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## Examples

①  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < 1\}$  is a Dedekind cut.

$1 \notin A$ , so there is no maximal element and condition 4 is satisfied.

② Generalizing example 1, fix  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then

$A_a = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < a\}$  is a Dedekind cut.

$a \notin A_a$ , so there is again no maximal element.

③  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq 1\}$  is not a Dedekind cut, because 1 is a maximal element.

④  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : 0 \leq x < 1\}$  is not a Dedekind cut because property 3 is not satisfied  
 $\frac{1}{2} \in A$  and  $0 < \frac{1}{2}$  and yet  $0 \notin A$ .

⑤  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\}$  is not a Dedekind cut, because property 3 is not satisfied.

$0 \in A$  and  $-2 < 0$  and yet  $-2 \notin A$  because  $(-2)^2 > 2$

⑥  $B = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq 0\}$

is a Dedekind cut. Properties 1 and 2 are clear.

For 3: if  $x \in B$  then either  $x \leq 0$  or  $0 < x$  and  $x^2 < 2$

If  $y < x \in B$  and  $y \leq 0$  then  $y \in B$ . If  $0 < y < x \in B$

then  $y^2 < x^2 < 2 \Rightarrow y \in B$ . So property 3 is satisfied.

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Now for property 4. We need to show  $B$  does not have a maximal element.

If  $b \in B$  is maximal then  $b \geq 1$  because  $1 \in B$ . We know that  $b^2 < 2$ . Put  $\varepsilon = \frac{2-b^2}{3b} \leq \frac{1}{3} < 1$

We claim that  $b + \varepsilon \in B$  and hence  $b$  cannot be ~~maximal~~ maximal.

$$(b + \varepsilon)^2 = b^2 + \underline{2\varepsilon b} + \varepsilon^2$$

$$< b^2 + 2 \times \frac{(2-b^2)}{3b} \times b + \varepsilon$$

$$\leq b^2 + 2 \times \left( \frac{2-b^2}{3} \right) + \frac{2-b^2}{3}$$

$$= b^2 + 2 - b^2 = 2$$

So  $b + \varepsilon \in B$  as required.

So  $B$  has no maximal element, and Property 4 holds.

Since there is no rational  $x$  with  $x^2 = 2$  we also

have

$$B = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 \leq 2\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq 0\}$$

Def<sup>n</sup> A Dedekind cut of the form  $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < a\}$ ,

where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , is called a rational Dedekind cut. These

are the examples (2) above. Example (6) is a non-rational Dedekind cut. There are many more examples.

~~Note that for  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $A_a =$~~

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Note that for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $A_a = A_b \iff a = b$ .

A simple way to make non-rational Dedekind cuts is to use polynomials with integer coefficients. We want to use Dedekind cuts to define real numbers. Therefore Dedekind cuts should not themselves use real numbers.

Example  $f(x) = x^3 + x + 1$  is an increasing function ( $x^3$  and  $x$  are increasing). Also,  $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 1 > 0$

$\nexists x \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $f(x) = 0$ . To see this, suppose

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^3 + \frac{m}{n} + 1 = 0 \quad \text{for } m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ for } \gcd(m, n) = 1$$

$$\text{Then } m(m^2 + n^2) = -n^3. \quad m \text{ and } n \neq 0 \implies n \neq \pm 1$$

Suppose  $p$  is prime and  $p|n$ . Then  $p|m \vee p|(m^2 + n^2)$

In both so  $p|m$  'X'.

So ~~so~~ Let  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : f(x) < 0\}$

$-1 \in A$  and  $0 \notin A$ .  $f(x) < 0 \wedge y < x \implies f(y) < 0$

So  $A$  satisfies the first 3 properties of a Dedekind cut.

4th property  
We can prove directly that  $A$  has no maximal element

If  $x \in A$  and  $-1 \leq x < 0$  and  $0 < \epsilon < 1$  then

$$(x + \epsilon)^3 + x + \epsilon + 1 = \underbrace{(x^3 + x + 1)}_{< 0} + \underbrace{3\epsilon x^2 + 3\epsilon^2 x + \epsilon^3}_{< \epsilon} + \epsilon + 1$$

$$< x^3 + x + 1 + 5\epsilon \leq 0 \text{ if } \epsilon \leq \frac{-f(x)}{5}$$

$f(-1) = -1$  so if  $x \in A$ ,  $-1 \leq x$ ,  $x + \frac{-f(x)}{5} \in A$  and  $A$  has no maximal element

