- 1 Introduction
- **2** Properties of \mathbb{R}
- **3** Properties of \mathbb{R} II
- 4 Properties of ℝ III
- **5** Properties of \mathbb{R} IV

Introduction 2/7



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 1 Introduction Tuesday 3 September 2019

■ The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03

- The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03
- Click on Course information to download course information as pdf file. You are expected to read and pay attention to every word of this file.

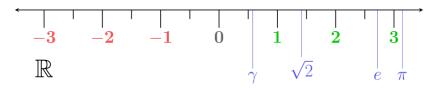
- The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03
- Click on Course information to download course information as pdf file. You are expected to read and pay attention to every word of this file.
- Let's have a look now...



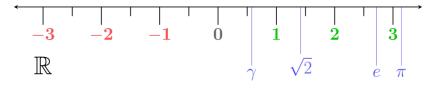
lacktriangle The "Reals" ($\mathbb R$) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- Why aren't the rational numbers (\mathbb{Q}) sufficient?

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- lacktriangle Why aren't the rational numbers (\mathbb{Q}) sufficient?

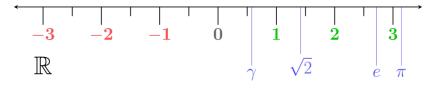


- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- Why aren't the rational numbers (\mathbb{Q}) sufficient?



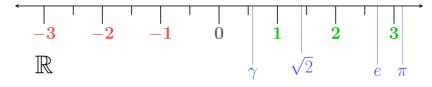
■ How do we know that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational?

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- Why aren't the rational numbers (ℚ) sufficient?



- How do we know that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational?
- How can we *prove* this?

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- Why aren't the rational numbers (ℚ) sufficient?



- How do we know that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational?
- How can we *prove* this? Approach: "Proof by contradiction."

6/75

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Theorem

 $\sqrt{2} \not\in \mathbb{Q}$.

Theorem

 $\sqrt{2}\not\in\mathbb{Q}.$

Proof.

Theorem

 $\sqrt{2} \not\in \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Theorem

$$\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$$
.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and n with gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

Theorem

$$\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$$
.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2$$

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

$$\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$$
.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and n with gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \implies \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2$$

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

$$\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$$
.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = (\sqrt{2})^2 \implies \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \implies m^2 = 2n^2.$$

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

$$\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$$
.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 m^2 is even

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

$$\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$$
.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 m^2 is even $\implies m$ is even

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

m=2k for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

m=2k for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$.

$$\therefore 4k^2 = m^2$$

Theorem

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and n with $\gcd(m,n)=1$ such that $m/n=\sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

 $\therefore m = 2k \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N}.$

$$\therefore 4k^2 = m^2 = 2n^2$$

Theorem

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and n with $\gcd(m,n)=1$ such that $m/n=\sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

 $\therefore m = 2k \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N}.$

$$\therefore 4k^2 = m^2 = 2n^2 \implies 2k^2 = n^2$$

Theorem

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and n with $\gcd(m,n)=1$ such that $m/n=\sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

 $\therefore m = 2k \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N}.$

$$\therefore 4k^2 = m^2 = 2n^2 \implies 2k^2 = n^2 \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and n with gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

m=2k for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$.

$$\therefore 4k^2 = m^2 = 2n^2 \implies 2k^2 = n^2 \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

 \therefore 2 is a factor of both m and n.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and n with gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

m=2k for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$.

$$\therefore 4k^2 = m^2 = 2n^2 \implies 2k^2 = n^2 \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

 \therefore 2 is a factor of both m and n. Contradiction!

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

 $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist two positive integers m and nwith gcd(m, n) = 1 such that $m/n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{m^2}{n^2} = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2n^2.$$

 $\therefore m^2$ is even $\implies m$ is even (\because odd numbers have odd squares).

m=2k for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$.

$$\therefore 4k^2 = m^2 = 2n^2 \implies 2k^2 = n^2 \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

 \therefore 2 is a factor of both m and n. Contradiction! $\therefore \sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Does $\sqrt{2}$ exist?

Does $\sqrt{2}$ exist?

■ We have established that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.

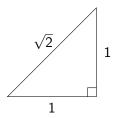
- We have established that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.
- But do we really know it exists?

- We have established that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.
- But do we really know it exists?
- Can we do without it?

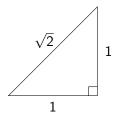
- We have established that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.
- But do we really know it exists?
- Can we do without it?
- No.

- We have established that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.
- But do we really know it exists?
- Can we do without it?
- No. Objects with side length $\sqrt{2}$ exist!

- We have established that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.
- But do we really know it exists?
- Can we do without it?
- No. Objects with side length $\sqrt{2}$ exist!



- We have established that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.
- But do we really know it exists?
- Can we do without it?
- No. Objects with side length $\sqrt{2}$ exist!



So irrational numbers are "real".

Instructor: David Earn

■ Please log in (right now) to this web site: https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php

- Please log in (right now) to this web site: https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03.

- Please log in (right now) to this web site: https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03.
- Click on Take Class Poll.

- Please log in (right now) to this web site: https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03.
- Click on Take Class Poll.
- After selecting the numbers you think are rational, click the Submit button.

- Please log in (right now) to this web site: https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main login.php
- Click on Math 3A03.
- Click on Take Class Poll.
- After selecting the numbers you think are rational, click the Submit button.
- Everybody done?

- Please log in (right now) to this web site: https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03.
- Click on Take Class Poll.
- After selecting the numbers you think are rational, click the Submit button.
- Everybody done?
- Let's Deactivate the poll and View Results

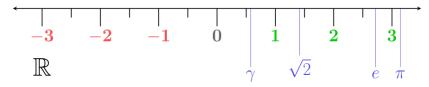
Instructor: David Earn

■ We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are.

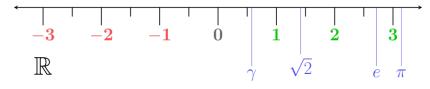
 We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)

- We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)
- The number line contains numbers that are not rational.

- We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)
- The number line contains numbers that are not rational.

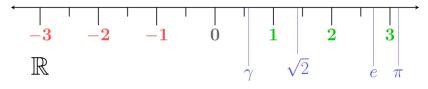


- We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)
- The number line contains numbers that are not rational.



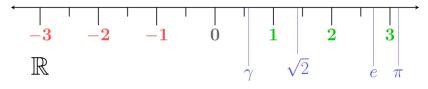
Can we construct irrational numbers?

- We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)
- The number line contains numbers that are not rational.



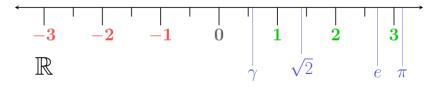
Can we construct irrational numbers? (Just as we construct rationals as ratios of integers?)

- We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)
- The number line contains numbers that are not rational.



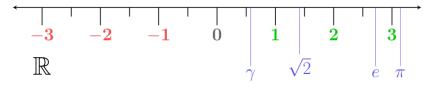
- Can we construct irrational numbers?(Just as we construct rationals as ratios of integers?)
- Do we need to *construct* integers first?

- We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)
- The number line contains numbers that are not rational.



- Can we construct irrational numbers?(Just as we construct rationals as ratios of integers?)
- Do we need to construct integers first?
- Maybe we should start with 0, 1, 2, ...

- We have solid intuition for what rational numbers are. (Ratios of integers.)
- The number line contains numbers that are not rational.



- Can we construct irrational numbers?(Just as we construct rationals as ratios of integers?)
- Do we need to construct integers first?
- Maybe we should start with 0, 1, 2, ...
- But what exactly are we supposed to construct numbers from?

Assume we know what a set is.

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv$

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset$

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv$

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv \{0\}$

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv \{0\} = \{\emptyset\}$

- Assume we know what a **set** is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- $\blacksquare \ \mathsf{Define}\ 1 \equiv \{0\} = \{\varnothing\} = \{\{\}\}$

- Assume we know what a **set** is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define 2 ≡

- Assume we know what a **set** is.
- $\bullet \ \, \mathsf{Define} \,\, \mathsf{0} \equiv \varnothing = \{\} \qquad \, \mathsf{(the \,\, empty \,\, set)}$
- Define $2 \equiv \{0, 1\}$

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv \{0\} = \{\emptyset\} = \{\{\}\}$
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$
- Define $n+1 \equiv$

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv \{0\} = \{\emptyset\} = \{\{\}\}$
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$
- Define $n + 1 \equiv n \cup \{n\}$

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv \{0\} = \{\emptyset\} = \{\{\}\}$
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$
- Define $n + 1 \equiv n \cup \{n\}$ (successor function)

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$
- Define $n + 1 \equiv n \cup \{n\}$ (successor function)
- \blacksquare Define *natural numbers* $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (N)

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv \{0\} = \{\emptyset\} = \{\{\}\}$
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$
- Define $n + 1 \equiv n \cup \{n\}$ (successor function)
- Define *natural numbers* $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
 - \blacksquare Some books define $\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2,\ldots\}$ and $\mathbb{N}^+=\{1,2,3,\ldots\}.$

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (N)

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $1 \equiv \{0\} = \{\emptyset\} = \{\{\}\}$
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$
- Define $n + 1 \equiv n \cup \{n\}$ (successor function)
- Define *natural numbers* $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
 - Some books define $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$ and $\mathbb{N}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$.
 - It is more common to define \mathbb{N} to start with 1.

- Assume we know what a set is.
- Define $0 \equiv \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)
- Define $2 \equiv \{0,1\} = \{\{\},\{\{\}\}\}\}$
- Define $n + 1 \equiv n \cup \{n\}$ (successor function)
- Define *natural numbers* $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
 - \blacksquare Some books define $\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2,\ldots\}$ and $\mathbb{N}^+=\{1,2,3,\ldots\}.$
 - It is more common to define $\mathbb N$ to start with 1.
- Thus, n is defined to be a set containing n elements.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Historical note:

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Historical note:

• We have defined n to be a set containing n elements.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Historical note:

- We have defined n to be a set containing n elements.
- Logicians first tried to define *n* as "the set of all sets containing *n* elements".

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Historical note:

- We have defined n to be a set containing n elements.
- Logicians first tried to define n as "the set of all sets containing n elements".
- The earlier definition possibly better captures our intuitive notion of what *n* "really is", but such "sets" are unweildy and create serious challenges for development of mathematical foundations.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

■ Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

■ Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Note: we *define* " \leq " on natural numbers via " \subseteq " on sets.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Note: we *define* " \leq " on natural numbers via " \subseteq " on sets.

Addition and multiplication of natural numbers:

Still possible to define in terms of sets

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

■ Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Note: we *define* " \leq " on natural numbers via " \subseteq " on sets.

Addition and multiplication of natural numbers:

Still possible to define in terms of sets, but trickier.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Note: we *define* " \leq " on natural numbers via " \subseteq " on sets.

- Still possible to define in terms of sets, but trickier.
- We'll defer this for later

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Note: we *define* " \leq " on natural numbers via " \subseteq " on sets.

- Still possible to define in terms of sets, but trickier.
- We'll defer this for later, after gaining more experience with rigorous mathematical concepts.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Note: we *define* " \leq " on natural numbers via " \subseteq " on sets.

- Still possible to define in terms of sets, but trickier.
- We'll defer this for later, after gaining more experience with rigorous mathematical concepts.
- If you can't wait

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{N})

Order of natural numbers:

Natural numbers defined as above have the right order:

$$m \le n \iff m \subseteq n$$

Note: we *define* " \leq " on natural numbers via " \subseteq " on sets.

