§ 3 Hilbert's Axioms

Goal: Present a set of axioms for geometry proposed by Hilbert in 1899 which satisfies modern standard of rigor to supply the foundation for Euclid's geometry.

Language in sets:

Space: set S

Points: elements of S

Lines: a subset of S

L = set of all lines

(S,L): a geometry (or geometric model)



David Hilbert (1862-1943)
 German Mathematican.

Instead of giving definitions of points and lines, we leave them as "undefined objects" and regard them as elements or subsets of a set S. Then, we require them to obey certain axioms.

3.1 Axioms of Incidence

Definition 3.11

A point P is said to be lying on a line L if Pel.

Remark: Concepts can be defined easily and clearly by using the language of sets.

Axioms of Incidence:

(I 1) For any distinct points A, B, there exists a unique line las containing A, B.

 \forall distinct $A.B. \in S$, $\exists! l_{AB} \in L$, $A.B. \in l_{AB}$

(Remark: 3!x,Pxx)=

(I.2) Every line contains at least two points.

3x, Peon Yy (Pry) ⇒y=x))

Aret Ilisz

(I.3) There exist three noncollinear points

 \exists distinct A,B,CeS, \forall LeL, \neg (Ael, Bel, Cel)

Remark: (I.1) guarantees "sufficient" lines;

(I.2) excludes the possibility of degenerate line;

(I.3) guarantees "sufficient" points in a geometry.

Definition 3.1.2

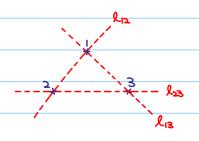
(S,L) that satisfies the axioms (I.I)-(I.3) is called an incident geometry

Example 3.1.1

S={1,2,3}

L= { lij = {i,j}: 1 < i < j < 3 }

(S.L) is an incidence geometry.



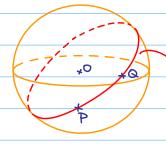
Caution: This picture only shows the idea, points in this geometry are not necessarily regarded as points on a plane and lines in this geometry is not lines on plane in usual sense.

Example 3.12

S = S = set of points of a sphere

For each LEL, L is a great circle

(S, L) is not an incidence geometry. (Why?)



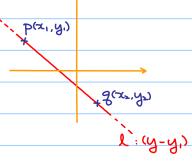
'l = great circle

= plane passing through O,P,Q n S

Example 3.13

 $S = F^2$, where $F = \mathbb{R}$.

 $L = \{equivalent equations in from of ax+by+c=0: a,b,c\in F, not all of them are zero\}$ (S,L) is an incidence geometry. (Why?)



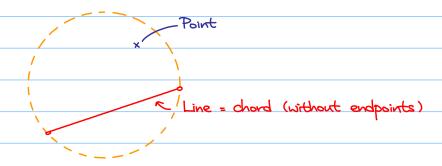
 $x = x_1 = x_2 \qquad \text{if } x_1 = x_2$

How about changing S to be F^2 where F = Q or C?

Example 3.1.5 (Klein Disk)

S = D= {(x,y) = R= x+y < 1}

L = { L = L \(\mathbb{L}\) \(\mathbb{D}^2 : L is a straight line in \(\mathbb{R}^2\) \(\mathbb{Z}\)



(S.L) is an incidence geometry. (Why?)

Proposition 3.1.1

Two distinct lines can have most one point in common

 $l, m \in L \Rightarrow |lnm| \leq 1$

proof:

Suppose Ilnm | ≥ 2, then there exists A,B ∈ S such that A ≠ B and A,B ∈ lnm

I. 1 ⇒ l=m

Remark: The proof does NOT rely on any picture!

(Rather than saying that "two lines cannot enclose a space", see Enclid's proof of proposition 1.4)



Definition 3.1.3

Two distinct lines are parallel if they have no points in common. We also say that any line is parallel to itself.

If $l, m \in L$ and $l \neq m$, then we define $l/m \Leftrightarrow l \cap m = \emptyset$. Also, we define $l/(l + l) \in L$.

Playfair's Axiom:

(P) For each point A and line L, there exists at most one line m such that m passes through A and m is parallel to L.

VAES, Ylel, 3 at most one mel, Aem Am//

Think: How about A El?

If m is a line such that $A \in m$ and m/l, then $m \cap l \neq \phi$ which forces m = l, so the statement is satisfied automatically.