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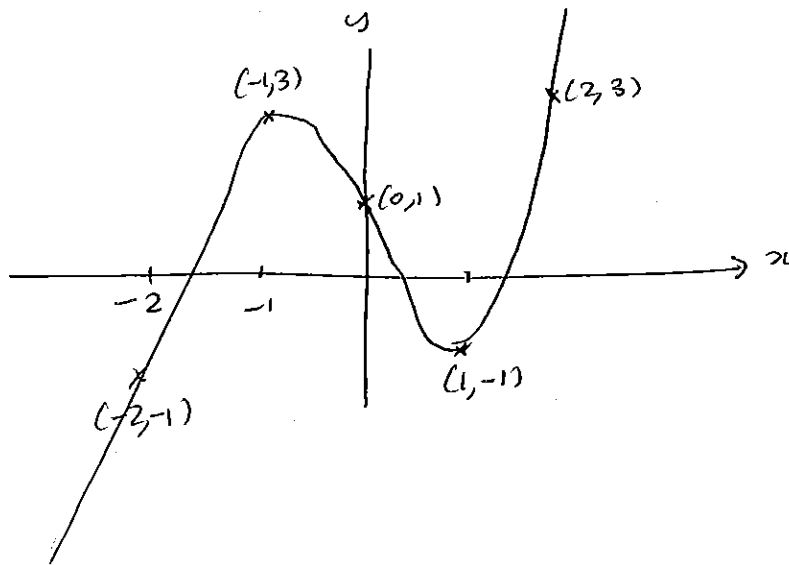
So  $A$  is a Dedekind cut.  $A$  is not a rational Dedekind cut because if  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < a\}$  then

we must have  $f(a) = 0$  (by continuity of  $f$  - but half of this has been proved directly because the argument just given shows  $f(a) \geq 0$ ) there is no such  $a$ , so  $A$  is not rational.

Example  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x + 1$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 3 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = \pm 1 \quad f''(a) = 6a \quad \begin{array}{l} -1 \text{ is local max} \\ 1 \text{ is local min} \end{array}$$

$$f(-2) = -1 \quad f(-1) = 3 \quad f(1) = -1 \quad f(2) = 3 \quad f(0) = 1$$



A polynomial with integer coefficients which cannot be factored as a product of polynomials with integer coefficients has no rational zeros. "Irreducible" polynomials - are with coefficient  $\pm 1$  for the highest term - has no rational zeros if it has no integer zeros.

In any case, this can be proved directly for this example.

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^3 - 3\frac{m}{n} + 1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow m^3 - 3mn = n^3 \quad \text{since there are no integer zeros, } n \neq \pm 1$$

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So if  $m^3 - 3mn = n^3$ , with  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ ,  
~~let  $p$  be~~

let  $p$  be a prime dividing  $n$ .

then  $p \mid m^3 - 3mn$  so  $p \mid m$  and  $\gcd(m, n) \neq 1$ ,

a contradiction.

We want to have 3 Dedekind cuts corresponding to "zeros"

of  $f$ .  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : f(x) < 0\}$  is not a Dedekind cut because,

for example,  $1 \in A$  and  $0 \notin A$

However we can form 3 Dedekind cuts corresponding to the

zeros of  $f$ :

$$A_1 = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : f(x) < 0 \wedge x < -1\} = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : f(x) < 0\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < -1\}$$

$$A_2 = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq 0\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : f(x) > 0 \wedge x < 1\}$$

$$A_3 = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : f(x) < 0 \vee x < 1\} = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : f(x) < 0\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < 1\}$$

For each of these,  $-2 \in A_i$  and  $2 \notin A_i$

Property 3 is satisfied for each

e.g. for  $A_1$  if  $x \in A_1$  and  $y < x$  then  $f(y) < f(x) < 0$

because  $f$  is strictly increasing for  $x < -1$ .

For  $A_2$  if  $x \in A_2$  and  $y < x$  then if  $y \leq 0$  we have  $y \in A_2$

if  $y > 0$  then  $0 < y < x < 1$  and  $f$  is strictly decreasing

on  $\mathbb{R}_0$  between  $y$  and  $x$  so  $f(y) > f(x) > 0$  and  $y \in A_2$

Property 4 in each case can be proved using continuity of the polynomial  $f$  - can also be proved from first principles.

Using continuity: Suppose  $x \in A_i$ , and we want to show  $x$  is not maximal. If  $x \in A_1$ , then  $f(x) < 0$ . If  $x \in A_2$  we can assume  $x \geq 0$  and hence  $f(x) > 0$ .

If  $x \in A_3$  we can assume  $x \geq 1$  and hence  $f(x) < 0$ .

In each case we can find  $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $\delta > 0$  s.t.

if  $|y - x| < \delta$  then  $|f(y) - f(x)| < \frac{|f(x)|}{2}$ . In case  $A_1$

we also need  $\delta < -x - 1$  and in case  $A_2$  we need  $\delta < 1 - x$ .

