

## Undefined concepts

Euclid tried to define everything - not formally possible

2D geometry - Assume given a ~~set~~ set  $P$ , call its members points. (Nonempty!)

Also assume we are given a family of subsets we shall call lines.  $L = \text{~~some~~ proper subsets}$

Assume the following axioms (Incidence)

(I1) Given two distinct points, there is a unique line containing them.

(I2) Every line contains  $\geq 2$  points.

Models for axioms Ideally, ordinary geometry

Also,  $P = \text{set with } \geq 2 \text{ elements}$ ,  $L = \text{all}$

subsets with exactly two elements.

... and many more...

NOTATION  $xy = \text{line cont. } x \text{ \& } y$

Only one noteworthy theorem.

If  $L \neq M$  are lines in  $P$ , then  $L \cap M$  has at most one point.

Proof Say  $x \neq y$ , both in  $L \cap M$ .

By I3 there is only one line  $N$  so  $x, y \in N$ .

But  $L$  &  $M$  have this property. So must have

$L = M$ .

COLLINEAR SET  $A$ ,  $A \subseteq L$ , some line.

3D geometry

$S$  nonempty set

$\mathcal{L} =$  proper subset family

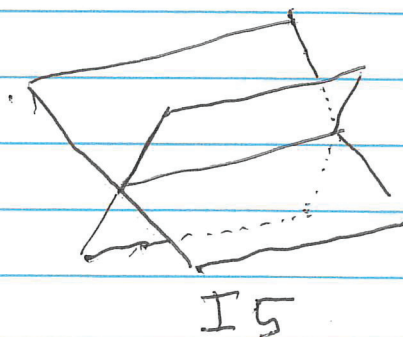
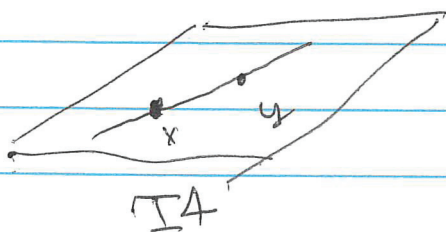
$P =$  ~~adjacent~~ another one,  
disjoint from  $\mathcal{L}$

First two axioms plus

(I3) Given a noncollinear subset  $\{x, y, z\} = B$ ,  
there is a unique plane  $P$  containing  $B$ .

(I4) If  $x, y$  distinct in  $P$ , then  $xy \subseteq P$ .

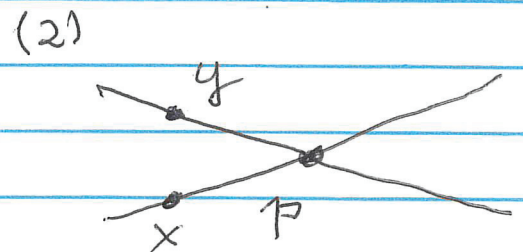
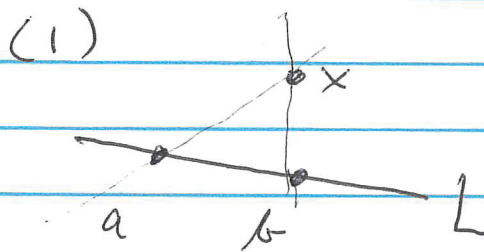
(I5) If  $P$  and  $Q$  are planes such that  $P \neq Q$   
then  $P \cap Q$  is a line.



(I6) Every plane has  $\geq 3$  points.

Two consequences (1) Given line  $L$  and  $x \notin L$ , there is a unique plane  $P$  so  $L \subset P$  and  $x \in P$ .

(2) If two distinct lines meet at a single pt., then they determine a plane.



Pictures make logic transparent, but are not proofs themselves!

Now we need to add more data

Distance Postulates

Ruler Postulate

Distance  $d: S \times S \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  given

$$d(x, y) \geq 0, \text{ equality } \iff x = y$$

$$d(x, y) = d(y, x). \quad [\text{No triangle inequality yet!}]$$

Ruler There are 1-1 correspondences

$f: L$  (each line)  $\longleftrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  so that

$$d(x, y) = |f(x) - f(y)|.$$

(Placement)

L2-4.

## Strong Rule Property

Given  $x \neq y$  in  $L$ , can find  $f$  so that  $f(x) = 0, f(y) > 0$ .

How to derive this conclusion Take any  $f_0$ .

Let  $\varepsilon_0 = 1$  if  $f_0(x) < f_0(y)$ ,  $\varepsilon_1 = -1$  otherwise.

