

# MATH1115, Calculus Lecture 2

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## Review

We are taking an axiomatic approach to the real numbers:

**Assume:**  $\mathbb{R}$  is a set equipped with certain operations and relations satisfying a collection of axioms. Last time we introduced the algebraic axioms:

There are special elements 1 and 0 such that for all real numbers  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ ,

- (1).  $a + b = b + a$  (commutative axiom for addition)
- (2).  $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$  (associative axiom for addition)
- (3).  $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$  (additive identity axiom)
- (4). there is a real number  $(-a)$  such that

$$a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0. \quad (\text{additive inverse axiom})$$

- (5).  $a \times b = b \times a$  (commutative axiom for multiplication)
- (6).  $(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$  (associative axiom for multiplication)
- (7).  $a \times 1 = 1 \times a = a$ , and  $0 \neq 1$  (multiplicative identity axiom)
- (8). If  $a \neq 0$  then there is a real number  $a^{-1}$  such that

$$a \times a^{-1} = a^{-1} \times a = 1 \quad (\text{multiplicative inverse axiom})$$

- (9).  $a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$  (distributive axiom)

## Consequences of the algebraic axioms, continued

Last time we proved the cancellation law: If  $a + b = a + c$  then  $b = c$ .

### Theorem (Theorem 1.2.2 in Hutchinson)

If  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are real numbers with  $c \neq 0$  and  $d \neq 0$ , then

(1)  $ac = bc$  implies  $a = b$ . (*Multiplicative version of the cancellation law*)

(2)  $a0 = 0$ .  $a0 + a0 \stackrel{A9}{=} a(0+0) \stackrel{A3}{=} a0$ , so  $a0 = 0$  by cancellation

(3)  $-(-a) = a$ .  $(-a) + (-(-a)) \stackrel{A4}{=} 0 \stackrel{A4}{=} (-a) + a$ , so  $-(-a) \stackrel{\text{cancellation}}{=} a$

(4)  $(c^{-1})^{-1} = c$ . (*Multiplicative version of (3)*)

(5)  $(-1)a = (-a)$ .  $(-1)a + a \stackrel{A7}{=} (-1)a + 1a \stackrel{A9}{=} ((-1) + 1)a \stackrel{A4}{=} 0a \stackrel{(2)}{=} 0$

(6)  $a(-b) = -(ab) = (-a)b$ . *Exercise*

(7)  $(-a) + (-b) = -(a + b)$ . *Exercise*

(8)  $(-a)(-b) = ab$ . *Exercise*

(9)  $\frac{a}{c} \frac{b}{d} = \frac{ab}{cd}$ . *Exercise*

(10)  $\frac{a}{c} + \frac{b}{d} = \frac{ad+bc}{cd}$ . *Exercise*

The axioms (1)-(9) define an algebraic object called a *field*. eg.  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ ,  
 $\mathbb{Z} + \sqrt{2}\mathbb{Z}, \dots$

## Order axioms

The next collection of axioms are about the order relation  $x < y$ . These together with the algebraic axioms define an *ordered field*. The order is a relation which is either true or false for any two real numbers  $a$  and  $b$ , and if true we write  $a < b$ .

We assume: For all real numbers  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ ,

- (10). exactly one of the following holds:  $a < b$  or  $a = b$  or  $b < a$  (Trichotomy axiom)
- (11). If  $a < b$  and  $b < c$  then  $a < c$  (transitivity axiom)
- (12). If  $a < b$  then  $a + c < b + c$  (addition order axiom)
- (13). If  $a < b$  and  $0 < c$  then  $a \times c < b \times c$  (multiplication order axiom)

### Further definitions:

- If  $0 < a$  we say  $a$  is positive, and if  $0 > a$  we say  $a$  is negative.
- We say  $a > b$  if and only if  $b < a$ , and  $a \leq b$  if  $a < b$  or  $a = b$ , etc.

## Consequences of the order axioms

### Example

Show that two real numbers  $a$  and  $b$  satisfy  $a - b = b - a$  if and only if  $a = b$ .

**Proof:** We have to prove both implications. One is easy: If  $a = b$  then  $a - b = a - a = b - a$ . Conversely, if  $a - b = b - a$ , then add  $b$  to both sides:

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

The left-hand side equals  $a + ((-b) + b) = a + 0 = a$ , using the definition of subtraction, the associative law of addition, the additive inverse axiom, and the additive identity axiom. The right-hand side equals

$$b + (b + (-a)) = (b + b) + (-a) = (b + b) - a$$

using the commutative and the associative laws for addition. Therefore  $a = (b - b) - a$ . Adding  $a$  to both sides gives

$$a + a = ((b + b) - a) + a \stackrel{A2}{=} (b + b) + ((-a) + a) \stackrel{A4}{=} (b + b) + 0 \stackrel{A3}{=} b + b.$$

Since we know  $a = 1.a$  and  $b = 1.b$  by the additive identity law, we can write using the distributive law as

$$(1 + 1)a = (1 + 1)b,$$

so  $a = b$  by the multiplicative cancellation law **provided  $1 + 1 \neq 0$** .

