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**PAPER NAME- REAL ANALYSIS**

**TOPIC- REAL NUMBERS(Unit-I)**

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### Definition:

**Algebraic Structure:** A non-empty set with one or more composition (or operations) defined on it is called an “*algebraic structure*” or “*algebraic systems*”.

For Example: If  $A$  is a non-empty set and ‘ $*$ ’ is a operation defined on  $A$  then,  $(A, *)$  denotes an algebraic structure.

It is read as “*A equipped with operation \**” or “*A together with the composition \**”. i.e.  $(A, *)$ .

We know that  $\mathbb{R}$  denotes the set of real numbers, then,  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$  is an algebraic structure with two composition namely “*Addition*” and ‘*Multiplication*’.

### The set of real numbers as an ordered field:

let  $\mathbb{R}$  denote the set of real numbers and the two binary operations addition and multiplication be denoted by ‘ $+$ ’ and ‘ $\cdot$ ’ respectively.

First we will give Field Axioms: The Algebraic structure  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$  satisfy the following axioms:

#### **I.) Field Axioms**

i) *The addition axioms:*

$A_1)$   $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a + b \in \mathbb{R}$  (Closure law of Addition)

$A_2) \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a + b = b + a$  (Commutative law of Addition)

$A_3) \forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}, a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$  (Associative law of addition)

$A_4) \forall a \in \mathbb{R} \exists 0 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$  (Existence of additive identity)

This real number '0' is called the additive identity of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$A_5) \forall a \in \mathbb{R} \exists b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a + b = b + a = 0$  (But  $a + b = 0 = b + a$  if  $b = -a$  i. e., additive inverse of a real number 'a' is its negative)

Thus,  $a + (-a) = 0 = -a + a$

ii.) The Multiplication Axioms:

$M_1) \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a \cdot b \in \mathbb{R}$  (closure law of Multiplication)

$M_2) \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a \cdot b = b \cdot a$  (commutative law of Multiplication)

$M_3) \forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}, a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$  (Associative law of Multiplication)

$M_4) \forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \exists 1 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$  (here, the real number '1' is called the multiplication identity of  $\mathbb{R}$ )

$M_5) \forall a \in \mathbb{R}, a \neq 0, \exists b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a \cdot b = b \cdot a = 1$ .

The real number  $b$  is called the multiplicative inverse of  $a$  and is denoted by  $a^{-1}$  or  $\frac{1}{a}$ . which is reciprocal of  $a$ .

iii.) Distributivity:

Multiplication distributes over addition of real numbers.

D.)  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$a.(b + c) = a.b + a.c$$

**NOTE** : A non-empty set containing atleast two elements and with two binary operations satisfying all the eleven Axioms  $A_1$  to  $A_5$ ,  $M_1$  to  $M_5$  and D is called a field.

**II.) Order Axioms:**

$O_1$ .  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , exactly one of the following holds.

i.)  $a > b$             ii.)  $a = b$  or            iii.)  $a < b$

This law is known as Trichotomy law.

$O_2$ .  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$              $a > b$     and     $b > c \rightarrow a > c$

This is transitivity law.

$O_3$  .  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  ,  $a > b \rightarrow a+c > b+c \quad \forall c \in \mathbb{R}$

This is known as Monotone law of addition.

$O_4$ .  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $a > b \rightarrow ac > bc$  if  $c > 0$

This is known as Monotone law of multiplication.

**Ordered Field:**

If a field satisfies all the order axioms  $O_1$  to  $O_4$ , then it is called an ordered field.

Thus,  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$  is an ordered field.

Similarly, we can say that  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$  is an ordered field.

**NOTE: Multiplicative inverse exists only for a Non-zero real number. (0 has no multiplicative inverse).**

**Some Important Theorems:**

**Theorem 1: Prove that in the set of real numbers:**

- a.) Addition identity is unique.
- b.) Multiplicative identity is unique.
- c.) Additive inverse is unique.
- d.) Multiplicative inverse is unique.