Then  $x + \frac{\delta}{2} \in A_i$ . So  $x$  is not maximal.

### Simple Properties of Dedekind Cuts

These 2 lemmas give important properties of Dedekind cuts ~~unordered~~.

Lemma 1 If  $A$  and  $B$  are Dedekind cuts ~~and~~ then either

$$A \subset B \text{ or } B \subset A$$

Proof If  $A = B$  both  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$  are true. So suppose  $A \neq B$ .

Without loss of generality  $\exists b \in B$  with  $b \notin A$ .

By property 3 for  $A$  if  $a \in A$  then  $a < b$ , and hence  $a \in B$ .

By property 3 for  $B$ . So  $A \subset B$ .  $\square$

Lemma 2 If  $A$  is a Dedekind cut and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , then  $\exists x \in A$  and  $y \notin A$  with  $x < y < x + \frac{1}{n}$ .

Proof ~~Take~~ <sup>Choose</sup>  $x_0 \in A$ . Consider  $x_0 + \frac{i}{n}$  for  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\implies \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  s.t.  $x_0 + \frac{m}{n} \notin A$ .  
 Otherwise for any  $i \in \mathbb{Q}$  we could find  $m$  s.t.  $x_0 + \frac{i}{n} < x_0 + \frac{m}{n}$  and  $x_0 + \frac{m}{n} \in A$  and then  $i \in A$ .  
 and  $\mathbb{Q} \subset A$ . So there is a least  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  with  $x_0 + \frac{m}{n} \notin A$ .

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To see this first choose  $b_1 \in B \setminus A$ . Since  $b_1$  is not maximal we can find  $b_2 > b_1$  with  $b_2 \in B$

$$\text{Then } A < A_{b_2} < B \quad b_2 \notin A_{b_2} \Rightarrow A_{b_2} \neq B$$

$$b_1 \in A_{b_2} \wedge b_1 \notin A \Rightarrow A_{b_2} \neq A$$

$$\text{So } A < A_{b_2} < B.$$

Definition A real number is a Dedekind cut.

An irrational real number is a nonrational Dedekind cut.

The set of real numbers now has an order - given by the order on Dedekind cuts. Order has some of the properties we expect: such as, between any 2 real numbers there is a rational number - because between any 2 Dedekind cuts, in the ordering, there is a rational number. But what about arithmetic?

### Addition

If  $A$  and  $B$  are Dedekind cuts then we define

$$A+B = \{a+b : a \in A, b \in B\}$$

We claim that  $A+B$  is a Dedekind cut.

1. Clearly  $A+B \neq \emptyset$
2. If  $M \notin A$  and  $N \notin B$  then  $a < M \forall a \in A, b < N \forall b \in B$ , so  $a+b < M+N \forall a \in A, b \in B$  and  $M+N \notin A+B$ .
3. If  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $x < a+b$  then  $x-a < b$  so  $x-a \in B$  and  $(x-a)+a = x$ . So if  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$  and  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $x < a+b$ , we have  $x \in A+B$ .

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and  $x_0 + \frac{m-1}{n+1} \in A$ . Put  $x = x_0 + \frac{m-1}{n+1}$  and  $y = x_0 + \frac{m}{n+1}$ .

Then  $x \in A$ ,  $y \notin A$  and  $x < y < x + \frac{1}{n}$ .  $\square$

### Order on Dedekind cuts

For Dedekind cuts  $A$  and  $B$

Defn we define  $A < B$  if  $A \subset B$  and  $A \neq B$ .

From Lemma 1 we then get the following important properties of order.

For any 2 Dedekind cuts  $A$  and  $B$ , exactly one of the following holds:

$$A < B \quad A = B \quad B < A.$$

For rational Dedekind cuts  $A_a = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < a\}$  and

$A_b = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < b\}$ , for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ , we have

$$A_a < A_b \iff a < b.$$

So order on rational Dedekind cuts coincides with the order on the corresponding rational numbers.

For any 2 we also have the following

For any Dedekind cuts  $A$  and  $B$  there is  $b \in \mathbb{Q}$  corresponding to rational Dedekind cut  $A_b$  such that

$$A < A_b < B$$

~~Simply choose  $b \in B \setminus A$  and then  $A \subset A_b \subset B$  and  $b \notin A_b \Rightarrow A_b \neq B$~~



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4. To show no maximal element: any element of  $A+B$  is of the form  $a+b$  with  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ .  
 $a$  is not maximal in  $A$ , so  $\exists a' \in A$  with  $a' > a$ .

Then  $a'+b > a+b$  and  $a'+b \in A+B$ .

