

# Introduction to Analysis

## The Real Numbers

Robert C. Vaughan

January 24, 2024

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- Later we will have to decide what distinguishes  $\mathbb{R}$  from  $\mathbb{Q}$  and what extra axioms might be required.

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- **Example 2.1.** If  $x + y = x + z$ , then  $y = z$ .
- *Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned}y &= 0 + y && \text{identity} \\ &= ((-x) + x) + y && \text{inverse} \\ &= (-x) + (x + y) && \text{associative} \\ &= (-x) + (x + z) && \text{hypothesis} \\ &= ((-x) + x) + z && \text{associative} \\ &= 0 + z && \text{inverse} \\ &= z && \text{identity.}\end{aligned}$$

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- Henceforward, apart perhaps from the odd exercise or exam question we will assume that any arithmetical operation we are used to is allowed.

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- By **O1** every element  $a$  of  $\mathcal{F}$  satisfies exactly one of

$$a < 0, a = 0, 0 < a.$$

The elements with  $0 < a$  are called the positive numbers, and those with  $a < 0$  are the negative numbers. These two sets, together with the set

$$\{0\}$$

partition  $\mathcal{F}$  into three disjoint sets.



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$$0 < (-x)^2 = x^2.$$

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- In fact the *order is flipped!*
- This is one of the most common sources of mistakes in mathematics.
- However, we do not need a new axiom. We can deduce the correct conclusion from the axioms we already have.

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- Now we add  $ac + bc$  to both sides. Thus, by **O3**,

$$\begin{aligned}bc &= bc + 0 = bc + (ac + (-ac)) \\&= (bc + ac) + (-ac) \\&< (bc + ac) + (-bc) \\&= (ac + bc) + (-bc) \\&= ac + (bc + (-bc)) = ac + 0 = ac\end{aligned}$$

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- *Proof.* We have  $1 \neq 0$ . Hence  $1 < 0$  or  $0 < 1$ .
- But then in either case  $0 < 1^2 = 1$ .

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- Proof of 2. We argue by contradiction. Thus we assume that the conclusion is false, i.e.  $y \leq x$ . There are two possibilities. First  $y = x$ . Then we would have  $x^2 = y^2$  contradicting the hypothesis.

- **Example 2.6.** Suppose that  $x$  and  $y$  are positive. Prove that  $x < y$  if and only if  $x^2 < y^2$ .

- *Proof.* **Note**, we have **two** things to prove.

- 1. If  $x < y$ , then  $x^2 < y^2$ .

- 2. If  $x^2 < y^2$ , then  $x < y$ .

- Proof of 1. We have  $x < y$  and  $0 < x$ . Hence, by **O4**,

$$x^2 = x \cdot x < xy$$

- Likewise as  $x < y$  and  $0 < y$  we have  $xy < y \cdot y = y^2$ .

- Then, by **O2**,  $x^2 < xy < y^2$  as required.

- Proof of 2. We argue by contradiction. Thus we assume that the conclusion is false, i.e.  $y \leq x$ . There are two possibilities. First  $y = x$ . Then we would have  $x^2 = y^2$  contradicting the hypothesis.

- The second possibility is  $y < x$ . Then by the first part of the theorem we would have  $y^2 < x^2$  which again contradicts the hypothesis.

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- **Definition 2.4.** When  $a \leq b$  we can define various kinds of intervals.

$(a, b) = \{x : a < x < b\}$  an open interval,

$[a, b] = \{x : a \leq x \leq b\}$  a closed interval,

$[a, b) = \{x : a \leq x < b\}$  half closed-open interval,

$(a, b] = \{x : a < x \leq b\}$  half open-closed interval,

$(a, \infty) = \{x : a < x\},$

$[a, \infty) = \{x : a \leq x\},$

$(-\infty, b) = \{x : x < b\},$

$(-\infty, b] = \{x : x \leq b\}.$

- Inequalities are fundamental to analysis and it is desirable to obtain some facility in their manipulation. They can be treated like equations except for the important caveat that multiplication by a negative number can flip an inequality.

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- Hence  $2xy = 2xy + 0 \leq 2xy + x^2 - 2xy + y^2 = x^2 + y^2$ .
- Strictly this should be divided into two cases,  $<$  and  $=$ , but with greater familiarity there is less need for pedantry.

- The following is closely related albeit more complicated.

### Theorem 4 (Cauchy-Schwarz)

*Suppose that  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  and  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  are  $2n$  elements of an ordered field. Then*

$$(a_1 b_1 + \dots + a_n b_n)^2 \leq (a_1^2 + \dots + a_n^2)(b_1^2 + \dots + b_n^2)$$

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- One reason this is important is because it tells us that in  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space the scalar product of two vectors is bounded by the product of their sizes

- *Proof.* Let

$$A = a_1^2 + \cdots + a_n^2,$$

$$B = a_1 b_1 + \cdots + a_n b_n,$$

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- *Proof.* Let

$$A = a_1^2 + \cdots + a_n^2,$$

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- If  $A = 0$ , then we have  $a_1 = \cdots = a_n = 0$ , since otherwise at least one of the terms in  $A$  is positive and the others are non-negative and by repeated use of the order axioms  $A$  would have to be positive. Thus if  $A = 0$ , then  $B = 0$  and at once

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- A fortiori we cannot have  $A < 0$ .
- Hence we may suppose that  $A > 0$ .

To prove  $B^2 \leq AC$  when  $A > 0$  where  $B = a_1b_1 + \cdots + a_nb_n$ ,

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- Let  $x$  be in the field, and consider  $Ax^2 + 2Bx + C$ 
$$= a_1^2x^2 + 2a_1xb_1 + b_1^2 + \cdots + a_n^2x^2 + 2a_nxb_n + b_n^2$$
$$= (a_1x + b_1)^2 + (a_2x + b_2)^2 + \cdots + (a_nx + b_n)^2$$
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- Now multiply both sides by  $A$ . This gives
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- There are many different proofs of this.

