

## Chapter 2

# Structure of real numbers field $\mathbb{R}$

## Dr L.Derbal

The aim of this chapter is to introduce axiomatically the set of Real numbers

### 2.1 Set of rational numbers $\mathbb{Q}$ .

#### 2.1.1 Integers numbers

We take for granted the system  $\mathbb{N}$  of natural numbers  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ . In general the equation  $x + a = 0$  is not solvable in  $\mathbb{N}$  whose case or  $a$  is positive. In order to make this equation solvable, we must enlarge the set  $\mathbb{N} = \mathbb{Z}_+$  by introducing negative integers as unique solutions of the equations  $a + x = 0$  (existence of the additive inverse) for each  $a \in \mathbb{N}$ . Our extended system, which is denoted by  $\mathbb{Z}$ , now contains all integers and can be arranged in order

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \cup \{-a : a \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

**theorem 2.1.1 (Fundamental theorem of arithmetic)** *Every positive integer except 1 can be expressed uniquely as a product of primes.*

#### 2.1.2 Rational Numbers

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . The equation

$$ax = b \tag{1}$$

need not have a solution  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ . In order to solve (1) (for  $a \neq 0$ ) we have to enlarge our system of numbers again so that it includes fractions  $\frac{b}{a}$  (existence of multiplicative inverse in  $\mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$ ). This motivates the following definition.

**Definition 2.1.2** *The set of rational numbers (or rationals)  $\mathbb{Q}$  is the set*

$$\mathbb{Q} = \{r = \frac{p}{q} : p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N}, \text{hcf}(p, q) = 1\}.$$

Here  $\text{hcf}(p, q)$  stands for the highest common factor of  $p$  and  $q$ , so when writing  $\frac{p}{q}$  for a rational we often assume that the numbers  $p$  and  $q$  have no common factor greater than 1.

**Definition 2.1.3** *Let  $b \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then*

$$\left(\frac{a}{b} > \frac{c}{d}\right) \Leftrightarrow (ad > bc)$$

The following theorem provides a very important property of rationals.

**theorem 2.1.4** *Between any two rational numbers there is another (and, hence, infinitely many others).*

**proof.** Let  $b \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $\frac{a}{b} > \frac{c}{d}$ .

Notice that

$$(\forall m \in \mathbb{N}) \left[ \frac{a}{b} > \frac{a+mc}{b+md} > \frac{c}{d} \right].$$

Indeed, since  $b$ ,  $d$  and  $m$  are positive we have

$$[a(b+md) > b(a+mc)] \Leftrightarrow [mad > mbc] \Leftrightarrow (ad > bc),$$

and

$$[d(a+mc) > c(b+md)] \Leftrightarrow (ad > bc).$$

■

## 2.2 Irrational Numbers

Suppose that  $a \in Q^+$  and consider the equation

$$x^2 = a. \tag{2}$$

In general (2) does not have rational solutions. For example, the following theorem holds.

**theorem 2.2.1** *No rational number has square 2.*

**proof.** Suppose for a contradiction that the rational number  $\frac{p}{q}$ , ( $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $q \in \mathbb{N}$ , in lowest terms) is such that  $(\frac{p}{q})^2 = 2$ . Then  $p^2 = 2q^2$ .

Hence, appealing to the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic,  $p^2$  is even, and hence  $p$  is even. Thus  $(\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}) [p = 2k]$ . This implies that

$$2k^2 = q^2,$$

and therefore  $q$  is also even. The last statement contradicts our assumption that  $p$  and  $q$  have no common factor. ■

The last theorem provides an example of a number which is not rational. We call such numbers irrational.

We leave the following as an exercise.

**Exercise 2.2.2** *No rational  $x$  satisfies the equation*

- $x^3 = x + 7$ .
- $x^5 = x + 4$ .