So no element of  $A+B$  is maximal.

Order on Dedekind cuts

has the property that exactly one of the following holds

$A < B$      $A = B$      $B < A$ .

Addition of Dedekind cuts is associative, commutative and distributive. If  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$  we can write  $a$  instead of  $A_a = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < a\}$ .

If  $B$  is any Dedekind cut then

$B + A_a = B + \{x+a : x \in B\}$  because if  $x \in B$

$\exists x' > x$  with  $x' \in B$  and then  $x+a = x' + \underbrace{a+(x-x')}_{\in A}$

In particular  $B + 0 = B = 0 + B$ .

~~It~~ Addition also has the usual properties associated to order.

e.g. if  $A, B, C$  are Dedekind cuts, and  $B < C$  then  $A+B < A+C$ .

# (82) The Dedekind cut $-A$

We define  $-A = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{-x : x \in A\}$  if  $A$  is a nonrational Dedekind cut.

$-A = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{-x : x \in A\} \setminus \{-a\}$  if  $A$  is a rational Dedekind cut  $A = A_a$  with  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

Then  $-A$  is a Dedekind cut.

If  $A$  is nonrational then  $y \in -A \iff (y < -x \forall x \in A \wedge y \in \mathbb{Q})$

If  $A$  is rational with  $A = A_a$  for  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$  then

$$y \in -A \iff (y < -x \forall x \in A \wedge y \neq -a \wedge y \in \mathbb{Q})$$

$$\iff y < -a \wedge y \in \mathbb{Q}$$

So  $-A_a = A_{-a}$

Properties 1, 2, 3 are clearly satisfied. Also Property 4 is

satisfied because if  $-A$  has a maximal element  $b$  and  $A$  is nonrational

then  $b \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $-A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq b\}$

That means  $\{-x : x \in A\} = \{y \in \mathbb{Q} : y > b\}$   
 $-x > b \iff x < -b$

and  $A = \{x : x < -b\}$  is rational.  $\times$

If  $A = A_a$  is rational then  $-A = A_{-a}$  so  $-A$  is a Dedekind cut.

An important result about  $-A$ 's

Theorem If  $A$  and  $B$  are Dedekind cuts, then  $A+B=0$

$\iff B = -A$

Proof First we show  $A+(-A) = 0$  Since  $y < -x \forall y \in -A$

and  $x \in A$  we have  $A+(-A) \leq 0$ . Now we show

$A+(-A) = 0$ . By Lemma 2,  $\exists a \in A$  and  $c \notin A$  with  $a < c < a + \frac{1}{n}$

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$$c > a' \forall a' \in A \quad \text{So } -c < -a' \forall a' \in A$$

$$\text{So } -c \in -A \quad a-c > -\frac{1}{n}.$$

$$\text{So } a-c \in A + (-A) \Rightarrow -\frac{1}{n} \in A + (-A)$$

This is true  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  &  $\forall y \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $y < 0$

then  $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  s.t.  $y < -\frac{1}{n}$ .

$$\text{So } y \in A + (-A) \quad \forall y < 0 \quad \text{and } A + (-A) = 0 (= A_0).$$

Now suppose  $A+B=0$ , then  $a+b < 0 \forall b \in B$ .

$$a+b < 0 \forall a \in A, b \in B \quad \text{So } b < -a \forall a \in A, b \in B.$$

So  $B \leq -A$  (If  $A$  is rational, we need to use the fact that  $B$  is a Dedekind cut, and hence does not have a rational element.)

If  $B \neq -A$  then  $c' < c \in -A$  with  $c', c \notin B$ .

$$b < c' < c \quad \forall b \in B.$$

$$c \in -A \Rightarrow c+a < 0 \quad \forall a \in A$$

$$b+a < c+a \quad \forall b \in B, a \in A$$

$$b+a < c+a + (c'-c) < c'-c \quad \forall b \in B, a \in A$$

$$\text{So } A+B \leq A_{c'-c} \quad \times.$$

□.

Corollary For all Dedekind cuts  $A$  and  $B$

$$-(A+B) = (-A) + (-B)$$

$$\text{Proof } (A+B) + ((-A) + (-B)) = (A + (-A)) + (B + (-B)) = 0$$

So  $-(A+B) = (-A) + (-B)$  from the theorem.

Multiplication

For Dedekind cuts  $A, B$  with  $A \geq 0$  and  $B \geq 0$  we define

$$A \cdot B = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq 0 \} \cup \{ab : a \in A, b \in B \text{ with } a > 0, b > 0\}$$

This is a Dedekind cut if  $a < M$  and  $b < N \forall a \in A, b \in B$

Then  $MN \in A \cdot B$ .

