

Sheet 4: Revenge of \mathbb{Q}

Let \mathbb{Z} denote the integers. Let

$$P = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\}$$

and let the relation \sim be defined on P by

$$(a_1, b_1) \sim (a_2, b_2) \text{ if } a_1 b_2 = a_2 b_1$$

Theorem 1 \sim is an equivalence relation on P .

Proof. Let $(a, b) \in P$. Then $ab = ab$ and so $(a, b) \sim (a, b)$. Hence, reflexivity applies to \sim . Now let $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2) \in P$ such that $(a_1, b_1) \sim (a_2, b_2)$. Then $a_1 b_2 = a_2 b_1$ and so $a_2 b_1 = a_1 b_2$. Thus $(a_2, b_2) \sim (a_1, b_1)$ and so symmetry holds for \sim . Now suppose $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2), (a_3, b_3) \in P$ such that $(a_1, b_1) \sim (a_2, b_2)$ and $(a_2, b_2) \sim (a_3, b_3)$. Then $a_1 b_2 = a_2 b_1$ and $a_2 b_3 = a_3 b_2$. Multiplying the first equation by b_3 we have $a_1 b_2 b_3 = a_2 b_1 b_3$. But then since $a_2 b_3 = a_3 b_2$ we have $a_1 b_2 b_3 = a_3 b_1 b_2$ and dividing by $b_2 \neq 0$ we have $a_1 b_3 = a_3 b_1$. Therefore $(a_1, b_1) \sim (a_3, b_3)$ implying transitivity and since all three conditions have been met, \sim is an equivalence relation on P . \square

Now let \mathbb{Q} denote the set of \sim -equivalence classes of P . We now define two operators, $+$ and \cdot as follows. For $X, Y \in \mathbb{Q}$ let $(a_1, b_2) \in X$ and $(a_2, b_2) \in Y$. Let

$$X + Y = \overline{(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1, b_1 b_2)}$$

and let

$$X \cdot Y = \overline{(a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2)}.$$

We now show that these definitions are well-defined.

Theorem 2 If $(a_1, b_1) \sim (c_1, d_1)$ and $(a_2, b_2) \sim (c_2, d_2)$ then

$$(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1, b_1 b_2) \sim (c_1 d_2 + c_2 d_1, d_1 d_2)$$

and

$$(a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2) \sim (c_1 c_2, d_1 d_2).$$

Proof. Let $(a_1, b_1) \sim (c_1, d_1)$ and $(a_2, b_2) \sim (c_2, d_2)$. Then we have $a_1 d_1 = b_1 c_1$ and $a_2 d_2 = b_2 c_2$. We multiply the first equation by $b_2 d_2$ so we have $a_1 b_2 d_1 d_2 = b_1 b_2 c_1 d_2$ and we multiply the second equation by $b_1 d_1$ so we have $a_2 b_1 d_1 d_2 = b_1 b_2 c_2 d_1$. Now we add the two new equations together so we have $a_1 b_2 d_1 d_2 + a_2 b_1 d_1 d_2 = b_1 b_2 c_1 d_2 + b_1 b_2 c_2 d_1$ and so $(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1) d_1 d_2 = (c_1 d_2 + c_2 d_1) b_1 b_2$ which implies $(a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1, b_1 b_2) \sim (c_1 d_2 + c_2 d_1, d_1 d_2)$. Similarly, if we multiply $a_1 d_1 = b_1 c_1$ and $a_2 d_2 = b_2 c_2$ together we have $a_1 a_2 d_1 d_2 = b_1 b_2 c_1 c_2$ and so $(a_1 a_2, b_1 b_2) \sim (c_1 c_2, d_1 d_2)$. \square

Theorem 3 (Associativity of Addition) For all $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $(p + q) + r = p + (q + r)$.

Proof. Let $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$, $(q_1, q_2) \in q$ and $(r_1, r_2) \in r$. Then we see that

$$\begin{aligned} (p + q) + r &= \overline{(\overline{(p_1, p_2)} + \overline{(q_1, q_2)})} + \overline{(r_1, r_2)} \\ &= \overline{(p_1 q_2 + p_2 q_1, p_2 q_2)} + \overline{(r_1, r_2)} \\ &= \overline{((p_1 q_2 + p_2 q_1) r_2 + p_2 q_2 r_1, p_2 q_2 r_2)} \\ &= \overline{(p_1 q_2 r_2 + p_2 q_1 r_2 + p_2 q_2 r_1, p_2 q_2 r_2)} \\ &= \overline{((q_1 r_2 + q_2 r_1) p_2 + p_1 q_2 r_2, p_2 q_2 r_2)} \\ &= p + \overline{(q_1 r_2 + q_2 r_1, q_2 r_2)} \\ &= p + (q + r). \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4 (Commutativity of Addition) For all $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $p + q = q + p$.

