

**Proof** (a), (b), and (c) are obvious, and (d) is an immediate consequence of the Schwarz inequality. By (d) we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|^2 &= (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \\ &= \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} + 2\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y} \\ &\leq |\mathbf{x}|^2 + 2|\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}| + |\mathbf{y}|^2 \\ &= (|\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{y}|)^2, \end{aligned}$$

so that (e) is proved. Finally, (f) follows from (e) if we replace  $\mathbf{x}$  by  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  by  $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}$ .

**1.38 Remarks** Theorem 1.37 (a), (b), and (f) will allow us (see Chap. 2) to regard  $R^k$  as a metric space.

$R^1$  (the set of all real numbers) is usually called the line, or the real line. Likewise,  $R^2$  is called the plane, or the complex plane (compare Definitions 1.24 and 1.36). In these two cases the norm is just the absolute value of the corresponding real or complex number.

## APPENDIX

Theorem 1.19 will be proved in this appendix by constructing  $R$  from  $Q$ . We shall divide the construction into several steps.

**Step 1** The members of  $R$  will be certain subsets of  $Q$ , called *cuts*. A cut is, by definition, any set  $\alpha \subset Q$  with the following three properties.

- (I)  $\alpha$  is not empty, and  $\alpha \neq Q$ .
- (II) If  $p \in \alpha$ ,  $q \in Q$ , and  $q < p$ , then  $q \in \alpha$ .
- (III) If  $p \in \alpha$ , then  $p < r$  for some  $r \in \alpha$ .

The letters  $p, q, r, \dots$  will always denote rational numbers, and  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \dots$  will denote cuts.

Note that (III) simply says that  $\alpha$  has no largest member; (II) implies two facts which will be used freely:

- If  $p \in \alpha$  and  $q \notin \alpha$  then  $p < q$ .
- If  $r \notin \alpha$  and  $r < s$  then  $s \notin \alpha$ .

**Step 2** Define " $\alpha < \beta$ " to mean:  $\alpha$  is a proper subset of  $\beta$ .

Let us check that this meets the requirements of Definition 1.5.

If  $\alpha < \beta$  and  $\beta < \gamma$  it is clear that  $\alpha < \gamma$ . (A proper subset of a proper subset is a proper subset.) It is also clear that at most one of the three relations

$$\alpha < \beta, \quad \alpha = \beta, \quad \beta < \alpha$$

can hold for any pair  $\alpha, \beta$ . To show that at least one holds, assume that the first two fail. Then  $\alpha$  is not a subset of  $\beta$ . Hence there is a  $p \in \alpha$  with  $p \notin \beta$ . If  $q \in \beta$ , it follows that  $q < p$  (since  $p \notin \beta$ ), hence  $q \in \alpha$ , by (II). Thus  $\beta \subset \alpha$ . Since  $\beta \neq \alpha$ , we conclude:  $\beta < \alpha$ .

Thus  $R$  is now an ordered set.

**Step 3** *The ordered set  $R$  has the least-upper-bound property.*

To prove this, let  $A$  be a nonempty subset of  $R$ , and assume that  $\beta \in R$  is an upper bound of  $A$ . Define  $\gamma$  to be the union of all  $\alpha \in A$ . In other words,  $p \in \gamma$  if and only if  $p \in \alpha$  for some  $\alpha \in A$ . We shall prove that  $\gamma \in R$  and that  $\gamma = \sup A$ .

Since  $A$  is not empty, there exists an  $\alpha_0 \in A$ . This  $\alpha_0$  is not empty. Since  $\alpha_0 \subset \gamma$ ,  $\gamma$  is not empty. Next,  $\gamma \subset \beta$  (since  $\alpha \subset \beta$  for every  $\alpha \in A$ ), and therefore  $\gamma \neq Q$ . Thus  $\gamma$  satisfies property (I). To prove (II) and (III), pick  $p \in \gamma$ . Then  $p \in \alpha_1$  for some  $\alpha_1 \in A$ . If  $q < p$ , then  $q \in \alpha_1$ , hence  $q \in \gamma$ ; this proves (II). If  $r \in \alpha_1$  is so chosen that  $r > p$ , we see that  $r \in \gamma$  (since  $\alpha_1 \subset \gamma$ ), and therefore  $\gamma$  satisfies (III).

Thus  $\gamma \in R$ .

It is clear that  $\alpha \leq \gamma$  for every  $\alpha \in A$ .

Suppose  $\delta < \gamma$ . Then there is an  $s \in \gamma$  and that  $s \notin \delta$ . Since  $s \in \gamma$ ,  $s \in \alpha$  for some  $\alpha \in A$ . Hence  $\delta < \alpha$ , and  $\delta$  is not an upper bound of  $A$ .