If  $x = a \cdot b \in A \cdot B$  and  $y < x$ , if  $y \leq 0$  then

$y \in A \cdot B$ . If  $y > 0$  then  $0 < y < x = a \cdot b$  with  $a > 0, b > 0$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y}{b} < a \Rightarrow \frac{y}{b} \in A \Rightarrow \frac{y}{b} \cdot b = y \in A \cdot B$$

Also if  $a \cdot b$  is maximal in  $A \cdot B$  then  $a$  is maximal in  $A$  and  $b$  is maximal in  $B$  giving contradiction.

For ~~general~~ <sup>other</sup> Dedekind cuts we define

$$\begin{aligned} A \cdot B &= -[(-A) \cdot B] \text{ if } A < 0, B \geq 0 \\ &= -(A \cdot (-B)) \text{ if } A \geq 0, B < 0 \\ &= (-A) \cdot (-B) \text{ if } A < 0, B < 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$A_a \cdot A_b = A_{ab} \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$$

All the usual rules apply e.g.  $0 \cdot A = 0 \quad \forall A$   
 $1 \cdot A = A \quad \forall A$ .

Multiplicative Inverse

If  $A > 0$  we define  $A^{-1} = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{x^{-1} : x \in A, x > 0\}$  if  $A$  is unbounded

$$A^{-1} = \mathbb{Q} \setminus (\{x^{-1} : x \in A, x > 0\} \cup \{a^{-1}\}) \text{ if } A = A_a, a \in \mathbb{Q}$$

If  $A < 0$  we define  $A^{-1} = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{(-A)^{-1}\}$

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Examples An important motivation of the construction of <sup>Dedekind</sup> ~~the construction of~~ ~~fields~~ cuts is to find a number whose square is 2.

If  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq 0 \vee x^2 < 2\}$  then  $A$  is a Dedekind cut with  $A^2 = 2$ . To see this:

Clearly  $x \cdot y < 2 \quad \forall 0 < x, y$  with  $x^2 < 2$  and  $y^2 < 2$

So  $A^2 \leq 2$  To show  $A^2 = 2$ , given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  we can

find  $0 < x \in A$  with  $x + \frac{1}{n} \notin A$

So  $x^2 < 2$  and  $(x + \frac{1}{n})^2 > 2$   $(x + \frac{1}{n})^2 = x^2 + \frac{2x}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} > 2$

So  $\frac{2x}{n} > 2 - x^2 - \frac{1}{n^2}$

$x < 2$  so  $x^2 > 2 - \frac{4}{n} - \frac{1}{n^2} > 2 - \frac{5}{n}$

So  $2 - \frac{5}{n} \in A^2 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$

So  $A^2 = 2$ .

Similarly if  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \leq 0 \vee x^2 < p\}$  for any

$p \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $p > 0$  then  $A^2 = p$

This can be shown in exactly the same way  $A^2 \leq p$

Choose  $x \in A$  with  $x + \frac{1}{n} \notin A$   $x^2 < p < x^2 + \frac{2x}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2}$

$x^2 > p - \frac{2x}{n} - \frac{1}{n^2}$

$x \leq p+1$   
so  $x^2 > p - \frac{2(p+1)}{n} - \frac{1}{n^2}$

$p - \frac{2(p+1)}{n^2} \in A^2 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  So  $A^2 = p$

Similarly (but a bit harder) we can show that if

$A = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^3 + x + 1 < 0\}$  then  $A^3 + A + 1 = 0$  ...

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Properties of Real numbers

$\mathbb{R}$  is the set of real numbers

We now consider the elements of  $\mathbb{R}$  as numbers and consider their properties.  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . So properties should be consistent with those of  $\mathbb{Q}$

Properties of arithmetic

Addition, multiplication, subtraction are defined for any pair of real numbers. Division  ~~$x \div y = \frac{x}{y}$~~  is defined

Special real numbers 0, 1 are defined. Division  $x \div y = \frac{x}{y}$  is defined for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ .

Addition and multiplication are both associative and commutative

$(x+y)+z = x+(y+z) \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$        $x+y = y+x \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

$(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z) \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$        $x \cdot y = y \cdot x \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

In addition the distributive law holds  
 $x \cdot (y+z) = (x \cdot y) + (x \cdot z) \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$

Special properties of 0, 1:

$x+0 = 0+x = x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

$x \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot x = x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists -x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } x+(-x) = (-x)+x = 0$

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \exists \frac{1}{x} \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{x} \cdot x = 1$

Other properties can be deduced e.g.  $x+y=0 \iff y=-x$

$0 \cdot x = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

Subtraction is then defined by  $x-y = x+(-y)$

Division is defined by  $x \div y = x \cdot \frac{1}{y}$  for  $y \neq 0$

There are also properties of order, and properties relating order and arithmetic.

