

## 2.1 Algebraic and Order Properties of $\mathbb{R}$ .

On  $\mathbb{R}$ , there are two operations, addition + multiplication. They satisfy:

$$(A_1) \quad a + b = b + a, \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{commutative} \\ \text{addition} \end{array} \right)$$

$$(A_2) \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$$

$\left( \begin{array}{l} \text{associative} \\ \text{addition} \end{array} \right)$

(A<sub>3</sub>) There is an element 0

$$\text{in } \mathbb{R} \text{ so } a + 0 = a$$

(0-element exist)

(A4) For each  $a$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ , there is  
 an element  $-a$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  so  
 that

$$a + (-a) = 0 \text{ and } (-a) + a = 0$$

(negative element)

$$(M1) \quad a \cdot b = b \cdot a \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{(commutative)} \\ \text{(multiplication)} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$(M2) \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$$

(associative  
 multiplication)

(M3) There is an element  $1$  in  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\text{so that } a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$$

(unit element  
exists)

(M4). For each  $a \neq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

there exists an element

$1/a$  such that

$$a \cdot \left(\frac{1}{a}\right) = 1 \text{ and}$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) \cdot a = 1$$

(existence  
of reciprocal)

$$(D) \quad a \cdot (b+c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$$

and

$$(b+c) \cdot a = (b \cdot a) + (c \cdot a)$$

(distributive property)

In a word,  $\mathbb{R}$  is a field

By applying some of the  
above properties, one  
can show that the

- (1) zero element  $0$ , the  
 (2) unit element  $1$ , and  
 (3) the reciprocal  $\frac{1}{a}$  are  
 all unique.

For example, suppose  $a \neq 0$   
 and  $a \cdot b = 1$ , Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 b &= 1 \cdot b = \left( \left( \frac{1}{a} \right) \cdot a \right) \cdot b \\
 &= \left( \frac{1}{a} \right) \cdot (a \cdot b) = \left( \frac{1}{a} \right) \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{a}
 \end{aligned}$$

(M<sub>3</sub>)
(M<sub>4</sub>)
(M<sub>2</sub>)
(M<sub>yp.</sub>)
(M<sub>3</sub>)

This proves (3)

Also, if  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $a \cdot 0 = 0$

In fact,

$$a + a \cdot 0 = a \cdot 1 + a \cdot 0 = a \cdot (1 + 0)$$

by  $(M_3)$

by  $(D)$

$$= a \cdot 1 = a$$

by  $(A_3)$

by  $(M_3)$

Adding  $(-a)$  to both sides, we get

$$\underline{a \cdot 0 = 0.}$$

$$\text{Also, } 0 = (-1)(-1+1) = (-1)(-1) + (-1).$$

Adding 1 to both sides, we get

$$(-1)(-1) = 1$$

We define subtraction by

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

and also we write

$$ab = a \cdot b,$$

and  $a^2 = aa$  and

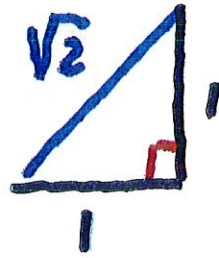
$$a^3 = a^2 a \quad \text{and}$$

$$a^{n+1} = a^n a, \text{ etc.}$$

$\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$  are both fields.

Thm. There does not exist  
a rational number  $r$  such

that  $r^2 = 2$



Suppose by contradiction

that  $r = p/q$ . Then

$$r^2 = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \right\}^2 = 2 \rightarrow p^2 = 2q^2.$$

We can assume that

$p$  and  $q$  have no common



factor. Then at most one  
of  $p$  and  $q$  is even.

Since  $p^2 = 2q^2$ , we see

that  $p^2$  is even. This implies

that  $p$  is also even (because

if  $p = 2n+1$  is odd, then

$$p^2 = 4n^2 + 4n + 1 \text{ is also odd.})$$

Hence we can write  $p = 2m$ ,

so that

$$p^2 = 4m^2 = 2q^2.$$

Dividing by 2,

$$2m^2 = q^2.$$

Hence  $q^2$  must be even,

which implies  $q$  is even.

This shows that both

$p$  and  $q$  are even, which

is a contradiction.

It follows that

$\mathbb{R}$  must include numbers

that are **irrational**

(i.e., not rational).

For this purpose we need to  
study Order Properties.

i.e., **<** and **>**.

## Order Properties of $\mathbb{R}$

There is a nonempty subset

$\mathbb{P}$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ , called the set of

positive real numbers such that

(i) If  $a, b \in \mathbb{P}$ , then  $a+b \in \mathbb{P}$

(ii) If  $a, b \in \mathbb{P}$ , then  $ab \in \mathbb{P}$

(iii) If  $a \in \mathbb{P}$ , then exactly one of the following holds:

$$a \in \mathbb{P}, \quad a = 0, \quad (-a) \in \mathbb{P}$$

Trichotomy Property

If  $-a \in \mathbb{P}$ , we say  $a$  is negative,

and we write  $a < 0$  or  $0 > a$ .

