SUMMER PROGRAMME 2021

Solutions to exercises from Walter Rudin's $Principles\ of\ Mathematical\ Analysis$

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Chapter 1

The Real and Complex Number Systems

Exercise 1. If r is rational $(r \neq 0)$ and x is irrational, prove that r + x and rx are irrational. Solution. Use the fact that the field of rationals is closed under additiona and multiplication, as well as the existence of the additive inverse -r and the multiplicative inverse 1/r. If r + x and rx were rational, then both

$$(-r) + r + x = x,$$
 $(1/r)rx = x$

must also be rational. These are contradictions.

Exercise 2. Prove that there is no rational number whose square is 12.

Solution. Suppose that $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, $x^2 = 12$, and x = p/q where $q \neq 0$ and p and q are coprime integers. This would imply that

$$p^2 = 12q^2 = 3(2q)^2,$$

so 3 divides p^2 , hence 3 divides p. Write p = 3m for some integer m, giving

$$3(2q)^2 = p^2 = (3m)^2 = 9m^2,$$
 $(2q)^2 = 3m^2.$

This means that 3 divides $(2q)^2$, hence 3 divides 2q, hence 3 divides q. This contradicts the fact that p and q are coprime, which means that there is no rational number whose square is 12.

Exercise 3. Prove that the axioms of multiplication in a field imply the following statements.

- (a) If $x \neq 0$ and xy = xz, then y = z.
- (b) If $x \neq 0$ and xy = x, then y = 1.
- (c) If $x \neq 0$ and xy = 1, then y = 1/x.
- (d) If $x \neq 0$ then 1/(1/x) = x.

Solution. The axioms of multiplication guarantee the existence of an element 1/x such that x(1/x) = 1. Left multiply on both sides of xy = xz, use associativity and 1w = w for all w in the field to get

$$(1/x)xy = (1/x)xz, \qquad y = z.$$

This proves (a). Setting z = 1 proves (b), and setting z = 1/x proves (c). Using x(1/x) = 1, replace x with 1/x in (c) to give

$$(1/x)(1/(1/x)) = 1,$$

then left multiply with x yielding

$$x(1/x)(1/(1/x)) = x,$$
 $1/(1/x) = x.$

Exercise 4. Let E be a non-empty subset of an ordered set; suppose that α is a lower bound of E and β is an upper bound of E. Prove that $\alpha \leq \beta$.

Solution. By definition, $\alpha \leq x$ for all $x \in E$ and $x \leq \beta$ for all $\in E$. Since E is non-empty, simply select some $x \in E$, whence $\alpha \leq x \leq \beta$. Thus, we either have $\alpha = x = \beta$, $\alpha = x < \beta$, $\alpha < x = \beta$, or $\alpha < x < \beta$. In the last case, transitivity gives $\alpha < \beta$. Hence, $\alpha \leq \beta$.

Exercise 5. Let A be a non-empty subset of the real numbers which is bounded below. Let -A be the set of all numbers -x, where $x \in A$. Prove that

$$\inf A = -\sup(-A).$$

Solution. Fix $\alpha = -\sup(-A)$. We claim that $\alpha = \inf A$, i.e. $\beta \le \alpha \le x$ for all lower bounds β of A and for all $x \in A$.

First, note that $-\alpha = \sup(-A)$, which means that $-\alpha \ge x$ for all $x \in -A$, whence $\alpha \le -x$ for all $-x \in A$. However, for each $x \in A$, we have $-x \in -A$ so $\alpha \le x$ for all $x \in A$.

Now, let β be a lower bound of A. This means that $\beta \leq x$ for all $x \in A$, so $-\beta \geq -x$ for all $x \in A$. Again, $-x \in -A$ for all $x \in A$, so $-\beta \geq x$ for all $x \in -A$. This means that β is an upper bound of -A, which means $-\beta \geq \sup(-A) = -\alpha$. Thus, $\beta \leq \alpha$.

This proves that $\inf A = -\sup(-A)$.