Addition and multiplication of natural numbers:

- Still possible to define in terms of sets, but trickier.
- We'll defer this for later, after gaining more experience with rigorous mathematical concepts.
- If you can't wait, see this free e-book:

"Transition to Higher Mathematics" http://openscholarship.wustl.edu/books/10/.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Z})

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Z})

Integers:

Need additive inverses for all natural numbers.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Z})

- Need additive inverses for all natural numbers.
- Need to define \cdot , +, -, for all pairs of integers.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Z})

- Need additive inverses for all natural numbers.
- Need to define \cdot , +, -, for all pairs of integers.
- Again, possible to define everything via set theory.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Z})

- Need additive inverses for all natural numbers.
- Need to define \cdot , +, -, for all pairs of integers.
- Again, possible to define everything via set theory.
- Again, we'll defer this for later.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Z})

Integers:

- Need additive inverses for all natural numbers.
- Need to define \cdot , +, -, for all pairs of integers.
- Again, possible to define everything via set theory.
- Again, we'll defer this for later.

For now, we'll assume we "know" what the naturals $\mathbb N$ and the integers $\mathbb Z$ "are".

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Z})

- Need additive inverses for all natural numbers.
- Need to define \cdot , +, -, for all pairs of integers.
- Again, possible to define everything via set theory.
- Again, we'll defer this for later.

- For now, we'll assume we "know" what the naturals $\mathbb N$ and the integers $\mathbb Z$ "are".
- We can then *construct* the rationals \mathbb{Q} ...

Properties of \mathbb{R} 14/75



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{Lecture 2} \\ \text{Properties of } \mathbb{R} \\ \text{Thursday 5 September 2019} \end{array}$

■ The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03

- The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03
- Click on Course information to download pdf file.

- The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03
- Click on Course information to download pdf file.
 - Read it!!

- The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03
- Click on Course information to download pdf file.
 - Read it!!
- Check the course web site regularly!

- The course web site: http://ms.mcmaster.ca/earn/3A03
- Click on Course information to download pdf file.
 - Read it!!
- Check the course web site regularly!
- Assignment 1: You should have received an e-mail from crowdmark. If not, please e-mail earn@math.mcmaster.ca ASAP stating your full name, student number, and when you registered in the course.

What we did last class



What we did last class

■ The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes"

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets.

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets. We will discuss this informally.

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets. We will discuss this informally. A more formal approach is taken in Math 4L03 (Mathematical Logic) or in this online e-book.

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets. We will discuss this informally. A more formal approach is taken in Math 4L03 (Mathematical Logic) or in this online e-book.
 - The naturals ($\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$) can be constructed from \emptyset

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets. We will discuss this informally. A more formal approach is taken in Math 4L03 (Mathematical Logic) or in this online e-book.
 - The naturals ($\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$) can be constructed from \emptyset : $0 = \emptyset$, $1 = \{0\}$, $2 = \{0, 1\}, \dots$, $n + 1 = n \cup \{n\}$.

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets. We will discuss this informally. A more formal approach is taken in Math 4L03 (Mathematical Logic) or in this online e-book.
 - The naturals ($\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$) can be constructed from \emptyset : $0 = \emptyset$, $1 = \{0\}$, $2 = \{0, 1\}, ..., n + 1 = n \cup \{n\}$.
 - The integers (\mathbb{Z}), and operations on them $(+, -, \cdot)$, can also be constructed from sets and set operations

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets. We will discuss this informally. A more formal approach is taken in Math 4L03 (Mathematical Logic) or in this online e-book.
 - The naturals ($\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$) can be constructed from \emptyset : $0 = \emptyset$, $1 = \{0\}$, $2 = \{0, 1\}, ..., n + 1 = n \cup \{n\}$.
 - The integers (\mathbb{Z}) , and operations on them $(+, -, \cdot)$, can also be constructed from sets and set operations (but we deferred that for later).

- The "Reals" (\mathbb{R}) are all the numbers that are needed to fill in the "number line" (so it has no "gaps" or "holes").
- The rationals (\mathbb{Q}) have "holes", e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- Numbers can be constructed using sets. We will discuss this informally. A more formal approach is taken in Math 4L03 (Mathematical Logic) or in this online e-book.
 - The naturals ($\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$) can be constructed from \emptyset : $0 = \emptyset$, $1 = \{0\}$, $2 = \{0, 1\}, \dots$, $n + 1 = n \cup \{n\}$.
 - The integers (\mathbb{Z}), and operations on them $(+, -, \cdot)$, can also be constructed from sets and set operations (but we deferred that for later).
 - lacksquare Given $\mathbb N$ and $\mathbb Z$, we can construct $\mathbb Q\dots$

Instructor: David Earn

Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php

- Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03, then Take Class Poll, then fill in the poll and Submit.

- Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03, then Take Class Poll, then fill in the poll and Submit.
- If you participate in the polls, you can earn bonus marks in your final grade in the course.

- Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03, then Take Class Poll, then fill in the poll and Submit.
- If you participate in the polls, you can earn bonus marks in your final grade in the course. Your final grade will be increased by 1%, 2% or 3% depending how much you participate. If you participate in

- Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03, then Take Class Poll, then fill in the poll and Submit.
- If you participate in the polls, you can earn bonus marks in your final grade in the course. Your final grade will be increased by 1%, 2% or 3% depending how much you participate. If you participate in
 - 75–89% of class polls \implies 1% bonus;

- Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03, then Take Class Poll, then fill in the poll and Submit.
- If you participate in the polls, you can earn bonus marks in your final grade in the course. Your final grade will be increased by 1%, 2% or 3% depending how much you participate. If you participate in
 - 75–89% of class polls \implies 1% bonus;
 - 90–94% of class polls \implies 2% bonus;

- Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03, then Take Class Poll, then fill in the poll and Submit.
- If you participate in the polls, you can earn bonus marks in your final grade in the course. Your final grade will be increased by 1%, 2% or 3% depending how much you participate. If you participate in
 - 75–89% of class polls \implies 1% bonus;
 - 90–94% of class polls \implies 2% bonus;
 - \geq 95% of class polls \implies 3% bonus.

- Class polls are administered online at https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03, then Take Class Poll, then fill in the poll and Submit.
- If you participate in the polls, you can earn bonus marks in your final grade in the course. Your final grade will be increased by 1%, 2% or 3% depending how much you participate. If you participate in
 - 75–89% of class polls \implies 1% bonus;
 - 90–94% of class polls \implies 2% bonus;
 - \geq 95% of class polls \implies 3% bonus.
- Note: Bonus marks are entirely for participation. There are no marks associated with getting the right answer if there is one.

Poll

- Go to https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll Lecture 2: Math Background
- Submit.

Rationals:

Instructor: David Earn

Rationals:

■ *Idea*: Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$

- *Idea*: Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Use notation $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.

- *Idea:* Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Use notation $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- Define equivalence of rational numbers:

- *Idea:* Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Use notation $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- Define equivalence of rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$$
 $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$

- *Idea:* Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Use notation $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- Define equivalence of rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad a \cdot d = b \cdot c$$

Rationals:

- *Idea:* Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Use notation $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- Define equivalence of rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$$
 $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$ $a \cdot d = b \cdot c$

Define order for rational numbers:

Rationals:

- *Idea*: Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Use notation $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- Define equivalence of rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$$
 $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$ $a \cdot d = b \cdot c$

Define order for rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} \leq \frac{c}{d} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$$

Rationals:

- *Idea:* Associate \mathbb{Q} with $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Use notation $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ if $(a,b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- Define equivalence of rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$$
 $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$ $a \cdot d = b \cdot c$

Define order for rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} \le \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \quad a \cdot d \le b \cdot c$$

Rationals, continued:

Instructor: David Earn

Rationals, continued:

■ Define operations on rational numbers:

Rationals, continued:

■ Define operations on rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$$

Rationals, continued:

■ Define operations on rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$

Instructor: David Earn

Rationals, continued:

■ Define operations on rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$
$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad$$

Rationals, continued:

■ Define operations on rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$

$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{a \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$$

Rationals, continued:

■ Define operations on rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$
$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{a \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$$

Constructed in this way (ultimately from the empty set),
 Q satisfies all the standard properties we associate with the rational numbers.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Q})

Rationals, continued:

Define operations on rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$
$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{a \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$$

- Constructed in this way (ultimately from the empty set),
 Q satisfies all the standard properties we associate with the rational numbers.
- Formally, $\mathbb Q$ is a set of equivalence classes of $\mathbb Z \times \mathbb N$.

Informal introduction to construction of numbers (\mathbb{Q})

Rationals, continued:

■ Define operations on rational numbers:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$
$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \frac{a \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$$

- Constructed in this way (ultimately from the empty set),
 Q satisfies all the standard properties we associate with the rational numbers.
- Formally, $\mathbb Q$ is a set of equivalence classes of $\mathbb Z \times \mathbb N$. Extra Challenge Problem: Are "+" and "·" well-defined on $\mathbb Q$?

Instructor: David Earn

Addition:

Instructor: David Earn

Addition:

⚠ Closed and commutative under addition.

Addition:

⚠ Closed and commutative under addition. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ and x + y = y + x.

Addition:

- ⚠ Closed and commutative under addition. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ and x + y = y + x.
- Associative under addition.

Addition:

- ⚠ Closed and commutative under addition. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ and x + y = y + x.
- lacktriangledown Associative under addition. For any $x,y,z\in\mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)+z=x+(y+z)$$

is true.

Addition:

- **⚠** Closed and commutative under addition. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ and x + y = y + x.
- Associative under addition. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)+z=x+(y+z)$$

is true.

Existence and uniqueness of additive identity.

Addition:

- **⚠** Closed and commutative under addition. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ and x + y = y + x.
- lacktriangleq Associative under addition. For any $x,y,z\in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)+z=x+(y+z)$$

is true.

Existence and uniqueness of additive identity. There is a unique number $0 \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that, for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$,

$$x + 0 = 0 + x = x$$
.

Addition:

- **⚠** Closed and commutative under addition. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ and x + y = y + x.
- lacktriangledown Associative under addition. For any $x,y,z\in\mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)+z=x+(y+z)$$

is true.

Existence and uniqueness of additive identity. There is a unique number $0 \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that, for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$,

$$x + 0 = 0 + x = x$$
.

A Existence of additive inverses.

Addition:

- **⚠** Closed and commutative under addition. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ and x + y = y + x.
- lacktriangleq Associative under addition. For any $x,y,z\in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)+z=x+(y+z)$$

is true.

Existence and uniqueness of additive identity. There is a unique number $0 \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that, for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$,

$$x + 0 = 0 + x = x$$
.

Existence of additive inverses. For any number $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a corresponding number denoted by -x with the property that

$$x + (-x) = 0.$$

Multiplication:

Instructor: David Earn

Multiplication:

M Closed and commutative under multiplication.

Multiplication:

M Closed and commutative under multiplication. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$ and xy = yx.

- M Closed and commutative under multiplication. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$ and xy = yx.
- M Associative under multiplication.

- M Closed and commutative under multiplication. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$ and xy = yx.
- M Associative under multiplication. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity (xy)z = x(yz) is true.

- M Closed and commutative under multiplication. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$ and xy = yx.
- M Associative under multiplication. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity (xy)z = x(yz) is true.
- M Existence and uniqueness of multiplicative identity.

- M Closed and commutative under multiplication. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$ and xy = yx.
- M Associative under multiplication. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity (xy)z = x(yz) is true.
- M Existence and uniqueness of multiplicative identity. There is a unique number $1 \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ such that, for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, x1 = 1x = x.

- M Closed and commutative under multiplication. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$ and xy = yx.
- M Associative under multiplication. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity (xy)z = x(yz) is true.
- M Existence and uniqueness of multiplicative identity. There is a unique number $1 \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ such that, for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, x1 = 1x = x.
- M Existence of multiplicative inverses.

