

INTERVAL

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December 11, 2025

RECOMMENDED CITATION

Mohammed looti (2025). *INTERVAL*. Encyclopedia of psychology. Retrieved from <https://encyclopedia.arabpsychology.com/?p=5977>

Introduction to the Concept of Interval

The concept of the **interval** is fundamental across numerous branches of mathematics, providing a precise mechanism for describing continuous sets of real numbers. Fundamentally, an interval represents the distance or space between two specific points or values on the real number line. This definitional simplicity belies its profound utility, as intervals serve as the core building blocks for understanding continuity, measurement, and bounds in analytical mathematics, geometry, and calculus. Whether utilized to define the domain of a function, specify the limits of integration, or characterize the range of possible solutions to an inequality, the interval ensures clarity and rigor in mathematical discourse. Its application extends far beyond theoretical mathematics, playing a crucial role in scientific modeling, engineering design, and statistical analysis, where defining precise boundaries for variables is paramount to accurate representation and prediction.

In its most basic interpretation, an interval defines a **bounded set** of real numbers, meaning that every number lying between two specified endpoints is included within the set, subject only to whether the endpoints themselves are part of the definition. This inclusion or exclusion of the endpoints is what gives rise to the various classifications of intervals, such as open, closed, or half-open. The systematic study of intervals provides the necessary language to bridge discrete mathematics and continuous analysis, allowing mathematicians and scientists to transition seamlessly between analyzing countable sets and dealing with infinite continua. Furthermore, the concept helps formalize notions of proximity and separation, which are essential when investigating convergence properties, especially in sequences and series.

This comprehensive entry aims to meticulously delineate the various aspects of intervals, starting from their formal definition and standard notation conventions, progressing through their detailed classification schemas, and culminating in an exploration of their critical applications across diverse scientific and engineering disciplines. Understanding the nuances of interval definition--particularly regarding the inclusion of bounds--is vital for correctly interpreting mathematical statements and avoiding ambiguity, a common pitfall when dealing with inequalities and set theory. By providing a high level of detail on the structure and usage of intervals, this exposition underscores why the interval remains one of the most indispensable tools in the quantitative toolkit.

Formal Definition and Bounding

Formally, an **interval**, typically denoted by the letter I , is defined as a subset of the set of all **real numbers** (\mathbb{R}) with the property that any two numbers contained within the interval also contain all the real numbers lying between them. If x and y are two distinct elements of the interval I , and z is any real number such that $x < z < y$, then z must also be an element of I . This characteristic property ensures the continuity and connectedness of the set, distinguishing intervals from other types of non-contiguous subsets of real numbers. The definition

relies fundamentally on the ordered nature of the real number line, establishing a clear progression between any two points.

Every finite interval is characterized by two essential values known as its **endpoints**. These endpoints serve as the boundaries of the set and are critical in notation and classification. The smaller of the two endpoints is conventionally referred to as the **lower bound**, while the larger is known as the **upper bound**. For instance, in an interval encompassing numbers between 3 and 7, 3 is the lower bound and 7 is the upper bound. It is crucial to distinguish between the bounds themselves and whether they are included in the set; the designation of the bound merely establishes the limiting value, not necessarily its membership status within the interval. For example, the interval $(3, 7)$ has bounds 3 and 7, but neither is an element of the set, whereas the interval $[3, 7]$ includes both.

The mathematical precision afforded by intervals allows for the unambiguous representation of solutions to inequalities. When solving an inequality such as $x^2 < 25$, the solution set is not a single number but a continuum of values, which is perfectly represented by the interval $(-5, 5)$. This ability to represent infinite continuous sets of numbers concisely is why the interval concept is so ubiquitous in advanced mathematics. Furthermore, the concept extends naturally to the **extended real number line**, where $-\infty$ or $+\infty$ can serve as endpoints, signifying that the set is unbounded in one or both directions, such as the interval $(2, \infty)$, which includes all real numbers strictly greater than 2, having a lower bound of 2 but no finite upper bound.

Standard Notation Systems

Two primary notation systems are utilized to precisely denote intervals: bracket notation and set-builder notation. The choice of notation depends on whether the endpoints are included in the interval, known as inclusion, or excluded, known as exclusion. The **bracket notation** is the most common and concise method, employing parentheses and square brackets to indicate endpoint status. A square bracket, such as $[\]$, signifies that the endpoint adjacent to it is **included** in the interval, representing a closed bound. Conversely, a parenthesis, such as $(\)$ or $[\]$, signifies that the endpoint adjacent to it is **excluded** from the interval, representing an open bound. For instance, $[a, b]$ denotes a closed interval including both a and b , while (a, b) denotes an open interval excluding both a and b .