Exercise 6. Fix b > 1.

(a) If m, n, p, q are integers, n > 0, q > 0, and r = m/n = p/q, prove that

$$(b^m)^{1/n} = (b^p)^{1/q}.$$

Hence it makes sense to define $b^r = (b^m)^{1/n}$.

- (b) Prove that $b^{r+s} = b^r b^s$ if r and s are rational.
- (c) If x is real, define B(x) to be the set of all numbers b^t , where t is rational and $t \leq x$. Prove that

$$b^r = \sup B(r)$$
.

Hence is makes sense to define $b^x = \sup B(x)$ for every real x.

(d) Prove that $b^{x+y} = b^x b^y$ for all real x and y.

Solution.

(a) Write r with the common denominator s = nq, so r = mq/s = pn/s. Now, note that

$$((b^m)^{1/n})^s = (b^m)^q = b^{mq}, \qquad ((b^p)^{1/q})^s = (b^p)^n = b^{np},$$

but mq = np = rs. Setting $b^{rs} = x$, use Theorem 1.21 to conclude that there is a unique y such that $y^s = x = b^{rs}$. However, we have just verified two such y, hence

$$(b^m)^{1/n} = (b^p)^{1/q}.$$

(b) Set r = m/n, s = p/q with n > 0, q > 0. Then,

$$b^{r+s} = b^{(mq+np)/nq} = (b^{mq+np})^{1/nq} = (b^{mq}b^{np})^{1/nq}$$

The corollary of Theorem 1.21 lets us distribute the integer root over the product, giving

$$b^{r+s} = b^{mq/nq}b^{np/nq} = b^{m/n}b^{p/q} = b^rb^s$$

(c) First, we show that $b^n - 1 \ge n(b-1)$ for all positive integers n. This is trivially true for n = 1. For n > 1, write b = 1 + a where a > 0. Hence the Binomial Theorem gives

$$b^n = (1+a)^n = 1 + na + \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)a^2 + \dots + a^n > 1 + na,$$

hence

$$b^n - 1 > na = n(b - 1).$$

Note that this inequality becomes strict for n > 1. Replacing b with $b^{1/n} > 1$, we have $b - 1 > n(b^{1/n} - 1)$ for all positive integers n.

Now, given some t > 1, we can choose a positive integer n > (b-1)/(t-1), which implies $n(t-1) > b-1 > n(b^{1/n}-1)$, hence $t > b^{1/n}$.

Now, note that for all $x \in B(r)$, $x = b^t$ for some rational t. First, note that for all rational $t \le r$, we have $b^t \le b^r$. This is because if we write t and r with a common positive integer denominator, t = m/q, t = n/q, then t = n/q and t = n/q are t = n/q. Thus, t = n/q is an upper bound for t = n/q.

Next, we show that b^r is the least upper bound to B(r). Suppose that $\alpha = \sup B(r)$, and $b^t \leq \alpha < b^r$ for all $t \leq r$. Using the previously proven inequality, find a large enough integer n such that $b^{1/n} < b^r/\alpha$. Thus, $\alpha < b^{r-1/n}$, and r - 1/n < r so $b^{r-1/n} \in B(r)$, which contradicts the fact that α is the supremum of B(r). Hence, b^r is the least upper bound of B(r), so

$$b^r = \sup B(r)$$
.

(d) We have been given

$$b^x = \sup B(x),$$
 $b^y = \sup B^y,$ $b^{x+y} = \sup B(x+y)$

by definition for real x and y. Choose some rational $t \leq x + y$, so $b^t \in B(x + y)$. By choosing a rational r such that t - y < r < x and setting s = t - r, we have t = r + s and r < x, s < y. Thus, $b^r \in B(x)$ and $b^s \in B(y)$, so every element $b^t \in B(x + y)$ can be written as $b^{r+s} = b^r b^s$, which is the product of an element each from B(x) and B(y). Conversely, given elements $b^r \in B(x)$ and $b^s \in B(y)$, we have $r \leq x$ and $s \leq y$ so $t = r + s \leq x + y$, hence $b^{r+s} = b^t \in B(x + y)$. Thus, we have

$$B(x + y) = \{wz : w \in B(x), z \in B(y)\}.$$

Thus, for any element $wz \in B(x+y)$, $w \in B(x)$, $z \in B(y)$, we have $w \le \sup B(x) = b^x$ and $z \le \sup B(y) = b^y$, so $wz \le b^x b^y$. This means that $b^x b^y$ is an upper bound of B(x+y).