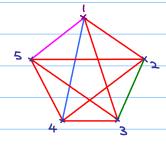
Example 3.1.5

S={1,2,3,4,5}

L= { lij = {i,j} : 1 < i < j < 5}

(S,L) is an incidence geometry that does not satisfy (P).

Note: Consider the point I and the line l_{33} , then $I \in J_{44}$, J_{16} , $J_{23}//J_{44}$ and $J_{23}//J_{15}$



Exercise 3.1.1

Show that geometries in example 3.1.1 and 3.1.3 satisfies (P).

However, klein disk in example 3.1.4 does not satisfy (P).

Exercise 3.1.2

If (S,L) is an incidence geometry, does parallelism give an equivalence relation on L? Hint: consider example 3.1.5

Definition 3.1.4

Suppose that (S,, L,) and (S2, L2) are two geometries.

If there exists a bijective function $f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ and f induces a bijective function

 $F: L \rightarrow L_2$ defined by $F(l) = \{f(P) \in S_2 : P \in L\}$, then (S_1, L_1) and (S_2, L_2) are said to be

isomorphic and f is said to be an isomorphism.

In particular, if $(S_1, L_1) = (S_2, L_2)$, f is said to be an automorphism.

Remark: Every geometry is isomorphic to itself by considering the identity function.

Example 31.6

S,= {1,2,3}

S= {A,B,C}

L,= { lij = {i,j} : 1 < i < j < 3 }

L=[lAB= {A,B}, lBC= {B,C}, lAC= {A,C}}

Let $f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ defined by f(1) = A, f(2) = B, f(3) = C.

Then f induces $F: L_1 \rightarrow L_2$ with $F(L_{12}) = L_{AB}$, $F(L_{22}) = L_{BC}$, $F(L_{13}) = L_{AC}$

This shows (S_1, L_1) and (S_2, L_2) are isomorphic

Question: Any other isomorphisms?

Remark: When we say that (S, L) and (S_2, L) are isomorphic, roughly speaking, they are having the same structure and f, F give a renaming of points and lines.

Example 3.1.7

S=IR2

 $L = \{eguivalent\ eguations\ in\ from\ of\ ax+by+c=0: a,b,c\in\mathbb{R}\ ,\ not\ all\ of\ them\ are\ zero\}$ Translations, rotations, reflections give automorphisms of (S,L).

Discussion:

1) Independence of Axioms

We would like to show that each of the above axiom cannot be deduced from the others. How to prove?

Easy! For each axiom, construct a model which satisfies all the other axioms.

Proposition 3.1.2

S3 = { 1,2}

The axioms (I.1), (I.2), (I.3) and (P) are independent of each other

Lz = {{1,2}}

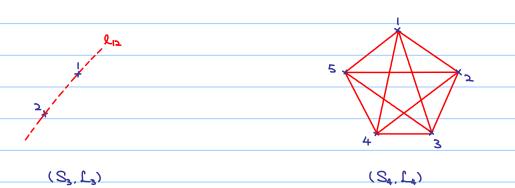
proof:

$$S_{1} = \{1,2,3\} \qquad L_{1} = \emptyset$$

$$S_{2} = \{1,2,3\} \qquad L_{2} = \{\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,3\},\{1\}\} \qquad (I.1),(I.3),(P)$$

 $S_{4} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ $L_{4} = \{l_{1j} = \{i, j\} : 1 \le i \le j \le 5\}$ (II),(I.2),(I.3) L_{12} L_{13} $L_{14} = \{l_{1j} = \{i, j\} : 1 \le i \le j \le 5\}$ (II),(I.2),(I.3) L_{15} L_{16} $L_{17} = \{l_{17} = \{i, j\} : 1 \le i \le j \le 5\}$ (II),(I.2),(I.3)

(T.I), (I.I)



2) Uniqueness of model

In exercise 3.12, we show that both geometries in example 3.1.1 and 3.1.3 satisfy (II), (I.2), (I.3) and (P). If we further impose axioms, will it force the geometry obtained to be unique? In particular, what should we impose so that the unique geometry obtained is the Euclidean geometry?

3.2 Axioms of Betweenness

Here, we presuppose axioms (I.1), (I.2) and (I.3) of incidence geometry.

The geometrical notions of betweenness, separation, sidedness and order will all based on the following relation

Definition 3.2.1

Let $B \subseteq \{(A,B,C) \in S^3 : A,B,C \text{ are distinct}\}$.