## 2.3 Real numbers

Real numbers can be defined as the union of both rational and irrational numbers. They can be both positive or negative and are denoted by the symbol “ $\mathbb{R}$ ”. All the natural numbers, decimals and fractions come under this category. In this course we postulate the existence of the set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$  as well as basic properties summarized in a collection of axioms. Will find that axioms  $A.1 - A.11$  characterize  $\mathbb{R}$  as an algebraic field.

### 2.3.1 Axiomatic definition

A.1  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : (a + b) \in \mathbb{R}$  (closed under addition).

A.2  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : [a + b = b + a]$  (commutativity of addition).

A.3  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} : [(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)]$  (associativity of addition).

A.4  $\exists 0 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall a \in \mathbb{R} : [0 + a = a]$  (existence of additive identity).

A.5  $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \exists !x \in \mathbb{R} : [a + x = 0]$  (existence of additive inverse). We write  $x = -a$ .

Axioms  $A.6 - A.10$  are analogues of  $A.1 - A.5$  for the operation of multiplication.

A.6  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : [ab \in \mathbb{R}]$  (closed under multiplication).

A.7  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : [ab = ba]$  (commutativity of multiplication).

A.8  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} : [(ab)c = a(bc)]$  (associativity of multiplication).

A.9  $\exists 1 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall a \in \mathbb{R} : [1 \cdot a = a]$  (existence of multiplicative identity).

A.10  $\forall a \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}, \exists! y \in \mathbb{R} : [ay = 1]$  (existence of multiplicative inverse). We write  $y = \frac{1}{a}$ .

The last axiom links the operations of summation and multiplication.

**A.11**  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} : [(a + b)c = ac + bc]$  (distributive law).

**Example 2.3.1**  $\forall a \in \mathbb{R} : 0a = 0$ .

Indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned} a + 0a &= 1a + 0a \text{ (by A.9)} \\ &= (1 + 0)a \text{ (by A.11)} \\ &= 1a \text{ (by A.2 and A.4)} \\ &= a \text{ (by A.9)} \end{aligned}$$

Now add  $-a$  to both sides.

$$\begin{aligned} -a + (a + 0a) &= -a + a \\ \Rightarrow (-a + a) + 0a &= 0 \text{ (by A.3 and A.5)} \\ \Rightarrow 0 + 0a &= 0 \text{ (by A.5)} \\ \Rightarrow 0a &= 0 \text{ (by A.4).} \end{aligned}$$

**Remark 2.3.2** The set of rationals  $\mathbb{Q}$  also forms an algebraic field (that is, the rational numbers satisfy axioms **A.1** - **A.11**).

Now we add axioms of order.

**O.1**  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : [(a = b) \vee (a < b) \vee (a > b)]$

$\equiv \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : [(a \geq b) \wedge (b \geq a) \Rightarrow (a = b)]$  (trichotomy law).

**O.2**  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} : [(a > b) \wedge (b > c) \Rightarrow (a > c)]$  (transitive law).

**O.3**  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} : [(a > b) \Rightarrow (a + c > b + c)]$  (compatibility with addition).

**O.4**  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} : [(a > b) \wedge (c > 0) \Rightarrow (ac > bc)]$  (compatibility with multiplication).

**Remark 2.3.3** Note that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : \{(a > b) \Leftrightarrow (a - b > 0)\}.$$

This follows from (O.3) by adding  $-b$ .

Axioms **A.1-A.11** and **O.1 - O.4** define  $\mathbb{R}$  to be an ordered field. Observe that the rational numbers also satisfy axioms **A.1 - A.11** and **O.1 - O.4**, so  $\mathbb{Q}$  is also an ordered field.

