## Economics 204

# Lecture 2, July 28, 2009

Section 1.4, Cardinality (Cont.)

**Theorem 1 (Cantor)**  $2^{\mathbf{N}}$ , the set of all subsets of  $\mathbf{N}$ , is not countable.

**Proof:** Suppose  $2^{\mathbf{N}}$  is countable. Then there is a bijection  $f : \mathbf{N} \to 2^{\mathbf{N}}$ . Let  $A_m = f(m)$ . We create an infinite matrix, whose  $(m, n)^{th}$  entry is 1 if  $n \in A_m$ , 0 otherwise:

				$\mathbf{N}$				
			1	2	3	4	5	
	$A_1 =$	Ø {1} {1,2,3} <b>N</b> 2 <b>N</b>	0	0	0	0	0	
2 <b>N</b>	$A_2 =$	{1}	1	0	0	0	0	
	$A_3 =$	$\{1, 2, 3\}$	1	1	1	0	0	
	$A_4 =$	Ν	1	1	1	1	1	
	$A_5 =$	$2\mathbf{N}$	0 :	1 :	0 :	1 :	<b>0</b> :	••••

Now, on the main diagonal, change all the 0s to 1s and vice versa:

				$\mathbf{N}$			
			1	2	3	4	5
		$\emptyset$ {1} {1, 2, 3} <b>N</b> 2 <b>N</b>					
	$A_1 =$	Ø	1	0	0	0	0
	$A_2 =$	{1}	1	1	0	0	0
$2^{\mathbf{N}}$	$A_3 =$	$\{1, 2, 3\}$	1	1	0	0	0
	$A_4 =$	Ν	1	1	1	0	1
	$A_5 =$	$2\mathbf{N}$	0	1	0	1	1
	:		:	:	÷	:	÷ •.

The coding on the diagonal represents a subset of  $\mathbf{N}$  which differs from each of the  $A_m$ , contradiction. It is important that we go along the diagonal. We need to define a set  $A \subseteq \mathbf{N}$  which is different from  $f(1), f(2), \ldots$  To define a set, we need to specify exactly what its elements are, and we do this by taking one entry from each column and one entry from each row. The entry from column n tells us whether or not n is in the set, and the entry in row m is used to ensure that  $A \neq A_m$ .

More formally, let

$$t_{mn} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \in A_m \\ 0 & \text{if } n \notin A_m \end{cases}$$

Let  $A = \{m \in \mathbb{N} : t_{mm} = 0\}$ . (Aside: this is the set described by changing all the codings on the diagonal.)

 $m \in A \iff t_{mm} = 0$   $\Leftrightarrow m \notin A_m$   $1 \in A \iff 1 \notin A_1 \text{ so } A \neq A_1$   $2 \in A \iff 2 \notin A_2 \text{ so } A \neq A_2$   $\vdots$  $m \in A \iff m \notin A_m \text{ so } A \neq A_m$ 

Therefore,  $A \neq f(m)$  for any m, so f is not onto, contradiction.

Message: There are fundamentally more subsets of  $\mathbf{N}$  than elements of  $\mathbf{N}$ . One can show that  $2^{\mathbf{N}}$  is numerically equivalent to  $\mathbf{R}$ , so there are fundamentally more real numbers than rational numbers.

### Section 1.5: Algebraic Structures

## **Field Axioms**

A field  $\mathcal{F} = (F, +, \cdot)$  is a 3-tuple consisting of a set F and two binary operations  $+, \cdot : F \times F \to F$  such that

1. Associativity of +:

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma\in F} \ (\alpha+\beta)+\gamma=\alpha+(\beta+\gamma)$$

2. Commutativity of +:

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta\in F} \ \alpha + \beta = \beta + \alpha$$

3. Existence of additive identity:

$$\exists !_{0 \in F} \left( (1 \neq 0) \land (\forall_{\alpha \in F} \ \alpha + 0 = 0 + \alpha = \alpha) \right)$$

(Aside: This says that 0 behaves like zero in the real numbers; it need not be zero in the real numbers.)

4. Existence of additive inverse:

$$\forall_{\alpha \in F} \exists !_{(-\alpha) \in F} \alpha + (-\alpha) = (-\alpha) + \alpha = 0$$

(Aside: We wrote  $\alpha + (-\alpha)$  rather than  $\alpha - \alpha$  because substraction has not yet been defined. In fact, we define  $\alpha - \beta$  to be  $\alpha + (-\beta)$ .)