If $(A,B,C) \in B$, we say that B is a point lying between A and C (but NOT C and A at this moment).

Then, we impose axioms on B such that it behaves as we expect

Axioms of Betweenness:

(B.1) If B is between A and C (written as A*B*C), then A,B,C lie on the same line and also C*B*A.

$(A,B,C) \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \exists l \in L, A.B.C \in L \wedge (C,B,A) \in \mathbb{R}$

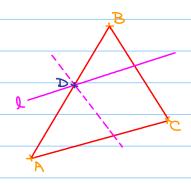
- (B.2) For any two distinct points A.B. there exists a point C such that A*B*C \forall distinct $A.B \in S$, $\exists C \in S$, $(A,B,C) \in B$.
- (B.3) Given three distinct points on a line, one and only one of them is between the other two. * Followed from (B.1) (C,B,A) \in B (A,C,B), (B,A,C) \notin B

 A B.1

 Given A,B,C \in L for some LeL. (A,B,C) \in B \Rightarrow (B,C,A), (C,A,B) \notin B
- (B.4) Let A, B, C be three noncollinear points, and let l be a line not containing any A, B, C

 If l contains a point D lying between A and B, then it must also contains either a

 point lying between A and C or a point lying between B and C, but not both.



Remark: (B.1) says betweenness is a relation only defined for three distinct points on a line and symmetry of betweenness. (B.2) guarantees extension of a line. ⇒ Exclude all finite geometries! (B3) avoids "looped line" Definition 3.22 If A and B are distinct points, we define the line segment AB to be the set consisting of the points A, B and all points lying between A and B. (AB of {CES.(A,C,B) EB}U[A,B]) Remark: 1) AB = BA by (B.1) 2) A line segment is uniquely determined by two endpoints. Given a line segment AB, show that there do not exist points $C, D \in AB$ such that C * A * D. (There are only two points of AB satisfying the above condition, namely A and B.) 3) (B.4) can be expressed as V distinct A,B,C∈S, VLEL with A,B,C¢L

 $(l \cap AB \neq \phi) \rightarrow either l \cap AC \neq \phi$ or $l \cap BC \neq \phi$

Exercise 3.22

Write down the contrapositive of (B.4)

Answer: ∀ distinct A,B,C ∈S, ∀ L ∈ L with A,B,C ¢ l

 $(l \cap AC, l \cap BC = \phi) \vee (l \cap AC, l \cap BC \neq \phi) \rightarrow (l \cap AB = \phi)$

Note that a line segment is uniquely determined by two endpoints

Let \widetilde{P} be the set of all oriented line segments in S , then

 $\widetilde{P} = \{(A,B) \in S^2 : A \neq B\}$. (To be precise, there exists a bijection between them.)

We may denote (A.B) ∈ P by AB.

Furthermore, by considering the equivalence relation on \widetilde{P} defined by $(A,B) \sim (B,A)$. If P is the set of all line segments in S, then $P = \widetilde{P}/\sim$.



Remark: We need the notion of \widetilde{P} when we introduce addition of line segments.

Definition 3.23

Let A.B and C be three noncollinear points. A triangle is defined to be ABUBCUCA

Proposition 321 (Plane separation)

Let ℓ be a line. Then the set of points not lying on ℓ can be divided into two nonempty. subsets S_{ℓ} , S_{2} with the following properties:

Then $\exists S_1, S_2 \leq S$ s.t. $S_1, S_2 \neq \emptyset$ and $S \setminus L = S_1 \perp L S_2$ with the following properties

(i) Two points A.B not on ℓ belong to the same set (S, or S_2) if and only if the segment AB does not intersect ℓ .

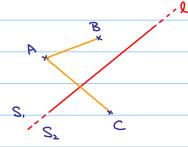
 \forall distinct $A,B \in S \setminus L$, $A,B \in S \setminus A$, $B \in S \Rightarrow AB \cap L = \phi$

(ii) Two points A.C not on l belong to the opposite sets (one in S_i , the other in S_z) if and only if the segment AC intersects l at a point.