**Proof a.)**

We know that 0 is the additive identity in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Such that

$$a + 0 = 0 + a = a, \forall a \in \mathbb{R}.$$

If possible, let us suppose that 0 and  $0'$  are two additive identities in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then, if  $0 \in \mathbb{R}$   $0'$  is additive identity then,

$$0 + 0' = 0 \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

If  $0' \in \mathbb{R}$  and 0 is the additive identity, then

$$0' + 0 = 0' \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

But, we know

$$0 + 0' = 0' + 0$$

$$\rightarrow 0 = 0' \quad (\text{by (1) and (2)})$$

Thus, the additive inverse is unique.

**Proof c.)**

To prove: Addition inverse in R is unique.

We know that b is the additive inverse of a

If  $a + b = b + a = 0$ , where 0 is the additive identity of R

Let  $a \in R$  and it has two additive inverse b and c

Then, by definition of additive inverse,

$$a + b = 0 \text{ and } a + c = 0$$

To prove:  $b = c$

Now,

$$b = b + 0 \text{ [since, 0 is additive identity]}$$

$$= b + (a + c) \text{ [} a + c = 0 \text{]}$$

$$= (b + a) + c \text{ [by associativity property of R]}$$

$$= (a + b) + c \text{ [by commutativity property of R]}$$

$$= 0 + c$$

$$= c \text{ [since, 0 is additive identity } 0 + c = c + 0 = c \text{].}$$

$$\rightarrow b = c$$

**Theorem 2: Similarly, using the properties of Addition and Multiplication of the system of real numbers, prove that**

- i. If  $a + c = a + b$  then,  $b = c$  (Cancellation laws)
- ii. If  $a \cdot b = a \cdot c$  then,  $b = c$  ( $a \neq 0$ )(Cancellation laws)
- iii.  $-(-a) = a$

**Note: Give reasons at each step.**

**Theorem 3:  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , prove that**

- i.  $xy > 0 \rightarrow$  either  $(x > 0$  and  $y > 0)$  or  $(x < 0$  and  $y < 0)$
- ii.  $xy < 0 \rightarrow$  either  $(x < 0$  and  $y > 0)$  or  $(x > 0$  and  $y < 0)$

- i.) Since,  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$   
There are three possibilities with them,
  - a. Either  $x = 0$ ,  $x > 0$  or  $x < 0$
  - b. Either  $y = 0$  or  $y > 0$  or  $y < 0$ ,  
Here, since  $xy > 0$ . Then,  $x \neq 0$ ,  $y \neq 0$ .  
Thus, we are left with only two possibilities.

So, let  $xy > 0$ . Also suppose that  $x > 0$  and  $x^{-1}$  exists as  $x \neq 0$ .

Since,  $x > 0 \rightarrow x^{-1} > 0$ .

Thus,  $xy > 0$

$\rightarrow x^{-1}(xy) > x^{-1} \cdot 0$  [We know that  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $c > 0$ ,  $ac > bc$ ]

$\rightarrow 1 \cdot y > 0$  [1 is the multiplicative inverse thus,  $x \neq 0 \rightarrow xx^{-1} = x^{-1}x = 1$ ][ $1 \cdot y = y \cdot 1 = y \quad \forall y \in \mathbb{R}$ ]

$xy > 0 \rightarrow x > 0$  and  $y > 0$ .

Secondly, let  $xy > 0$  and  $x < 0$ .

Then,  $x^{-1}$  exists and  $x^{-1} < 0$

$$xy > 0 \rightarrow x^{-1}(xy) < x^{-1} \cdot 0$$

$$\rightarrow (x^{-1} \cdot x) \cdot y < 0 \text{ [by associativity of multiplication in } \mathbb{R}]$$

$$\rightarrow 1 \cdot y < 0 \text{ [Since, 1 is the multiplicative identity, } x^{-1} \cdot x = 1 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}]$$

$$\rightarrow y < 0 \text{ [ } 1 \cdot y = y \cdot 1 = y \forall y \in \mathbb{R}]$$

Hence,  $xy > 0 \rightarrow$  either  $(x > 0$  and  $y > 0)$  or  $(x < 0$  and  $y < 0)$

Conversely, suppose that  $x > 0, y > 0$ , then, to prove  $xy > 0$ .

$$x > 0 \rightarrow xy > 0 \cdot y \text{ as } y > 0 \text{ [} \forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}, a > b \rightarrow ac > bc \text{ if } c > 0]$$

$$\rightarrow xy > 0.$$

Again, let  $x < 0, y < 0$

$$\rightarrow (-x) > 0 \text{ \& } (-y) > 0$$

By the first one,  $(-x)(-y) > 0$ . Hence, the result.