## Consequences of the order axioms, continued

### Proposition

$$1 + 1 \neq 0.$$

This cannot be proved using the algebraic axioms (cf. the field  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ )

### Lemma

$$0 < 1.$$

**Proof:** The axioms give  $1 \neq 0$ , so by trichotomy either  $0 < 1$  or  $1 < 0$ . Suppose the latter holds. We claim that  $0 < -1$ : By the addition order axiom we have  $1 + (-1) < 0 + (-1) = -1$ , so  $0 < -1$ . Therefore by the multiplication order axiom we have

$$1(-1) < 0(-1).$$

So  $-1 < 0$  (using the multiplicative identity axiom on the left and result  $a \cdot 0 = 0$  on the right). This contradicts the trichotomy axiom: We cannot have both  $-1 < 0$  and  $0 < -1$ . Therefore we must have  $0 < 1$ , as claimed.  $\square$

Now we can prove the proposition: Since  $0 < 1$ , adding 1 to both sides gives  $1 < 1 + 1$  (addition order axiom). But then  $0 < 1 < 1 + 1$ , so  $0 < 1 + 1$  (transitivity axiom). By trichotomy we conclude that  $1 + 1 \neq 0$ .

## Further consequences of order

### Theorem (Theorem 1.2.3 in Hutchinson)

If  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are real numbers, then

- (1)  $a < b$  and  $c < 0$  implies  $ac > bc$  (we know  $0 < (-c)$ )
- (2)  $0 < 1$  and  $-1 < 0$  (we just proved this)
- (3)  $a > 0$  implies  $a^{-1} > 0$  (consequence of (2) and trichotomy)
- (4)  $0 < a < b$  implies  $0 < b^{-1} < a^{-1}$  (multiply by  $a^{-1}b^{-1} > 0$ )
- (5)  $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$  (triangle inequality) (check various cases)
- (6)  $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$  (consequence of the triangle inequality)

Here we make the definition  $|a| = a$  if  $0 \leq a$ , and  $|a| = -a$  if  $a < 0$ .

The algebraic and order axioms are still not enough to characterise the real numbers: All of the axioms so far are also satisfied by the rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$ . The final axiom which distinguishes  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  is called the *completeness axiom*, which captures the idea that the real numbers form a *continuum* without any ‘holes’.

## Notation and definitions

Some definitions and notation:

- We use curly brackets to denote a set, for example  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ .
- The notation  $a \in X$  means that  $a$  is an element of the set  $X$  (we also say ‘ $a$  is in  $X$ ’).
- If  $a$  is not in the set  $X$  we can write  $a \notin X$ .
- We might also write  $X = \{x \in Y : P(x)\}$  or  $\{x \in Y \mid P(x)\}$  to denote ‘the set of elements  $x$  of the set  $Y$  which also satisfy the property  $P(x)$ ’. For example  $\mathbb{R}_+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 < x\}$  is the positive reals.
- The *union*  $X \cup Y$  of two sets  $X$  and  $Y$  is defined by  $\{x : x \in X \text{ or } x \in Y\}$ . The *intersection*  $X \cap Y$  is the set  $\{x : x \in X \text{ and } x \in Y\}$ .
- We say  $X$  is a subset of  $Y$ , and write  $X \subset Y$ , if every element of  $X$  is also an element of  $Y$ :

$$X \subset Y \iff a \in X \implies a \in Y.$$

Here  $\iff$  is the equivalence symbol, read ‘iff and only if’ or ‘is equivalent to’, and  $\implies$  is the implication symbol, read ‘implies’.

**Note:** The notation  $X \subset Y$  does not mean that  $X$  is a proper subset of  $Y$  — if you need to convey this you could use the symbol  $X \subsetneq Y$ .



## Upper bounds and least upper bounds

Now we make some useful definitions:

### Definition

Let  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ . We say that a real number  $a$  is an *upper bound* for  $A$  if  $x \in A \implies x \leq a$ .

For example:

- If  $X = [0, 1] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$ , then the numbers  $1, 2, \dots$  are all upper bounds for  $X$ .
- If  $X = \emptyset$  is the empty set, then every real number is an upper bound for  $X$ .
- The subsets  $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}$  do not have upper bounds.

We say that a subset  $X$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  is *bounded above* if there exists an upper bound for  $X$ .

### Definition

Let  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ . A number  $a$  is a *least upper bound* for  $A$  if

- (i)  $a$  is an upper bound for  $A$ , and
- (ii) If  $b$  is any upper bound for  $A$ , then  $a \leq b$ .

## The completeness axiom

Now we are in a position to state the completeness axiom:

**Axiom 14:** Every non-empty subset  $X$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above has a least upper bound.

To see the meaning of this, consider the following example:

$$X = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0, x^2 < 2\}.$$

$X$  is non-empty:  $1 \in X$ .

$X$  is bounded above:

### Lemma

*If  $0 < x < y$  then  $x^2 < y^2$  (the function  $x \rightarrow x^2$  is an increasing function on positive numbers).*

**Proof:** Since  $0 < x$  and  $x < y$  we have  $x^2 < xy$ . Since  $0 < y$  (transitivity) and  $x < y$  we have  $xy < y^2$ . Since  $x^2 < xy$  and  $xy < y^2$  we have  $x^2 < y^2$  (transitivity). □

Since  $2^2 > 2$ , we conclude that 2 is an upper bound for  $X$ : If any  $x \in X$  satisfies  $x > 2$  then we would have  $x^2 > 2^2 > 2$ , which is impossible since  $x \in X \implies x^2 < 2$ . So  $X$  is bounded above.