 \forall distinct A,C \in S\l, (A \in S,,C \in S) \vee (A \in S,,C \in S,) \Leftrightarrow AC \cap l $\neq \phi$

(Note: if ACnl≠¢, then since ACnl ≤ lacnl and |lacnl|≤1, ACnl={*})

From the above, S_i , S_2 are said to be two sides of l. Furthermore, if both A and B belong to the same set S_i , i=1 or 2, then they are said to be on the same side of l, otherwise they are said to be on the opposite side of l.



proof

Idea: Define a relation \sim on $S \setminus L$:

Let $A, B \in S \setminus L = \emptyset$ if $A \neq B$ $A \sim A$ if A = B

A * Same side of l

Prove that ~ is an equivalence relation and there are only two equivalence classes.

A topposite side of l

A~A (By definition) V

 $A \sim B \Rightarrow B \sim A \quad (:: AB = BA) \lor \sim is an equivalence relation$

VI .

 $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C \Rightarrow A \sim C$?

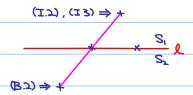
 $A \neq B$ and $B \neq C \Rightarrow A \sim C$? 3 Only two equivalence classes

Exercise 3.2.3

Prove by (I.2) and (I.3) that for all line l, there exists a point which does not lie on l

By the above exercise, $S_i \neq \phi$

(B2) guarantees S2 ≠φ.



Case 1: A.B.C are noncollinear

Contrapositive of (B.4): $(l \cap AC, l \cap BC = \phi) \vee (l \cap AC, l \cap BC \neq \phi) \Rightarrow (l \cap AB = \phi)$

 $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C \Rightarrow A \sim C$, $A \not \sim B$ and $B \not \sim C \Rightarrow A \sim C$

Case 2: A.B.C are collinear

Idea: Show that there exists E such that

A.E.C are noncollinear, A~E and E~C — (a) $(A \neq E \text{ and } E \neq C \text{ } - \text{ } (b))$,

case 1 ⇒ A~C.

proof of (a) and (b):

see prop. 7.1 in [2].

Proposition 322 (Line separation)

Let A be a point on a line ℓ . Then the set of points of ℓ not equal to A can be divided into honempty subsets r_1 , r_2 , the two sides of A on ℓ , such that

(i) B, C are on the same side if and only if A is not lying on the segment BC.

(ii) B, C are on the opposite side if and only if A is lying on the segment BC.

proof:

From (I.2), (I.3), there exists DES such that D&l.

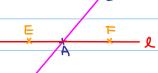
By (I.1), A and D determines a line m

By proposition 3.2.1, $S = S_1 + S_2$ for some nonempty sets S_1, S_2 . Let $Y_i = S_i \wedge l$, i = 1, 2.

 $(I.2) \Rightarrow \exists E \in L \text{ and } E \neq A , (B.2) \Rightarrow \exists F \in L \text{ s.t. } E * A * F .$

: r, r + p

Remark: It defines an equivalence relation on 1\{A}.



Definition 3.24

Given two distinct points A, B, the ray r_{AB} is the set consisting of A, plus all points on the line l_{AB} that are on the same side of A as B

If ~ is the equivalence relation by the above remark, then $r_{AB} = \{C \in AB : C \sim B\} \cup \{A\}$

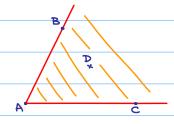
The point A is the origin, or vertex, of the ray

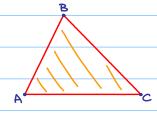
Definition 3.25

An angle is the union of two rays r_{AB} and r_{AC} originating at the same point, its vertex, and not lying on the same line. We denote the angle by $\angle BAC$ or $\angle CAB$.

Furthermore, the interior of an angle 2BAC consists of all points D such that D and C are on the same side of the line AB, and D and B are on the same side of the line AC.

If ABC is a triangle, the interior of the triangle ABC is the set of points that are simultaneously in the interiors of the three angles ZBAC, ZABC, ZACB





Remark: "Zero angle" and "straight angle" are not included in this definition

Exercise 3.2.4

Show that the vertex of a ray (or an angle) is uniquely determined by the ray (or angle).

(Rephrase · there is only one vertex of a ray (or an angle).)



Proposition 3.23 (Crossbar theorem)

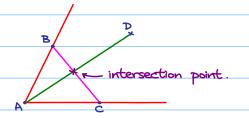
Let ZBAC be an angle, and let D be a point in the interior. Then the ray rap must meet the line

segment BC.

proof:

see prop. 7.3 in [2].

Think: How about the uniqueness?



Example 3.21

Let S=R and L={l=R}.