- M Closed and commutative under multiplication. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a number $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$ and xy = yx.
- M Associative under multiplication. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity (xy)z = x(yz) is true.
- M Existence and uniqueness of multiplicative identity. There is a unique number $1 \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ such that, for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, x1 = 1x = x.
- M Existence of multiplicative inverses. For any non-zero number $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ there is a corresponding number denoted by x^{-1} with the property that $xx^{-1} = 1$.

Addition and multiplication together:

Addition and multiplication together:

M Distributive law.

Addition and multiplication together:

 $lacktright{\square}$ Distributive law. For any $x,y,z\in\mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)z = xz + yz$$

is true.

Addition and multiplication together:

 \triangle Distributive law. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)z = xz + yz$$

is true.

The 9 properties (A1–A4, M1–M4, AM1) make the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} a *field*.

Addition and multiplication together:

 \triangle Distributive law. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}$ the identity

$$(x+y)z = xz + yz$$

is true.

The 9 properties (A1–A4, M1–M4, AM1) make the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} a *field*.

<u>Note</u>: M3 ensures $0 \neq 1$ to exclude the uninteresting case of a field with only one element.

Instructor: David Earn

Quantifiers

Quantifiers

 \forall

Quantifiers

 \forall for all

Quantifiers

 \forall for all

=

Quantifiers

∀ for all

∃ there exists

Instructor: David Earn

Quantifiers

```
\forall for all
```

 \exists there exists

7

Quantifiers

```
\forall for all
```

 \exists there exists

there does not exist

Quantifiers

```
\forall for all
```

 \exists there exists

there does not exist

 $\exists !$

Quantifiers

```
\forall for all
```

 \exists there exists

there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Quantifiers

Logical operands

 \forall for all

 \exists there exists

∄ there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Quantifiers Logical operands

for all

∃ there exists

∄ there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Quantifiers

 \forall for all

 \exists there exists

there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Logical operands

∧ logical and

Quantifiers

 \forall for all

 \exists there exists

there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Logical operands

∧ logical and

 \vee

Quantifiers

 \forall for all

 \exists there exists

 \nexists there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Logical operands

\lambda logical and

∨ logical or

Quantifiers

 \forall for all

 \exists there exists

 \exists there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Logical operands

∧ logical and

∨ logical or

 \neg

Quantifiers

 \forall for all

 \exists there exists

there does not exist

 \exists ! there exists a unique

Logical operands

∧ logical and

∨ logical or

¬ logical not

Quantifiers		Logical operands	
\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	

Quantifiers		Logical operands	
\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Logical operands

Standard Mathematical Shorthand

Quantifiers

•		U	•
\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
∃	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

logical exclusive or

Standard Mathematical Shorthand

Quantifiers		Logical operands	
\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not

Note:
$$A \veebar B \equiv (A \lor B) \land (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$

there exists a unique

Other shorthand

∃!

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

Other shorthand

٠.

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \veebar B \equiv (A \lor B) \land (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$

Other shorthand

∴ therefore

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

Other shorthand

∴ therefore

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
∃	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

- : therefore
- such that

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \veebar B \equiv (A \lor B) \land (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$

Other shorthand

- : therefore
- such that

Ξ

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \veebar B \equiv (A \lor B) \land (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$

- : therefore
- such that
- ≡ equivalent

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \veebar B \equiv (A \lor B) \land (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$

- ∴ therefore :
- such that
- ≡ equivalent

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

- : therefore : because
- such that
- ≡ equivalent

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

- : therefore : because
- \Rightarrow such that \Leftarrow
- ≡ equivalent

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

- ≡ equivalent

Quantifiers

Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	\vee	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \subseteq B \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$$

Other shorthand

<i>:</i> .	therefore	::	because
)	such that	\iff	if and only if
=	equivalent	$\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$	

Instructor: David Earn

Quantifiers Logical operands

\forall	for all	\wedge	logical and
\exists	there exists	\vee	logical or
∄	there does not exist	\neg	logical not
∃!	there exists a unique	$\underline{\vee}$	logical exclusive or

Note:
$$A \veebar B \equiv (A \lor B) \land (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$

Other shorthand

	therefore	::	because
)	such that	\iff	if and only if
≡	eguivalent	$\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$	contradiction

Instructor: David Earn

Addition axioms

Instructor: David Earn

► Closed, commutative.
$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$$
, $\exists (x + y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x + y) = (y + x)$.

- \triangle Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x+y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x+y) =$ (y+x).
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z).

- \triangle Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x+y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x+y) =$ (y+x).
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z).
- **A** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} + \forall x \in \mathbb{F}$, x + 0 = 0 + x = x.

- \triangle Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x+y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x+y) =$ (y+x).
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z).
- **A** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} + \forall x \in \mathbb{F}$, x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- **A** Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F} +$ x + (-x) = 0.

Addition axioms

- **N** Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x + y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x + y) = (y + x)$.
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x+y)+z=x+(y+z).
- A Identity. $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} \) \ \forall x \in \mathbb{F},$ x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- Moreover Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F} + x + (-x) = 0$.

Addition axioms

- ✓ Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x + y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x + y) = (y + x)$.
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z).
- A Identity. $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} \) \ \forall x \in \mathbb{F},$ x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- Moreover Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F} + x + (-x) = 0$.

Multiplication axioms

M Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (xy) \in \mathbb{F} \land (xy) = (yx)$.

Addition axioms

- **△** Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x + y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x + y) = (y + x)$.
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x+y)+z=x+(y+z).
- **!** Identity. $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F}$ $+ \forall x \in \mathbb{F}$, x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- M Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \ \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F} + x + (-x) = 0.$

- M Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (xy) \in \mathbb{F} \land (xy) = (yx)$.
- M Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (xy)z = x(yz).

Addition axioms

- \triangle Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x+y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x+y) =$ (y+x).
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z).
- **A** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} + \forall x \in \mathbb{F}$, x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- **A** Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F}$ x + (-x) = 0.

- **M** Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (xy) \in \mathbb{F} \land (xy) = (yx).$
- **M** Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (xy)z = x(yz).
- **M** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 1 \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\} +$ $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}. \ x1 = 1x = x.$

Addition axioms

- \triangle Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x+y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x+y) =$ (y+x).
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z).
- **A** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} + \forall x \in \mathbb{F}$, x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- **M** Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F}$ x + (-x) = 0.

- **M** Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (xy) \in \mathbb{F} \land (xy) = (yx).$
- **M** Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (xy)z = x(yz).
- **M** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 1 \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\} +$ $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}. \ x1 = 1x = x.$
- **M** *Inverses.* $\forall x \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\}$, $\exists x^{-1} \in \mathbb{F} + xx^{-1} = 1.$

Addition axioms

- \triangle Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x+y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x+y) =$ (y+x).
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z).
- **A** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} + \forall x \in \mathbb{F}$, x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- **M** Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F}$ x + (-x) = 0.

Distribution axiom

- **M** Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (xy) \in \mathbb{F} \land (xy) = (yx).$
- **M** Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (xy)z = x(yz).
- **M** *Identity.* $\exists ! \ 1 \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\} +$ $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}. \ x1 = 1x = x.$
- **M** *Inverses.* $\forall x \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\}$, $\exists x^{-1} \in \mathbb{F} + xx^{-1} = 1.$

Addition axioms

- ✓ Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x + y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x + y) = (y + x)$.
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x+y)+z=x+(y+z).
- **!** Identity. $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F}$ + $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}$, x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- Moreover Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F}$ + x + (-x) = 0.

Multiplication axioms

- M Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (xy) \in \mathbb{F} \land (xy) = (yx)$.
- M Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (xy)z = x(yz).
- M Identity. $\exists ! \ 1 \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\} \$ $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \ x1 = 1x = x.$
- M Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\},\ \exists x^{-1} \in \mathbb{F} + xx^{-1} = 1.$

Distribution axiom

 \triangle Distribution. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x + y)z = xz + yz.

The field axioms (in mathematical shorthand) for field ${\mathbb F}$

Addition axioms

- **⚠** Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (x + y) \in \mathbb{F} \land (x + y) = (y + x)$.
- Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (x+y)+z=x+(y+z).
- A Identity. $\exists ! \ 0 \in \mathbb{F} \) \ \forall x \in \mathbb{F},$ x + 0 = 0 + x = x.
- M Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \ \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{F} + x + (-x) = 0$.

Multiplication axioms

- M Closed, commutative. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\exists (xy) \in \mathbb{F} \land (xy) = (yx)$.
- M Associative. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, (xy)z = x(yz).
- M Identity. $\exists ! \ 1 \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\} \$ $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, \ x1 = 1x = x.$
- M Inverses. $\forall x \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\},\ \exists x^{-1} \in \mathbb{F} + xx^{-1} = 1.$

Distribution axiom

 $lack Distribution. \ \forall x,y,z\in \mathbb{F},\ (x+y)z=xz+yz.$

Any collection \mathbb{F} of mathematical objects is called a *field* if it satisfies these 9 algebraic properties.

- Go to https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll **Lecture 2: Which are Fields?**
- Submit.

Instructor: David Earn

Imagine a clock that repeats after 3 hours rather than 12 hours.

Imagine a clock that repeats after 3 hours rather than 12 hours.

 \mathbb{Z}_3 contains the three elements $\{0,1,2\}$

Imagine a clock that repeats after 3 hours rather than 12 hours.

 \mathbb{Z}_3 contains the three elements $\{0,1,2\}$, with addition and multiplication defined as follows:

Imagine a clock that repeats after 3 hours rather than 12 hours.

 \mathbb{Z}_3 contains the three elements $\{0,1,2\},$ with addition and multiplication defined as follows:

Imagine a clock that repeats after 3 hours rather than 12 hours.

 \mathbb{Z}_3 contains the three elements $\{0,1,2\},$ with addition and multiplication defined as follows:

+	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2
2	0	2	1

Instructor: David Earn

Set Field? Why?

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})		

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})		

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses
reals (\mathbb{R})		

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
complexes (\mathbb{C})		

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
complexes (\mathbb{C})	YES	

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
complexes (\mathbb{C})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)		

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
complexes (\mathbb{C})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)	YES	

Set	Field?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
integers (\mathbb{Z})	NO	no multiplicative inverses
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
complexes (\mathbb{C})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)	YES	$2^{-1} = 2$

Instructor: David Earn

A field $\mathbb F$ is said to be *ordered* if the following properties hold:

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be **ordered** if the following properties hold:

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be **ordered** if the following properties hold:

Order axioms

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be *ordered* if the following properties hold:

Order axioms

O For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < y or y < x is true ("*trichotomy*")

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be *ordered* if the following properties hold:

Order axioms

To rany $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < y or y < x is true ("*trichotomy*"), *i.e.*,

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}, \ \left((x = y) \land \neg (x < y) \land \neg (y < x) \right) \lor \left((x \neq y) \land \left[(x < y) \lor (y < x) \right] \right)$$

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be *ordered* if the following properties hold:

- or For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < y or y < x is true ("trichotomy"), i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $((x = y) \land \neg(x < y) \land \neg(y < x)) \lor ((x \neq y) \land [(x < y) \lor (y < x)])$
- $oldsymbol{\circ}$ For any $x,y,z\in \mathbb{F}$, if x< y is true and y< z is true, then x< z is true

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be *ordered* if the following properties hold:

- or For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < y or y < x is true ("trichotomy"), i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $((x = y) \land \neg(x < y) \land \neg(y < x)) \lor ((x \neq y) \land [(x < y) \lor (y < x)])$
- For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true and y < z is true, then x < z is true, i.e., $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \land (y < z) \Longrightarrow (x < z)$

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be **ordered** if the following properties hold:

- or For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < y or y < x is true ("*trichotomy*"), *i.e.*, $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $((x = y) \land \neg (x < y) \land \neg (y < x)) \lor ((x \neq y) \land [(x < y) \lor (y < x)])$
- Of For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true and y < z is true, then x < z is true, i.e., $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \land (y < z) \Longrightarrow (x < z)$