Proof. Let $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$ and $(q_1, q_2) \in q$. Then we have
 $p + q = (p_1, p_2) + (q_1, q_2) = (p_1q_2 + p_2q_1, p_2q_2) = (q_1p_2 + q_2p_1, q_2p_2) = (q_1, q_2) + (p_1, p_2) = q + p$. □

Theorem 5 (Additive Identity) There exists an $n \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that for all $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $n + p = p$. Show that n is unique.

Proof. We see that if we let $n \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $n = \overline{(0, 1)}$ and if we let $(p_1, p_2) \in p$ for some $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ then we have $n + p = \overline{(0, 1)} + (p_1, p_2) = \overline{((0)p_2 + (1)p_1, (1)p_2)} = \overline{(p_1, p_2)} = p$. Now suppose there exist two additive identities such that for all $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $n_1 + p = p$ and $n_2 + p = p$. Then we have $n_2 = n_1 + n_2 = n_2 + n_1 = n_1$ and so $n_1 = n_2$. Thus, the additive identity is unique. □

From now on we will call the additive identity 0.

Theorem 6 (Additive Inverse) For all $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ there exists $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $p + q = 0$. Show that q is unique.

Proof. Let $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$. Then we choose $q = \overline{(-p_1, p_2)}$ for $q \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then we have
 $p + q = (p_1, p_2) + \overline{(-p_1, p_2)} = \overline{(p_1p_2 + (-p_1)p_2, p_2p_2)} = \overline{(0, p_2p_2)} = \overline{(0, 1)} = 0$ since $(0)p_2p_2 = (0)(1)$. Now suppose there exist two additive inverses so that $p + n_1 = 0$ and $p + n_2 = 0$. Then we have $p + n_1 = p + n_2$ and adding $\overline{(-p_1, p_2)}$ to both sides we have

$$\overline{(-p_1, p_2)} + \overline{(p_1, p_2)} + n_1 = \overline{(-p_1p_2 + p_1p_2, p_2p_2)} + n_1 = 0 + n_1 = n_1$$

on the left and

$$\overline{(-p_1, p_2)} + \overline{(p_1, p_2)} + n_2 = \overline{(-p_1p_2 + p_1p_2, p_2p_2)} + n_2 = 0 + n_2 = n_2$$

on the right. So $n_1 = n_2$ and the additive inverse is unique. □

From now on we will call the additive inverse for p , $-p$.

Theorem 7 (Associativity of Multiplication) For all $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $(p \cdot q) \cdot r = p \cdot (q \cdot r)$.

Proof. Let $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$, $(q_1, q_2) \in q$ and $(r_1, r_2) \in r$. Then we have
 $(p \cdot q) \cdot r = \overline{((p_1, p_2) \cdot (q_1, q_2))} \cdot (r_1, r_2) = \overline{(p_1q_1, p_2q_2)} \cdot (r_1, r_2) = \overline{(p_1q_1r_1, p_2q_2r_2)} = p \cdot \overline{(q_1r_1, q_2r_2)} = p \cdot (q \cdot r)$. □

Theorem 8 (Commutativity of Multiplication) For all $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $p \cdot q = q \cdot p$.

Proof. Let $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$ and $(q_1, q_2) \in q$. Then
 $p \cdot q = \overline{(p_1, p_2) \cdot (q_1, q_2)} = \overline{(p_1q_1, p_2q_2)} = \overline{(q_1p_1, q_2p_2)} = \overline{(q_1, q_2) \cdot (p_1, p_2)} = q \cdot p$. □

Theorem 9 (Multiplicative Identity) There exists $e \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that for all $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $e \cdot p = p$.

Proof. Let $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$ and let $e \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $e = \overline{(1, 1)}$. Then we have
 $e \cdot p = \overline{(1, 1) \cdot (p_1, p_2)} = \overline{(p_1(1), p_2(1))} = p$. Suppose there exist two multiplicative identities e_1 and e_2 such that for all $p \in \mathbb{Q}$, $e_1 \cdot p = p$ and $e_2 \cdot p = p$. Then we have $e_1 = e_2 \cdot e_1$ and $e_2 = e_1 \cdot e_2 = e_2 \cdot e_1$. So we have $e_1 = e_2$ and so the multiplicative identity is unique. □

From now on we will call the multiplicative identity 1.

Theorem 10 (Multiplicative Inverse) For all $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $p \neq 0$ there exists $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $p \cdot q = 1$.