### 2.3.2 Absolute value

**Definition 2.3.4** We define the maximum and the minimum of two real  $a$  and  $b$  by:

$$\max(a, b) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } a \geq b \\ b & \text{if } b > a \end{cases}, \quad \min(a, b) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } a \leq b \\ b & \text{if } b < a \end{cases}$$

**Definition 2.3.5** The absolute value  $|x|$  of  $x$  is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

**theorem 2.3.6** We can prove a bunch of theorems about the absolute value function that we usually take for granted:

- 1)  $|x| \geq 0$  and  $(|x| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0)$ .
- 2)  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, |-x| = |x|$ .
- 3)  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, |xy| = |x||y|$ .
- 4)  $|x^2| = x^2 = |x|^2$ .
- 5) If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $|x| \leq y \Leftrightarrow -y \leq x \leq y$ .
- 6)  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x \leq |x|$ .

**proof.** :

- 1) If  $x \geq 0$  then  $|x| = x \geq 0$ . If  $x \leq 0$ , then  $-x \geq 0 \Rightarrow |x| = -x \geq 0$ . Thus,  $|x| \geq 0$ . Now suppose  $x = 0$ . Then,  $|x| = x = 0$ . For the other direction, suppose  $|x| = 0$ . Then, if  $x \geq 0 \Rightarrow x = |x| = 0$ . If  $x \leq 0$ , then  $-x = |x| = 0$ . Therefore,  $x = 0 \Leftrightarrow |x| = 0$ .
- 2) If  $x \geq 0$  then  $-x \leq 0$ . Thus,  $|x| = x = -(-x) = |-x|$ . If  $x \leq 0$  then  $-x \geq 0$  and thus  $|-x| = | -(-x)| = |x|$ .

3) a) If  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$ , then  $xy \geq 0$  and  $|xy| = xy = |x||y|$ .  
 b) If  $x \leq 0$  and  $y \leq 0$ , then  $xy \geq 0 \Rightarrow |xy| = xy = (-x)(-y) = |x||y|$ .  
 c) If  $x \leq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$ , then  $xy \leq 0 \Rightarrow |xy| = -xy = (-x)(y) = |x||y|$ .  
 d) If  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \leq 0$ , then  $xy \leq 0 \Rightarrow |xy| = -xy = (x)(-y) = |x||y|$ .  
 4) Take  $x = y$  in 3). Then,  $|x^2| = |x|^2$ . Since  $x^2 \geq 0$ , it follows that  $|x^2| = x^2$ .  
 5) Suppose  $|x| \leq y$ . If  $x \geq 0$ , then  $-y \leq 0 \leq x = |x| \leq y$ . Therefore,  $-y \leq x \leq y$ .  
 If  $x \leq 0$ , then  $-x \geq 0$  and  $|x| = -x \leq y$ . Hence,  $-y \leq -x \leq y \Rightarrow -y \leq x \leq y$ .  
 6) If  $x \geq 0$  then  $x = |x|$ . If  $x \leq 0$  then  $x \leq |x|$  and thus  $x \leq |x|$ . ■

**theorem 2.3.7 (triangle inequality)**

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} : |a + b| \leq |a| + |b|.$$

**proof.** We split the proof into two cases. We use the fact that  $a \leq |a|$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Case  $a + b \geq 0$ . Then

$$|a + b| = a + b \leq |a| + |b|.$$

Case  $a + b < 0$ . Then

$$|a + b| = -(a + b) = (-a) + (-b) \leq |a| + |b|.$$

■

**Example 2.3.8** Prove that

- 1)  $(\forall a \in \mathbb{R})(\forall b \in \mathbb{R})[a^2 + b^2 \geq 2ab]$ .
- 2)  $(\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^+)(\forall b \in \mathbb{R}^+)[\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}]$ .
- 3)  $(\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^+)(\forall b \in \mathbb{R}^+)(\forall c \in \mathbb{R}^+)(\forall d \in \mathbb{R}^+) \left[ \frac{a+b+c+d}{4} \geq \sqrt[4]{abcd} \right]$ .
- 4) Let  $n \geq 2$  be a natural number. Prove that

$$\frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2n} > \frac{1}{2}.$$

Recall that  $\mathbb{R}^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \geq 0\}$ .