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be *ordered* if the following properties hold:

- or For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < y or y < x is true ("trichotomy"), i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $((x = y) \land \neg(x < y) \land \neg(y < x)) \lor ((x \neq y) \land [(x < y) \lor (y < x)])$
- For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true and y < z is true, then x < z is true, i.e., $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \land (y < z) \Longrightarrow (x < z)$
- To rany $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true, then x + z < y + z is also true for any $z \in \mathbb{F}$, i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \implies x + z < y + z$, $\forall z \in \mathbb{F}$

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be **ordered** if the following properties hold:

- \bullet For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < yor v < x is true ("trichotomy"), i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}, \ \left((x = y) \land \neg (x < y) \land \neg (y < x) \right) \veebar \left((x \neq y) \land \left[(x < y) \veebar (y < x) \right] \right)$
- \bigcirc For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true and y < z is true, then X < Z is true, i.e., $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \land (y < z) \implies (x < z)$
- \bigcirc For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true, then x + z < y + z is also true for any $z \in \mathbb{F}$, i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \implies x + z < y + z$, $\forall z \in \mathbb{F}$
- ∇ For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true and z > 0 is true, then xz < yz is also true

A field \mathbb{F} is said to be **ordered** if the following properties hold:

- \bullet For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, exactly one of the statements x = y, x < yor v < x is true ("trichotomy"), i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}, \ \left((x = y) \land \neg (x < y) \land \neg (y < x) \right) \veebar \left((x \neq y) \land \left[(x < y) \veebar (y < x) \right] \right)$
- \bigcirc For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true and y < z is true, then X < Z is true, i.e., $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \land (y < z) \implies (x < z)$
- \bigcirc For any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true, then x + z < y + z is also true for any $z \in \mathbb{F}$, i.e., $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \implies x + z < y + z$, $\forall z \in \mathbb{F}$
- ∇ For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, if x < y is true and z > 0 is true, then xz < yz is also true, i.e., $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}$, $(x < y) \land (0 < z) \implies (xz < yz)$

- Go to https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll Lecture 2: Which are ORDERED Fields?
- Submit.

Examples of ordered fields

Ordered? Why? Field

Instructor: David Earn

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})		

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})		

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)		

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)	NO	

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)	NO	Next slide

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)	NO	Next slide
complexes (\mathbb{C})		

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)	NO	Next slide
complexes (\mathbb{C})	NO	

Field	Ordered?	Why?
rationals (\mathbb{Q})	YES	
reals (\mathbb{R})	YES	
integers modulo 3 (\mathbb{Z}_3)	NO	Next slide
complexes (\mathbb{C})	NO	
		Extra Challenge Problem: Prove the field \mathbb{C} cannot
		be ordered.

Instructor: David Earn

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach:

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

Instructor: David Earn

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then

Instructor: David Earn

Proposition Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0 < 1 or 1 < 0 (and not both).

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \not< 0$.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \not< 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0 + 1 < 1 + 1$,

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \not< 0$. Then $\bigcirc 3 \Longrightarrow 0 + 1 < 1 + 1$, i.e., 1 < 2.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose
$$0 < 1$$
 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0 + 1 < 1 + 1$, i.e., $1 < 2$. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) \Longrightarrow

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose
$$0 < 1$$
 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0 + 1 < 1 + 1$, i.e., $1 < 2$. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, *i.e.*, 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, i.e., 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, i.e., 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1, i.e., 1 < 0.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, i.e., 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1, i.e., 1 < 0. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, i.e., 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1, i.e., 1 < 0. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Now suppose 1 < 0.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, i.e., 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1, i.e., 1 < 0. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Now suppose 1 < 0. Similarly reach a contradiction

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, i.e., 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1, i.e., 1 < 0. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Now suppose 1 < 0. Similarly reach a contradiction (check!).

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0<1 or 1<0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0+1 < 1+1$, i.e., 1 < 2. $\therefore 02$ (transitivity) $\Longrightarrow 0 < 2$. Using 03 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1, i.e., 1 < 0. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Now suppose 1<0. Similarly reach a contradiction (check!). :. \mathbb{Z}_3 cannot be ordered.

Proposition

 \mathbb{Z}_3 is not an ordered field.

Proof.

Approach: proof by contradiction.

If \mathbb{Z}_3 is ordered, then O1 (trichotomy) implies that either 0 < 1 or 1 < 0 (and not both).

Suppose 0 < 1 and $1 \nleq 0$. Then $03 \Longrightarrow 0 + 1 < 1 + 1$, i.e., 1 < 2. \therefore O2 (transitivity) \implies 0 < 2. Using O3 again, we have 0+1 < 2+1, i.e., 1 < 0. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Now suppose 1 < 0. Similarly reach a contradiction (check!). \mathbb{Z}_3 cannot be ordered.

Food for thought: Is it possible for any finite field be ordered?

What other properties does \mathbb{R} have?

Instructor: David Earn

What other properties does \mathbb{R} have?

 \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is an ordered field.

What other properties does \mathbb{R} have?

- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is an ordered field.
- \mathbb{R} includes numbers that are not in \mathbb{Q} , e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.

What other properties does \mathbb{R} have?

- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is an ordered field.
- \mathbb{R} includes numbers that are not in \mathbb{Q} , e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- lacktriangle What additional properties does $\mathbb R$ have?

What other properties does \mathbb{R} have?

- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is an ordered field.
- \mathbb{R} includes numbers that are not in \mathbb{Q} , e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- What additional properties does \mathbb{R} have?
- \blacksquare Only one more property is required to fully characterize $\mathbb{R}.\ .\ .$

What other properties does \mathbb{R} have?

- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is an ordered field.
- \mathbb{R} includes numbers that are not in \mathbb{Q} , e.g., $\sqrt{2}$.
- What additional properties does \mathbb{R} have?
- Only one more property is required to fully characterize \mathbb{R} ... It is related to *upper and lower bounds*...



Mathematics and Statistics

34/75

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{Lecture 3} \\ \text{Properties of } \mathbb{R} \text{ II} \\ \text{Friday 6 September 2019} \end{array}$

The William Lowell Putnam competition is a university-level mathematics competition held annually for undergraduate students at North American universities. It is organized by the Mathematical Association of America and is taken by over 4,000 participants at more than 500 colleges and universities. More information can be found at

```
https://www.math.mcmaster.ca/undergraduate/
undergrad-welcome.html
```

Follow the Putnam competition link under "Useful Links" at the bottom of the page.

■ The William Lowell Putnam competition is a university-level mathematics competition held annually for undergraduate students at North American universities. It is organized by the Mathematical Association of America and is taken by over 4,000 participants at more than 500 colleges and universities. More information can be found at

```
https://www.math.mcmaster.ca/undergraduate/
undergrad-welcome.html
```

Follow the Putnam competition link under "Useful Links" at the bottom of the page.

This year's competition will occur on Saturday Dec. 7. If you are interested in participating or learning more, send email to David Earn, earn@math.mcmaster.ca or Bradd Hart, hartb@mcmaster.ca.

■ The William Lowell Putnam competition is a university-level mathematics competition held annually for undergraduate students at North American universities. It is organized by the Mathematical Association of America and is taken by over 4,000 participants at more than 500 colleges and universities. More information can be found at

```
https://www.math.mcmaster.ca/undergraduate/
undergrad-welcome.html
```

Follow the Putnam competition link under "Useful Links" at the bottom of the page.

This year's competition will occur on Saturday Dec. 7. If you are interested in participating or learning more, send email to David Earn, earn@math.mcmaster.ca or Bradd Hart, hartb@mcmaster.ca. In your e-mail please state what program and year you are in.

■ The William Lowell Putnam competition is a university-level mathematics competition held annually for undergraduate students at North American universities. It is organized by the Mathematical Association of America and is taken by over 4,000 participants at more than 500 colleges and universities. More information can be found at

```
https://www.math.mcmaster.ca/undergraduate/
undergrad-welcome.html
```

Follow the Putnam competition link under "Useful Links" at the bottom of the page.

- This year's competition will occur on Saturday Dec. 7. If you are interested in participating or learning more, send email to David Earn, earn@math.mcmaster.ca or Bradd Hart, hartb@mcmaster.ca. In your e-mail please state what program and year you are in.
- There will be an information session **Thursday**, Sept. 12 at 11:30am in HH-312.

■ My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm—3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).

- My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm—3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).
- Tutorials start next week.

- My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm-3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).
- Tutorials start next week.
- No claim is being made that the field axioms as stated are absolutely minimal (i.e., that there are no redundancies). In fact, we don't need to assume:

- My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm-3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).
- Tutorials start next week.
- No claim is being made that the field axioms as stated are absolutely minimal (i.e., that there are no redundancies). In fact, we don't need to assume:
 - Identities are unique.

- My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm—3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).
- Tutorials start next week.
- No claim is being made that the field axioms as stated are absolutely minimal (i.e., that there are no redundancies). In fact, we don't need to assume:
 - Identities are unique.
 - Inverses are unique.

- My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm—3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).
- Tutorials start next week.
- No claim is being made that the field axioms as stated are absolutely minimal (i.e., that there are no redundancies). In fact, we don't need to assume:
 - Identities are unique.
 - Inverses are unique.
 - Commutivity under addition

- My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm—3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).
- Tutorials start next week.
- No claim is being made that the field axioms as stated are absolutely minimal (i.e., that there are no redundancies). In fact, we don't need to assume:
 - Identities are unique.
 - Inverses are unique.
 - Commutivity under addition (!).

- My office hours are on Mondays 2:30pm—3:20pm or by appointment (if you have a conflict on Mondays at 2:30).
- Tutorials start next week.
- No claim is being made that the field axioms as stated are absolutely minimal (i.e., that there are no redundancies). In fact, we don't need to assume:
 - Identities are unique.
 - Inverses are unique.
 - Commutivity under addition (!).

Usually a slightly redundant set of axioms is stated to emphasize all the key properties.

■ The property that completes the specification of \mathbb{R} has to somehow fill in <u>all</u> the "holes" in \mathbb{Q} .

- The property that completes the specification of \mathbb{R} has to somehow fill in <u>all</u> the "holes" in \mathbb{Q} .
- It is true that if $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ then $\exists r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ with x < r < y.

- The property that completes the specification of \mathbb{R} has to somehow fill in <u>all</u> the "holes" in \mathbb{Q} .
- It is true that if $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ then $\exists r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ with x < r < y. But this property is <u>not</u> sufficient to characterize \mathbb{R} , because it is satisfied by subsets of \mathbb{R} .

- The property that completes the specification of \mathbb{R} has to somehow fill in <u>all</u> the "holes" in \mathbb{Q} .
- It is true that if $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ then $\exists r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ with x < r < y. But this property is <u>not</u> sufficient to characterize \mathbb{R} , because it is satisfied by subsets of \mathbb{R} .
- To prove that \mathbb{C} is not an ordered field, it is <u>not</u> sufficient to prove that the standard order on \mathbb{R} cannot be extended to \mathbb{C} .

- The property that completes the specification of \mathbb{R} has to somehow fill in all the "holes" in \mathbb{Q} .
- It is true that if $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ then $\exists r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ with x < r < y. But this property is <u>not</u> sufficient to characterize \mathbb{R} , because it is satisfied by subsets of \mathbb{R} .
- To prove that $\mathbb C$ is not an ordered field, it is <u>not</u> sufficient to prove that the standard order on $\mathbb R$ cannot be extended to $\mathbb C$. You must show that it is not possible to define *any* order on $\mathbb C$ that makes it an ordered field.

Some "Logic Notes" are posted on the Tutorials page of the course web site.