This gives the desired result:  $\gamma = \sup A$ .

**Step 4** If  $\alpha \in R$  and  $\beta \in R$  we define  $\alpha + \beta$  to be the set of all sums  $r + s$ , where  $r \in \alpha$  and  $s \in \beta$ .

We define  $0^*$  to be the set of all negative rational numbers. It is clear that  $0^*$  is a cut. *We verify that the axioms for addition (see Definition 1.12) hold in  $R$ , with  $0^*$  playing the role of 0.*

(A1) We have to show that  $\alpha + \beta$  is a cut. It is clear that  $\alpha + \beta$  is a nonempty subset of  $Q$ . Take  $r' \notin \alpha$ ,  $s' \notin \beta$ . Then  $r' + s' > r + s$  for all choices of  $r \in \alpha$ ,  $s \in \beta$ . Thus  $r' + s' \notin \alpha + \beta$ . It follows that  $\alpha + \beta$  has property (I).

Pick  $p \in \alpha + \beta$ . Then  $p = r + s$ , with  $r \in \alpha$ ,  $s \in \beta$ . If  $q < p$ , then  $q - s < r$ , so  $q - s \in \alpha$ , and  $q = (q - s) + s \in \alpha + \beta$ . Thus (II) holds. Choose  $t \in \alpha$  so that  $t > r$ . Then  $p < t + s$  and  $t + s \in \alpha + \beta$ . Thus (III) holds.

(A2)  $\alpha + \beta$  is the set of all  $r + s$ , with  $r \in \alpha$ ,  $s \in \beta$ . By the same definition,  $\beta + \alpha$  is the set of all  $s + r$ . Since  $r + s = s + r$  for all  $r \in Q$ ,  $s \in Q$ , we have  $\alpha + \beta = \beta + \alpha$ .

(A3) As above, this follows from the associative law in  $Q$ .

(A4) If  $r \in \alpha$  and  $s \in 0^*$ , then  $r + s < r$ , hence  $r + s \in \alpha$ . Thus  $\alpha + 0^* \subset \alpha$ . To obtain the opposite inclusion, pick  $p \in \alpha$ , and pick  $r \in \alpha$ ,  $r > p$ . Then

$p - r \in 0^*$ , and  $p = r + (p - r) \in \alpha + 0^*$ . Thus  $\alpha \subset \alpha + 0^*$ . We conclude that  $\alpha + 0^* = \alpha$ .

(A5) Fix  $\alpha \in R$ . Let  $\beta$  be the set of all  $p$  with the following property:

*There exists  $r > 0$  such that  $-p - r \notin \alpha$ .*

In other words, some rational number smaller than  $-p$  fails to be in  $\alpha$ .

We show that  $\beta \in R$  and that  $\alpha + \beta = 0^*$ .

If  $s \notin \alpha$  and  $p = -s - 1$ , then  $-p - 1 \notin \alpha$ , hence  $p \in \beta$ . So  $\beta$  is not empty. If  $q \in \alpha$ , then  $-q \notin \beta$ . So  $\beta \neq Q$ . Hence  $\beta$  satisfies (I).

Pick  $p \in \beta$ , and pick  $r > 0$ , so that  $-p - r \notin \alpha$ . If  $q < p$ , then  $-q - r > -p - r$ , hence  $-q - r \notin \alpha$ . Thus  $q \in \beta$ , and (II) holds. Put  $t = p + (r/2)$ . Then  $t > p$ , and  $-t - (r/2) = -p - r \notin \alpha$ , so that  $t \in \beta$ . Hence  $\beta$  satisfies (III).

We have proved that  $\beta \in R$ .

If  $r \in \alpha$  and  $s \in \beta$ , then  $-s \notin \alpha$ , hence  $r < -s$ ,  $r + s < 0$ . Thus  $\alpha + \beta \subset 0^*$ .

To prove the opposite inclusion, pick  $v \in 0^*$ , put  $w = -v/2$ . Then  $w > 0$ , and there is an integer  $n$  such that  $nw \in \alpha$  but  $(n+1)w \notin \alpha$ . (Note that this depends on the fact that  $Q$  has the archimedean property!) Put  $p = -(n+2)w$ . Then  $p \in \beta$ , since  $-p - w \notin \alpha$ , and

$$v = nw + p \in \alpha + \beta.$$

Thus  $0^* \subset \alpha + \beta$ .

We conclude that  $\alpha + \beta = 0^*$ .

This  $\beta$  will of course be denoted by  $-\alpha$ .