Now suppose that $\alpha = \sup B(x+y)$ such that $wz \leq \alpha < b^x b^y$ for all $wz \in B(x+y)$, where $w \in B(x)$ and $z \in B(y)$. Then, $\alpha/b^x < b^y$, so choose β such that $\alpha/b^x < \beta < b^y$. In other words, $\alpha/\beta < b^x$ and $\beta < b^y$, so we can choose rational r < x, s < y such that $\alpha/\beta \leq b^r \in B(x)$ and $\beta \leq b^s \in B(y)$. Note that $r \neq x$ and $s \neq y$. Thus, the product $(\alpha/\beta)\beta = \alpha \leq b^r b^s \in B(x+y)$. However, recall that we chose α such that $b^r b^s \leq \alpha$ for all $b^r \in B(x)$, $b^s \in B(y)$, so we must have $\alpha = b^r b^s$ for our choice of r and s. Now, we can choose rational r' and s' such that r < r' < x and s < s' < y, hence $b^r < b^{r'} \in B(x)$ and $b^s < b^{s'} \in B(y)$. This gives $\alpha = b^r b^s < b^{r'} b^{s'} \in B(x+y)$, which contradicts the fact that α is an upper bound. Thus, $b^x b^y$ must be the least upper bound of B(x+y), so

$$b^{x+y} = b^x b^y.$$

Exercise 7. Fix b > 1, y > 0, and show the following.

- (a) For any positive integer $n, b^n 1 \ge n(b-1)$.
- (b) Hence, $b 1 \ge n(b^{1/n} 1)$.
- (c) If t > 1 and n > (b-1)/(t-1), then $b^{1/n} < t$.
- (d) If w is such that $b^w < y$, then $b^{w+1/n} < y$ for sufficiently large n.
- (e) If $b^w > y$, then $b^{w-1/n} > y$ for sufficiently large n.
- (f) Let A be the set of all w such that $b^w < y$, and show that $x = \sup A$ satisfies $b^x = y$.
- (g) Prove that this x is unique.

Solution.

- (a) See Exercise 1 (c).
- (b) See Exercise 1 (c).
- (c) See Exercise 1 (c).
- (d) Set $t = yb^{-w} > 1$, and using the previous inequality, choose sufficiently large n such that $b^{1/n} < t = yb^{-w}$. Thus,

$$b^{w+1/n} < y.$$

(e) Set $t = (1/y)b^w > 1$, and using the inequality in (c), choose sufficiently large n such that $b^{1/n} < t = (1/y)b^w$. Thus,

$$y < b^{w-1/n}.$$

(f) Exactly one of the following must be true; $b^x < y$, $b^x = y$, $b^x > y$. If $b^x < y$, then $x \in A$ by definition. Using (d), we can find sufficiently large n such that

$$b^{x+1/n} < y,$$

hence $x < x + 1/n \in A$, contradicting the fact that x is an upper bound of A. If $b^x > y$, then using (e), we can find sufficiently large n such that

$$y < b^{x-1/n}$$
,

which means that x - 1/n is also an upper bound of A, contradicting the fact that x is the lowest upper bound of A. This leaves us with $b^x = y$.

(g) Suppose that $x \neq x'$, and without loss of generality x < x'. Set x' - x = h > 0, and note that $b^{x'} = b^{x+h} = b^x b^h$. Now, b > 1 and h > 0, so $b^h > 1$. Thus, $b^{x'} > b^x$, which means that $b^{x'} \neq b^x$ for $x' \neq x$. Thus, if $b^x = y$, then x is unique.

