

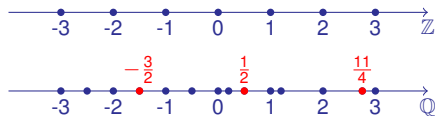
Chapter 5: Construction of the Real Numbers

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We now extend the set \mathbb{Z} of integers to the set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers in much the same way as we extended ω to \mathbb{Z} .



Any rational number is equal to a fraction $\frac{a}{b}$, where $b \neq 0$. This can also be represented as an ordered pair $(a, b) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}'$, where $\mathbb{Z}' = \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$.

The fractions

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{-2}{-4}, \frac{5}{10}, \dots$$

represent the same rational number. In view of this, we cannot simply define $\frac{1}{2}_{\mathbb{Q}} := (1, 2)$ or $\frac{1}{2}_{\mathbb{Q}} := (-2, -4)$, for $(1, 2) \neq (-2, -4)$. Instead, we define an equivalence relation \sim for which

$$(1, 2) \sim (-2, -4) \sim (5, 10) \sim \dots,$$

$$\text{and let } \frac{1}{2}_{\mathbb{Q}} := [(1, 2)] = [(-2, -4)] = [(5, 10)] = \dots$$

In general, we want: $(a, b) \sim (c, d)$ iff $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$ iff $ad = cb$.

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Rational Numbers

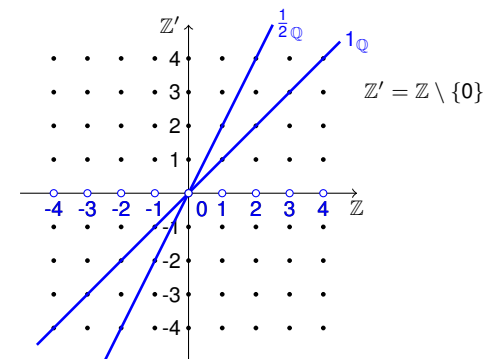
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Definition 5.8

Define an equivalence relation \sim on $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}'$ as

$$(a, b) \sim (c, d) \text{ iff } ad = cb \text{ [(informally) iff } \frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d} \text{].}$$

Define the set \mathbb{Q} of *rational numbers* as $\mathbb{Q} := (\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}') / \sim$.



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For example,

- $\frac{1}{2}_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(1, 2)] = [(-2, -4)] = \{(1, 2), (-2, -4), (5, 10), \dots\}$,
- For any $[(a, b)] \in \mathbb{Q} = (\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}')/\sim$, we have $(c, 0) \notin [(a, b)]$ for any $c \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- $1_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(1, 1)] = [(a, a)]$ for all nonzero integer a .
- $0_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(0, 1)] = [(0, a)]$ for all nonzero integer a .
- $0_{\mathbb{Q}} \neq 1_{\mathbb{Q}}$, since $0 \cdot 1 \neq 1 \cdot 1 \implies (0, 1) \not\sim (1, 1)$.

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Informally, addition on \mathbb{Q} acts as $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + cb}{bd}$.

Note: Since $b, d \neq 0$, the denominator $bd \neq 0$.

Definition 5.9 (Addition)

Define the **addition** operation $+$: $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ on \mathbb{Q} as

$$[(a, b)] + [(c, d)] = [(ad + cb, bd)].$$

Example 5.6: Prove $\frac{3}{4}_{\mathbb{Q}} + \left(-\frac{1}{4}_{\mathbb{Q}}\right) = \frac{1}{2}_{\mathbb{Q}}$ in \mathbb{Q} .

Proof.
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{3}{4}_{\mathbb{Q}} + \left(-\frac{1}{4}_{\mathbb{Q}}\right) &= [(3, 4)] + [(-1, 4)] \\ &= [(3 \cdot 4 + (-1) \cdot 4, 4 \cdot 4)] \\ &= [(8, 16)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}_{\mathbb{Q}}. \end{aligned}$$

□
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Theorem 5QA

The relation \sim is an equivalence relation on $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}'$.

