Analysis Notes

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## Chapter 1

## The Real Numbers

## 1.1 Discussion: the Irrationality of $\sqrt{2}$

**THEOREM 1.1.1.** There is no rational number whose square is 2.

*Proof.* A rational number can be written in the form  $\frac{p}{q}$  where p and q are integers. We will use an indirect proof. First, assume there is a rational so that its square is 2. It can be written that

$$(\frac{p}{q})^2 = 2$$

We can assume p and q have no common factors since they would cancel anyways and give us a new p and q. Now we can written

$$p^2 = 2q^2$$

which implies that  $p^2$  is an even number, which implies p is an even number. So we can let p = 2r. Plugging this in

$$2r^2 = q^2$$

With the same logic as for with p, q is also even. So p and q share a common factor of 2 which contradicts the assumption made in the beginning that they share no common factors.

#### Important number systems as sets

Natural Numbers

$$\mathbf{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$$

Addition works well he, but there is no additive identity or inverse.

Integers

$$\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

This includes the additive identity (0) and the additive inverses, which define subtraction. The multiplicative identity is 1, but for multiplicative inverses we need to extend to ...

Rational Numbers

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{\text{all fractions } \frac{p}{q} \text{ where } p \text{ and } q \text{ are integers and } q \neq 0\}$$

The multiplicative inverses define division. All of these properties of  $\mathbf{Q}$  make it into a *field*. A field is any set where addition and multiplication are well-defined operations that are commutative, associative, and obey the distributive property: a(b+c)=ab+bc. There must be an additive and multiplicative identity, and each element must have an additive and multiplicative inverse.

The set  $\mathbf{Q}$  has a natural *order*. Given two rational numbers r and s, one of the following is true:

$$r < s, r = s, \text{ or } r > s$$

This ordering is transitive: if r < s and s < t, then r < t. Also, between any two rational numbers, r and s, there is a rational number between them:  $\frac{r+s}{2}$ , which implies that rational numbers are densely packed.

**Q** is has holes in the spots of irrationals, such as  $\sqrt{2}$  and  $\sqrt{3}$ . To fill these we add ...

Real Numbers

$$\mathbf{R} = \{\text{all real numbers}\}\$$

Just like Q, R is a field. R is added as a superset of Q.  $N \subseteq Z \subseteq Q \subseteq R$ .

#### 1.2 Some Preliminaries

#### Sets

A set is a collection of object, usually real numbers. The objects that make up the set are elements.

#### Notation

- $x \in A$  means x is in A
- $A \cup B$  (union of A and B) is defined by: if  $x \in A \cup B$  then  $x \in A$  or  $x \in B$  (or both)
- $\bullet$   $A\cap B$  (intersection of A and B) is defined by: if  $x\in A\cap B$  then  $x\in A$  and  $x\in B$ 
  - $\emptyset$  is an *empty set*, or a set without any elements in it
  - if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then A and B are disjoint
- $A \supseteq B$  or  $B \subseteq A$  every element of B is in A so for each  $x \in B$ ,  $x \in A$ . So B is a *subset* of A, or A *contains* B
- ullet A=B means each element of  $A\subseteq B$  and  $B\subseteq B$ . So the sets are the same.

- $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$  or  $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbf{N}} A$  means  $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_{\infty}$   $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$  or  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbf{N}} A$  means  $A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{\infty}$   $A^c = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : x \notin A\}$

You can define a set by listing items  $(N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\})$ , with words (let E be all even natural numbers), or with a rule or algorithm  $(S = \{r \in \mathbf{Q} : r^2 < 2\})$ .

#### De Morgan's Laws

$$(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$$
 and  $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$ 

#### **Functions**

Given two sets A and B, a function from A to B is a rule or mapping that takes each element  $x \in A$  to a single element in B. We can write  $f: A \to B$ . Given  $x \in A$ , f(x) represents an element of B associated with x by f. A is the domain of f. The range is a subset of B.

#### Triangle Inequality

Absolute Value Function:

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

The Absolute Value Function satisfies:

$$|ab| = |a||b|$$

$$|a+b| \le |a| + |b|$$

#### Logic and Proofs

A type of indirect proof previously used is proof by contradiction, which starts by negating what we are proving and then finding a contradiction. Most proofs are direct, which means it starts from a true statement and then gets to the theorems conclusion.

**THEOREM 1.2.1.** Two real numbers a and b are equal if and only if for every real number  $\epsilon > 0$  it follows that  $|a - b| < \epsilon$ 

*Proof.* Must prove both:

 $\Rightarrow$  If a = b, then for every real number  $\epsilon$  it follows that  $|a - b| < \epsilon$ . If a = b, then |a - b| = 0, and  $|a - b| < \epsilon$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

 $\Leftarrow$  If for every real number  $\epsilon > 0$  if follows that  $|a - b| < \epsilon$ , then we must have a = b.

Assume  $a \neq b$ ,

let  $\epsilon_0 = |a-b| > 0$  since  $a \neq b$ But  $|a-b| = \epsilon_0$  contradicts  $|a-b| < \epsilon_0$ , which was given. So  $a \neq b$  is unacceptable, and a must equal b.

#### Induction

The fundamental principle behind induction is that if S is a subset of **N** so that S contains 1 and if S contains n, then S contains n+1, then by induction  $S = \mathbf{N}$ .

### 1.3 The Axiom of Completeness

## Chapter 2

# Sequences and Series