Exercise 8. Prove that no order can be defined in the complex field that turns it into an ordered field.

Solution. In an ordered field, if x > 0, then we must have -x < 0, and vice versa by Proposition 1.18. The same proposition gives that if $x \neq 0$, then $x^2 > 0$. This forces $i^2 = -1 > 0$. Applying the same proposition again, this forces $(-1)^2 = 1 > 0$, which is a contradiction because we cannot have both -1 > 0 and 1 > 0.

Exercise 9. Suppose z = a + bi, w = c + di. Define z < w if a < c, and also if a = c but b = d. Prove that this turns the set of all complex numbers into an ordered set. Does this ordered set have the least-upper-bound property?

Solution. First, we show that for arbitrary z=a+bi and w=c+di, exactly one of the following is true: z < w, z=w, z>w. To do this, note that the real numbers are ordered, so either a < c, a=c, or a>c. In the case a < c, we have z < w and since $a \ne c$, $z \ne w$. Also, this excludes w < z. In the case a>c, the roles of z and w are interchanged, so z>w. In the case a=c, we note that either b < d, b=d, or b>d; when b < d, z < w and when b>d, z>w. Finally, when a=c and b=d, we have z=w.

Next, we show that transitivity holds, i.e. if z < w and w < x, then z < x. Write z = a + bi, w = c + di and x = e + fi. Note that the conditions z < w and w < x imply $a \le c$ and $c \le e$. This has to be further split into four cases.

Case 1 If a < c and c < e, then a < e so z < x.

Case 2 If a = c and c < e, then a < e again so z < x.

Case 3 If a < c and c = e, then a < e again so z < x.

Case 4 If a = c and c = e, then we must have had b < d and d < f, so a = e and b < f gives z < x.

No, this ordered set does not have the least upper bound property. Consider the set of complex numbers $S = \{a+bi: 0 < a < 1, b=0\}$. If w=c+di is to be an upper bound of S, i.e. $z \le w$ for all $z \in S$, then either z=w for some $z \in S$ or z < w for all $z \in S$. The former implies that w=a+0i for some 0 < a < 1, in which case we have $w=a+0i < (a+1)/2+0i \in S$, a contradiction. The latter implies that $a \le c$ for all 0 < a < 1, which forces $1 \le c$. If w=c+di is the least upper bound of S with 1 < c, then note that (1+c)/2+di < c+di=w is smaller upper bound of S. Otherwise, if w=1+di is the least upper bound of S, then 1+(d-1)i < 1+di=w is a smaller upper bound. This means that the set S have no least upper bound.

Exercise 10. Suppose z = a + bi, w = u + vi, and

$$a = \left(\frac{|w| + u}{2}\right)^{1/2}, \qquad b = \left(\frac{|w| - u}{2}\right)^{1/2}.$$

Prove that $z^2 = w$ if $v \ge 0$ and $(\overline{z})^2 = w$ if $v \le 0$. Conclude that every complex number (with one exception) has two complex square roots.

Solution. Write

$$z^{2} = (a+bi)^{2} = a^{2} - b^{2} + 2abi,$$
 $\overline{z}^{2} = (a-bi)^{2} = a^{2} - b^{2} - 2abi.$

Now,

$$a^{2} - b^{2} = \frac{1}{2}(|w| + u) - \frac{1}{2}(|w| - v) = u,$$

and

$$2ab = 2\left(\frac{|w|+u}{2}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{|w|-u}{2}\right)^{1/2}$$
$$= 2\left(\frac{(|w|+u)(|w|-u)}{4}\right)^{1/2}$$
$$= 2\left(\frac{|w|^2-u^2}{4}\right)^{1/2}$$
$$= 2\left(\left(\frac{v}{2}\right)^2\right)^{1/2}.$$

Recall that $(x^2)^{1/2} = x$ if $x \ge 0$ and $(x^2)^{1/2} = -x$ if $x \le 0$. Thus, when $v \ge 0$, we have 2ab = v and when $v \le 0$, we have 2ab = -v. This means that $w = u + 2abi = z^2$ when $v \ge 0$ and $w = u - 2abi = (\overline{z})^2$ when $v \le 0$.