Proof. Let $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$ and since $p_1 \neq 0$ let $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_2, p_1) \in q$. Then we see that $p \cdot q = \overline{(p_1, p_2)} \cdot \overline{(p_2, p_1)} = \overline{(p_1 p_2, p_1 p_2)} = \overline{(1, 1)} = 1$. Now suppose there are two multiplicative inverses for some $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $p \cdot q_1 = 1$ and $p \cdot q_2 = 1$. Then, multiplying both equations by $\overline{(p_2, p_1)}$, we have $q_1 = \overline{(1, 1)} \cdot q_1 = \overline{(p_1 p_2, p_1 p_2)} \cdot q_1 = \overline{(p_2, p_1)} \cdot \overline{(p_1, p_2)} \cdot q_1 = \overline{(p_2, p_1)} \cdot \overline{(p_1, p_2)} \cdot q_2 = \overline{(p_1 p_2, p_1 p_2)} \cdot q_2 = \overline{(1, 1)} \cdot q_2 = q_2$. So the multiplicative inverse is unique. \square

From now on we will call the multiplicative inverse for p , p^{-1} .

Theorem 11 (Distributivity) For all $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ we have $p \cdot (q + r) = p \cdot q + p \cdot r$.

Proof. Let $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p$, $(q_1, q_2) \in q$ and $(r_1, r_2) \in r$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} p \cdot (q + r) &= \overline{(p_1, p_2)} \cdot \left(\overline{(q_1, q_2)} + \overline{(r_1, r_2)} \right) \\ &= \overline{(p_1, p_2)} \cdot \overline{(q_1 r_2 + q_2 r_1, q_2 r_2)} \\ &= \overline{(p_1 q_1 r_2 + p_1 q_2 r_1, p_2 q_2 r_2)} \\ &= \overline{(p_1 q_1 r_2 + p_1 q_2 r_1, p_2 q_2 r_2)} \cdot \overline{(p_2, p_2)} \\ &= \overline{(p_1 p_2 q_1 r_2 + p_1 p_2 q_2 r_1, p_2 p_2 q_2 r_2)} \\ &= \overline{(p_1 q_1, p_2 q_2)} + \overline{(p_1 r_1, p_2 r_2)} \\ &= \overline{(p_1, p_2)} \cdot \overline{(q_1, q_2)} + \overline{(p_1, p_2)} \cdot \overline{(r_1, r_2)} \\ &= p \cdot q + p \cdot r. \end{aligned}$$

\square

Theorem 12 The function $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ where $f(n) = \overline{(n, 1)}$ is injective.

Proof. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f(a) = f(b)$. Then we have $\overline{(a, 1)} = \overline{(b, 1)}$ and so $(a, 1) \sim (b, 1)$ which implies $a = b$. \square

Theorem 13 For all $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have

$$f(m + n) = f(m) + f(n) \text{ and } f(mn) = f(m) \cdot f(n).$$

Proof. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(m + n) &= \overline{(m + n, 1)} = \overline{(m(1) + n(1), (1)(1))} = \overline{(m, 1)} + \overline{(n, 1)} = f(m) + f(n). \\ f(mn) &= \overline{(mn, (1)(1))} = \overline{(m, 1)} \cdot \overline{(n, 1)} = f(m) \cdot f(n). \end{aligned}$$

\square

Theorem 14 For every rational number $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ there exist $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n \neq 0$ and $r = mn^{-1}$.

Proof. Let $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(m, n) \in r$ (since r is nonempty). Then we see $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus we can write $m = \overline{(m, 1)}$ and $n = \overline{(n, 1)}$. And so $n^{-1} = \overline{(1, n)}$ since $n \neq 0$ and we have $m \cdot n^{-1} = \overline{(m, 1)} \cdot \overline{(1, n)} = \overline{(m, n)} = r$. \square

Lemma 15 Any element in \mathbb{Q} can be written as $\overline{(a, b)}$ with $b > 0$.

Proof. Let $\overline{(a, b)} \in \mathbb{Q}$. There are two cases:

Case 1: If $b > 0$ then we are done.

Case 2: If $b < 0$ then we have $a(-b) = -ab = (-a)b$ and so $(a, b) \sim (-a, -b)$. Thus $\overline{(a, b)} = \overline{(-a, -b)}$ and $-b > 0$. \square

We now define a relation $<$ on \mathbb{Q} . For $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ let $(a_1, b_1) \in p$ such that $b_1 > 0$ and let $(a_2, b_2) \in q$ such that $b_2 > 0$. Then we define

$$p < q \text{ if } a_1 b_2 < a_2 b_1$$

Theorem 16 *Show that $<$ is a well-defined relation on \mathbb{Q} .*

Proof. Let $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2), (c_1, d_1), (c_2, d_2) \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(a_1, b_1) < (a_2, b_2)$ and $(a_1, b_1) \sim (c_1, d_1)$ and $(a_2, b_2) \sim (c_2, d_2)$. We take b_1, b_2, d_1 and d_2 to all be greater than 0 by Lemma 15. Then we have $a_1 b_2 < a_2 b_1$ and so $a_1 b_2 d_1 d_2 < a_2 b_1 d_1 d_2$. But we also know that $a_1 d_1 = b_1 c_1$ and $a_2 d_2 = b_2 c_2$. Making the appropriate substitutions we see $b_1 b_2 c_1 d_2 < b_1 b_2 c_2 d_1$. Since $b_1 b_2 > 0$ we have $c_1 d_2 < c_2 d_1$ and so $(c_1, c_2) < (d_1, d_2)$. This shows that $<$ is well-defined. \square