Check that  $g(t) = \varepsilon_0 [f_0(t) - f_0(x)]$  is 1-1 and  $d(t_1, t_2) = |g(t_1) - g(t_2)|$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{1-1 } g(t_1) = g(t_2) &\Rightarrow \varepsilon_0 [f_0(t_1) - f_0(x)] = \varepsilon_0 [f_0(t_2) - f_0(x)] \\ \Rightarrow f_0(t_1) - f_0(x) &= f_0(t_2) - f_0(x) \Rightarrow f_0(t_1) = f_0(t_2) \Rightarrow \end{aligned}$$

$t_1 = t_2$  since  $f_0$  is 1-1.

onto Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Want  $a = [f_0(t) - f_0(x)] \varepsilon_0$  some  $t$

Well,  $\varepsilon_0 a = f_0(t) - f_0(x)$ ,  $\varepsilon_0 a + f_0(x) = f_0(t)$

Suggests the right choice of  $t$ . Substitute (work backwards) to verify that  $a = g(t)$ .

distance preserving  $d(t_1, t_2) = |f_0(t_1) - f_0(t_2)|$  is given.

~~L.H.S. =  $|f_0(t_1) - f_0(x)| - |f_0(t_2) - f_0(x)|$~~

$$\text{P.H.S.} = | [f_0(t_1) - f_0(x)] - [f_0(t_2) - f_0(x)] |$$

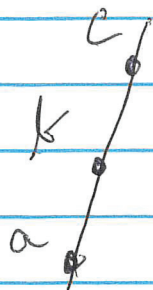
and  $|\varepsilon_0| = 1$  means this is

$$|\varepsilon_0 (f_0(t_1) - f_0(x)) - [f_0(t_2) - f_0(x)]| =$$

$$|\varepsilon_0 [f_0(t_1) - f_0(x)] - \varepsilon_0 [f_0(t_2) - f_0(x)]| =$$

$$|g(t_1) - g(t_2)|.$$

Why do we need this?



Given three points on a line, we "see" that one is between the other two. This was only discussed casually in Euclid, but it is absolutely essential for a logically sound treatment of classical geometry.

RECALL When is  $|a+b| = |a| + |b|$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ ?

Either  $a, b \geq 0$  or  $a, b \leq 0$ .

Define  $a * b * c$  ( $b$  is between  $a$  &  $c$ )  $\Leftrightarrow$

$$d(a, c) = d(a, b) + d(b, c).$$

This gives us all we need. The following properties are "obvious" but must be verified.

## Betweenness and ruler functions

Theorem On line  $L$  with ruler function  $f$ ,  
 $a * b * c \iff f(a) < f(b) < f(c)$  or  
 $f(a) > f(b) > f(c)$ .

Derivation  $|p+q| = |p| + |q| \iff$

$p, q \geq 0$  or  $p, q \leq 0$ . Now let  $p = f(a) - f(b)$   
 $\& q = f(b) - f(c)$ , so  $p+q = f(a) - f(c)$  and

$|p+q| = |p| + |q| \iff d(a, c) = d(a, b) + d(b, c)$ .

The case  $p, q \geq 0$  corresponds to  $f(a) > f(b) > f(c)$ ,

and  $p, q \leq 0$  corresponds to  $f(a) < f(b) < f(c)$ .  $\blacksquare$

Theorem Given  $p, q, r$  <sup>distinct</sup> on  $L$ , one and only  
 one is between the other two.

Proof Six cases

$f(p) < f(q) < f(r)$        $f(q) < f(p) < f(r)$        $f(q) < f(p) < f(r)$

$f(p) > f(q) > f(r)$        $f(q) > f(r) > f(p)$        $f(q) > f(p) > f(r)$

$q$  between

$r$  between

$p$  between

The following are typical applications which are needed for more substantial results.

$$(1) a * b * c \neq b * x * c \Rightarrow a * x * c$$

First Find ruler for  $f(a) < f(b)$ .

By previous, have  $f(a) < f(b) < f(c)$ .

Now  $b * x * c \Rightarrow$  either  $f(b) < f(x) < f(c)$  or

$f(b) > f(x) > f(c)$ . Second violates previous conclusion, so  $f(a) < f(b) < f(x) < f(c)$ .

$$(2) a * x * c \neq a * y * c \Rightarrow a * x * y \text{ or } a * y * x.$$

Choose ruler  $f(a) = 0, f(c) > 0$ .

$$0 < f(x) < f(c) \quad \text{Why?}$$

$$0 < f(y) < f(c) \quad \text{Why?}$$

So either  $0 < f(x) < f(y)$  or  $0 < f(y) < f(x)$ .

### Dictionary

$A \neq B$ , f ruler with  $f(a) > 0, f(b) > f(a)$

closed segt  $[AB]$

$x = a, b$  or  $a * x * b$   $f(x) \in [f(a), f(b)]$

open segt  $(AB)$

$a \neq x \neq b$   $f(x) \in (f(a), f(b))$

closed ray  $[AB$

$x = a, a * x \neq b, x = b, a * b * x$   $f(x) \in [f(a), \infty)$

open ray  $(AB$

$x \in [AB - \{A\}]$   $f(x) \in (-\infty, f(a)]$

opp closed ray  $[AB]^{op}$

$x = A$  or  $x \in L - [AB$   $f(x) \in (-\infty, f(a)]$

opp ~~closed~~ ray  $(AB)^{op}$

$x \in [AB - \{A\}]$   $f(x) \in (-\infty, f(a))$

$x \in L - [AB$