Note that when w=0, it has only one square root, namely 0. Otherwise, every non-zero complex number w=u+iv has two square roots, either z,-z or $\overline{z},-\overline{z}$ depending on the sign of v.

Exercise 11. If z is a complex number, prove that there exists an $r \ge 0$, a complex number w with |w| = 1 such that z = rw. Are w and r always uniquely determined by z?

Solution. Write z = a + bi, and if $z \neq 0$ define

$$r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2},$$
 $w = z/r = \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} + \frac{bi}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}.$

If z = 0, simply take r = 0 and w = 1. Thus, z = rw.

When $z \neq 0$, this choice is unique, since z = rw forces |z| = |rw| = |r||w| = r, hence $r = |z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and w = z/r. Otherwise for z = 0, we can choose any w (say $w = \pm 1$) as long as r = 0.

Exercise 12. If z_1, \ldots, z_n are complex, prove that

$$|z_1 + z_2 + \dots + z_n| \le |z_1| + |z_2| + \dots + |z_n|.$$

Solution. We prove this by induction. The case n=1 is trivially true. For n=2, see Theorem 1.33. If this holds for some $n \geq 1$, then use the n=2 case on $z_1 + \cdots + z_n$ and z_{n+1} , then the induction hypothesis to get

$$|z_1 + \dots + z_n + z_{n+1}| \le |z_1 + \dots + z_n| + |z_{n+1}| \le |z_1| + \dots + |z_n| + |z_{n+1}|.$$

This proves the desired statement by induction.

Exercise 13. If x and y are complex, prove that

$$||x| - |y|| < |x - y|.$$

Solution. Use the triangle inequality to write

$$|x| = |x - y + y| \le |x - y| + |y|,$$
 $|y| = |y - x + x| \le |x - y| + |x|.$

Thus, if |x| > |y|, then $||x| - |y|| = |x| - |y| \le |x - y|$ by the first inequality. If |x| < |y|, then $||x| - |y|| = |y| - |x| \le |x - y|$ by the second inequality. If |x| = |y|, then ||x| - |y|| = 0, so the inequality holds trivially.

Exercise 14. If z is a complex number such that |z|=1, that is, such that $z\overline{z}=1$, compute

$$|1+z|^2 + |1-z|^2$$
.

Solution. Write z = a + bi, so $a^2 + b^2 = 1$. Now, $|1 + z|^2 = (a + 1)^2 + b^2$, and $|1 - z|^2 = (a - 1)^2 + b^2$. Adding,

$$|1 + z|^2 + |1 - z|^2 = 2(a^2 + b^2 + 1) + 2a - 2a = 4.$$

Exercise 15. Under what conditions does equality hold in the Schwarz inequality? Solution. In Theorem 1.35, recall that

$$A = \sum |a_i|^2, \qquad B = \sum |b_i|^2, \quad C = \sum a_i \overline{b_i},$$

and the desired inequality was $AB \ge C^2$. If B = 0, then all $b_i = 0$ so equality holds. Otherwise, we concluded that with B > 0,

$$\sum |Ba_i - Cb_i|^2 = B(AB - |C|^2) \ge 0.$$

Here, equality means $AB = |C|^2$, so every $|Ba_i - Cb_i| = 0$, hence $a_i = (C/B)b_i$ for all i.

Exercise 16. Suppose $k \geq 3$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^k$, |x - y| = d > 0 and r > 0. Prove the following.

(a) If 2r > d, then there are infinitely many $\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ such that

$$|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{x}| = |\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{y}| = r.$$

- (b) If 2r = d, there is exactly one such z.
- (c) If 2r < d, there is no such z.