Proof. Let $(a, b), (c, d), (e, f) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}'$.

Reflexivity: $ab = ab \implies (a, b) \sim (a, b)$.

Symmetry:

$$(a, b) \sim (c, d) \implies ad = cb \implies cb = ad \implies (c, d) \sim (a, b).$$

Transitivity:

$$\begin{aligned} &(a, b) \sim (c, d) \text{ and } (c, d) \sim (e, f) \\ &\implies ad = cb \text{ and } cf = ed \\ &\implies fad = fcb \text{ and } cfb = edb \\ &\implies fad = edb \\ &(\because d \neq 0) \implies af = eb \implies (a, b) \sim (e, f). \end{aligned}$$

□

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We check that $+$ is **well-defined**.

Lemma 5QB

If $(a, b) \sim (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \sim (c', d')$, then

$$(ad + cb, bd) \sim (a'd' + c'b', b'd').$$

Proof. Since $(a, b) \sim (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \sim (c', d')$, we have that

$$ab' = a'b \text{ and } cd' = c'd.$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} ab'dd' &= a'bdd' \text{ and } cd'bb' = c'dbb' \\ \implies ab'dd' + cd'bb' &= a'bdd' + c'dbb' \\ \implies (ad + cb)b'd' &= (a'd' + c'b')bd \\ \implies (ad + cb, bd) &\sim (a'd' + c'b', b'd'). \end{aligned}$$

□

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Theorem 5QC

(a) Let $q, r, s \in \mathbb{Q}$.

(associative law) $(q + r) + s = q + (r + s)$,

(commutative law) $r + s = s + r$.

(b) $0_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(0, 1)]$ is the **additive identity**: $r + 0_{\mathbb{Q}} = r$ for all $r \in \mathbb{Q}$.

(c) For any $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, there exists a unique $s \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $r + s = 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$. The unique s is called the **additive inverse** of r , denoted by $-r$.

Proof. We only prove (c). Let $r = [(a, b)]$. Take $s = [(-a, b)]$. Then

$$r + s = [(a, b)] + [(-a, b)] = [(ab + (-a)b, bb)] = [(0, bb)] = 0_{\mathbb{Q}}.$$

For uniqueness, assume $s' \in \mathbb{Q}$ is also an additive inverse of r . Then

$$s' = s' + 0_{\mathbb{Q}} = s' + (r + s) = (s' + r) + s = 0_{\mathbb{Q}} + s = s. \quad \square$$

From the above proof, we see the following:

- $-[(a, b)] = [(-a, b)]$.
- **Subtraction** operation $- : \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ can be defined as $r - s := r + (-s)$.

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We check that \cdot is **well-defined**.

Lemma 5QD

If $(a, b) \sim (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \sim (c', d')$, then

$$(ac, bd) \sim (a'c', b'd').$$

Proof. Since $(a, b) \sim (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \sim (c', d')$, we have that

$$ab' = a'b \quad \text{and} \quad cd' = c'd.$$

Multiplying both sides of the above two equalities yields

$$ab'cd' = a'bc'd,$$

i.e., $acb'd' = a'c'bd$, which means $(ac, bd) \sim (a'c', b'd')$. \square

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Informally, multiplication on \mathbb{Q} acts as

$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}.$$

Definition 5.10 (Multiplication)

Define **Multiplication** operation \cdot on \mathbb{Q} as

$$[(a, b)] \cdot [(c, d)] = [(ac, bd)].$$

Example 5.7: $1_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(1, 1)]$ is the multiplicative identity, that is, $r \cdot 1_{\mathbb{Q}} = r$ for all $r \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. Let $r = [(a, b)]$. Then

$$r \cdot 1_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(a, b)] \cdot [(1, 1)] = [(a \cdot 1, b \cdot 1)] = [(a, b)] = r. \quad \square$$

It is also easy to check that $r \cdot 0_{\mathbb{Q}} = 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$ (**exercise**).