#### Theorem 4:

Define a rational number and prove that  $\sqrt{2}$  is not a rational number.

Or,

Prove that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Or,

Prove that there exists no rational number whose square is 2.

**Proof:** A number of the form  $\frac{p}{q}$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers having no common factor other than 1 and  $q \neq 0$  is called a rational number.

For example;



$\frac{3}{2}, \frac{-5}{3}, \frac{7}{8}, \frac{6}{1}$  etc. all are rational numbers. The set of rational numbers is denoted by  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

If possible, let us suppose that  $\sqrt{2}$  is a rational number.

$$\text{Then, } \sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q} \dots\dots (1)$$

Where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ , and prime to each other.

(i.e.,  $p$  and  $q$  have no common factor other than 1)

Squaring (1), we get

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

$$\rightarrow p^2 = 2q^2 \dots\dots(2)$$

$\rightarrow p^2$  is even as it is a multiple of 2. Hence,  $p$  is also even as we know that square of an even number is even. Let  $p = 2m$ , where  $m$  is an integer.

From (2),

$$4m^2 = 2q^2$$

$$\rightarrow q^2 = 2m^2$$

$\rightarrow q^2$  is even and hence  $q$  is also even.

Thus, from above we see that  $p$  and  $q$  both are even integers and they have a common factor 2 which contradicts our supposition that  $p$  and  $q$  have no common factor. Hence,  $\sqrt{2}$  cannot be expressed in the form of  $\frac{p}{q}$ , therefore,  $\sqrt{2}$  is not a rational number.

**NOTE: If  $n$  is prime, use method of theorem 5 and if  $n$  is composite then use method of theorem 6 for proof.**

### Theorem 5:

Show that for any positive prime  $p$  different from 1,  $\sqrt{p}$  is an irrational number.

**Proof:** If possible, let us suppose that  $\sqrt{p}$  is a rational number,

Let  $\sqrt{p} = \frac{a}{b}$ , where  $a, b$  are +ve integers having no common factor except 1 and  $b \neq 0$ .

Then, squaring we get

$$p = \frac{a^2}{b^2}$$

$$\rightarrow b^2 p = a^2$$

$$\rightarrow a^2 = pb^2$$

$\rightarrow$  The prime  $p$  divides  $a^2$ .

Since,  $p$  is prime  $p$  must divide  $a$ .

Hence, there exists a positive integer  $m$  such that  $a = pm$

But, then,

$$p = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \rightarrow p = \frac{p^2 m^2}{b^2}$$

$$\rightarrow b^2 = pm^2$$

$\rightarrow p$  divides  $b^2$

Since,  $p$  is prime,  $p$  must divide  $b$ .

Hence, there exists a positive integer  $n$  such that  $b = np$

Thus, from above we see that  $a = pm$  and  $b = np$ . i.e.  $a$  and  $b$  both have a common factor  $p$  different from 1 which is against our supposition.

Therefore,  $\sqrt{p}$  is not a rational number. Hence,  $\sqrt{p}$  is an irrational number.

**NOTE:** We can use similar process for proof is p is a prime other than 1 i.e.  $\sqrt{3}$ ,  $\sqrt{5}$ ,  $\sqrt{7}$ ,  $\sqrt{11}$ ,  $\sqrt{13}$  .....so on.

**This statement can also be written as; the equation  $x^2=2$  has no solution in the Rational number system.**

**Theorem 6:**

Prove that  $\sqrt{8}$  is not a rational number. Or, there exists no rational whose square is 8.