Solution. Note that by translating all the variables x' = x - y, y' = 0, our system of equations looks identical, with |x' - y'| = d and the solutions are related by z' = z - y. Thus, we may instead consider the system |x| = d,

$$|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{x}| = |\boldsymbol{z}| = r.$$

Consider an arbitrary solution z and write $v = z - \frac{1}{2}x$. Now,

$$|z|^2 = (\frac{1}{2}x + v) \cdot (\frac{1}{2}x + v) = \frac{1}{4}|x|^2 + |v|^2 + x \cdot v.$$

Also,

$$|z - x|^2 = (-\frac{1}{2}x + v) \cdot (-\frac{1}{2}x + v) = \frac{1}{4}|x|^2 + |v|^2 - x \cdot v.$$

Adding the above equations gives

$$|z|^2 + |z - x|^2 = \frac{1}{2}|x|^2 + 2|v|^2, \qquad |v|^2 = r^2 - \frac{d^2}{4}.$$

Subtracting the two equations gives $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$.

These conditions on v are necessary and sufficient to generate solutions $z = \frac{1}{2}x + v$.

(a) Pick a unit vector $\hat{\boldsymbol{v}}$ perpendicular to \boldsymbol{x} , i.e. $\hat{\boldsymbol{v}} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} = 0$. Note that the components satisfy

$$v_1x_1 + \dots + v_kx_k = 0.$$

Since d > 0, we have $x \neq 0$, so without loss of generality let $x_1 \neq 0$. Then we have

$$v_1 = -\frac{1}{x_1}(v_2x_2 + \dots + v_kx_k).$$

Therefore, we may choose the components v_2, \ldots, v_k arbitrarily. For example, fix $v_2 = 1$, vary $v_3 = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ and vary the remaining components arbitrarily, then normalize. All of the generated unit vectors are distinct, because the ratio of components v_2 and v_3 is different in each case. Thus, we have generated infinitely many unit vectors $\hat{\boldsymbol{v}}$ this way.

Now define the real number $v \ge 0$, $v^2 = r^2 - d^2/4$. Then, all the vectors $\mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}$ are solutions, where $\mathbf{v} = v\hat{\mathbf{v}}$.

(b) We have $|\boldsymbol{x}| = d = 2r$, which means

$$|\mathbf{v}|^2 = r^2 - \frac{1}{4}(2r)^2 = 0,$$

forcing |v| = 0, v = 0. Thus, there is only one solution, namely $z = \frac{1}{2}x$.

(c) When 2r < d

$$|v|^2 = r^2 - \frac{d^2}{4} < 0,$$

which is impossible. Thus, there are no solutions z of this system.

Note that when k=2, we can only generate 2 unit vectors $\hat{\boldsymbol{v}}$ such that $\hat{\boldsymbol{v}} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} = 0$. This is because we want

$$v_1 x_1 + v_2 x_2 = 0,$$
 $v_1 = -\frac{v_2 x_2}{x_1},$ $v_1^2 = 1 - v_2^2.$

Thus, there are only two solutions, when 2r > d. When k = 1, the condition vx = 0 with $x \neq 0$ forces v = 0, yet we require $v^2 = r^2 - d^2/4 > 0$ when 2r > d, so there are no solutions.

The remaining parts (b) and (c) remain identical for k = 1, 2.

Exercise 17. Prove that

$$|x + y|^2 + |x - y|^2 = 2|x|^2 + 2|y|^2$$

if $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^k$. Interpret this geometrically, as a statement about parallelograms.

Solution. Calculate

$$|x + y|^2 = (x + y) \cdot (x + y) = |x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2x \cdot y,$$

$$|x - y|^2 = (x - y) \cdot (x - y) = |x|^2 + |y|^2 - 2x \cdot y$$

Adding the two gives the desired equation.

If we interpret x and y to be two adjacent legs of a parallelogram, then x + y and x - y represent its diagonals. Thus, the sum of squares of the diagonals of a parallelogram is equal to twice the sum of squares of two adjacent sides.