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### Order properties

$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , exactly one of the following holds

$$x < y \quad x = y \quad y < x$$

Transitivity  $(x < y \wedge y < z) \Rightarrow x < z \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$

### Properties relating order and arithmetic

$$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}, \quad y < z \Rightarrow x + y < x + z$$

$$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R} \quad (y < z \wedge 0 < x) \Rightarrow xy < xz$$

But  $\mathbb{Q}$  has all these properties. We know that  $\mathbb{R}$  has more elements than  $\mathbb{Q}$ . What really distinguishes  $\mathbb{R}$  from

$\mathbb{Q}$ ?

Let's leave this open for the moment.

Sequences

Def<sup>n</sup> A sequence in  $X$  is a function  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$ ,

or  $f: \mathbb{Z}_+ \rightarrow X$  or (occasionally)  $f: \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq k\} \rightarrow X$

for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . We write  $f(n) = x_n$ , and then the

sequence is  $\{x_n : n \geq k\}$  (usually with  $k=0$  or  $1$ )

We will be especially interested in sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Often, they will be sequences in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , but we will still

think of them as sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Examples ①  $x_n = \frac{1}{n} \quad n \geq 1 \quad x_1 = 1, x_2 = \frac{1}{2}, x_3 = \frac{1}{3}, x_4 = \frac{1}{4}, \dots$

②  $x_n = 2^n \quad n \geq 0$

③  $x_n = \frac{n}{n+1} \quad n \geq 0$

④  $x_n = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} \quad n \geq 1$

⑤  $x_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$

⑥  $x_n$  defined inductively by  $x_0 = 2$  and, for  $n \geq 0$

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n}{2} + \frac{1}{x_n} \quad x_1 = \frac{3}{2} \quad x_2 = \frac{17}{12} \quad x_3 = \frac{577}{408}, \dots$$

⑦  $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \quad n \geq 1, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{a_1} \quad x_2 = \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2}} \quad x_3 = \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{a_3}}} \quad \dots \quad x_n = \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\ddots + \frac{1}{a_n}}}}$$

Equivalently,  $x_n = \frac{p_n}{q_n}$  where  $p_1 = 1, q_1 = a_1, p_0 = 0, q_0 = 1, p_i = 1, q_i = 0$

$$p_n = p_{n-2} + a_n p_{n-1} \quad q_n = q_{n-2} + a_n q_{n-1}$$



## (89) Decreasing and increasing sequences

Def<sup>n</sup> A sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n \geq k}$  of real numbers is increasing if  $x_n \leq x_{n+1} \forall n$ .

It is decreasing if  $x_{n+1} \leq x_n \forall n$ .

### Examples

①  $x_n = \frac{1}{n} \forall n \geq 1$  is decreasing because  $\frac{1}{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{n} \forall n \geq 1$

②  $x_n = 2^n$  is increasing because  $2^n \leq 2^{n+1} \forall n$ .

③  $x_n = \frac{n}{n+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}$  is increasing because  $1 - \frac{1}{n} < 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \forall n$

④  $x_n = 1 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$  is increasing because

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{n+1} > 0 \quad \forall n.$$

⑤  $x_n = 1 + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$  is increasing because

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} > 0 \quad \forall n$$

⑥  $x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{x_n}{2} - x_n + \frac{1}{x_n} = \frac{2 - x_n^2}{x_n} = \frac{-(x_{n-1} - 2)^2}{4x_{n-1}x_n} \quad \forall n \geq 1$

$x_n > 0 \forall n$  by induction so  $x_n^2 \geq 2 \forall n$  and

$$x_{n+1} - x_n < 0 \quad \forall n \geq 1 \quad \text{also } x_1 - x_0 = -\frac{1}{4} < 0$$

So  $\{x_n\}$  is decreasing

⑦ This is a general class of examples, which is neither increasing nor decreasing. First, to see some examples

(90)

\* Example  $a_n = 3 \quad \forall n$

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{3} \quad x_2 = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{3}{10} \quad x_3 = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{3}}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3 + \frac{3}{10}} = \frac{10}{33} \quad \text{In general, in this example } x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{3 + x_n}$$

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{3 + x_{n+1}} - \frac{1}{3 + x_n} = \frac{x_n - x_{n+1}}{(3 + x_{n+1})(3 + x_n)}$$

This suggests  $x_{n+1} - x_{n+2}$  has opposite sign to  $x_n - x_{n+1}$ .

This is true in general.