5. Associativity of  $\cdot$ :

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma\in F} \ (\alpha\cdot\beta)\cdot\gamma = \alpha\cdot(\beta\cdot\gamma)$$

6. Commutativity of  $\cdot$ :

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta\in F} \; \alpha \cdot \beta = \beta \cdot \alpha$$

7. Existence of multiplicative identity:

$$\exists !_{1 \in F} \forall_{\alpha \in F} \; \alpha \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot \alpha = \alpha$$

(Aside: This says that 1 behaves like one in the real numbers; it need not be one in the real numbers.)

8. Existence of multiplicative inverse:

$$\forall_{\alpha \in F, \alpha \neq 0} \exists !_{\alpha^{-1} \in F} \; \alpha \cdot \alpha^{-1} = \alpha^{-1} \cdot \alpha = 1$$

(Aside: We define  $\frac{\alpha}{\beta} = \alpha \beta^{-1}$ .)

9. Distributivity of multiplication over addition:

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma\in F} \ \alpha \cdot (\beta + \gamma) = \alpha \cdot \beta + \alpha \cdot \gamma$$

The point is that any property that follows from the definition of field (the "Field Axioms") must apply to any field

Examples of Fields:

• R

•  $C = \{x + iy : x, y \in R\}$ .  $i^2 = -1$ , so

$$(x + iy)(w + iz) = xw + ixz + iwy + i^{2}yz = (xw - yz) + i(xz + wy)$$

- Q: Q ⊂ R, Q ≠ R. Q is closed under +, ·, taking additive and multiplicate inverses; the field axioms are inherited from the field axioms on R, so Q is a field.
- N is not a field: no additive identity.
- Z is not a field; no multiplicative inverse for 2.
- $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ , the smallest field containing  $\mathbf{Q} \cup \{\sqrt{2}\}$ . Take  $\mathbf{Q}$ , add  $\sqrt{2}$ , and close up under +,  $\cdot$ , taking additive and multiplicative inverses. One can show

$$\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \{q + r\sqrt{2} : q, r \in \mathbf{Q}\}$$

For example,

$$(q+r\sqrt{2})^{-1} = \frac{q}{q^2-2r^2} - \frac{r}{q^2-2r^2}\sqrt{2}$$

• A finite field:  $F_2 = (\{0, 1\}, +, \cdot)$  where

		0 + 0	=	0			$0 \cdot 0$	=	0
0 + 1	=	1 + 0	=	1	$0 \cdot 1$	=	$1 \cdot 0$	=	0
		1 + 1	=	0			$1 \cdot 1$	=	1

("Arithmetic mod 2")

### Vector Space Axioms

Abstract definition of objects that "behave like  $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ "

A vector space is a 4-tuple  $(V, F, +, \cdot)$  where V is a set of elements, called vectors, F is a field, + is a binary operation on V called vector addition, and  $\cdot : F \times V \to V$  is called scalar multiplication, satisfying 1. Associativity of +:

$$\forall_{x,y,z\in V} \ (x+y) + z = x + (y+z)$$

2. Commutativity of +:

$$\forall_{x,y\in V} \ x+y=y+x$$

3. Existence of vector additive identity:

$$\exists !_{0 \in V} \forall_{x \in V} \ x + 0 = 0 + x = x$$

(Note that  $0 \in V$  and  $0 \in F$  are different.)

4. Existence of vector additive inverse:

$$\forall_{x \in V} \exists !_{(-x) \in V} \ x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0$$

(We define x - y to be x + (-y).)

5. Distributivity of scalar multiplication over vector addition:

$$\forall_{\alpha \in F, x, y \in V} \ \alpha \cdot (x + y) = \alpha \cdot x + \alpha \cdot y$$

6. Distributivity of scalar multiplication over scalar addition:

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta\in F,x\in V} \ (\alpha+\beta) \cdot x = \alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot x$$

7. Associativity of  $\cdot$ :

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta\in F,x\in V} \ (\alpha\cdot\beta)\cdot x = \alpha\cdot(\beta\cdot x)$$

8. Multiplicative identity:

 $\forall_{x \in V} \ 1 \cdot x = x$ 

(Note that 1 is the multiplicative identity in F;  $1 \notin V$ )

### Examples of vector spaces:

- 1.  $\mathbf{R}^n$  over  $\mathbf{R}$ .
- 2. **R** is a vector space over  $\mathbf{Q}$ :

(scalar multiplication)  $q \cdot r = qr$  (product in **R**)

**R** is not finite-dimensional over Q, i.e. **R** is not **Q**<sup>n</sup> for any  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ .

- 3. **R** is a vector space over **R**.
- 4.  $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  is a vector space over  $\mathbf{Q}$ . As a vector space, it is  $\mathbf{Q}^2$ ; as a field, you need to take the funny field multiplication.
- 5.  $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ , as a vector space over  $\mathbf{Q}$ , is  $\mathbf{Q}^3$ .
- 6.  $(F_2)^n$  is a *finite* vector space over  $F_2$ .
- 7. C([0,1]), the space of all continuous functions from [0,1] to **R**, is a vector space over **R**.
  - vector addition:

$$(f+g)(t) = f(t) + g(t)$$

(We define the function f + g by specifying what value it takes for each  $t \in [0, 1]$ .)

• scalar multiplication:

$$(\alpha f)(t) = \alpha(f(t))$$

- vector additive identity: 0 is the function which is identically zero: 0(t) = 0 for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ .
- vector additive inverse:

$$(-f)(t) = -(f(t))$$

### Section 1.6: Axioms for R

- 1. **R** is a field with the usual operations  $+, \cdot,$  additive identity 0, and multiplicative identity 1.
- 2. Order Axiom: There is a complete ordering  $\leq$ , i.e.  $\leq$  is reflexive, transitive, antisymmetric ( $\alpha \leq \beta, \beta \leq \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha = \beta$ ) with the property that

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta\in\mathbf{R}} \ (\alpha\leq\beta)\lor(\beta\leq\alpha)$$

The order is compatible with + and  $\cdot$ , i.e.

$$\forall_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma\in\mathbf{R}} \begin{cases} \alpha \leq \beta \Rightarrow \alpha + \gamma \leq \beta + \gamma \\ \alpha \leq \beta, 0 \leq \gamma \Rightarrow \alpha\gamma \leq \beta\gamma \end{cases}$$

 $\alpha \geq \beta$  means  $\beta \leq \alpha$ .

- $\alpha < \beta$  means  $\alpha \leq \beta$  and  $\alpha \neq \beta$ .
- 3. Completeness Axiom: Suppose  $L, H \subseteq \mathbf{R}, L \neq \emptyset \neq H$  satisfy

 $\forall_{\ell \in L, h \in H} \ \ell \le h$ 

Then

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\exists_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}} \forall_{\ell \in L, h \in H} \ \ell \le \alpha \le h\alphaL \qquad \downarrow \qquad H----) \qquad \cdot \qquad (-----
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The Completeness Axiom differentiates  $\mathbf{R}$  from  $\mathbf{Q}$ :  $\mathbf{Q}$  satisfies all the axioms for  $\mathbf{R}$  except the Completeness Axiom

The most useful consequence of the Completeness Axiom (and often used as an alternative axiom) is the Supremum Property.

**Definition 2** Suppose  $X \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ . We say *u* is an *upper bound* for *X* if

$$\forall_{x \in X} \ x \le u$$

and  $\ell$  is a *lower bound* for X if

$$\forall_{x \in X} \ \ell \le x$$

X is bounded above if there is an upper bound for X, and bounded below if there is a lower bound for X.

**Definition 3** Suppose X is bounded above. The *supremum* of X, written  $\sup X$ , is the smallest upper bound for X, i.e.  $\sup X$  satisfies

 $\forall_{x \in X} \sup X \ge x \text{ (sup is an upper bound)}$ 

 $\forall_{y < \sup X} \exists_{x \in X} x > y \text{ (there is no smaller upper bound)}$ 

Analogously, suppose X is bounded below. The *infimum* of X, written  $\inf X$ , is the greatest lower bound for X, i.e.  $\inf X$  satisfies

 $\forall_{x \in X} \inf X \leq x \pmod{x}$  (inf X is a lower bound)

 $\forall_{y \ge \inf X} \exists_{x \in X} x < y \text{ (there is no greater lower bound)}$ 

(Not in book) If X is not bounded above, write  $\sup X = \infty$ . If X is not bounded below, write  $\inf X = -\infty$ .  $\sup \emptyset = -\infty$ ,  $\inf \emptyset = +\infty$ .