Theorem 17 *The relation $<$ is an ordering on \mathbb{Q} .*

Proof. Let $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p, (q_1, q_2) \in q$ and $(r_1, r_2) \in r$. By Lemma 15 we let p_2, q_2 and r_2 all be greater than 0. If $p \neq q$ then we see that $(p_1, p_2) \sim (q_1, q_2)$ and so $p_1 q_2 \neq p_2 q_1$. Then we have either $p_1 q_2 < p_2 q_1$ and so $p < q$ or $p_2 q_1 < p_1 q_2$ and so $q < p$. Secondly if $p < q$ then we have $p_1 q_2 < p_2 q_1$ and so $p_1 q_2 \neq p_2 q_1$. Therefore $(p_1, p_2) \sim (q_1, q_2)$. Thus $p \neq q$. Finally, if $p < q$ and $q < r$ then $p_1 q_2 < p_2 q_1$ and $q_1 r_2 < q_2 r_1$. Multiplying the first inequality by r_2 and the second by p_2 we have $p_1 q_2 r_2 < p_2 q_1 r_2$ and $p_2 q_1 r_2 < p_2 q_2 r_1$ since $p_2 > 0$ and $r_2 > 0$. This implies $p_1 q_2 r_2 < p_2 q_2 r_1$ and since $q_2 > 0$ we have $p_1 r_2 < p_2 r_1$ and so $p < r$. Since all three conditions are satisfied, we see that $<$ is an ordering on \mathbb{Q} . \square

Exercise 18 *Is $(\mathbb{Q}, <)$ a model of C ? That is, which axioms does it satisfy?*

Proof. Since the integers are a subset of \mathbb{Q} and there exists at least one integer and since we showed that $<$ was an ordering on \mathbb{Q} , we see that axioms 1 and 2 are satisfied. Theorem 20 shows that there is no last point of \mathbb{Q} . To show that there is no first point we use a similar argument. Let $(a, b) \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $b > 0$. We consider three cases:

Case 1: Let $a > 0$. Then $a(1) > (0)b$ and so $(a, b) > (0, 1) = 0$.

Case 2: Let $a < 0$. Then since $b > 0$, $a > ab - b$ which means $(a, b) > (a - 1, 1) = a - 1$.

Case 3: Let $a = 0$ then $(a, b) = (0, b) = 0$ and since $-1 < 0$ we see $(a, b) > (-1, 1) = -1$.

So we see that for any element of \mathbb{Q} there is always an element greater than it and an element less than it which means it can have no first or last point and so it satisfies axiom 3. \square

Theorem 19 *For every $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $p < q$ there exists $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $p < r < q$.*

Proof. Let $p, q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(p_1, p_2) \in p, (q_1, q_2) \in q$ and $r = (p_1 q_2 + p_2 q_1, 2p_2 q_2)$. Let $p < q$ and by Lemma 15 let $p_2 > 0$ and $q_2 > 0$. Then we have $p_1 q_2 < p_2 q_1$ and so $p_1 p_2 q_2 < p_2 p_2 q_1$ which implies $2p_1 p_2 q_2 < p_1 p_2 q_2 + p_2 p_2 q_1$. We see that this implies $(p_1, p_2) < (p_1 q_2 + p_2 q_1, 2p_2 q_2)$ which means $p < r$. Similarly, we have $p_1 q_2 < p_2 q_1$ which means $p_1 q_2 q_2 < p_2 q_1 q_2$ and $p_1 q_2 q_2 + p_2 q_1 q_2 < 2p_2 q_1 q_2$. This implies $(p_1 q_2 + p_2 q_1, 2p_2 q_2) < (q_1, q_2)$ which means $r < q$. Thus $p < r < q$. \square

Theorem 20 (Archimedean Property) *For every $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $p < n$.*

Proof. Let $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(a, b) \in p$. Let $b > 0$ by Lemma 15. We have to consider three cases:

Case 1: Let $a > 0$. Then $a < ab + b$ and so $(a, b) < (a + 1, 1) = a + 1$.

Case 2: Let $a < 0$. Then $a(1) < b(0)$ and so $(a, b) < (0, 1) = 0$.

Case 3: Let $a = 0$. Then $(a, b) = (0, b) = (0, 1) = 0$ and since $0 < 1$ we see $(a, b) < (1, 1) = 1$. \square