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Theorem 5QE

Let $q, r, s \in \mathbb{Q}$.

(associative law) $(q \cdot r) \cdot s = q \cdot (r \cdot s)$,

(commutative law) $r \cdot s = s \cdot r$.

(distributive law) $q \cdot (r + s) = q \cdot r + q \cdot s$.

Proof. We only prove distributive law. Let

$$q = [(a, b)], \quad r = [(c, d)], \quad s = [(e, f)].$$

where $b \neq 0$, $d \neq 0$ and $f \neq 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} q \cdot (r + s) &= [(a, b)] \cdot ([(c, d)] + [(e, f)]) \\ &= [(a, b)] \cdot [(cf + ed, df)] = [(acf + aed, bdf)] \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} q \cdot r + q \cdot s &= [(a, b)] \cdot [(c, d)] + [(a, b)] \cdot [(e, f)] \\ &= [(ac, bd)] + [(ae, bf)] = [(acbf + aebd, bdbf)]. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $q \cdot (r + s) = q \cdot r + q \cdot s$. \square

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Theorem 5QF

For every nonzero $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, there is a unique nonzero $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $r \cdot q = 1_{\mathbb{Q}}$.

The unique q is called the **multiplicative inverse** of r , denoted by r^{-1} .

Proof. Let $r = [(a, b)]$. Take $q = [(b, a)]$. Since $a, b \neq 0$, q is a nonzero rational number. We have that

$$r \cdot q = [(a, b)] \cdot [(b, a)] = [(ab, ba)] = 1_{\mathbb{Q}}.$$

For uniqueness, if s is another multiplicative inverse of r , then

$$s = s \cdot 1_{\mathbb{Q}} = s \cdot (r \cdot q) = (s \cdot r) \cdot q = 1_{\mathbb{Q}} \cdot q = q. \quad \square$$

From the above proof it follows that if $a, b \neq 0$, then $[(a, b)]^{-1} = [(b, a)]$.

Definition 5.11 (Division)

For any $s, r \in \mathbb{Q}$, if $r \neq 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$, then define $s \div r := s \cdot r^{-1}$.

That is, if $c \neq 0$ and $d \neq 0$, then

$$[(a, b)] \div [(c, d)] = [(a, b)] \cdot [(d, c)] = [(ad, bc)].$$

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Informally, the ordering $<$ on \mathbb{Q} satisfies

$$\frac{a}{b} < \frac{c}{d} \text{ iff } ad < cb$$

as long as $b, d > 0$. Because $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{-a}{-b}$, every rational number can be represented by some fraction with a **positive** denominator.

Definition 5.12 (Ordering)

Define an ordering $<$ on \mathbb{Q} as: for any two rationals $[(a, b)], [(c, d)]$ with $b, d > 0$,

$$[(a, b)] < [(c, d)] \text{ iff } ad < cb.$$

Example 5.8: Prove: $-\frac{1}{3}_{\mathbb{Q}} < 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$.

Proof. Note that $0_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(0, 1)]$ and $-\frac{1}{3}_{\mathbb{Q}} = [(-1, 3)]$. Since

$$(-1) \cdot 1 = -1 < 0 = 0 \cdot 3,$$

we conclude that $-\frac{1}{3}_{\mathbb{Q}} < 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$. □

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Corollary 5QG

If r and s are nonzero rational numbers, then $r \cdot s$ is also nonzero.

Proof. Since r and s are nonzero, by Theorem 5QF, their multiplicative inverses exist. If $r \cdot s = 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$, then

$$(r \cdot s) \cdot (s^{-1} \cdot r^{-1}) = 0_{\mathbb{Q}} \cdot (s^{-1} \cdot r^{-1}),$$

which gives $1_{\mathbb{Q}} = 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$. A contradiction. □

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We need to check that $<$ is **well-defined**.