- Some "Logic Notes" are posted on the Tutorials page of the course web site.
- A sequence of 15 short (3–7 minute) videos covering the very basics of mathematical logic and theorem proving has been posted associated with a course at the University of Toronto:

- Some "Logic Notes" are posted on the Tutorials page of the course web site.
- A sequence of 15 short (3–7 minute) videos covering the very basics of mathematical logic and theorem proving has been posted associated with a course at the University of Toronto:
 - Go to http://uoft.me/MAT137, click on the *Videos* tab and then on *Playlist 1*.

- Some "Logic Notes" are posted on the Tutorials page of the course web site.
- A sequence of 15 short (3–7 minute) videos covering the very basics of mathematical logic and theorem proving has been posted associated with a course at the University of Toronto:
 - Go to http://uoft.me/MAT137, click on the *Videos* tab and then on *Playlist 1*.
 - These videos go at a slower pace than we do, and may be very helpful to you to get your head around the idea of a rigorous mathematical proof.

Instructor: David Earn

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if x < M for all $x \in E$.

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if $x \le M$ for all $x \in E$.

A set that has an upper bound is said to be bounded above.

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if $x \le M$ for all $x \in E$.

A set that has an upper bound is said to be **bounded above**.

Definition (Lower Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if $x \le M$ for all $x \in E$.

A set that has an upper bound is said to be **bounded above**.

Definition (Lower Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be a *lower bound* for E if

Bounds

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if x < M for all $x \in E$.

A set that has an upper bound is said to be **bounded above**.

Definition (Lower Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be a *lower bound* for E if m < x for all $x \in E$.

Bounds

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if x < M for all $x \in E$.

A set that has an upper bound is said to be **bounded above**.

Definition (Lower Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be a *lower bound* for E if $m \le x$ for all $x \in E$.

A set that has a lower bound is said to be **bounded below**.

Definition (Upper Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be an *upper bound* for E if x < M for all $x \in E$.

A set that has an upper bound is said to be **bounded above**.

Definition (Lower Bound)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be a *lower bound* for E if m < x for all $x \in E$.

A set that has a lower bound is said to be **bounded below**.

A set that is bounded above and below is said to be **bounded**.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an upper bound for E and

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an upper bound for E and $M \in E$.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an upper bound for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an upper bound for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Minimum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an **upper bound** for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Minimum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be **the minimum** of E if

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an upper bound for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Minimum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be **the minimum** of E if m is a lower bound for E and

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an **upper bound** for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Minimum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be **the minimum** of E if m is a lower bound for E and $m \in E$.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an upper bound for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Minimum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be **the minimum** of E if m is a lower bound for E and $m \in E$. If such an m exists we write $m = \min E$.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an **upper bound** for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Minimum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be **the minimum** of E if m is a lower bound for E and $m \in E$. If such an m exists we write $m = \min E$.

We refer to "the" maximum and "the" minimum of *E* because there cannot be more than one of each.

Definition (Maximum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number M is said to be **the maximum** of E if M is an **upper bound** for E and $M \in E$. If such an M exists we write $M = \max E$.

Definition (Minimum)

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number m is said to be **the minimum** of E if m is a lower bound for E and $m \in E$. If such an m exists we write $m = \min E$.

We refer to "the" maximum and "the" minimum of *E* because there cannot be more than one of each. (*Proof?*)

Poll

- Go to https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll Lecture 3: bounded sets
- Submit.

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	

Evample

Lxample					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]					

I	Example						
	Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
	[-1, 1]	YES					

E	Example						
	Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
	[-1,1]	YES	YES				

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES		

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1, 1)						

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1, 1)	YES					

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1,1)	YES	YES				

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES			

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄	
$[-1,\infty)$		'	'	'	'	

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄	
$[-1,\infty)$	YES					

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄	
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO				

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄	
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO			

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄	
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄	

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac14)\cup (rac12,1]$					"

Instructor: David Earn

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES				

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,- frac14)\cup(frac12,1]$	YES	YES			

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES		•

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	

Example						
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max	
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄	
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄	
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1	

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
\mathbb{N}	'		•	'	

Instructor: David Earn

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES				

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,- frac14)\cup(frac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO			

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
\mathbb{N}	YES	NO	NO		

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1, 1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,- frac14)\cup(frac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∌
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}					

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac14)\cup (rac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO				
	•				

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac14)\cup \left(rac12,1 ight]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO			

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac14)\cup (rac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
\mathbb{N}	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO		
	•		•		

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,- frac14)\cup(frac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,- frac14)\cup (frac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
\mathbb{N}	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	∄

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac14)\cup (rac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	∄
Ø					

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,- frac14)\cup(frac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
\mathbb{N}	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	∄
Ø	YES				

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1, 1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	∄
Ø	YES	YES			

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac14)\cup (rac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	∄
Ø	YES	YES	YES		

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,-rac{1}{4}) \cup (rac{1}{2},1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
\mathbb{N}	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	∄
Ø	YES	YES	YES	∄	

Example					
Set	bounded below	bounded above	bounded	min	max
[-1,1]	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
[-1,1)	YES	YES	YES	-1	∄
$[-1,\infty)$	YES	NO	NO	-1	∄
$[-1,- frac14)\cup(frac12,1]$	YES	YES	YES	-1	1
N	YES	NO	NO	1	∄
\mathbb{R}	NO	NO	NO	∄	∄
Ø	YES	YES	YES	∄	∄

Instructor: David Earn

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

A number M is said to be the *least upper bound* or *supremum* of a set E if

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

A number M is said to be the **least upper bound** or **supremum** of a set E if

M is an upper bound of E, and

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

A number M is said to be the **least upper bound** or **supremum** of a set E if

- M is an upper bound of E, and
- (ii) if \widetilde{M} is an upper bound of E then $M \leq \widetilde{M}$.

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

A number M is said to be the **least upper bound** or **supremum** of a set E if

- M is an upper bound of E, and
- $\widetilde{\mathbf{m}}$ if \widetilde{M} is an upper bound of E then $M \leq \widetilde{M}$.

If M is the least upper bound of E then we write $M = \sup E$.

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

A number M is said to be the **least upper bound** or **supremum** of a set E if

- M is an upper bound of E, and

If M is the least upper bound of E then we write $M = \sup E$.

Note: We can refer to "the" least upper bound of *E* because there cannot be more than one.

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

A number M is said to be the **least upper bound** or **supremum** of a set E if

- M is an upper bound of E, and
- if M is an upper bound of E then $M \leq M$.

If M is the least upper bound of E then we write $M = \sup E$.

Note: We can refer to "the" least upper bound of *E* because there cannot be more than one. (Proof?)

Definition (Least Upper Bound/Supremum)

A number M is said to be the **least upper bound** or **supremum** of a set E if

- M is an upper bound of E, and
- $\widetilde{\mathbf{m}}$ if \widetilde{M} is an upper bound of E then $M \leq \widetilde{M}$.

If M is the least upper bound of E then we write $M = \sup E$.

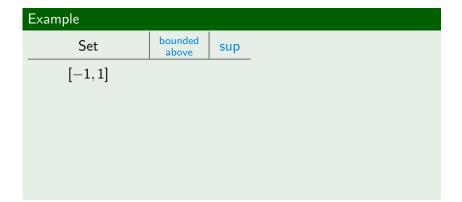
<u>Note</u>: We can refer to "the" least upper bound of E because there cannot be more than one. (Proof?)

What sets have least upper bounds?

Instructor: David Earn



Example		
Set	bounded above	sup



Example		
Set	bounded above	sup
[-1, 1]	YES	
	'	

Example		
Set	bounded above	sup
[-1, 1]	YES	1

Example		
Set	bounded above	sup
[-1, 1]	YES	1
[-1,1)		

Example		
Set	bounded above	sup
[-1, 1]	YES	1
[-1,1)	YES	

Example		
Set	bounded above	sup
[-1, 1]	YES	1
[-1, 1)	YES	1

Example		
Set	bounded above	sup
[-1,1]	YES	1
[-1,1)	YES	1
Ø	•	

Example				
Set	bounded above	sup		
[-1,1]	YES	1		
[-1, 1)	YES	1		
Ø	YES			

Example			
Set	bounded above	sup	
[-1, 1]	YES	1	
[-1, 1)	YES	1	
Ø	YES	∄	
$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 < 2\}$	'		

Example				
Set	bounded above	sup		
[-1, 1]	YES	1		
[-1,1)	YES	1		
Ø	YES	∄		
$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 < 2\}$	YES	•		
	1			

Example			
Set	bounded above	sup	
[-1,1]	YES	1	
[-1,1)	YES	1	
Ø	YES	#	
$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 < 2\}$	YES	$\sqrt{2}$	

Example					
Set	bounded above	sup			
[-1,1]	YES	1			
[-1,1)	YES	1			
Ø	YES	∄			
$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 < 2\}$	YES	$\sqrt{2}$			
$\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\}$					

Example			
Set	bounded above	sup	
[-1,1]	YES	1	
[-1,1)	YES	1	
Ø	YES	#	
$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 < 2\}$	YES	$\sqrt{2}$	
$\{x\in\mathbb{Q}:x^2<2\}$	YES		

Example			
Set	bounded above	sup	
[-1,1]	YES	1	
[-1, 1)	YES	1	
Ø	YES	∄	
$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 < 2\}$	YES	$\sqrt{2}$	
$\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\}$	YES	$\notin \mathbb{Q}$	

The property that any set that is bounded above has a least upper bound is what distinguishes the real numbers $\mathbb R$ from the rational numbers $\mathbb Q$.

The property that any set that is bounded above has a least upper bound is what distinguishes the real numbers \mathbb{R} from the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} .

Does this realization allow us to finish constructing \mathbb{R} ?

The property that any set that is bounded above has a least upper bound is what distinguishes the real numbers \mathbb{R} from the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} .

Does this realization allow us to finish constructing \mathbb{R} ?

YES, but we will delay the construction until later in the course.

The property that any set that is bounded above has a least upper bound is what distinguishes the real numbers $\mathbb R$ from the rational numbers $\mathbb Q$.

Does this realization allow us to finish constructing \mathbb{R} ?

YES, but we will delay the construction until later in the course.

For now, we will simply annoint the least upper bound property as an axiom:

The property that any set that is bounded above has a least upper bound is what distinguishes the real numbers $\mathbb R$ from the rational numbers $\mathbb Q$.

Does this realization allow us to finish constructing \mathbb{R} ?

YES, but we will delay the construction until later in the course.

For now, we will simply annoint the least upper bound property as an axiom:

Completeness Axiom

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded above, then E has a least upper bound

The property that any set that is bounded above has a least upper bound is what distinguishes the real numbers $\mathbb R$ from the rational numbers $\mathbb Q$.

Does this realization allow us to finish constructing \mathbb{R} ?

YES, but we will delay the construction until later in the course.

For now, we will simply annoint the least upper bound property as an axiom:

Completeness Axiom

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded above, then E has a least upper bound (i.e., $\sup E$ exists and $\sup E \in \mathbb{R}$).

■ Any field F that satisfies the order axioms and the completeness axiom is said to be a complete ordered field.

- Any field F that satisfies the order axioms and the completeness axiom is said to be a complete ordered field.
- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is a complete ordered field.

- Any field F that satisfies the order axioms and the completeness axiom is said to be a complete ordered field.
- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is a complete ordered field.
- Are there any other complete ordered fields?

- Any field F that satisfies the order axioms and the completeness axiom is said to be a complete ordered field.
- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} is a complete ordered field.
- Are there any other complete ordered fields?
- **Extra Challenge Problem:** Prove that \mathbb{R} is the <u>only</u> complete ordered field.