Proof:

We know that  $\sqrt{4} < \sqrt{8} < \sqrt{9}$

$$\rightarrow 2 < \sqrt{8} < 3$$

If possible, let us suppose that  $\sqrt{8}$  is a rational number.

Let  $\sqrt{8} = \frac{p}{q}$  where p and q are positive integers

With no common factor other than 1 and  $q \neq 0$ .

Now,

$$2 < \sqrt{8} < 3$$

$$\rightarrow 2 < \frac{p}{q} < 3$$

$$\rightarrow 2q < p < 3q \ [q > 0]$$

$$\rightarrow 0 < p - 2q < q$$

$\rightarrow p - 2q$  is a positive integer less than q.

$\rightarrow p - 2q$  and q are co-prime.

Also, p and q are co-prime.

Therefore,

$\sqrt{8} (p - 2q) = \frac{p}{q}(p - 2q)$  is not an integer.

But,  $\sqrt{8} (p - 2q) = \frac{p}{q}(p - 2q) = \frac{p^2}{q} - 2p$

$= \sqrt{8} \cdot p - 2p$

$= 8 \cdot q - 2p$  [Since,  $\frac{p}{q} = \sqrt{8}$ ,  $\frac{p^2}{q^2} = 8$ .]

= an integer.

Thus, we arrive at a contradiction. Hence,  $\sqrt{8}$  is not a rational number.

## Greatest lower Bound and Least Upper Bound

### Definition1: Least Upper Bound (lub) or Supremum

Let S be a set which is bounded above. Then, there exist an infinite number of upper bounds of S as every number greater than an upper bound is also an upper bound for S.

If the set of all upper bounds of set S has the least or smallest member say M, Then M is called least upper bound (l.u.b) or supremum of S.

The Supremum of S has the following properties

- i.)  $x \leq M \forall x \in S$  i.e., M is an upper bound of S.
- ii.) Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , however small,  $\exists y \in S$  such that  $y > M - \epsilon$ .

### Definition2:

Greatest lower bound (g.l.b) or Infimum.

Let  $S$  be a set which is bounded below then,  $S$  admits an infinite number of lower bounds as every number less than any lower bound of  $S$  is also a lower bound of  $S$ .

If the set of all lower bounds has the greatest member, say  $m$ , then, ' $m$ ' is called the greatest lower bound(g.l.b) or Infimum of  $S$ .

The Infimum ' $m$ ' of  $S$  has the following properties;

- i.)  $x \geq m$  i.e.  $m$  is a lower bound of  $S$ .
- ii.) Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , however small  $\exists y \in S$ , such that  $y < m + \epsilon$

### THE ORDER COMPLETENESS AXIOMS:

The least upper bound axiom: Every non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above has the least upper bound or Supremum.

Equivalently,

The greatest lower bound axiom: Every non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded below has the greatest lower bound or Infimum.

$$\text{l.u.b Axiom} \leftrightarrow \text{g.l.b Axiom.}$$

### Complete Ordered Field:

An ordered field which satisfies the completeness axiom is called a complete ordered field.

**NOTE:**

We have already shown  $\mathbb{R}$  is an ordered field and in addition with the completeness axiom, it is a complete ordered field.

→  $\mathbb{R}$  is a complete ordered field.

**Question:**

State all the properties that make  $\mathbb{R}$  a complete ordered field.

**Theorem on g.l.b and l.u.b**

**Theorem 1:**

Every non-empty subset of real numbers which is bounded above has the least upper bound.

**Proof:**

Let  $S$  be a non-empty set of real numbers which is bounded above. Let  $K$  be an upper bound of  $S$ . Let us consider a set defined as follows:

$$T = \{-x : x \in S\}$$

Since,  $S$  is non-empty set of real numbers, so is  $T$ . Since,  $K$  is an upper bound of  $S$

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

$$\rightarrow -x \geq -k \quad \forall x \in S$$

$$\rightarrow -k \leq -x \quad \forall x \in S$$

$$\rightarrow -k \leq y \quad \forall y \in T \text{ Since, } y = -x \in T.$$

This implies that  $T$  is bounded below and  $-k$  is a lower bound of  $T$ .