- a) Show that it is not an incidence geometry.
- b) Define the notion of betweenness in usual sense on \mathbb{R} : For three distinct real numbers a,b,c, a*b*c if a<b<c or c<b<a.

Show that it satisfies (B.1) - (B.3)

Example 3.2.2

Let $S=\mathbb{R}^2$, $A=(a_1,a_2)$, $B=(b_1,b_2)$ and $C=(c_1,c_2)$ be three distinct points in \mathbb{R}^2

Define A*B*C if A.B.C are on the same line such that either a,*b,*c, or a,*b,*c, or both

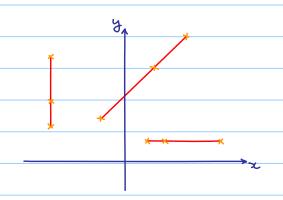
(Note: * is defined on \mathbb{R}^2 , but * is defined on \mathbb{R} in example 3.21)

Show that it satisfies (B.1)-(B.4)

Is it still true if we change S to be Q??

Answer: Yes!

Think: What happens in each case?



Example 3.2.3

Define the betweenness of points of klein disk by regarding them as points in TR2

Show that it satisfies (B.1) - (B.4)

3.3 Axioms of Congruence for Line Segments

Next, we postulate an undefined notion of congruence, which is a relation between two line segments AB and CD, denoted by $AB\cong CD$.

Definition 3.3.1

Let $C \subseteq P \times P$ if $(s_1, s_2) \in C$, then s_1 is said to be congruent to s_2 , and we denote it by $s_1 \subseteq s_2$. If $s_1 = AB$, $s_2 = CD$, we write $(AB, CD) \in C$ or $AB \cong CD$.

Remark: We usually write AB = CD instead of $AB \cong CD$. However, here we regard them as subsets of S and they are different as sets, that is why we put \cong here.

Then, we impose axioms on Z such that it behaves as we expect.

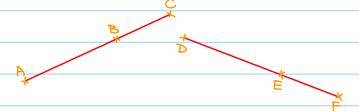
Axioms of Congruence for Line Segments:

(C.1) Given a line segment AB, and given a ray r originating at a point C, there exists a unique point D on the ray r such that $AB \cong CD$.



(C.2) If AB ≈ CD and AB ≈ EF, then CD ≈ EF, Every line segment is congruent to itself.

(C.3) Given three distinct points A,B,C on a line satisfying A*B*C, and three further points D,E,F on a line satisfying $AB\cong DE$ and $BC\cong EF$, then $AC\cong DF$.



Roughly: AB & DE, BC & EF \Rightarrow AB + BC = AC & DF = DE + EF which replaces Endid's second

Remark: (C1) acts as "transporter of segments".

(C.2) says that congruence is an equivalence relation on P. (see also exercise 2.2.2)

Addition:

Consider the ray r which is opposite to r_{BA} (proposition 3.2.2, line separation) By (C.1), there exists unique $E \in r$ such that $BE \cong CD$.

Definition 3.3.2

Addition on \widetilde{P} , $+:\widetilde{P}\times\widetilde{P}\to\widetilde{P}$, is defined by

AB + CD = AE



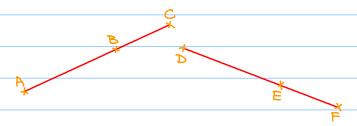
Let \widetilde{P} be the set of all oriented line segments in S.

By considering the equivalence relation on P defined by AB~BA,

then $P = \widetilde{P}/\sim$. Where P is the set of all line segments in S.

Furthermore, = is an equivalence relation on P by (C.2),

It gives an equivalence relation \sim on \widetilde{P} where $\widetilde{P}/\sim = (\widetilde{P}/\sim)/\simeq = P/\simeq$



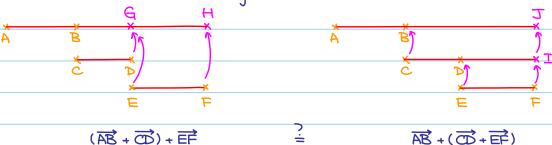
AB = DE and BC = EF

P				
	ĀR	BC	ĀB+BC =ĀC	
	BA	≅		
)E	詳	DE+EF=DF	Do they give the
	₽	莊		/no same equivalence class
	:	:	:	under identification?
P			1/~	P/~. = P/≃
	AB	BC	AC	/≅ [AB] [BC].
	DE	EF	DF	[AB+BC],=[AC],=[DF],=[DE+EF],
	:	:		Given by (C3)

Addition can be defined on \widehat{P} , but it is "bad" in the sense that $\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{CD} \neq \overrightarrow{CD} + \overrightarrow{AB}$ (not commutative). What we only have is associativity.