Definition (Greatest Lower Bound/Infimum)

Definition (Greatest Lower Bound/Infimum)

A number *m* is said to be the *greatest lower bound* or *infimum* of a set *E* if

Definition (Greatest Lower Bound/Infimum)

A number m is said to be the **greatest lower bound** or **infimum** of a set E if

m is a lower bound of E, and

Definition (Greatest Lower Bound/Infimum)

A number m is said to be the **greatest lower bound** or **infimum** of a set E if

- (i) m is a lower bound of E, and
- (ii) if \widetilde{m} is a lower bound of E then $\widetilde{m} \leq m$.

Definition (Greatest Lower Bound/Infimum)

A number *m* is said to be the *greatest lower bound* or *infimum* of a set *E* if

- (i) m is a lower bound of E, and
- (ii) if \widetilde{m} is a lower bound of E then $\widetilde{m} \leq m$.

If m is the greatest lower bound of E then we write $m = \inf E$.

■ The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.

- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound

- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof?

- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof?

Idea of proof:

- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof?

Idea of proof:

 $E \subset \mathbb{R}$



- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

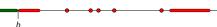
Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof?

Idea of proof:

 $E \subset \mathbb{R}$



- The existence of least upper bounds was taken as an axiom.
- The existence of greatest lower bounds then follows.

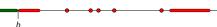
Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof?

Idea of proof:

 $E \subset \mathbb{R}$



Instructor: David Earn

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

 $L \neq \emptyset$

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

■ *L* ≠ ∅ (∵

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

■ $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- *L* is bounded above (∵

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- *L* is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above ($\because x \in E \implies x$ an upper bound for L).
- ∴ L has a least upper bound

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above ($\because x \in E \implies x$ an upper bound for L).
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above ($\because x \in E \implies x$ an upper bound for L).
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above ($\because x \in E \implies x$ an upper bound for L).
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- *L* is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (i.e., $x \in E \implies b \le x$).

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above ($\because x \in E \implies x$ an upper bound for L).
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (i.e., $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \nleq x$;

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (i.e., $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (i.e., $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (i.e., $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x. Now $b = \sup L$ and x < b, so

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (i.e., $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x. Now $b = \sup L$ and x < b, so x is not an upper bound of L

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (*i.e.*, $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x. Now $b = \sup L$ and x < b, so x is not an upper bound of L, *i.e.*, there is some $\ell \in L$ such that $x < \ell$.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (*i.e.*, $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x. Now $b = \sup L$ and x < b, so x is not an upper bound of L, *i.e.*, there is some $\ell \in L$ such that $x < \ell$. But then ℓ is not a lower bound of E.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above ($\because x \in E \implies x$ an upper bound for L).
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (*i.e.*, $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x. Now $b = \sup L$ and x < b, so x is not an upper bound of L, *i.e.*, there is some $\ell \in L$ such that $x < \ell$. But then ℓ is not a lower bound of E. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- *L* is bounded above $(\because x \in E \implies x \text{ an upper bound for } L)$.
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (*i.e.*, $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x. Now $b = \sup L$ and x < b, so x is not an upper bound of L, *i.e.*, there is some $\ell \in L$ such that $x < \ell$. But then ℓ is not a lower bound of E. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow \therefore b \in L$ and b is also max L

Theorem

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$, and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound (i.e., inf E exists and inf $E \in \mathbb{R}$).

Proof.

Recall graphical idea of proof.

Let $L = \{\ell \in \mathbb{R} : \ell \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. Then:

- $L \neq \emptyset$ (: E is bounded below).
- L is bounded above ($\because x \in E \implies x$ an upper bound for L).
- ∴ L has a least upper bound, say $b = \sup L$.

Now show $b = \inf E$. First show $b \in L$ (*i.e.*, $x \in E \implies b \le x$). Suppose $x \in E$ and $b \not\le x$; then by O1 (trichotomy), we must have b > x. Now $b = \sup L$ and x < b, so x is not an upper bound of L, *i.e.*, there is some $\ell \in L$ such that $x < \ell$. But then ℓ is not a lower bound of E. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow \therefore b \in L$ and b is also max L, *i.e.*, $b = \inf E$. \square

Comment on least upper bounds and greatest lower bounds

Instructor: David Earn

Comment on least upper bounds and greatest lower bounds

■ The proof above shows that:

inf
$$E = \sup\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$$

Comment on least upper bounds and greatest lower bounds

■ The proof above shows that:

$$\inf E = \sup \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$$

Similarly:

$$\sup E = \inf \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : x \text{ is a upper bound of } E \}$$

$$\inf \mathbb{R} =$$

$$\inf \mathbb{R} = -\infty$$

$$\inf \mathbb{R} = -\infty$$

$$\sup \mathbb{R} =$$

$$\inf \mathbb{R} \quad = \quad -\infty$$

$$\sup \mathbb{R} \quad = \quad \infty$$

$$\inf \mathbb{R} = -\infty$$

$$\sup \mathbb{R} = \infty$$

$$\inf \varnothing = \infty$$

$$\inf \mathbb{R} = -\infty$$

$$\sup \mathbb{R} = \infty$$

$$\inf \emptyset = \infty$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \inf \mathbb{R} & = & -\infty \\ \sup \mathbb{R} & = & \infty \\ \inf \varnothing & = & \infty \\ \sup \varnothing & = & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \inf \mathbb{R} & = & -\infty \\ \sup \mathbb{R} & = & \infty \\ \inf \varnothing & = & \infty \\ \sup \varnothing & = & -\infty \end{array}$$

By convention, for convenience, we (and your textbook) sometimes write:

$$\inf \mathbb{R} = -\infty$$

$$\sup \mathbb{R} = \infty$$

$$\inf \emptyset = \infty$$

$$\sup \emptyset = -\infty$$

This is an **abuse of notation**, since \emptyset and \mathbb{R} do not have least upper or greatest lower bounds in \mathbb{R} .

By convention, for convenience, we (and your textbook) sometimes write:

$$\inf \mathbb{R} = -\infty$$

$$\sup \mathbb{R} = \infty$$

$$\inf \emptyset = \infty$$

$$\sup \emptyset = -\infty$$

This is an **abuse of notation**, since \emptyset and \mathbb{R} do not have least upper or greatest lower bounds in \mathbb{R} . ∞ is not a real number.

By convention, for convenience, we (and your textbook) sometimes write:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \inf \mathbb{R} & = & -\infty \\ \sup \mathbb{R} & = & \infty \\ \inf \varnothing & = & \infty \\ \sup \varnothing & = & -\infty \end{array}$$

This is an **abuse of notation**, since \emptyset and \mathbb{R} do not have least upper or greatest lower bounds in \mathbb{R} . ∞ is <u>not</u> a real number.

If you are asked "What is the least upper bound of \mathbb{R} ?" should you answer?

By convention, for convenience, we (and your textbook) sometimes write:

$$\inf \mathbb{R} = -\infty$$

$$\sup \mathbb{R} = \infty$$

$$\inf \emptyset = \infty$$

$$\sup \emptyset = -\infty$$

This is an **abuse of notation**, since \emptyset and \mathbb{R} do not have least upper or greatest lower bounds in \mathbb{R} . ∞ is not a real number.

If you are asked "What is the least upper bound of \mathbb{R} ?" should you answer? Correct answer:

By convention, for convenience, we (and your textbook) sometimes write:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \inf \mathbb{R} & = & -\infty \\ \sup \mathbb{R} & = & \infty \\ \inf \varnothing & = & \infty \\ \sup \varnothing & = & -\infty \end{array}$$

This is an **abuse of notation**, since \emptyset and \mathbb{R} do not have least upper or greatest lower bounds in \mathbb{R} . ∞ is not a real number.

If you are asked "What is the least upper bound of \mathbb{R} ?" should you answer?

Correct answer: " \mathbb{R} is not bounded above so it does not have a least upper bound."

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose \mathbb{N} is bounded above.

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose $\mathbb N$ is bounded above. Then it has a least upper bound, say $B = \sup \mathbb N$.

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose $\mathbb N$ is bounded above. Then it has a least upper bound, say $B=\sup \mathbb N$. Thus, for all $n\in \mathbb N$, $n\leq B$.

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose $\mathbb N$ is bounded above. Then it has a least upper bound, say $B=\sup\mathbb N$. Thus, for all $n\in\mathbb N$, $n\leq B$. But if $n\in\mathbb N$ then $n+1\in\mathbb N$,

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose $\mathbb N$ is bounded above. Then it has a least upper bound, say $B=\sup\mathbb N$. Thus, for all $n\in\mathbb N$, $n\leq B$. But if $n\in\mathbb N$ then $n+1\in\mathbb N$, hence $n+1\leq B$ for all $n\in\mathbb N$,

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose $\mathbb N$ is bounded above. Then it has a least upper bound, say $B=\sup\mathbb N$. Thus, for all $n\in\mathbb N$, $n\leq B$. But if $n\in\mathbb N$ then $n+1\in\mathbb N$, hence $n+1\leq B$ for all $n\in\mathbb N$, i.e., $n\leq B-1$ for all $n\in\mathbb N$.

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose $\mathbb N$ is bounded above. Then it has a least upper bound, say $B=\sup \mathbb N$. Thus, for all $n\in \mathbb N$, $n\leq B$. But if $n\in \mathbb N$ then $n+1\in \mathbb N$, hence $n+1\leq B$ for all $n\in \mathbb N$, i.e., $n\leq B-1$ for all $n\in \mathbb N$. Thus, B-1 is an upper bound for $\mathbb N$,

Theorem (Archimedean property)

The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Proof.

Suppose $\mathbb N$ is bounded above. Then it has a least upper bound, say $B=\sup\mathbb N$. Thus, for all $n\in\mathbb N$, $n\leq B$. But if $n\in\mathbb N$ then $n+1\in\mathbb N$, hence $n+1\leq B$ for all $n\in\mathbb N$, i.e., $n\leq B-1$ for all $n\in\mathbb N$. Thus, B-1 is an upper bound for $\mathbb N$, contradicting B being the <u>least</u> upper bound.

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

1 The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

- 11 The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.
- **2** Given any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that n > x.

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

- **I** The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.
- **2** Given any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that n > x.

i.e., No matter how large a real number x is, there is always a natural number n that is larger.

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

- **1** The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.
- **2** Given any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that n > x.

i.e., No matter how large a real number x is, there is always a natural number n that is larger.

3 Given any x > 0 and y > 0, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nx > y.

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

- **1** The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.
- **2** Given any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that n > x.

i.e., No matter how large a real number x is, there is always a natural number n that is larger.

- **3** Given any x > 0 and y > 0, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nx > y.
 - i.e., Given any positive number y, no matter how large, and any positive number x, no matter how small, one can add x to itself sufficiently many times so that the result exceeds y (i.e., nx > y for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$).

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

- **1** The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.
- **2** Given any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that n > x.

i.e., No matter how large a real number x is, there is always a natural number n that is larger.

- **3** Given any x > 0 and y > 0, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nx > y.
 - i.e., Given any positive number y, no matter how large, and any positive number x, no matter how small, one can add x to itself sufficiently many times so that the result exceeds y (i.e., nx > y for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$).
- **4** Given any x > 0, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{n} < x$.

Theorem (Equivalences of the Archimedean property)

- **1** The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} has no upper bound.
- **2** Given any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that n > x.

i.e., No matter how large a real number x is, there is always a natural number n that is larger.

- **3** Given any x > 0 and y > 0, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nx > y.
 - i.e., Given any positive number y, no matter how large, and any positive number x, no matter how small, one can add x to itself sufficiently many times so that the result exceeds y (i.e., nx > y for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$).
- **4** Given any x > 0, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{n} < x$.

i.e., Given any positive number x, no matter how small, one can always find a fraction 1/n that is smaller than x.



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 4 Properties of $\mathbb R$ III Tuesday 10 September 2019

Comments arising...

Comments arising. . .

■ TA Math Help Centre hours are now listed on course information sheet.

Comments arising. . .