- Before we can discuss anything connected with convergence we need to know what we mean by “small”, or to be more precise we need to have some measure of the size of a number. The standard way for real numbers is as follows.

- Before we can discuss anything connected with convergence we need to know what we mean by “small”, or to be more precise we need to have some measure of the size of a number. The standard way for real numbers is as follows.
- **Definition 2.5. Absolute Value.** Let  $x$  be an element of an ordered field. Then we define the absolute value, or modulus, of  $x$  by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{when } x \geq 0, \\ -x & \text{when } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- **Example 2.8**

$$|-\pi| = \pi, \quad \left| \frac{3}{2} \right| = \frac{3}{2}, \quad |0| = 0.$$

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{when } x \geq 0, \\ -x & \text{when } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- *Note.* 1. That  $|x| = 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$ , but for any  $c \neq 0$  there are two choices of  $x$  with  $|x| = c$ , namely  $x = \pm c$ .

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- 2. For every  $x$  we have  $|x| \geq 0$ .
- 3. For every  $x$  we have  $|-x| = |x|$ . To see this, separate out the three cases  $x > 0$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x < 0$ . When  $x = 0$  we have  $|-x| = |0| = 0 = |0| = |x|$ . When  $x > 0$  we have  $-x < 0$  and so  $|-x| = -(-x) = x = |x|$  and when  $x < 0$  we have  $-x > 0$  so that  $|-x| = -x = |x|$ .

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$$-|x| = (-1)|x| = (-1)(-x) = x < 0 \leq |x|.$$

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## Corollary 7

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- Since  $b \neq 0$  we have  $|b| \neq 0$  and so we can divide both sides by  $|b|$ .

Now we come to something we will use all the time.

## Theorem 8 (The Triangle Inequality)

*Suppose that  $x, y$  are elements of an ordered field. Then*

$$|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|.$$

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- But by the definition of absolute value we have

$$\begin{aligned} |x + y|^2 &= (x + y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2 \\ &\leq x^2 + |2xy| + y^2 = |x|^2 + 2|x||y| + |y|^2 \\ &= (|x| + |y|)^2. \end{aligned}$$

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- Hence  $|t| - |u| \leq |t - u|$ .
- Interchanging  $t$  and  $u$  gives  $|u| - |t| \leq |u - t| = |t - u|$ .
- But one of  $|t| - |u|$  and  $|u| - |t| = -(|t| - |u|)$  is non-negative, so is

$$= ||t| - |u||.$$

- **Example 2.10.** Determine the set  $\mathcal{A}$  of  $x$  such that  $|2x + 3| < 7$



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- Combining the two cases we see that the inequality holds if and only if  $-5 < x < 2$ , so

$$\mathcal{A} = (-5, 2).$$

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- 1.  $x + 3 \geq 0$  and  $x - 1 \geq 0$ . Then  $x \geq -3$  and  $x \geq 1$  so  $x \geq 1$ . Then the equation is

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- Hence the complete solution is  $x = -4$  or  $2$ .

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- Then we need to show that these new objects we have constructed can be made to satisfy all the previous axioms.

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Introduction  
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Ordered Fields

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- The set  $\mathcal{S}$  of Example 2.12 is bounded below and bounded. The set  $\mathbb{N}$  is unbounded (presumably - later we will prove this).

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- Hence the set  $\mathcal{A}$  is bounded with 1 as a lower bound and 2 as an upper bound..

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- Obviously

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- The job of the axiom we are missing is to ensure that there is always a smallest such number.



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# The Continuum Property

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- **Example 2.16.** Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a non-empty set of real numbers which is bounded above. Then  $\sup \mathcal{A}$  is unique.

Thus we can now state the axiom which distinguishes the real numbers from the rational numbers.

- **Definition 2.9. The Continuum Property.** Every non-empty subset  $S$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above has a **least upper bound**, also called a **supremum**, and we denote it by  $\sup S$ .
- **Example 2.15.** Here are some examples
  1.  $\sup\{1, 2, 3\} = 3$ .
  2.  $\sup(1, 2) = 2$ .
  3.  $\sup(0, \infty)$  does not exist.
  4.  $\sup\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots, 1 - \frac{1}{2^n}, \dots\} = 1$ .
- **Example 2.16.** Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a non-empty set of real numbers which is bounded above. Then  $\sup \mathcal{A}$  is unique.
- *Proof.* Suppose that  $s_1 < s_2$  are two different suprema of  $\mathcal{A}$ . By the definition of supremum we have  $a \leq s_1$  for every  $a \in \mathcal{A}$  and so  $s_2$  could not be a least upper bound.

It is useful to deal with sets which are bounded below.

- The corresponding term is *infimum*.

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*Suppose that  $\mathcal{B}$  is a non-empty set of real numbers which is bounded below. Then  $\mathcal{B}$  has a greatest lower bound.*

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- Suppose on the contrary that there is a  $t > -s$  such that  $t$  is a lower bound for  $\mathcal{B}$ . i.e. for every  $b \in \mathcal{B}$ . Then  $-b \leq -t < s$ . Thus  $-t$  would be a lower upper bound for  $\mathcal{A}$  than its supremum  $s$  which is absurd.

- Before moving on to study the properties of the real numbers we just give an inkling of how it is possible to pull over to  $\mathbb{R}$  the various axioms which are satisfied by  $\mathbb{Q}$

## Theorem 11

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- Hence  $t \leq sy$  and  $s \leq t/y \leq s$ , whence  $t = ys$ .