**Step 5** Having proved that the addition defined in Step 4 satisfies Axioms (A) of Definition 1.12, it follows that Proposition 1.14 is valid in  $R$ , and we can prove one of the requirements of Definition 1.17:

*If  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in R$  and  $\beta < \gamma$ , then  $\alpha + \beta < \alpha + \gamma$ .*

Indeed, it is obvious from the definition of  $+$  in  $R$  that  $\alpha + \beta \subset \alpha + \gamma$ ; if we had  $\alpha + \beta = \alpha + \gamma$ , the cancellation law (Proposition 1.14) would imply  $\beta = \gamma$ .

It also follows that  $\alpha > 0^*$  if and only if  $-\alpha < 0^*$ .

**Step 6** Multiplication is a little more bothersome than addition in the present context, since products of negative rationals are positive. For this reason we confine ourselves first to  $R^+$ , the set of all  $\alpha \in R$  with  $\alpha > 0^*$ .

If  $\alpha \in R^+$  and  $\beta \in R^+$ , we define  $\alpha\beta$  to be the set of all  $p$  such that  $p \leq rs$  for some choice of  $r \in \alpha$ ,  $s \in \beta$ ,  $r > 0$ ,  $s > 0$ .

We define  $1^*$  to be the set of all  $q < 1$ .

*Then the axioms (M) and (D) of Definition 1.12 hold, with  $R^+$  in place of  $F$ , and with  $1^*$  in the role of 1.*

The proofs are so similar to the ones given in detail in Step 4 that we omit them.

Note, in particular, that the second requirement of Definition 1.17 holds: If  $\alpha > 0^*$  and  $\beta > 0^*$  then  $\alpha\beta > 0^*$ .

**Step 7** We complete the definition of multiplication by setting  $\alpha 0^* = 0^* \alpha = 0^*$ , and by setting

$$\alpha\beta = \begin{cases} ((-\alpha)(-\beta)) & \text{if } \alpha < 0^*, \beta < 0^*, \\ -[(-\alpha)\beta] & \text{if } \alpha < 0^*, \beta > 0^*, \\ -[\alpha \cdot (-\beta)] & \text{if } \alpha > 0^*, \beta < 0^*. \end{cases}$$

The products on the right were defined in Step 6.

Having proved (in Step 6) that the axioms (M) hold in  $R^+$ , it is now perfectly simple to prove them in  $R$ , by repeated application of the identity  $\gamma = -(-\gamma)$  which is part of Proposition 1.14. (See Step 5.)

The proof of the distributive law

$$\alpha(\beta + \gamma) = \alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma$$

breaks into cases. For instance, suppose  $\alpha > 0^*$ ,  $\beta < 0^*$ ,  $\beta + \gamma > 0^*$ . Then  $\gamma = (\beta + \gamma) + (-\beta)$ , and (since we already know that the distributive law holds in  $R^+$ )

$$\alpha\gamma = \alpha(\beta + \gamma) + \alpha \cdot (-\beta).$$

But  $\alpha \cdot (-\beta) = -(\alpha\beta)$ . Thus

$$\alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma = \alpha(\beta + \gamma).$$

The other cases are handled in the same way.

We have now completed the proof that  $R$  is an ordered field with the least-upper-bound property.

**Step 8** We associate with each  $r \in Q$  the set  $r^*$  which consists of all  $p \in Q$  such that  $p < r$ . It is clear that each  $r^*$  is a cut; that is,  $r^* \in R$ . These cuts satisfy the following relations:

- (a)  $r^* + s^* = (r + s)^*$ ,
- (b)  $r^*s^* = (rs)^*$ ,
- (c)  $r^* < s^*$  if and only if  $r < s$ .

To prove (a), choose  $p \in r^* + s^*$ . Then  $p = u + v$ , where  $u < r$ ,  $v < s$ . Hence  $p < r + s$ , which says that  $p \in (r + s)^*$ .

Conversely, suppose  $p \in (r + s)^*$ . Then  $p < r + s$ . Choose  $t$  so that  $2t = r + s - p$ , put

$$r' = r - t, s' = s - t.$$

Then  $r' \in r^*$ ,  $s' \in s^*$ , and  $p = r' + s'$ , so that  $p \in r^* + s^*$ .

This proves (a). The proof of (b) is similar.

If  $r < s$  then  $r \in s^*$ , but  $r \notin r^*$ ; hence  $r^* < s^*$ .

If  $r^* < s^*$ , then there is a  $p \in s^*$  such that  $p \notin r^*$ . Hence  $r \leq p < s$ , so that  $r < s$ .

This proves (c).

**Step 9** We saw in Step 8 that the replacement of the rational numbers  $r$  by the corresponding “rational cuts”  $r^* \in R$  preserves sums, products, and order. This fact may be expressed by saying that the ordered field  $Q$  is *isomorphic* to the ordered field  $Q^*$  whose elements are the rational cuts. Of course,  $r^*$  is by no means the same as  $r$ , but the properties we are concerned with (arithmetic and order) are the same in the two fields.