**The Supremum Property:** Every nonempty set of real numbers which is bounded above has a supremum, which is a real number. Every nonempty set of real numbers which is bounded below has an infimum, which is a real number.

Caution: sup X need not be an element of X. For example, sup $(0,1) = 1 \notin (0,1)$ .

**Theorem 4 (Theorem 6.8, plus ...)** The Supremum Property and the Completeness Axiom are equivalent.

**Proof:** Assume the Completeness Axiom. Let  $X \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  be a nonempty set which is bounded above. Let U be the set of all upper bounds for X. Since X is bounded above,  $U \neq \emptyset$ . If  $x \in X$  and  $u \in U$ ,  $x \leq u$  since u is an upper bound for X. So

$$\forall_{x \in X, u \in U} \ x \le u$$

By the Completeness Axiom,

$$\exists_{\alpha \in \mathbf{R}} \forall_{x \in X, u \in U} \ x \le \alpha \le u$$

 $\alpha$  is an upper bound for X, and it is less than or equal to every other upper bound for X, so it is the least upper bound for X, so  $\sup X = \alpha \in \mathbf{R}$ . The case in which X is bounded below is similar. Thus, the Supremum Property holds.

Conversely, assume the Supremum Property. Suppose  $L, H \subseteq \mathbf{R}, L \neq \emptyset \neq H$ , and

$$\forall_{\ell \in L, h \in H} \ \ell \le h$$

Since  $L \neq \emptyset$  and L is bounded above (by any element of H),  $\alpha = \sup L$  exists and is real. By the definition of supremum,  $\alpha$  is an upper bound for L, so

$$\forall_{\ell \in L} \ \ell \le \alpha$$

Suppose  $h \in H$ . Then h is an upper bound for L, so by the definition of supremum,  $\alpha \leq h$ . Therefore, we have shown that

$$\forall_{\ell \in L, h \in H} \ \ell \le \alpha \le h$$

so the Completeness Axiom holds.  $\blacksquare$ 

Theorem 5 (Archimedean Property, Theorem 6.10 + ...)

$$\forall_{x,y \in \mathbf{R}, y > 0} \exists_{n \in \mathbf{N}} ny = (y + \dots + y) > x$$
  
n times

**Theorem 6 (Intermediate Value Theorem)** Suppose  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbf{R}$  is continuous, and f(a) < d < f(b). Then there exists  $c \in (a,b)$  such that f(c) = d.

**Proof:** Later, we will give a slick proof. Here, we give a bare-hands proof using the Supremum Property. Let

$$B = \{ x \in [a, b] : f(x) < d \}$$

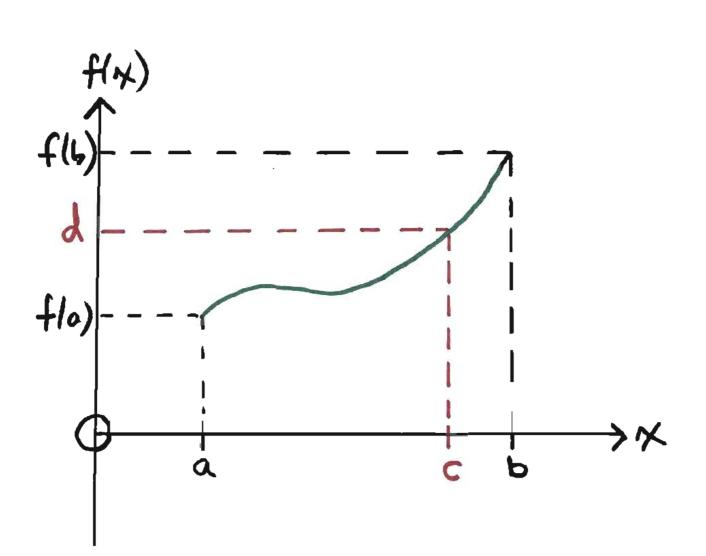
 $a \in B$ , so  $B \neq \emptyset$ ;  $B \subseteq [a, b]$ , so B is bounded above. By the Supremum Property, sup B exists and is real so let  $c = \sup B$ . Since  $a \in B$ ,  $c \ge a$ .  $B \subseteq [a, b]$ , so  $c \le b$ . Therefore,  $c \in [a, b]$ .