- TA Math Help Centre hours are now listed on course information sheet.
- Remember Assignment 1 is due Tuesday 17 Sep 2019 @ 2:25pm via crowdmark.

Comments arising. . .

- TA Math Help Centre hours are now listed on course information sheet.
- Remember Assignment 1 is due Tuesday 17 Sep 2019 @ 2:25pm via crowdmark.
- Last time we ended with some equivalent conditions relating \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{N} .

Poll

- Go to https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll **Lecture 4: Theorem or Axiom?**
- Submit.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb N$ has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0),

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}).

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb N$ has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb N$ has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb N$ has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b + 1

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b)

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$).

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S,

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$).

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$). $\therefore \exists m \in S \cap (b, n)$.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$). $\therefore \exists m \in S \cap (b, n)$. But we now have b < m < n < b+1,

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$). $\therefore \exists m \in S \cap (b, n)$. But we now have b < m < n < b+1, which is impossible because

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$). $\therefore \exists m \in S \cap (b, n)$. But we now have b < m < n < b+1, which is impossible because m and n are both integers.

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$). $\therefore \exists m \in S \cap (b, n)$. But we now have b < m < n < b+1, which is impossible because m and n are both integers. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$). $\therefore \exists m \in S \cap (b, n)$. But we now have b < m < n < b+1, which is impossible because m and n are both integers. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ Therefore $b \in S$,

Theorem (Well-Ordering Property)

Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

Proof.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, $S \neq \emptyset$. Then S is a non-empty set of real numbers that is bounded below (for instance by 0), and hence has a greatest lower bound (in \mathbb{R}). Let $b = \inf S$. If $b \in S$ then $b = \min S$ and we are done.

Suppose $b \notin S$. Then $\exists n \in S$ such that n < b+1 (otherwise b+1 would be a lower bound for S that is greater than b) and, moreover, n > b (since $b \notin S$). $\therefore n \in S \cap (b, b+1)$. But just as b+1 cannot be a lower bound for S, n cannot be a lower bound for S (since it too would be a lower bound greater than $b = \inf S$). $\therefore \exists m \in S \cap (b, n)$. But we now have b < m < n < b+1, which is impossible because m and n are both integers. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ Therefore $b \in S$, so $b = \min S$.

Corollary

Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb Z$ that is bounded below (in $\mathbb R$) has a smallest element.

Corollary

Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb Z$ that is bounded below (in $\mathbb R$) has a smallest element.

Proof.

Corollary

Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb Z$ that is bounded below (in $\mathbb R$) has a smallest element.

Proof.

The proof is identical to the proof of the well-ordering property for \mathbb{N} except that we start with a set of integers that is bounded below, rather than having to first identify a lower bound for the set.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$,

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n + 1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n + 1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$,

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$, so $1 \notin E$

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$, so $1 \notin E$ and hence

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$, so $1 \notin E$ and hence m > 1.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$, so $1 \notin E$ and hence m > 1. But m is the least element

of E,

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$, so $1 \notin E$ and hence m > 1. But m is the least element of E, so

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$, so $1 \notin E$ and hence m > 1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m - 1 \notin E$,

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E=\mathbb{N}\setminus S$ and suppose $E\neq\varnothing$. Since $E\subset\mathbb{N}$ and $E\neq\varnothing$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1\in S$, so $1\notin E$ and hence m>1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m-1\notin E$, and hence we must have $m-1\in S$.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n + 1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E=\mathbb{N}\setminus S$ and suppose $E\neq\varnothing$. Since $E\subset\mathbb{N}$ and $E\neq\varnothing$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1\in S$, so $1\notin E$ and hence m>1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m-1\notin E$, and hence we must have $m-1\in S$. But then it follows that

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E=\mathbb{N}\setminus S$ and suppose $E\neq\varnothing$. Since $E\subset\mathbb{N}$ and $E\neq\varnothing$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1\in S$, so $1\notin E$ and hence m>1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m-1\notin E$, and hence we must have $m-1\in S$. But then it follows that $(m-1)+1=m\in S$,

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E=\mathbb{N}\setminus S$ and suppose $E\neq\varnothing$. Since $E\subset\mathbb{N}$ and $E\neq\varnothing$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1\in S$, so $1\notin E$ and hence m>1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m-1\notin E$, and hence we must have $m-1\in S$. But then it follows that $(m-1)+1=m\in S$, which is impossible because $m\in E$.

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$ and suppose $E \neq \emptyset$. Since $E \subset \mathbb{N}$ and $E \neq \emptyset$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1 \in S$, so $1 \notin E$ and hence m > 1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m - 1 \notin E$, and hence we must have $m - 1 \in S$. But then it follows that $(m - 1) + 1 = m \in S$, which is impossible because $m \in E$. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n + 1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E=\mathbb{N}\setminus S$ and suppose $E\neq\varnothing$. Since $E\subset\mathbb{N}$ and $E\neq\varnothing$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1\in S$, so $1\notin E$ and hence m>1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m-1\notin E$, and hence we must have $m-1\in S$. But then it follows that $(m-1)+1=m\in S$, which is impossible because $m\in E$. $\Rightarrow\Leftarrow$ $\therefore E=\varnothing$,

Theorem (Principle of Mathematical Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $1 \in S$ and, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$. Then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Proof.

Let $E=\mathbb{N}\setminus S$ and suppose $E\neq\varnothing$. Since $E\subset\mathbb{N}$ and $E\neq\varnothing$, the well-ordering property implies E has a smallest element, say m. Now $1\in S$, so $1\notin E$ and hence m>1. But m is the least element of E, so the natural number $m-1\notin E$, and hence we must have $m-1\in S$. But then it follows that $(m-1)+1=m\in S$, which is impossible because $m\in E$. \Rightarrow \Leftarrow $\therefore E=\varnothing$, i.e., $S=\mathbb{N}$.

Definition (Dense Sets)

Definition (Dense Sets)

A set E of real numbers is said to be **dense** (or **dense in** \mathbb{R}) if

Definition (Dense Sets)

A set E of real numbers is said to be **dense** (or **dense in** \mathbb{R}) if every interval (a, b) contains a point of E.

Definition (Dense Sets)

A set E of real numbers is said to be **dense** (or **dense in** \mathbb{R}) if every interval (a, b) contains a point of E.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

Definition (Dense Sets)

A set E of real numbers is said to be **dense** (or **dense in** \mathbb{R}) if every interval (a, b) contains a point of E.

$\overline{\mathsf{T}\mathsf{heorem}\;(\mathbb{Q}\;\mathsf{is}\;\mathsf{dense}\;\mathsf{in}\;\mathbb{R})}$

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Definition (Dense Sets)

A set E of real numbers is said to be **dense** (or **dense in** \mathbb{R}) if every interval (a, b) contains a point of E.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Corollary

Every real number can be approximated arbitrarily well by a rational number.

Definition (Dense Sets)

A set E of real numbers is said to be **dense** (or **dense** in \mathbb{R}) if every interval (a, b) contains a point of E.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Corollary

Every real number can be approximated arbitrarily well by a rational number.

Given $x \in \mathbb{R}$, consider the interval $\left(x - \frac{1}{n}, x + \frac{1}{n}\right)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The metric structure of \mathbb{R} (§1.10)

Instructor: David Earn

Definition (Absolute Value function)

Definition (Absolute Value function)

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Definition (Absolute Value function)

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Properties of the Absolute Value function)

Definition (Absolute Value function)

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Properties of the Absolute Value function)

Definition (Absolute Value function)

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Properties of the Absolute Value function)

$$1 - |x| \le x \le |x|.$$

Definition (Absolute Value function)

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Properties of the Absolute Value function)

$$1 - |x| \le x \le |x|.$$

$$|xy| = |x||y|.$$

Definition (Absolute Value function)

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Properties of the Absolute Value function)

$$| -|x| \le x \le |x|.$$

$$|xy| = |x||y|.$$

$$|x + y| \le |x| + |y|.$$

Definition (Absolute Value function)

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Properties of the Absolute Value function)

$$| -|x| \le x \le |x|.$$

$$|xy| = |x||y|.$$

$$|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$$
.

$$|x| - |y| \le |x - y|.$$

Instructor: David Earn

Definition (Distance function or metric)

Instructor: David Earn

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y)=|x-y|.$$

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x-y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x-y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x-y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

distances are positive or zero

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y)=|x-y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

distances are positive or zero

$$2 d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$$

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x - y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

distances are positive or zero

2
$$d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$$
 distinct points have distance > 0

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x-y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

distances are positive or zero

$$2 d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$$

2 $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ distinct points have distance > 0

$$d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x - y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

$$2 d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$$

$$d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$

distances are positive or zero 2 $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ distinct points have distance > 0distance is symmetric

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x - y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

$$2 d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$$

$$d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$

4
$$d(x,y) \le d(x,z) + d(z,y)$$

distances are positive or zero 2 $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ distinct points have distance > 0distance is symmetric

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x - y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1
$$d(x, y) \ge 0$$

2
$$d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$$

$$d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$

4
$$d(x,y) \le d(x,z) + d(z,y)$$

distances are positive or zero 2 $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ distinct points have distance > 0distance is symmetric the triangle inequality

Definition (Distance function or metric)

The distance between two real numbers x and y is

$$d(x,y) = |x - y|.$$

Theorem (Properties of distance function or metric)

1 $d(x, y) \ge 0$

4 d(x, y) < d(x, z) + d(z, y)

distances are positive or zero

2 $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ distinct points have distance > 0

distance is symmetric

the triangle inequality

Note: Any function satisfying these properties can be considered a "distance" or "metric".

Instructor: David Earn

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Theorem (Metric properties of the absolute value function)

Instructor: David Earn

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Theorem (Metric properties of the absolute value function)

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Theorem (Metric properties of the absolute value function)

$$|x| \ge 0$$

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Theorem (Metric properties of the absolute value function)

- 1 $|x| \ge 0$
- $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Theorem (Metric properties of the absolute value function)

- **1** |x| ≥ 0
- $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- |x| = |-x|

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Theorem (Metric properties of the absolute value function)

- **1** |x| ≥ 0
- $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- |x| = |-x|
- $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$

Given d(x, y) = |x - y|, the properties of the distance function are equivalent to:

Theorem (Metric properties of the absolute value function)

- **1** |x| ≥ 0
- $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- |x| = |-x|
- 4 $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$ (the triangle inequality)

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let
$$s = sign(x + y)$$
. Then

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let
$$s = sign(x + y)$$
. Then

$$|x + y| =$$

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let
$$s = sign(x + y)$$
. Then

$$|x+y|=s(x+y)$$

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let
$$s = sign(x + y)$$
. Then

$$|x + y| = s(x + y) = sx + sy$$

Slick proof of the triangle inequality

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

Let
$$s = sign(x + y)$$
. Then

$$|x+y|=s(x+y)=sx+sy\leq$$

Slick proof of the triangle inequality

Theorem (The Triangle Inequality)

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

Let
$$s = sign(x + y)$$
. Then

$$|x + y| = s(x + y) = sx + sy \le |x| + |y|$$
.

Instructor: David Earn

Example (finite distance between every pair of real numbers)

Instructor: David Earn

Example (finite distance between every pair of real numbers)

Let

$$f(x)=\frac{|x|}{1+|x|}\,,$$

Example (finite distance between every pair of real numbers)

Let

$$f(x) = \frac{|x|}{1+|x|},$$

and define

$$d(x,y)=f(x-y).$$

Example (finite distance between every pair of real numbers)

Let

$$f(x) = \frac{|x|}{1+|x|},$$

and define

$$d(x,y)=f(x-y).$$

Prove that d(x, y) can be interpreted as a distance between x and y because it satisfies all the properties of a metric.



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{Lecture 5} \\ \text{Properties of } \mathbb{R} \text{ IV} \\ \text{Thursday 12 September 2019} \end{array}$

A typo has been corrected in Question 3(c) of Assignment 1 on crowdmark.