Since,  $T$  is a non-empty set of real numbers which is bounded below, thus by completeness axiom of real numbers, the set  $T$  has the greatest lower bound.

Let  $\text{g.l.b } T = l$  and  $u = -l$

Since,  $l$  is the  $\text{g.l.b}$  of  $T$  by definition

$$l \leq y \quad \forall y \in T$$

$$\rightarrow -l \geq -y \quad \forall y \in T$$

Thus,  $u \geq x \quad \forall x \in S$  [If  $y \in T$ , then  $-y \in S$ ]

$$\rightarrow x \leq u \quad \forall x \in S$$

$\rightarrow u$  is an upper bound of  $S$

Next to prove that  $u$  is the least upper bound of  $S$ .

For this it is sufficient to prove that there is no upper bound less than  $u$  of  $S$ .

OR

Any other upper bound of  $S$  other than  $u$  is always greater than  $u$ .

Let  $u'$  be another upper bound of  $S$ , then

$$x \leq u' \quad \forall x \in S$$

$$\rightarrow -x \geq -u' \quad \forall x \in S$$

$$\rightarrow y \geq -u' \quad \forall y \in T [x \in S, -x = y \in T]$$

$$\rightarrow y \geq -u' \quad \forall y \in T$$

$\rightarrow -u'$  is a lower bound of  $T$ .

Since,  $l$  is the  $\text{g.l.b}$  of  $T$ , by definition

$$-u' \leq l$$

$$\rightarrow u' \geq -l$$

$\rightarrow u' \geq u$ , as  $u = -l$

$\rightarrow u \leq u'$ .

Since,  $u'$  was as arbitrary upper bound of  $S$ , thus every upper bound of  $S$ , other than  $u$  is greater than  $u$

$\rightarrow u = \text{l.u.b } S$ .

Hence,  $l$  has the least upper bound.

### Archimedean property of real numbers:

**Statement:** *If  $x$  is a positive real number and  $y$  is any real number, then there exists a positive integer  $n$  such that  $n x > y$  i.e.,  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n x > y$ .*

### Another form

If  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , then exists  $n_x \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x < n_x$  i.e., we can also write  $x < n$ .

OR

If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x > 0, y > 0$ , then there exists a natural number  $n$  such that  $ny > x$  or  $nx > y$ .

### **Proof:**

Since,  $x > 0$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , i.e.  $y$  is any real number, by trichotomy law of real numbers, we have *three possibilities*.

$y > 0$  or  $y = 0$  or  $y < 0$ .

We have to show that for all the cases  $n x > y$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .



**Case 1.)** If  $y > 0$

If possible let us suppose that the theorem is false.

i.e.  $nx \leq y$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x > 0$ .

Then, the set  $\mathbf{A} = \{nx; n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is bounded above by  $y$ .

Thus by Order completeness property of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  possesses least upper bound.

Let l.u.b  $\mathbf{A} = u$

Since, least upper bound of  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $u$ ,

$$nx \leq u \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\rightarrow (n + 1)x \leq u \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{N} \quad [n \in \mathbb{N}, n+1 \in \mathbb{N}]$$

$$\rightarrow nx \leq u - x \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\rightarrow nx \leq u - x < u \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Thus,  $(u - x)$  is a number which is strictly less than  $u$  and an upper bound of  $\mathbf{A}$  i.e. we got an upper bound of  $\mathbf{A}$  which is less than its l.u.b which contradicts the definition of least upper bound.

Thus, our supposition that  $nx \leq y, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  is wrong. Hence,  $\exists$  an element  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $nx > y$ .

**Case 2.)** If  $y \leq 0$ , since  $x > 0, n > 0$

$$\rightarrow nx > 0 \quad \text{by order property of } \mathbb{R}$$

$$\rightarrow nx > 0 \geq y$$

$$\rightarrow nx > y$$

Hence, the proof.