**proof.** 1) The result is equivalent to  $a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \geq 0$ . But,

$$a^2 + b^2 - 2ab = (a - b)^2 \geq 0.$$

Note that the equality holds if and only if  $a = b$ .

2) As above, let us prove that the difference between the left-hand side (LHS)

and the right-hand side (RHS) is non-negative:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} - \sqrt{ab} = \frac{(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2}{2} \geq 0.$$

The equality holds if and only if  $a = b$ .

3) By (2) and by (O.2) we have

$$\frac{a+b+c+d}{4} \geq \frac{\sqrt{ab} + \sqrt{cd}}{2} \geq \sqrt{\sqrt{ab}\sqrt{cd}} = \sqrt[4]{abcd}.$$

The equality holds if and only if  $a = b = c = d$ .

$$4) \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n} > \underbrace{\frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2n} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n}}_n = \frac{n}{2} = \frac{1}{2}. \blacksquare$$

**theorem 2.3.9 ( Bernoulli's inequality)**  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall x > -1 : [(1+x)^n \geq 1 + xn]$ .

**proof.** Base case. The inequality holds for  $n = 0, 1$ .

Induction step. Suppose that the inequality is true for  $n = k$  with  $k \geq 1$ ; that is,

$$(1+x)^k \geq 1 + kx.$$

We have to prove that it is true for  $n = k + 1$ ; in other words,

$$(1+x)^{k+1} \geq 1 + (k+1)x.$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} (1+x)^{k+1} &= (1+x)^k(1+x) \\ &\geq (1+kx)(1+x) \\ &= 1 + (k+1)x + kx^2 \\ &\geq 1 + (k+1)x. \end{aligned}$$

This concludes the induction step. By the principle of mathematical induction, the result is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .  $\blacksquare$

### 2.3.3 Bounded Sets of $\mathbb{R}$

**Definition 2.3.10** Let  $A$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  and non-empty .

We say that  $A$  is bounded from above if and only if :

$$\exists M \in \mathbb{R}; \forall x \in A : x \leq M$$

We say that  $A$  is bounded from below if and only if

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{R}; \forall x \in A : x \geq m$$

$A$  is bounded if and only if it is bounded from above and below.

**Proposition 2.3.11** The three following conditions are equivalent

- 1)  $A$  is bounded set,
- 2)  $\exists m \in \mathbb{R}, \exists M \in \mathbb{R}; \forall x \in A : m \leq x \leq M$ .
- 3)  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}_+^*; \forall x \in A : |x| \leq M$ .

**Definition 2.3.12** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . We say that  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  is the supremum of  $A$ , written  $\sup A$ , if

- (i)  $\forall x \in A : x \leq M$  for all  $x \in A$ ; ( $M$  is an upper bound of  $A$ )
- (ii) if  $x \leq \dot{M}$  for all  $x \in A$  then  $M \leq \dot{M}$  ( $M$  is the least upper bound of  $A$ ).

**Definition 2.3.13** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . We say that  $m \in \mathbb{R}$  is the infimum of  $A$ , written  $\inf A$ , if

- (i)  $\forall x \in A : x \geq m$  for all  $x \in A$ ; ( $m$  is a lower bound of  $A$ )
- (ii) if  $x \geq \dot{m}$  for all  $x \in A$  then  $m \geq \dot{m}$  ( $m$  is the greatest lower bound of  $A$ ).

**Definition 2.3.14** If  $\sup A \in A$ , it is called  $\max A$ .

If  $\inf A \in A$ , it is called  $\min A$ .

**Notation 3** If  $A$  is infinite from above (from below, respectively) in  $\mathbb{R}$  we write  $\sup A = +\infty$  ( $\inf A = -\infty$ , respectively).

**Remark 2.3.15** If  $A$  has a supremum (an infimum, respectively), then  $\sup A$  ( $\inf A$ ) is unique.

**Example 2.3.16** • Let  $A = [1, 2)$ . Then 2 is an upper bound, and is the least upper bound: if  $\dot{M} < 2$  then  $\dot{M}$  is not an upper bound because  $\max(1, 1 + \frac{\dot{M}}{2}) \in A$  and  $\max(1, 1 + \frac{\dot{M}}{2}) > \dot{M}$ . Note that in this case  $\sup A \notin A$ , so  $\#\max A$ .