Lemma 5QH

Let $b, b', d, d' > 0$. If $(a, b) \sim (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \sim (c', d')$, then

$$ad < cb \text{ iff } a'd' < c'd'.$$

Proof. Since $(a, b) \sim (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \sim (c', d')$, we have that

$$ab' = a'b \text{ and } cd' = c'd,$$

which implies that

$$\begin{aligned} ad < cb &\iff adb'd' < cbb'd' \text{ (since } b'd' > 0) \\ &\iff a'bd'd' < c'dbb' \text{ (by assumption)} \\ &\iff a'd' < c'b' \text{ (since } bd > 0). \end{aligned}$$

□

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Lemma 5Qi

The relation $<$ is a linear ordering on \mathbb{Q} .

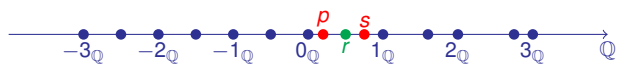
Proof. It suffices to check that $<$ is a transitive relation that satisfies trichotomy on \mathbb{Q} . We show the transitivity on blackboard. It remains to show trichotomy, which means that for any two rationals $r = [(a, b)]$ and $s = [(c, d)]$ with $b, d > 0$, exactly one of the following three alternatives holds:

$$r < s, \quad r = s, \quad s < r.$$

That is, exactly one of the following holds:

$$ad < cb, \quad ad = cb, \quad cb < ad.$$

But this follows from the trichotomy of $<$ in \mathbb{Z} . □



Fact: The ordering $<$ on \mathbb{Q} is **dense**, i.e., for any $p, s \in \mathbb{Q}$,

$$p < s \implies \exists r \in \mathbb{Q} (p < r < s).$$

The proof of this fact is left as an **exercise**.



Definition 5.13

A rational r is called **positive** iff $0_{\mathbb{Q}} < r$; **negative** iff $r < 0_{\mathbb{Q}}$.

The trichotomy of $<$ implies that exactly one of the following holds:

$$r \text{ is positive, } r = 0_{\mathbb{Q}}, \quad r \text{ is negative.}$$

Definition 5.14 (absolute value)

Define the **absolute value** $|r|$ of a rational r by

$$|r| = \begin{cases} r, & \text{if } 0_{\mathbb{Q}} \leq r; \\ -r, & \text{if } r < 0_{\mathbb{Q}}. \end{cases}$$

For example:

- $|-1/3_{\mathbb{Q}}| = |[-1, 3]| = -[-1, 3] = [(-(-1), 3)] = [(1, 3)] = 1/3_{\mathbb{Q}}$.
- $0_{\mathbb{Q}} \leq |r|$ for every $r \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Theorem 5QJ

Let $r, s, t \in \mathbb{Q}$.

- (i) $r < s \iff r + t < s + t$.
- (ii) If $0_{\mathbb{Q}} < t$, then $r < s \iff r \cdot t < s \cdot t$.

Proof. We only prove (i). Let

$$r = [(a, b)], \quad s = [(c, d)] \quad \text{and} \quad t = [(e, f)],$$

where $a, b, c, d, e, f \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 < b, d, f$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} r + t < s + t &\iff [(a, b)] + [(e, f)] < [(c, d)] + [(e, f)] \\ &\iff [(af + eb, bf)] < [(cf + ed, df)] \\ &\iff (af + eb)df < (cf + ed)bf \quad (\text{since } 0 < df, bf) \\ &\iff afd + ebf < cfb + edb \\ &\iff afd < cfb \\ &\iff ad < cb \quad (\text{since } 0 < ff) \\ &\iff r < s. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 5QK

Let $r, s, t \in \mathbb{Q}$.

- (i) $r + t = s + t \implies r = s$
- (ii) $r \cdot t = s \cdot t$ and $t \neq 0 \implies r = s$.