Exercise 18. If $k \geq 2$ and $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, prove that there exists $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ such that $\boldsymbol{y} \neq \boldsymbol{0}$ but $\boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{y} = 0$. Is this also true if k = 1?

Solution. If $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, then any non-zero vector in $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ satisfies $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$. Otherwise, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \neq \mathbf{0}$ so without loss of generality let the component $x_1 \neq 0$. Set

$$\boldsymbol{y} = (-x_2, x_1, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^k,$$

so

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1(-x_2) + x_2(x_1) + 0 + \dots + 0 = 0.$$

This is clearly not possible in \mathbb{R} unless x=0, because the product of any two non-zero real numbers is also non-zero.

Exercise 19. Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^k$. Find $c \in \mathbb{R}^k$ such that

$$|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{a}| = 2|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b}|$$

if and only if |x - c| = r.

Solution. Write x' = x - a, b' = b - a, c' = c - a, so we want to find c' such that

$$|\boldsymbol{x}'| = 2|\boldsymbol{x}' - \boldsymbol{b}'|$$

if and only if |x' - c'| = r.

Write $x' = \frac{4}{3}b' + r$. Then

$$|x'|^2 = \frac{16}{9}|b'|^2 + |r|^2 + \frac{8}{3}b' \cdot r,$$

and

$$|x' - b'|^2 = |\frac{1}{3}b' + r|^2 = \frac{1}{9}|b'|^2 + |r|^2 + \frac{2}{3}b' \cdot r.$$

Using $|x'|^2 = 4|x' - b'|^2$, we have

$$\frac{12}{9}|\mathbf{b}'|^2 = 3|\mathbf{r}|^2, \qquad |\mathbf{r}| = \frac{2}{3}|\mathbf{b}'|.$$

Thus, $|\mathbf{x}' - \frac{4}{3}\mathbf{b}'| = \frac{2}{3}|\mathbf{b}'|$, which is both necessary and sufficient. This means that $\mathbf{c}' = \frac{4}{3}\mathbf{b}'$ and $r = \frac{2}{3}|\mathbf{b}'|$. Translating everything back by \mathbf{a} , we have

$$c = \frac{4}{3}b - \frac{1}{3}a, \qquad r = \frac{2}{3}|b - a|.$$

Exercise 20. With reference to the Appendix, suppose that property (III) were omitted from the definition of a cut. Keep the same definitions of order and addition. Show that the resulting ordered set has the least-upper-bound property, that addition satisfies axioms (A1) to (A4) (with a slightly different zero-element!) but that (A5) fails.

Solution. We define a cut as any set $\alpha \subset \mathbb{Q}$ with the following properties.

- (I) α is not empty, $\alpha \neq \mathbb{Q}$.
- (II) If $p \in \alpha$, $q \in \mathbb{Q}$, and q < p, then $q \in \alpha$.

Property (III) used to state that if $p \in \alpha$, then p < r for some $r \in \alpha$, which meant that α had no maximal element. Property (II) implies that if $p \in \alpha$ and $q \notin \alpha$, then p < q (take the contrapositive, and note that $p \neq q$). It also implies that if $r \notin \alpha$ and r < s, then $s \notin \alpha$ ($s \in \alpha$ would have forced $r \in \alpha$).

Call the set of all these cuts \mathbb{R}' . Like before, the order $\alpha < \beta$ is defined to mean $\alpha \subset \beta$, for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}'$. Again, \mathbb{R}' has the least upper bound property.