If  $x_n = \frac{p_n}{q_n}$  and  $x_{n+1} = \frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}}$  then

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}} - \frac{p_n}{q_n} = \frac{p_{n+1}q_n - p_nq_{n+1}}{q_nq_{n+1}}$$

It is an exercise on Sheet 90 to show that

$$p_{n+1}q_n - p_nq_{n+1} = (-1)^n = p_{n-1}q_n - p_nq_{n-1}$$

$$\text{So } p_1q_0 - p_0q_1 = 1 - 0 = 1 = \text{solve } p_n = 0.$$

### Bounded Sequences

A sequence of real numbers  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded above if  $\exists M$  such that  $x_n \leq M \quad \forall n$  and bounded below if  $\exists L$  s.t.  $L \leq x_n \quad \forall n$  and bounded if  $\exists M$  s.t.  $|x_n| \leq M \quad \forall n$ , that is  $-M \leq x_n \leq M \quad \forall n$ .

Examples (91)

①  $\{\frac{1}{n} | n \geq 1\}$  is bounded because  $0 \leq \frac{1}{n} \leq 1 \quad \forall n \geq 1$

②  $\{2^n | n \geq 0\}$  is not bounded above because  $2^n \geq n \quad \forall n \geq 0$   
and  $\{n\}$  is not bounded. However, it is bounded below by 1 because  $2^n \geq 1 \quad \forall n \geq 0$

③  $\{\frac{n}{n+1}\}$  is bounded, because  $0 \leq \frac{n}{n+1} \leq 1 \quad \forall n \geq 0$

④  $\{\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}\}$  is bounded below by 1,  $\forall n \geq 1$  but, perhaps surprisingly, is not bounded above. This is (or will be) shown in MATH 101/2

⑤ In contrast,  $\{\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}\}$  is bounded below by 1 and above by 2

⑥ If  $x_0 = 2$  and  $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n}{2} + \frac{1}{x_n}$  then  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded above by 2 and below by 0 as it is a decreasing sequence of positive numbers.

⑦ In general, any decreasing sequence  $\{x_n | n \geq k\}$  is bounded above by  $x_k$  and any increasing sequence  $\{x_n | n \geq k\}$  is bounded below by  $x_k$

⑧  $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \quad \forall n \geq 1 \quad x_n = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{a_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{a_n}} = \frac{p_n}{q_n}$

$\{x_{2n}\}$  is an increasing sequence and

$\{x_{2n+1}\}$  is decreasing with  $x_{2n} \leq x_{2n-1} \quad \forall n \geq 1$

Then  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded above by  $x_1$  and below by  $x_2$ .

Limits

Def<sup>n</sup> A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  has limit  $l$ , or converges to  $l$ , written

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = l, \text{ if given } \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \text{ s.t. } |x_n - l| < \varepsilon \forall n \geq N.$$

Examples

①  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$

②  $\{2^n; n \geq 0\}$  does not have a limit (although we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^n = \infty)$$

③  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1$

④ If  $x_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$  then  $\{x_n\}$  does not have a limit

(although we can write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$ )

⑤ If  $x_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$

See next year. At we will see shortly that a limit does

exist.

⑥ ~~we~~ we will see shortly that if  $x_0 = 2$   $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n}{2} + \frac{1}{x_n}$  then  $\{x_n\}$  has a limit.  $l$ . If it does have a limit  $l$

$$\text{then } l = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{x_n}{2} + \frac{1}{x_n} \right) = \frac{l}{2} + \frac{1}{l}$$

$$\text{and } l^2 = 2$$

⑦ We will see shortly that  $x_n = \frac{1}{a_1 + \dots + \frac{1}{a_n}}$  has a limit

if  $\{a_n\}$  with  $a_n > 0 \forall n$ . In the example  $a_n = 3 \forall n$

$$\text{for which } x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{3 + x_n} \text{ the limit } l \text{ satisfies } l = \frac{1}{3 + l}$$

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Theorem (See also MATH 101) If a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n \geq k}$  has a limit,

then  $\{x_n\}_{n \geq k}$  is bounded.

Proof  $\exists N$  s.t.  $|x_n - l| \leq 1 \quad \forall n \geq N$

Then  $|x_n| \leq |l| + |x_n - l| \leq |l| + 1 \quad \forall n \geq N$

Define  $M = \max\{|x_k| : k \leq i \leq N\} \cup \{|l| + 1\}$

Then  $|x_n| \leq M \quad \forall n \geq k$   $\square$

The converse of this theorem is not true. If a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded, it might not have a limit. e.g.  $\{(-1)^n\}_{n \geq 0}$  does not have a limit.

Nevertheless, there is a very important property of increasing/decreasing sequences regarding limits.