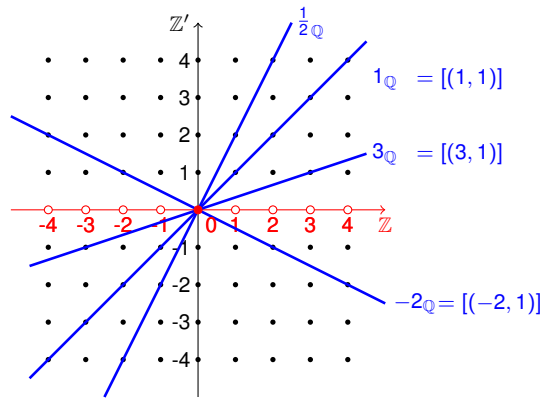
Proof. For (i), we have that

$$r + t = s + t \implies (r + t) + (-t) = (s + t) + (-t) \implies r + 0_{\mathbb{Q}} = s + 0_{\mathbb{Q}} \implies r = s.$$

For (ii), since $t \neq 0$, the multiplicative inverse t^{-1} exists, thus

$$r \cdot t = s \cdot t \implies (r \cdot t) \cdot (t^{-1}) = (s \cdot t) \cdot (t^{-1}) \implies r \cdot 1_{\mathbb{Q}} = s \cdot 1_{\mathbb{Q}} \implies r = s.$$

By our construction, the set \mathbb{Z} is not actually a subset of the set \mathbb{Q} . However, \mathbb{Q} has a subset that is “just like” \mathbb{Z} .



The function f defined as follows is an “isomorphic embedding” of the structure $\langle \mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot, < \rangle$ into the structure $\langle \mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot, < \rangle$.

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Intuitively, we let $\frac{1}{2_{\mathbb{Q}}} = [(2, 4)] = [(3, 6)] = \dots$ because $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{3}{6} = \dots$

Example 5.9: For any $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $b \neq 0$, then

$$f(a) \div f(b) = [(a, b)].$$

Proof. $f(a) \div f(b) = [(a, 1)] \div [(b, 1)]$
 $= [(a, 1)] \cdot [(b, 1)]^{-1}$
 $= [(a, 1)] \cdot [(1, b)]$
 $= [(a, b)].$

□

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Theorem 5ZL

Define a function $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ by taking

$$f(a) = [(a, 1)].$$

The function f is one-to-one and preserves operations and order: for any $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$,

- (a) $f(a + b) = f(a) + f(b)$;
- (b) $f(a \cdot b) = f(a) \cdot f(b)$;
- (c) $a < b$ iff $f(a) < f(b)$.

Proof. We first show that f is one-to-one. We have that

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) = f(b) &\implies [(a, 1)] = [(b, 1)] \implies (a, 1) \sim (b, 1) \\ &\implies a \cdot 1 = b \cdot 1 \implies a = b. \end{aligned}$$

For (a), $f(a + b) = [(a + b, 1)] = [(a, 1)] + [(b, 1)] = f(a) + f(b)$.

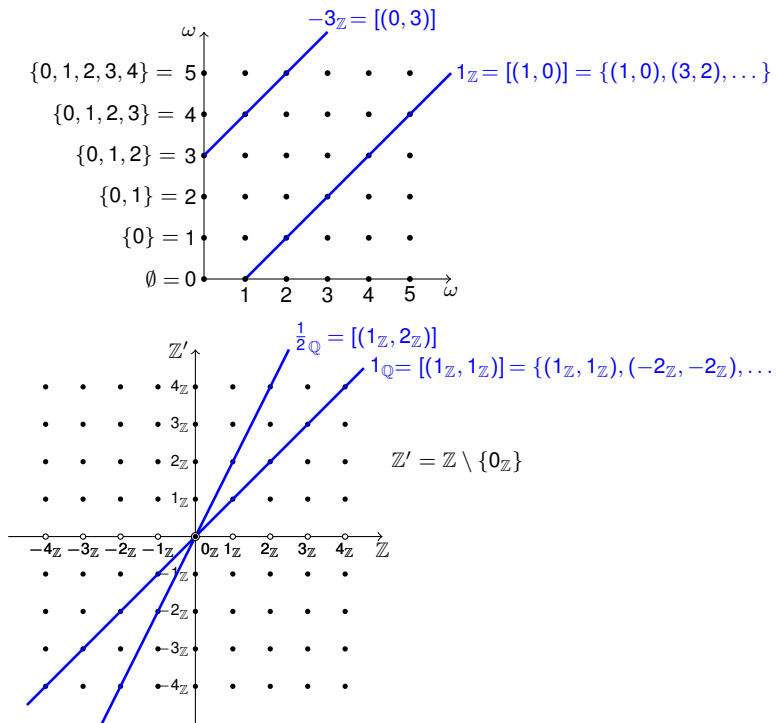
For (b), $f(a \cdot b) = [(a \cdot b, 1)] = [(a, 1)] \cdot [(b, 1)] = f(a) \cdot f(b)$.

