . Moreover, by nested interval property,  $\bigcap_{k\in\mathbb{N}}I_k\neq\emptyset$ . Thus there exists at least one  $x\in\bigcap_{k\in\mathbb{N}}I_k$ . We want to show that  $x_{n_k}\to x$ . Let  $\varepsilon>0$  be given. Choose a  $K_\varepsilon\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $2^{-K_\varepsilon}M<\varepsilon$ . Note that for all  $k\geq K_\varepsilon$ ,  $2^{-k}M<2^{-K_\varepsilon}M<\varepsilon$ . Since  $x\in\bigcap_{k\in\mathbb{N}}I_k$ ,  $x\in I_k$  for all  $k\in\mathbb{N}$ . Thus for all  $k\in\mathbb{N}$ ,  $|x_{n_k}-x|\leq 2^{-k}M$ . Therefore, when we force  $k\geq K_\varepsilon$  we have  $I_k\subset I_{K_\varepsilon}$  and

$$|x_{n_k} - x| \le 2^{-k} M \le 2^{-K_{\varepsilon}} M < \varepsilon.$$

Thus,  $\{x_{n_k}\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a subsequence of  $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  that is convergent in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Furthermore, we need the following lemma.

**Lemma 2.** Any  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued Cauchy sequence is bounded.

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given and let  $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Therefore, there exists an  $N_{\varepsilon}$  such that  $|a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon$  for all  $n, m \ge N_{\varepsilon}$ . Therefore, for all  $n \ge N_{\varepsilon}$ ,  $|a_{N_{\varepsilon}} - a_n| < \varepsilon$ . Thus for each  $n \ge N_{\varepsilon}$ ,  $a_n \in [a_{N_{\varepsilon}} - \varepsilon, a_{N_{\varepsilon}} + \varepsilon]$ . Take  $M_1 = \max\{a_{N_{\varepsilon}} - \varepsilon, a_{N_{\varepsilon}} + \varepsilon\}$ , which yields  $\{a_n\}_{n=N_{\varepsilon}}^{\infty} \subset [-M_1, M_1]$ .

Furthermore, since  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{N_{\varepsilon}-1}$  is finite, take  $M_2 = \max\{|a_n|\}_{n=1}^{N_{\varepsilon}-1}$ . Thus,  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{N_{\varepsilon}-1} \subset [-M_2, M_2]$ . If we take  $M = \max\{M_1, M_2\}$ , then we have  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \subset [-M, M]$ . Therefore, the sequence is bounded.  $\square$ 

And now we provide the proof.

**Theorem 3.** The real numbers form a complete metric space.

*Proof.* Let  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be Cauchy in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy there exists an  $N_{\varepsilon/2} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon/2$  for all  $n, m \ge N_{\varepsilon/2}$ . Furthermore,  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is bounded and thus by Bolzano-Weierstrass, there exists a  $\{a_{n_k}\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}} \subset \{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $a_{n_k}$  converges to some  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ .

We claim that  $a_n$  converges to a. Since  $a_{n_k}$  converges to a, there exists a  $K_{\varepsilon/2} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|a_{n_k} - a| < \varepsilon/2$  for all  $k \geq K_{\varepsilon/2}$ . Take  $N = \max\{N_{\varepsilon/2}, n_{K_{\varepsilon/2}}\}$  and force n, k large enough such that  $n, n_k \geq N$ . Consider  $|a_n - a|$ .

$$|a_n - a| = |a_n - a_{n_k} + a_{n_k} - a| \le |a_n - a_{n_k}| + |a_{n_k} - a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

Thus for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$  for all  $n \ge N$ . Therefore  $a_n$  converges to a and  $\mathbb{R}$  is a complete metric space.

## 1 Bonus

**Theorem.** The set of infinite binary sequences is uncountable.

**Definition 6** (Countable Set). Let X be a set. We say X is *countable* if and only if there exists a bijection between X and a subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ . If X has a bijection with  $\mathbb{N}$  itself, then we say X is *countably infinite*.

*Proof.* Let B represent the set of infinite binary sequences. Proceed via contradiction. Assume B is countable. Then  $B = \{s_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  where  $s_i = (b_{i,1}, b_{i,2}, \ldots)$  with each  $b_{i,j} \in \{0,1\}$ . Define  $\sim: \{0,1\} \to \{0,1\}$  by

$$\sim x = \begin{cases} 0 & x = 1 \\ 1 & x = 0 \end{cases}.$$

We need to create a infinite binary sequence that is not equal to any  $b_i$ . Take  $s = (\sim b_{1,1}, \sim b_{2,2}, \ldots)$ . Obviously,  $s \in B$ . However, for each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\sim b_{i,i} \neq b_{i,i}$  and thus  $s \neq s_i$  for each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore,  $s \notin B$  which is a contradiction. Ergo, B must be uncountable.