To see this, let A be any non-empty subset of \mathbb{R}' bounded above by $\beta \in \mathbb{R}'$, and let γ be the union of all $\alpha \in A$. Thus, $p \in \gamma$ if and only if $p \in \alpha$ for some $\alpha \in A$. To verify that γ is indeed a cut, note that A is non-empty so there is at least one element $\alpha_0 \in A$ which is non-empty, so $\alpha_0 \subset \gamma$ with γ non-empty. Also, $\gamma \subset \beta$ since β being an upper bound means that $\alpha < \beta$ for all $\alpha \in A$, which in turn means $\alpha \subset \beta$ for all $\alpha \in A$, hence $\gamma = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \alpha \subset \beta$. This verifies property (I). To verify property (II), pick $p \in \gamma$, and suppose that $p \in \alpha_1$ for some $\alpha \in A$. If $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ with q < p, this gives $q \in \alpha_1$, hence $q \in \gamma$. Thus, γ is indeed a cut, i.e. $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}'$.

Now, we claim that $\gamma = \sup A$. Clearly, for any $\alpha \in A$, we have $\alpha \subset \gamma$ by definition to $\alpha \leq \gamma$ for all $\alpha \in A$, meaning γ is an upper bound of A. Now suppose that $\delta \in \mathbb{R}'$, and $\delta < \gamma$. This means that δ is a proper subset of γ , so there is some $p \in \gamma$ such that $\notin \delta$. However, we must have $p \in \alpha_1$ for some $\alpha_1 \in A$, so α cannot be a proper subset of δ , meaning that δ is not an upper bound of A. Thus, γ is the least upper bound of A.

Like before, for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}'$, define addition $\alpha + \beta$ as the set of sums r + s with $r \in \alpha$, $s \in \beta$. We must now verify the axioms of addition.

- (A1) We demand closure, which is easily seen because $\alpha + \beta$ is a non-empty proper subset of \mathbb{Q} , and if $p \in \alpha + \beta$, then we must be able to write p = r + s for some $r \in \alpha$, $s \in \beta$. Now if $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ and q < p, then $q s , so <math>q s \in \alpha$, hence $q = (q s) + s \in \alpha + \beta$.
- (A2) We demand commutativity, which follows trivially. $\alpha + \beta = \beta + \alpha$, both being the set of r + s = s + r with $r \in \alpha$, $s \in \beta$.
- (A3) We demand associativity, which follows again from the associativity of the rational numbers. Note that if $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{R}'$, with $r \in \alpha$, $s \in \beta$, $t \in \gamma$, then r + (s + t) = (r + s) + t.
- (A4) Here, select $0' = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} : r \leq 0\}$. To show that for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}'$, $0' + \alpha = \alpha$, note that $0' + \alpha$ is the set of all rational numbers r + s with $r \leq 0$ and $s \in \alpha$, so $r + s \leq s \in \alpha$ hence $0' + \alpha \subseteq \alpha$. Now, if $s \in \alpha$, then $0 + s \in 0' + \alpha$ since $0 \in 0'$ and $s \in \alpha$, so $\alpha \subseteq 0' + \alpha$. This proves $0' + \alpha = \alpha$.
- (A5) We demand the existence of an additive inverse $-\alpha$ for every α , such that $\alpha + (-\alpha) = 0'$. This fails with the choice $\alpha = 0^* = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} : r < 0\}$. Note that if $0^* + (-0^*) = 0'$, we require $r + s \le 0$ for all $r \in 0^*$, $s \in -0^*$. There must also be some $r_0 \in 0^*$, $s_0 \in -0^*$ such that $r_0 + s_0 = 0$. Since $r_0 \in 0^*$, $r_0 < 0$, so $s_0 = -r_0 > 0$. Now, note that $-s_0/2 < 0$ so $-s_0/2 \in 0^*$, but the sum $(-s_0/2) + s_0 = s_0/2 > 0$, which is a contradiction.

In addition, note that 0^* does not serve as a zero element, since $0^* + 0' = 0'$, not 0^* . Furthermore, there is no choice of a zero element, say α_0 , which makes (A1-4) hold as well as (A5), since our choice of the zero element 0' is forced (we have already shown that $0' + \alpha_0 = \alpha_0$, not 0' if $\alpha_0 \neq 0'$; the field axioms imply that the zero element once found is unique).