*It is this identification of  $Q$  with  $Q^*$  which allows us to regard  $Q$  as a subfield of  $R$ .*

The second part of Theorem 1.19 is to be understood in terms of this identification. Note that the same phenomenon occurs when the real numbers are regarded as a subfield of the complex field, and it also occurs at a much more elementary level, when the integers are identified with a certain subset of  $Q$ .

It is a fact, which we will not prove here, that *any two ordered fields with the least-upper-bound property are isomorphic*. The first part of Theorem 1.19 therefore characterizes the real field  $R$  completely.

The books by Landau and Thurston cited in the Bibliography are entirely devoted to number systems. Chapter 1 of Knopp’s book contains a more leisurely description of how  $R$  can be obtained from  $Q$ . Another construction, in which each real number is defined to be an equivalence class of Cauchy sequences of rational numbers (see Chap. 3), is carried out in Sec. 5 of the book by Hewitt and Stromberg.

The cuts in  $Q$  which we used here were invented by Dedekind. The construction of  $R$  from  $Q$  by means of Cauchy sequences is due to Cantor. Both Cantor and Dedekind published their constructions in 1872.

## EXERCISES

Unless the contrary is explicitly stated, all numbers that are mentioned in these exercises are understood to be real.

1. If  $r$  is rational ( $r \neq 0$ ) and  $x$  is irrational, prove that  $r + x$  and  $rx$  are irrational.

2. Prove that there is no rational number whose square is 12.
3. Prove Proposition 1.15.
4. Let  $E$  be a nonempty subset of an ordered set; suppose  $\alpha$  is a lower bound of  $E$  and  $\beta$  is an upper bound of  $E$ . Prove that  $\alpha \leq \beta$ .
5. Let  $A$  be a nonempty set of real numbers which is bounded below. Let  $-A$  be the set of all numbers  $-x$ , where  $x \in A$ . Prove that

$$\inf A = -\sup(-A).$$

6. Fix  $b > 1$ .
  - (a) If  $m, n, p, q$  are integers,  $n > 0$ ,  $q > 0$ , and  $r = m/n = p/q$ , prove that

$$(b^m)^{1/n} = (b^p)^{1/q}.$$

Hence it makes sense to define  $b^r = (b^m)^{1/n}$ .

(b) Prove that  $b^{r+s} = b^r b^s$  if  $r$  and  $s$  are rational.

(c) If  $x$  is real, define  $B(x)$  to be the set of all numbers  $b^t$ , where  $t$  is rational and  $t \leq x$ . Prove that

$$b^r = \sup B(r)$$

when  $r$  is rational. Hence it makes sense to define

$$b^x = \sup B(x)$$

for every real  $x$ .

(d) Prove that  $b^{x+y} = b^x b^y$  for all real  $x$  and  $y$ .

7. Fix  $b > 1$ ,  $y > 0$ , and prove that there is a unique real  $x$  such that  $b^x = y$ , by completing the following outline. (This  $x$  is called the *logarithm of  $y$  to the base  $b$* .)

(a) For any positive integer  $n$ ,  $b^n - 1 \geq n(b - 1)$ .

(b) Hence  $b - 1 \geq n(b^{1/n} - 1)$ .

(c) If  $t > 1$  and  $n > (b - 1)/(t - 1)$ , then  $b^{1/n} < t$ .

(d) If  $w$  is such that  $b^w < y$ , then  $b^{w+(1/n)} < y$  for sufficiently large  $n$ ; to see this, apply part (c) with  $t = y \cdot b^{-w}$ .

(e) If  $b^w > y$ , then  $b^{w-(1/n)} > y$  for sufficiently large  $n$ .

(f) Let  $A$  be the set of all  $w$  such that  $b^w < y$ , and show that  $x = \sup A$  satisfies  $b^x = y$ .

(g) Prove that this  $x$  is unique.

8. Prove that no order can be defined in the complex field that turns it into an ordered field. *Hint:*  $-1$  is a square.

9. Suppose  $z = a + bi$ ,  $w = c + di$ . Define  $z < w$  if  $a < c$ , and also if  $a = c$  but  $b < d$ . Prove that this turns the set of all complex numbers into an ordered set. (This type of order relation is called a *dictionary order*, or *lexicographic order*, for obvious reasons.) Does this ordered set have the least-upper-bound property?

10. Suppose  $z = a + bi$ ,  $w = u + iv$ , and

$$a = \left( \frac{|w| + u}{2} \right)^{1/2}, \quad b = \left( \frac{|w| - u}{2} \right)^{1/2}.$$