## Denseness of R

- I. Between any two distinct real numbers, there is always a rational number and therefore infinitely many rational numbers.

### **Proof:**

Let us consider two distinct real numbers  $x$  &  $y$ .

Thus,  $x \neq y$ , hence two possibilities either  $x < y$  or  $x > y$

Let  $x < y$  then,  $y - x > 0$ . Then, by Archimedean property of real numbers,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n(y - x) > 1, \text{ where } 1 \in \mathbb{R} \text{ i.e., } ny - nx > 1$$

$$\rightarrow ny > 1 + nx \dots\dots\dots(i)$$

also,  $\exists$  an unique integer  $m$  such that

$$m - 1 \leq nx < m \dots\dots\dots(ii)$$

then, from (i)

$$ny > nx + 1 \geq m > nx$$

$$\rightarrow nx < m < ny$$

$$\rightarrow x < \frac{m}{n} < y$$

$\frac{m}{n} = r$ , is a rational number between  $x$  and  $y$ .

thus,  $x < r < y$

Repeating the same arguments with  $x < r$  and  $r < y$ , we get rational numbers  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  such that

$$x < r_1 < r < r_2 < y$$

Continuing, this process infinitely, we get infinitely many rational between  $x$  and  $y$ .

Similarly, we can prove this for  $x > y$  i.e.,  $y < x$ .

Hence, there lie infinitely many rationals between two real numbers.

- II. Between any two distinct real numbers, there is always an irrational number and therefore infinitely many irrational numbers.

**Proof:**

Let us consider two distinct real numbers  $x$  and  $y$  with  $x < y$  and  $x \neq y$ .

$$x < y \rightarrow y - x > 0$$

By Archimedean property of real numbers,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\rightarrow n(y - x) > \sqrt{2} \text{ as } \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\rightarrow y - x > \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}$$

$$\text{therefore, } y > x + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n} > x + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2n} > x.$$

since,  $\left(x + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}\right) - \left(x + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2n}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2n}$  is an irrational number.

Atleast One of  $\left(x + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}\right)$  and  $\left(x + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2n}\right)$  is irrational. Let us denote it by  $r$ .

Then,  $x < r < y$

Therefore, there is an irrational number between  $x$  and  $y$ .

Repeating the same argument for  $x$  and  $r$ , &  $r$  and  $y$ , we get irrational numbers  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  such that

$$x < r_1 < r < r_2 < y$$

Continuing like this, we get infinitely many irrational numbers between two real numbers. Therefore, there are infinitely many irrational numbers between real numbers.

### FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF ANALYSIS/ CLASSICAL ANALYSIS

If  $L$  and  $U$  are any two sets of real numbers such that

- i) Neither  $L$  nor  $U$  is empty ;
- ii) Every element of  $L$  is less than every element of  $U$ ;
- iii) Given any positive real number  $\varepsilon$ , elements  $u$  in  $U$  and  $l$  in  $L$  are available such that  $u-l < \varepsilon$ ,

then, there exists a real number  $a$  such that  $\text{lub } L = \text{glb } U = a$

Properties of Infimum and Supremum :

**I)** If  $A$  and  $B$  are bounded subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ , then prove that the set  $A+B = \{x+y: x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$  is also bounded and

(i)  $\text{Sup.}(A+B) = \text{Sup.}A + \text{Sup.}B$

(ii)  $\text{Inf.}(A+B) = \text{Inf.}A + \text{Inf.}B$

**II)** For a real number  $\lambda$ , let  $\lambda A = \{\lambda x: x \in A\}$ . Prove that if  $A$  is bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\lambda A$  is bounded and

i).  $\text{Sup. } \lambda A = \lambda \text{ Sup.}A$  if  $\lambda > 0$

ii).  $\text{Sup. } \lambda A = \lambda \text{ Inf.}A$  if  $\lambda < 0$

iii).  $\text{Inf. } \lambda A = \lambda \text{ Sup.}A$  if  $\lambda < 0$

iv).  $\text{Inf. } \lambda A = \lambda \text{ Inf.}A$  if  $\lambda > 0$