If  $a \in \mathbb{P}$ , we write  $a > 0$

or  $0 < a$

If  $a \in \mathbb{P} \cup \{0\}$ , we write  $a \geq 0$ .

If  $-a \in \mathbb{P} \cup \{0\}$ , then we  
write  $a \leq 0$ .

If (i) - (iii) hold, then we say

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

Applying the Trichotomy Property  
to  $a-b$ , we get

If  $a-b \in \mathbb{P}$ , i.e.  $a > b$ .

If  $-(a-b) \in \mathbb{P}$ , then  $(b-a) \in \mathbb{P}$

$\Rightarrow b > a$

If  $a-b = 0$ , then  $a = b$

Here are the Rules for  
Inequalities :

Thm. Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
2.1.7

(a) If  $a > b$  and  $b > c$ , then

$$\underline{a > c}$$

(b) If  $a > b$ , then  $a + c > b + c$

(c) If  $a > b$  and  $c > 0$ , then

$$\underline{ca > cb}$$

If  $a > b$  and  $c < 0$ , then

$$\underline{ac < cb}$$

Proof of (a):  $a - b > 0$ ,  $b - c > 0$

$$\text{then } (a - b) + (b - c) > 0$$

$$\text{or } a - c > 0 \rightarrow a > c$$

(b) If  $a - b > 0$ , then

$$(a+c) - (b+c) = a-b > 0$$

$$\rightarrow a+c > b+c$$


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(c) If  $a > b$  and  $c > 0$ , then

$$ca - cb = c(a-b) > 0.$$

$$\rightarrow ca > cb$$


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If  $c < 0$ , then  $-c > 0$ . Hence

$$c(b-a) = -c(a-b) > 0$$

$$\rightarrow cb - ca > 0 \rightarrow cb > ca.$$



## The Order Properties

in 2.1.5 and 2.1.6 lead to

2.1.10 and 2.1.11, which are

useful for solving inequalities:

1. Suppose that  $ab > 0$ . If  $a > 0$ , then  $b > 0$ .
2. If  $ab > 0$  and  $a < 0$ , then  $b < 0$
3. If  $ab < 0$  and  $a > 0$ , then  $b < 0$
4. If  $ab < 0$  and  $a < 0$ , then  $b > 0$

We need to prove  
several facts:

Thm 2.1.8

(a) if  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a \neq 0$ , then

$$a^2 > 0$$

(b) if  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $n > 0$

Since  $1 = 1^2$ , (a)  $\Rightarrow 1 > 0$

(c) If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $n > 0$ .

Apply (b) and (i) from Order  
Properties. Use Math. Ind.

Proof of (a). If  $a \neq 0$ , then either  $a > 0$  or  $a < 0$ .

If  $a > 0$ , then  $a^2 > 0$  (i.e.  $a \in \mathbb{P}$ )

If  $a < 0$ , then  $-a > 0$ ,

Hence  $a^2 = (-a)(-a) > 0$ ,

since  $(-1)(-1) > 0$ .

Proof of (b). Since  $1 = 1^2$ ,

it follows from (a) that

$$1^2 > 0.$$

Pf. of (c). If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  
 $n > 0$ . Clearly  $1 > 0$ .

Assuming by induction  
that  $n > 0$ , then  $n+1 > 0$ .

It is also important  
that if  $a > 0$ , then  $a^{-1} > 0$ .

To see this, suppose that  $a^{-1} < 0$ .

Then  $1 = a \cdot a^{-1} < a \cdot 0 = 0$ .

Ex. Find all real numbers  $x$  such that  $3x + 4 \leq 12$ .

Justify each step.

$$3x + 4 \leq 12 \Leftrightarrow 3x \leq 8 \Leftrightarrow x \leq \frac{8}{3}$$

By (b) of 2.1.7

By (c) of 2.1.7

Ex. Solve  $x^2 - 4x - 5 < 0$ .

$$x^2 - 4x - 5 = (x-5)(x+1) < 0$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

If  $x-5 > 0$  then  $x+1 < 0$

By Property  
(3) above

No solution.

Or, by Property 4, if

$x-5 < 0$ , then  $x+1 > 0$ .

$\therefore$  Solution is  $-1 < x < 5$ .

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Finally, we have

~~Thm. 2.1.8:~~

~~(a) if  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a \neq 0$ ,~~

~~then  $a^2 > 0$ .~~

~~(b)  $1 > 0$ . Since  $1 = 1^2$~~

~~this follows from (a)~~