A typo has been corrected in Question 3(c) of Assignment 1 on crowdmark. An absolute value bar was missing.

- A typo has been corrected in Question 3(c) of Assignment 1 on crowdmark. An absolute value bar was missing.
- Both midterm tests will tentatively take place in JHE 264.

■ Archimedean theorem (N has no upper bound)

- Archimedean theorem (N has no upper bound)
- N is well-ordered (and an important corollary)

- Archimedean theorem (N has no upper bound)
- lacktriangleright N is well-ordered (and an important corollary)
- Principle of Mathematical Induction

- Archimedean theorem (N has no upper bound)
- N is well-ordered (and an important corollary)
- Principle of Mathematical Induction
- Distance/metric definitions.

■ Prove that \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} .

- Prove that \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} .
 - Emphasizing explorations you might make in order to discover how to construct a proof.

- Prove that \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} .
 - Emphasizing explorations you might make in order to discover how to construct a proof.
- Begin discussing sequences.

Poll

- Go to https: //www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php
- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll Lecture 5: Dense sets
- Submit.

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

(solution on board)

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

(solution on board)

Actually, we'll go through this in slides since half the class can't see the board...

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

(solution on board)

Actually, we'll go through this in slides since half the class can't see the board...

We will first develop the ideas for the proof in the way that you might proceed if you were trying to discover a proof from scratch.

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

(solution on board)

Actually, we'll go through this in slides since half the class can't see the board...

- We will first develop the ideas for the proof in the way that you might proceed if you were trying to discover a proof from scratch.
- We will then look at a "clean proof" that you might construct after discovering an argument that works.

$\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ is dense in \mathbb{R}

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Explorations that might lead us to how to construct a proof:

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Explorations that might lead us to how to construct a proof:

We want to find a number $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$a < r < b$$
,

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Explorations that might lead us to how to construct a proof:

We want to find a number $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$a < r < b$$
,

i.e., we want to find $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$a<\frac{m}{n}< b$$
.

\mathbb{O} is dense in \mathbb{R}

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Explorations that might lead us to how to construct a proof:

We want to find a number $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$a < r < b$$
,

i.e., we want to find $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$a < \frac{m}{n} < b$$
.

Given such m and n, it will follow that

$$na < m < nb$$
.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Explorations that might lead us to how to construct a proof:

We want to find a number $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$a < r < b$$
,

i.e., we want to find $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$a<\frac{m}{n}< b$$
 .

Given such m and n, it will follow that

$$na < m < nb$$
.

If we can find integers m and n that satisfy this inequality, then we can work backwards to get what we want.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b,

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb).

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b - a) > 1

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b - a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a).

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b - a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a). But such an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ must exist, because

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b - a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a). But such an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b-a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a). But such an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Given such an n,

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b-a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a). But such an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Given such an n, we can choose m to be an integer in the interval (na, nb).

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b-a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a). But such an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Given such an n, we can choose m to be an integer in the interval (na, nb).

So, to construct a complete proof,

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b-a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a). But such an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Given such an n, we can choose m to be an integer in the interval (na, nb).

So, to construct a complete proof, the only missing piece is

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b - a) > 1, i.e., n>1/(b-a). But such an $n\in\mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Given such an n, we can choose m to be an integer in the interval (na, nb).

So, to construct a complete proof, the only missing piece is to prove that if y - x > 1 then

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b-a) > 1, i.e., n > 1/(b-a). But such an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Given such an n, we can choose m to be an integer in the interval (na, nb).

So, to construct a complete proof, the only missing piece is to prove that if y - x > 1 then there is

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

We know a < b, so we just need to find an n big enough that there is an integer in the interval (na, nb). How do we do that?

We need to find $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that nb - na > 1, i.e., n(b - a) > 1, i.e., n>1/(b-a). But such an $n\in\mathbb{N}$ must exist, because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Given such an n, we can choose m to be an integer in the interval (na, nb).

So, to construct a complete proof, the only missing piece is to prove that if y - x > 1 then there is an <u>integer</u> in the interval (x,y).

$\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ is dense in \mathbb{R}

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Instructor: David Earn

$\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ is dense in \mathbb{R}

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If
$$y - x > 1$$
,

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If
$$y - x > 1$$
, *i.e.*, $x < y - 1$, then

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, *i.e.*, x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, *i.e.*, x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1,y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y - 1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, *i.e.*, x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1,y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1,y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $v \notin \mathbb{Z}$,

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If
$$y \notin \mathbb{Z}$$
, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $v \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{i \in \mathbb{Z} : v - 1 < i\}$ and let $k = \min S$.

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is ${\sf dense}$ in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, *i.e.*, find ksuch that k-1 < v-1 < k.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y - 1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, *i.e.*, find k such that k - 1 < y - 1 < k, which implies k < y < k + 1,

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y - 1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, *i.e.*, find k such that k - 1 < y - 1 < k, which implies k < y < k + 1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y,

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y - 1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, *i.e.*, find k such that k - 1 < y - 1 < k, which implies k < y < k + 1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y, *i.e.*, $k \in [y - 1, y)$.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y - 1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y-1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, *i.e.*, find k such that k-1 < y-1 < k, which implies k < y < k+1, and hence, in particular, y-1 < k < y, *i.e.*, $k \in [y-1,y)$. That's what we need!

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1,y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, i.e., find k such that k-1 < y-1 < k, which implies k < y < k+1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y, i.e., $k \in [y - 1, y)$. That's what we need! But, how do we know such a k exists?

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y - 1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, *i.e.*, find k such that k - 1 < y - 1 < k, which implies k < y < k + 1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y, *i.e.*, $k \in [y - 1, y)$. That's what we need! But, how do we know such a k exists?

 $S \neq \emptyset$ because \mathbb{N} is not bounded above.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, i.e., find k such that k-1 < y-1 < k, which implies k < y < k+1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y, i.e., $k \in [y - 1, y)$. That's what we need! But, how do we know such a k exists?

 $S \neq \emptyset$ because N is not bounded above.

 \therefore S is a non-empty set of integers that is bounded below.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, i.e., find k such that k-1 < y-1 < k, which implies k < y < k+1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y, i.e., $k \in [y - 1, y)$. That's what we need! But, how do we know such a k exists?

 $S \neq \emptyset$ because N is not bounded above.

 \therefore S is a non-empty set of integers that is bounded below. Hence it has a least element

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1, y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, i.e., find k such that k-1 < y-1 < k, which implies k < y < k+1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y, i.e., $k \in [y - 1, y)$. That's what we need! But, how do we know such a k exists?

 $S \neq \emptyset$ because N is not bounded above.

 \therefore S is a non-empty set of integers that is bounded below. Hence it has a least element. Hooray!

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

If y - x > 1, i.e., x < y - 1, then we have $[y - 1, y) \subset (x, y)$. So it is enough to show there is an integer in the interval [y-1,y) for any $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $y - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we are done.

If $y \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : y - 1 < j\}$ and let $k = \min S$, i.e., find k such that k-1 < y-1 < k, which implies k < y < k+1, and hence, in particular, y - 1 < k < y, i.e., $k \in [y - 1, y)$. That's what we need! But, how do we know such a k exists?

 $S \neq \emptyset$ because N is not bounded above.

 \therefore S is a non-empty set of integers that is bounded below. Hence it has a least element. Hooray! Let's now look at a clean proof.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b,

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb - na > 1

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1.

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If a, $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required.

Instructor: David Earn

Theorem (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If a, $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required. If $nb - 1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$,

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is ${\sf dense}$ in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ with a< b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $n>\frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb-na>1 and hence na< nb-1. If $nb-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ then let m=nb-1 and note that na< m< nb, so $a<\frac{m}{n}< b$ as required. If $nb-1\notin\mathbb{Z}$, let $S=\{j\in\mathbb{Z}:j>nb-1\}$

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If a, $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required. If $nb - 1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{i \in \mathbb{Z} : i > nb - 1\}$ and by well-ordering

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required. If $nb - 1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : j > nb - 1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m = \min S$.

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required. If $nb - 1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : j > nb - 1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m = \min S$. Now.

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is ${\sf dense}$ in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ with a< b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $n>\frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb-na>1 and hence na< nb-1. If $nb-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ then let m=nb-1 and note that na< m< nb, so $a<\frac{m}{n}< b$ as required. If $nb-1\notin\mathbb{Z}$, let $S=\{j\in\mathbb{Z}:j>nb-1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m=\min S$. Now, since $m\in S$,

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If a, $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required. If $nb - 1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{i \in \mathbb{Z} : i > nb - 1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m = \min S$. Now, since $m \in S$, we have

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is ${\sf dense}$ in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ with a< b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $n>\frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb-na>1 and hence na< nb-1. If $nb-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ then let m=nb-1 and note that na< m< nb, so $a<\frac{m}{n}< b$ as required. If $nb-1\notin\mathbb{Z}$, let $S=\{j\in\mathbb{Z}:j>nb-1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m=\min S$. Now, since $m\in S$, we have m>nb-1

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is ${\sf dense}$ in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ with a< b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $n>\frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb-na>1 and hence na< nb-1. If $nb-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ then let m=nb-1 and note that na< m< nb, so $a<\frac{m}{n}< b$ as required. If $nb-1\notin\mathbb{Z}$, let $S=\{j\in\mathbb{Z}:j>nb-1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m=\min S$. Now, since $m\in S$, we have m>nb-1 and since m is the least element of S,

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If a, $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required. If $nb - 1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : j > nb - 1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m = \min S$. Now, since $m \in S$, we have m > nb - 1 and since m is the least element of S, we must have m-1 < nb-1

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is ${\sf dense}$ in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ with a< b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $n>\frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb-na>1 and hence na< nb-1. If $nb-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ then let m=nb-1 and note that na< m< nb, so $a<\frac{m}{n}< b$ as required. If $nb-1\notin\mathbb{Z}$, let $S=\{j\in\mathbb{Z}:j>nb-1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m=\min S$. Now, since $m\in S$, we have m>nb-1 and since m is the least element of S, we must have m-1< nb-1 and hence

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ with a< b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $n>\frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb-na>1 and hence na< nb-1. If $nb-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ then let m=nb-1 and note that na< m< nb, so $a<\frac{m}{n}< b$ as required. If $nb-1\notin\mathbb{Z}$, let $S=\{j\in\mathbb{Z}:j>nb-1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m=\min S$. Now, since $m\in S$, we have m>nb-1 and since m is the least element of S, we must have m-1< nb-1 and hence m< nb.

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ with a< b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $n>\frac{1}{b-a}$, which implies nb-na>1 and hence na< nb-1. If $nb-1\in\mathbb{Z}$ then let m=nb-1 and note that na< m< nb, so $a<\frac{m}{n}< b$ as required. If $nb-1\notin\mathbb{Z}$, let $S=\{j\in\mathbb{Z}:j>nb-1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m=\min S$. Now, since $m\in S$, we have m>nb-1 and since m is the least element of S, we must have m-1< nb-1 and hence m< nb. But na< nb-1 by construction,

Theorem ($\mathbb Q$ is dense in $\mathbb R$)

If a, $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a < b then there is a rational number in the interval (a, b).

Clean proof.

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b, use the archimedean theorem to choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \frac{1}{h-2}$, which implies nb - na > 1 and hence na < nb - 1. If $nb - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ then let m = nb - 1 and note that na < m < nb, so $a < \frac{m}{n} < b$ as required. If $nb - 1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$, let $S = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : j > nb - 1\}$ and by well-ordering let $m = \min S$. Now, since $m \in S$, we have m > nb - 1 and since m is the least element of S, we must have m-1 < nb-1 and hence m < nb. But na < nb - 1 by construction, so na < m < nb as required.