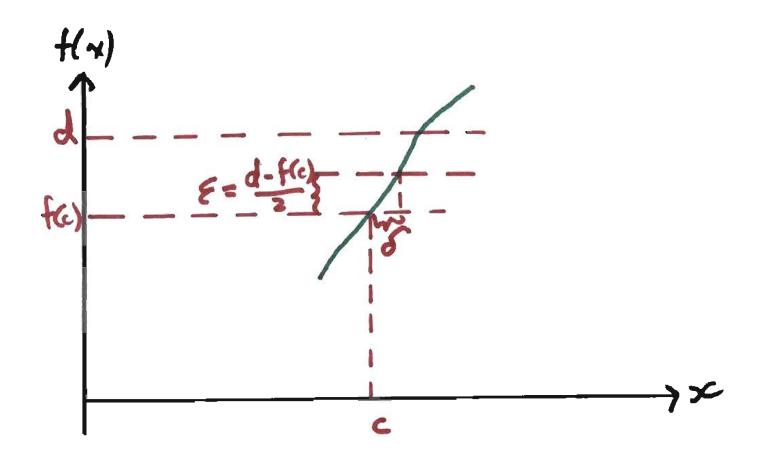
We claim that f(c) = d. If not, suppose f(c) < d. Then since f(b) > d,  $c \neq b$ , so c < b. Let  $\varepsilon = \frac{d-f(c)}{2} > 0$ . Since f is continuous at c, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

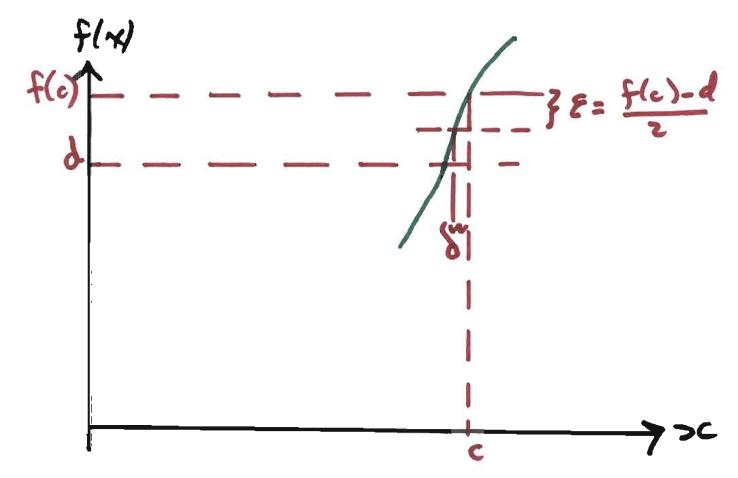
$$|x - c| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(c)| < \varepsilon$$
  
$$\implies f(x) < f(c) + \varepsilon$$
  
$$= f(c) + \frac{d - f(c)}{2}$$
  
$$= \frac{f(c) + d}{2}$$
  
$$< \frac{d + d}{2}$$
  
$$= d$$

so  $(c, c + \delta) \subseteq B$ , so  $c \neq \sup B$ , contradiction.

Suppose f(c) > d. Then since f(a) < d,  $a \neq c$ , so c > a. Let  $\varepsilon = \frac{f(c)-d}{2} > 0$ . Since f is continuous at







$$|x - c| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(c)| < \varepsilon$$
  

$$\implies f(x) > f(c) - \varepsilon$$
  

$$= f(c) - \frac{f(c) - d}{2}$$
  

$$= \frac{f(c) + d}{2}$$
  

$$> \frac{d + d}{2}$$
  

$$= d$$

so  $(c - \delta, c + \delta) \cap B = \emptyset$ . So either there exists  $x \in B$  with  $x \ge c + \delta$  (in which case c is not an upper bound for B) or  $c - \delta$  is an upper bound for B (in which case c is not the least upper bound for B); in either case,  $c \ne \sup B$ , contradiction.

Since  $f(c) \neq d$ ,  $f(c) \neq d$ , and the order is complete, f(c) = d. Since f(a) < d and f(b) > d,  $a \neq c \neq b$ , so  $c \in (a, b)$ .

**Corollary 7** There exists  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $x^2 = 2$ .

**Proof:** Let  $f(x) = x^2$ , for  $x \in [0, 2]$ . From Math 1A, f is continuous. f(0) = 0 < 2 and f(2) = 4 > 2, so by the Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists  $c \in (0, 2)$  such that f(c) = 2, i.e.  $c^2 = 2$ .

Read sections 1.6(c) (absolute values) and 1.7 (complex numbers) on your own.