For (c), $a < b$ iff $a \cdot 1 < b \cdot 1$ iff $[(a, 1)] < [(b, 1)]$ iff $f(a) < f(b)$. □

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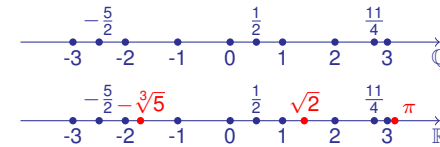
Real Numbers

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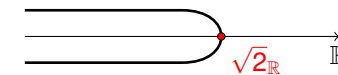
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In this section, we will extend the set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers to the set \mathbb{R} of real numbers.



An integer is named by a pair of natural numbers, and a rational number is named by a pair of integers. However, we will see in Chapter 6 that **there are more real numbers than pairs of rational numbers**. So it is not possible to name every real number by a pair of rational numbers.

Loosely speaking, we will *in effect* define a real number x to be the set of all rationals smaller than x .



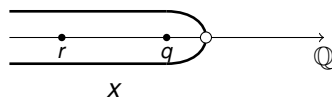
Informally, $\sqrt{2}_{\mathbb{R}} = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} \mid r < \sqrt{2}\}$.

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Definition 5.14 (Dedekind Cut)

A **Dedekind cut** is a **non-empty proper subset** x of \mathbb{Q} such that

- (i) x is **closed downwards**, i.e., for all $q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$,
 $q \in x$ and $r < q \implies r \in x$.
- (ii) x **has no greatest element**, i.e., there is no $r \in x$ such that $q \leq r$ for all $q \in x$.



Note: None of \emptyset and \mathbb{Q} is a Dedekind cut, although they are both closed downwards and have no greatest element.

- \mathbb{Q} has no greatest element, since for all $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, we have that $r + 1_{\mathbb{Q}} \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $r < r + 1_{\mathbb{Q}}$.

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Definition 5.15

The set \mathbb{R} of **real numbers** is the set of all Dedekind cuts. That is, a real number is a Dedekind cut.

Example 5.10: The set $0_{\mathbb{R}} := \{r \in \mathbb{Q} \mid r < 0\}$ is a Dedekind cut, thus a real number.

Proof.

- $0_{\mathbb{R}} \neq \emptyset$, since e.g. $-1 \in 0_{\mathbb{R}}$.
- $0_{\mathbb{R}} \neq \mathbb{Q}$, since e.g. $0 \notin 0_{\mathbb{R}}$.
- For any $q, r \in \mathbb{Q}$, $r < q \in 0_{\mathbb{R}} \implies r < q < 0 \implies r \in 0_{\mathbb{R}}$.
- For any $r \in 0_{\mathbb{R}}$, we have $r < 0$. Since \mathbb{Q} is dense, there exists $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $r < q < 0$, thus $q \in 0_{\mathbb{R}}$. □

Example 5.11: By a similar argument with the above, given any $q_0 \in \mathbb{Q}$, the set

$$q_{0\mathbb{R}} := \{r \in \mathbb{Q} \mid r < q_0\}$$

is a Dedekind cut, thus a real number.

In particular, $1_{\mathbb{R}} = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} \mid r < 1\}$ is a real number.

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