• Let  $A = (1, 2]$ . Then we again have  $\sup A = 2$ , and this time  $\sup A \in A$ . The supremum is the least upper bound of a set. There's an analogous definition for lower bounds.

**Axiom 2.3.17 ( supermum and infimum)** Let  $A$  be a non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  that is bounded above ( below, respectively). Then  $A$  has a supremum ( an infimum, respectively).

Let's explore some useful properties of sup and inf.

**Proposition 2.3.18** (i) Let  $A, B$  be non-empty subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ , with  $A \subseteq B$  and with  $B$  bounded above. Then  $A$  is bounded above, and  $\sup A \leq \sup B$ .

(ii) Let  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be non-empty and bounded below. Let  $A = \{-x : x \in B\}$ . Then  $A$  is non-empty and bounded above. Furthermore,  $\inf B$  exists, and  $\inf B = -\sup A$ .

**proof.** (i) Since  $B$  is bounded above, it has an upper bound, say  $M$ . Then  $x \leq M$  for all  $x \in B$ , so certainly  $x \leq M$  for all  $x \in A$ , so  $M$  is an upper bound for  $A$ . Now  $A, B$  are non-empty and bounded above, so by Axiom of supremum.

Note that  $\sup B$  is an upper bound for  $B$  and hence also for  $A$ , so  $\sup B \geq \sup A$  (since  $\sup A$  is the least upper bound for  $A$ ).

(ii) Since  $B$  is non-empty, so is  $A$ .

Let  $m$  be a lower bound for  $B$ , so  $x \geq m$  for all  $x \in B$ . Then  $-x \leq -m$  for all  $x \in B$ , so  $y \leq -m$  for all  $y \in A$ , so  $-m$  is an upper bound for  $A$ .

Now  $A$  is non-empty and bounded above, so by Axiom of supremum. Then  $y \leq \sup A$  for all  $y \in A$ , so  $x \geq -\sup A$  for all  $x \in B$ , so  $-\sup A$  is a lower bound for  $B$ . Also, we saw before that if  $m$  is a lower bound for  $B$  then  $-m$  is an upper bound for  $A$ . Then  $-m \geq \sup A$  (since  $\sup A$  is the least upper bound), so  $m \leq -\sup A$ .

So  $-\sup A$  is the greatest lower bound.

So  $\inf B$  exists and  $\inf B = -\sup A$ . ■

**Proposition 2.3.19 (Approximation property)** 1) Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be non-empty and bounded above, then

$$M = \sup A \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \forall x \in A : x \leq M \\ \text{and} \\ \forall \epsilon; \exists a_\epsilon \in A : M - \epsilon < a_\epsilon \end{cases}$$

2) Let  $A$  be bounded from below, then

$$m = \inf A \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \forall x \in A : x \geq m \\ \text{and} \\ \forall \epsilon; \exists b_\epsilon \in A : b_\epsilon < m + \epsilon \end{cases}$$

**proof.** 1) Take  $\epsilon > 0$ . Note that by definition of the supremum we have  $x \leq \sup A$  for all  $x \in A$ . Suppose, for a contradiction, that  $\sup A - \epsilon \geq x$  for all  $x \in A$ . Then  $\sup A - \epsilon$  is an upper bound for  $A$ , but  $\sup A - \epsilon < \sup A$ . Contradiction.

So there is  $a_\epsilon \in A$  with  $\sup A - \epsilon < a_\epsilon$ .