Exercise 3.3.1

Show that the addition in definition 3.3.2 is associative, i.e. $(\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{CD}) + \overrightarrow{EF} = \overrightarrow{AB} + (\overrightarrow{CD} + \overrightarrow{EF})$.



Why H = J ?

We would like to show that addition defined on \widetilde{P} descends to $\widetilde{P}/\sim_0 = P/\cong$.
Also addition on P/\cong behaves inicely as expected.

Proposition 3.3.1

Addition defined on P descends to P/~ = P/=.

proof:

Recall theorem 2.4.1 and discussion in section 2.4, what we have to show is:

 $\overrightarrow{AB} \sim \overrightarrow{AB}'$, $\overrightarrow{CD} \sim \overrightarrow{CD}' \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{CD} \sim \overrightarrow{AB}' + \overrightarrow{CD}'$

(see also prop. 8.2 in [2])





 $\overrightarrow{AE} = \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BE} = \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{CD}$ (by definition) $\overrightarrow{AE}' = \overrightarrow{AB}' + \overrightarrow{BE}' = \overrightarrow{AB}' + \overrightarrow{CD}'$ (by definition)

 $BE \cong CD \cong CD'\cong BE'$ and $AB \cong A'B' \Longrightarrow AE \cong A'E'$

i.e. $\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{CD} \sim \overrightarrow{AB}' + \overrightarrow{CD}'$

Furthermore, Euclid's second common notion

If equals are added to equals, then the wholes are equal.

is rephrased as the following:

For example, in Euclid's Elements,

AB = AD

BC = DE

so AB+BC = AD+DE (C.N.2)

AC = AE

With proposition 3.3.1, in our language,

AB = AD (i.e. [AB] = [AD] in P/=)

BC & DE

so [AB] + [BC] = [AD] + [DE] (here + is the addition defined on P/=)

[AB]_+[BC]_=[AD]_+[DE]_ (AB is a representative of [AB]_=[NB]_)

 $[\overline{AB} + \overline{BC}]_{n} = [\overline{AD} + \overline{DE}]_{n}$ (here + is the addition defined on \widehat{P})

[AC], [AE],

AC = AE

Also addition on P/= behaves inicely in the following sense:

Proposition 3.3.2

Addition defined on P/= is associative and commutative.

Addition defined on P/= is associative which follows from the fact that addition defined on P is associative.

 $[AB]_{+}[CD]_{+} = [\overrightarrow{AB}]_{+}[\overrightarrow{CD}]_{+}$ $= [\overrightarrow{AB}]_{+}[CD]_{+} = [\overrightarrow{AB}]_{+}[CD]_{+}$ $= [\overrightarrow{AB}]_{+}[CD]_{+}[AB]_{+}[CD]_{+}[AB]_{+}[CD]_{+}[AB]_$

.. Addition defined on P/= is commutative

Comparison:

Definition 3.3.3

Let AB, CD & P

AB is said to be less than CD if there exists E such that C*E*D and AB = CE.

We denote it by AB < CD.

(Be careful, this definition depends on the

choice of orientation of CD, so it is not

well-defined unless we can show

AB is less than CD if and only if

AB is less than DC.)

C*E*D and AB≅CE.

Exercise 3.3.2

Prove that there exists E such that C*E*D and $AB \cong CE$ if and only if there exists E' such that D*E'*C and $AB \cong DE'$.

Proposition 3.3.2

- < defines a relation on P that satisfies
- 1) If AB < CD and CD < EF, then AB < EF
- 2) Given any AB, CD & P, one and only one of the following holds:

AB < CD , AB

CD , AB > CD

proof:

see prop. 8.4(b) in [2]

```
Definition 3.3.4
< is a relation on P/_{\simeq} defined by [AB]_{\simeq} < [CD]_{\simeq} if and only if AB < CD.
(but is it well-defined? Will it happen that AB < CD, but there exist another
 representatives A'B' \( [AB] \) and C'D' \( [CD] \) such that AB < CD is not time?)
Proposition 3.3.3
Given AB = AB' and CD = CD' AB < CD if and only if AB < CD'
see prop. 8.4(a) in [2]
Furthermore, we define \leq on P/_{\cong} by [AB]_{\underline{c}} \leq [CD]_{\underline{c}} if and only if [AB]_{\underline{c}} < [CD]_{\underline{c}} or [AB]_{\underline{c}} = [CD]_{\underline{c}}
To summarize < and < as what we expected:
Exercise 3.3.3 / Proposition 3.3.4
 defines a total order relation and < defines a strict total order relation on P/</p>
proof:
1) (antisymmetric) Suppose that [AB] < [CD] and [AB] > [CD]
                      [AB]_{2} < [CD]_{2} \Rightarrow [AB]_{2} < [CD]_{2} \text{ or } [AB]_{2} = [CD]_{2} \Rightarrow AB < CD \text{ or } AB \cong CD
                    [AB]_{2} > [CD]_{2} \Rightarrow [AB]_{2} > [CD]_{2} \text{ or } [AB]_{2} = [CD]_{2} \Rightarrow AB > CD \text{ or } AB \cong CD
 By proposition 3.3.2 (2), it can only be the case AB = CD, i.e. [AB] = [CD]
2) (transitive) Suppose that [AB] [CD] and [CD] [EF]
                 [AB]_{c} \leq [CD]_{c} \Rightarrow [AB]_{c} \leq [CD]_{c} \text{ or } [AB]_{c} = [CD]_{c}
                 [\Omega]_{\downarrow} < [EF]_{\downarrow} \rightarrow [\Omega]_{\downarrow} < [EF]_{\downarrow} \text{ or } [\Omega]_{\downarrow} = [EF]_{\downarrow}
                 case 1 · AB < CD and CD < EF , prop. 3.3.2 (1) \Rightarrow AB < EF \Rightarrow [AB]<sub>2</sub> < [EF]<sub>2</sub>
                 cose 2, cose 3 : [AB]_{<} [CD]_{<}
                 case 4 : [AB] = [CD] = [EF]
                 : [AB] < [EF]
3) (totality) Given any [AB], [CD] e P,
                 choose representatives AB (AB) and CD (CD)
  By proposition 3.3.2 (2), one and only one of AB < CD, AB = CD, AB > CD is true
                                                            [AB]_<[CD]_ [AB]_=[CD]_ [AB]_>[CD]_
 : [AB] < [CD] or [AB] > [CD]
```

Subtraction:

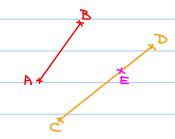
Main trouble: If AB > CD, we do not know how to define CD-AB!

Recall: If AB < CD, then there exists E such that C*E*D and AB ≅ CE.

Definition 3.3.4

-: $\{(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{CD}) \in \widehat{P} \times \widehat{P} : AB < CD\}$ → \widehat{P} is defined by

(T) - AR = ED



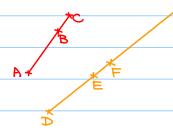
Proposition 3.3.5

Given three points A.B.C on a line such that A*B*C, and given points E.F on a ray originating from D. suppose that AB*DE and AC*DF. Then D*E*F and BC*EF.

proof:

see prop. 8.3 in [2]

(Compare to axiom (C3))



Proposition 3.3.5 serves as a substitute of Euclid's third common notion:

If equals are subtracted from equals, then the remainders are equal.

Proposition 3.3.6

 $-: \{(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{CD}) \in \widetilde{P} \times \widetilde{P} : AB < CD\} \longrightarrow \widetilde{P} \text{ descends to } \widetilde{P}/\sim = P/\simeq$

 $-: \{([\overrightarrow{AB}]_{\underline{c}}, [\overrightarrow{CD}]_{\underline{c}}) \in \mathbb{P}/_{\underline{c}} \times \mathbb{P}/_{\underline{c}} : [\overrightarrow{AB}]_{\underline{c}} < [\overrightarrow{CD}]_{\underline{c}}\} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}/_{\underline{c}}$

proof:

Similar to the proof of proposition 3.3.1

what we have to show is:

 $\overrightarrow{AB} \sim \overrightarrow{AB} , \overrightarrow{CD} \sim \overrightarrow{CD} \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{CD} - \overrightarrow{AB} \sim \overrightarrow{CD} - \overrightarrow{AB}$

Apply proposition 3.3.5