Completeness Axiom If  $\{x_n\}_{n \geq k}$  is an increasing sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  exists (in  $\mathbb{R}$ )

Similarly, if  $\{x_n\}$  is a decreasing sequence which is bounded below, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  exists (in  $\mathbb{R}$ )

The Completeness Axiom is the property of the set  $\mathbb{R}$  of real numbers which distinguishes it from the set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of rational numbers.

Proof of the Completeness Axiom

This proof involves identifying real numbers with Dedekind cuts again

So let  $\{A_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  be an increasing sequence of Dedekind cuts which is bounded above. Increasing means  $A_n \subset A_{n+1} \quad \forall n$ . Bounded above means  $A_n \subset \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < M\} \quad \forall n$ , that is  $a < M \quad \forall a \in A_n, \quad \forall n \geq 1$ .

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Then  $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$  is a Dedekind cut.

$$a \in M \forall a \in \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \{a' : a' \in A_n \text{ for some } n\}$$

$$A_n \subset A \quad \forall n \quad \text{so } A \neq \emptyset.$$

$$x \in A \wedge y < x \Rightarrow (x \in A_n \text{ for some } n) \wedge y < x \Rightarrow y \in A_n \Rightarrow y \in A \quad (\text{Prop 3})$$

If  $a \in A$  is maximal then  $a \in A_n$  for some  $n$ .  
 $a' \in a \forall a' \in A_n \Rightarrow a$  maximal in  $A_n$ . So  $A$  does not have a maximal element.

So  $A$  is a Dedekind cut.

To see  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = A$ : given  $\epsilon \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  choose

$$x \in A \text{ with } x + \frac{1}{k} \notin A. \text{ Then } x \in A_n \text{ for some } n$$

$$\text{Then } \{y : y < x\} \subset A_m \subset \{y : y < x + \frac{1}{k}\} \text{ for all } m \geq n.$$

$$\text{This means } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = A$$

### Applications

Example 5  $x_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$  Let's accept  $x_n \leq 2 \forall n$ .

Then  $\{x_n\}$  is an increasing sequence and bounded above.

So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  exists

Example 6  $x_0 = 2 \quad x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n}{2} + \frac{1}{x_n}$ .

$\{x_n\}$  is decreasing and bounded below by 0, so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  exists. If  $l$  is the limit is  $l = \frac{l}{2} + \frac{1}{l}$

So  $l^2 = 2$  and  $l = \sqrt{2}$ . So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  exists

Example 7  $x_n$  is increasing and  $x_{2n+1}$  decreasing with  $x_{2n} \leq x_{2n+1}$

So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n}$  exists and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n+1}$  exists. In addition we can show

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}) = 0 \quad \text{so } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n \text{ exists. In the specific example } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

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Continued Fractions and Recurrences

Any irrational real number between 0 and 1 is

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  for some sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  with  $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$   $\forall n$

$$\text{and } x_n = \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\ddots + \frac{1}{a_n}}}}$$

Any rational real number between 0 and 1 is of the form

$$\frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\ddots + \frac{1}{a_n}}}}$$

for some  $n$  and  $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

If the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  repeats an initial segment infinitely often, that is, if  $\exists k \geq 1$  such that  $a_{n+k} = a_n \forall n \geq 1$

Then  $x = \lim x_n$  satisfies a quadratic equation of the

form  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

This is also true if  $\{a_n\}$  is eventually periodic

that is, there are  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  and  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that

$$a_{n+k} = a_n \quad \forall n \geq N.$$

# Decimals

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Every real number has an infinite decimal expansion of

the form

$$x = a_0.a_1a_2a_3\cdots$$

where  $a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a_i \in \{n \in \mathbb{N} : 0 \leq a_i \leq 9\}$

where this means

$$x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{a_i}{10^i} \quad \text{if } a_0 \geq 0$$

$$x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( a_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{a_i}{10^i} \right) \quad \text{if } a_0 < 0$$

The sequence  $(a_n)$  is eventually periodic  $\Leftrightarrow x$  is rational

That is  $\exists N, k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  st.  $a_{n+k} = a_n \quad \forall n \geq N \Leftrightarrow x$  is rational.

Example

$$\frac{1}{13}$$

$$0.413413\cdots$$

$$= \frac{4}{10} + \frac{1}{100} + \frac{3}{1000} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1000} + \cdots \right)$$

$$= \frac{413}{1000} \times \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{1000}} = \frac{413}{999}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} .7692376923\cdots \\ 13 \overline{) 1.000000} \\ \underline{91} \phantom{0000} \\ 90 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{78} \phantom{0000} \\ 120 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{117} \phantom{0000} \\ 30 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{26} \phantom{0000} \\ 40 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{39} \phantom{0000} \\ 1 \phantom{0000} \end{array}$$