2) In the same way we prove the second case. ■

**Axiom 2.3.20 ( of Archimedes)**  $\forall x > 0; \forall y \in \mathbb{R}; \exists n \in \mathbb{N}^* : y < nx.$

**proof.** We suppose that:  $\exists x > 0; \exists y \in \mathbb{R}; \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^* : y \geq nx$  or  $\exists x > 0; \exists y \in \mathbb{R}; \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^* : n \leq \frac{y}{x}$ , that's mean the set  $\mathbb{N}^*$  is limited from above it accepts an upper limit in  $\mathbb{R}$  called  $M$ . so

$$\forall \epsilon; \exists n_\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}^* : M - \epsilon < n_\epsilon.$$

Putting  $\epsilon = 1$ , we get :

$$\exists n_\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}^* : M - 1 < n_\epsilon \text{ or } \exists n_\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}^* : M < n_\epsilon + 1$$

but  $n_\epsilon + 1 \in \mathbb{N}^*$ , this is a contradiction with  $\sup \mathbb{N}^* = M$ . ■

**Example 2.3.21**  $A = [1, 2[; \sup A = 2 \notin A$ , then  $\nexists \max A$ ;  $\inf A = 1 = \min A$

$$A = \left\{ \frac{1}{n}; n \in \mathbb{N}^* \right\}; \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^* : n \geq 1 \Rightarrow 0 < \frac{1}{n} \leq 1, \text{ then } \sup A = \max A = 1 \in A.$$

Let we proof that  $\inf A = 0$  i.e.

$$0 = \inf A \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \forall x \in A : x \geq 0 \\ \text{and} \\ \forall \epsilon, \exists a_\epsilon \in A : a_\epsilon < 0 + \epsilon \end{cases}$$

On the other side we have

$$\forall \epsilon, \exists a_\epsilon \in A : a_\epsilon < 0 + \epsilon \Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}^* : \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon.$$

and this proposition is true and its according to Archimedes' Axiom

$$\forall \epsilon, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}^* : n\epsilon > 1$$

$\min A = \text{unavailable}$ , because  $0 \notin A$ .

**Definition 2.3.22** Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists a unique relative integer, the integer part denoted  $E(x)$ , such that  $E(x) \leq x < E(x) + 1$ . We also note  $E(x) = [x]$ .

**Example 2.3.23** 1)  $E(3,5) = 3$  since  $3 \leq 3,5 < 3 + 1$ .

2)  $E(-3,5) = -4$  since  $-4 \leq -3,5 < -4 + 1$ .

3)  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^* : E\left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right) = 0$  since  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^* : 0 \leq \frac{1}{n+1} < 0 + 1$ .

### 2.3.4 Dense groups in $\mathbb{R}$

**theorem 2.3.24** *Between every two different real numbers there is at least one rational number.*

**proof.** Let  $y$  and  $x$  be two real numbers where  $x < y$ . According to Archimedean axiom

$$\exists n \in \mathbb{N}^* : 1 < n(y - x) \text{ or } nx + 1 < ny.$$

On the other hand we have

$$\begin{aligned} E(nx) &\leq nx < E(nx) + 1 \\ \text{or } nx &< E(nx) + 1 \leq nx + 1 < ny. \end{aligned}$$

So

$$x < \frac{E(nx) + 1}{n} < y$$

Well the rational number  $\frac{E(nx) + 1}{n}$  is bounded between the two real numbers  $x, y$ . ■

**theorem 2.3.25** *between every two different real numbers there is at least one irrational number.*

To prove this theory we need the following proposition.

**Proposition 2.3.26** *if  $x \in I$  ( irrational number) and  $r \in \mathbb{Q}^*$  then  $rx \in I$ .*

**proof.** We assume  $x \in I$  and  $r \in \mathbb{Q}^*$  and that  $rx \in \mathbb{Q}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{1}{r} \in \mathbb{Q}^* \text{ or } rx \in \mathbb{Q} \right) &\Rightarrow \frac{1}{r} \cdot rx \in \mathbb{Q} \\ &\Rightarrow x \in \mathbb{Q}. \end{aligned}$$

This is a contradiction because  $x \in I$ . ■

**theorem.** Let  $x, y$  be two real numbers, where  $x < y$ , according to the theorem , there exist a rational number  $r$  ( $r \neq 0$ ) such that:

$$\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} < r < \frac{y}{\sqrt{2}} \text{ or } x < r\sqrt{2} < y$$

and according to proposition we conclude that  $r\sqrt{2}$  is a irrational number. ■

**Corollary 2.3.27** *The two sets  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $I$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .*

### 2.3.5 Intervals in $\mathbb{R}$

**Definition 2.3.28** An interval is a subset of the real numbers that contains all real numbers lying between any two numbers of the subset.

Let  $a, b$  be two real numbers, where  $a < b$ , we define

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$  is called closed interval.
- $]a, b[ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$  is called open interval.
- $[a, b[ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$  is called half open interval.
- $]a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$ .
- $[a, +\infty[ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \geq a\}$  is unbounded closed interval.
- $]-\infty, b[ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq b\}$ .
- $]a, +\infty[ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > a\}$  is unbounded open interval.
- $]-\infty, b[ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < b\}$ .
- $]-\infty, +\infty[$ .

**Exercise 2.3.29** Let

$$S = \left\{ 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}^* \right\}.$$

Find  $\inf S$  and  $\sup S$  and prove your answers.

**Solution 2.3.30** We claim that  $\inf S = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\sup S = 2$ . Note that, if  $n$  is odd,  $1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{n}$ , while if  $n$  is even,  $1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{n}$ . It follows, if  $n$  is odd, that

$$1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n} > 1 > \frac{1}{2}.$$

If  $n \geq 2$  is even,

$$1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Arguing similarly,  $1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \leq 2$  and so  $\frac{1}{2}$  and 2 are, respectively, lower and upper bounds for  $S$ . Since  $\frac{1}{2} \in S$ , there cannot be a lower bound  $m > \frac{1}{2}$  and so  $\frac{1}{2}$  is the greatest lower bound for  $S$ , i.e.  $\inf S = \frac{1}{2}$ . Since  $2 \in S$ , there cannot be a upper bound  $M < 2$  and so 2 is the least upper bound for  $S$ , i.e.  $\sup S = 2$ .

**Exercise 2.3.31** Let  $A = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \right\} = \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots \right\}$

**Example 2.3.32** 1) Show that  $A$  is a non-empty set, both bounded above and below.

2) Show that  $\sup(A) = \max(A) = 1$ .

3) Show that  $\inf(A) = 0$ .

4) Show that  $\min(A)$  does not exist..

**Solution 2.3.33** Let  $A = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \right\} = \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots \right\}$

1)  $1 \in A \Rightarrow A \neq \emptyset$ ,  $\forall n : n \geq 1$  we have  $0 < \frac{1}{n} \leq 1 \Rightarrow 1$  is an upper bound of  $A$  and 0 is a lower bound of  $A$ .

2)  $\sup A$  and  $\inf A$  exist, according to the axiom of the upper bound : Let's show that  $\sup A = 1$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we show that  $\exists x_0 \in A / x_0 > 1 - \varepsilon$ . In fact, let's take  $x_0 = 1$ . First of all  $x_0 = 1$  verifies the precedent relation, since :  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $1 > 1 - \varepsilon$ , moreover  $1 \in A$  then :  $\sup A = \max A = 1$ .

3)  $\inf A = 0$ ? Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we show that  $\exists x_0 \in A / 0 + \varepsilon > x_0$ , the elements of  $A$  are of the form  $\frac{1}{n}$  we must find  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*/ \frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$  or  $n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ . For  $\varepsilon > 0$  if we take  $x_0 = \frac{1}{n}$  with  $n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$  we obtain  $x_0 \in A$  and  $0 + \varepsilon > x_0$  then  $\inf A = 0$ .

4) We have  $\forall n \geq 1, \frac{1}{n} > 0 \Rightarrow 0 \notin A \Rightarrow \nexists \min A$ .