The bracket notation easily accommodates mixed intervals. A half-open or half-closed interval combines these symbols; for example, $[a, b)$ includes both a and b , encompassing all numbers such that $a \leq x < b$. The inclusion of the endpoints makes closed intervals particularly significant in real analysis, especially in theorems related to optimization, such as the Extreme Value Theorem, which guarantees that a continuous function defined on a closed, bounded interval must attain both a maximum and minimum value within that interval. Closed intervals are characterized

by their property of being **compact sets** in the standard topology of the real numbers, meaning they are both closed (containing all their limit points) and bounded (having finite extent). This compactness is a powerful property leveraged extensively in advanced mathematical proofs.

The third category comprises **mixed intervals**, which include one endpoint but exclude the other. These are often referred to as half-open or half-closed intervals. Examples include $[a, b)$, which excludes a but includes b ($\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x \leq b\}$). The distinction between whether the lower bound is included (half-open on the right) or the upper bound is included (half-open on the left) is critical in functional definitions, especially when dealing with piecewise functions or domains where the boundary condition is asymmetric. Understanding these classifications ensures precise mathematical communication, particularly when defining domains of functions or specifying the boundaries of integration in calculus.

Classification by Length and Extent (Finite and Infinite Intervals)

Beyond endpoint inclusion, intervals are also classified based on their **length** or extent, which determines whether they are bounded or unbounded. The length L of a finite interval $[a, b]$ is simply defined as the difference between the upper and lower bounds: $L = b - a$. This length measurement holds true regardless of whether the interval is open, closed, or mixed, as the inclusion or exclusion of a single point does not affect the measure of the set's length. This classification scheme distinguishes between intervals that have a measurable, finite extent and those that stretch indefinitely.

Within finite intervals, specific lengths yield further classifications. An interval of length greater than zero ($L > 0$) is referred to as a **proper interval**. These are the standard intervals used in everyday mathematical tasks, such as $(1, 10]$ or $[1, 10]$. If the interval has a length of zero ($L = 0$), meaning $a = b$, it is referred to as a **degenerate interval**. A degenerate interval is essentially a single point. For example, the closed interval $[3, 3]$ is simply the set $\{3\}$. Although mathematically valid, degenerate intervals are often implicitly ignored in contexts focusing on continuous ranges. In contrast, an interval of length 1, such as $(-\infty, 5]$, encompassing all numbers less than or equal to 5, and the doubly infinite interval $(-\infty, \infty)$, which represents the entire set of real numbers \mathbb{R} . These classifications are crucial in fields like optimization, where one might seek the maximum value over an unbounded domain, or in calculus, where improper integrals are defined over infinite intervals. The concept of boundedness is key to distinguishing between finite intervals, which are always bounded, and infinite intervals, which are unbounded.

Applications in Pure Mathematics

Intervals are indispensable tools in **pure mathematics**, particularly in areas like real analysis, topology, and calculus. In analysis, intervals form the basis for defining fundamental concepts such

as **limits** and **continuity**. For a function $f(x)$ to be continuous at a point c , the definition relies on the idea that for any positive interval of radius ϵ around $f(c)$ (the output), there must exist a corresponding interval of radius δ around c (the input) such that all inputs within the δ -interval map to outputs within the ϵ -interval. This precise use of open intervals is the cornerstone of the formal ϵ - δ definition of continuity.

In **calculus**, intervals dictate the boundaries of integration and differentiation. The definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$ is fundamentally defined over the closed interval $[a, b]$, representing the signed area beneath the curve of the function $f(x)$ over that specific range. Furthermore, the domain over which a function is defined or differentiable is often specified using interval notation. For example, the function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ has a natural domain of $[0, \infty)$ and $(-\infty, \infty)$, have the same cardinality--the cardinality of the continuum--highlights their role in quantifying infinite sets.

Applications in Applied Sciences and Engineering

The utility of intervals extends robustly into **applied sciences and engineering**, where they provide the necessary framework for dealing with measurements, tolerances, and physical constraints. In **physics**, intervals are essential for quantifying continuous variables like time, distance, velocity, and acceleration. Time intervals, for instance, define the duration over which an event occurs, crucial for kinematic equations. Distance is often measured as a displacement over a spatial interval, while specifying the allowed range of energy levels in quantum mechanics relies heavily on defining specific energy intervals. The precision required in physical measurement means that results are frequently presented not as single values, but as intervals of confidence or uncertainty, acknowledging the limits of instrumentation.

In **engineering**, particularly in design and system analysis, intervals are used to define **tolerances** and operational boundaries. When manufacturing a component, its physical dimensions must fall within a specific interval of tolerance (e.g., 10.0 ± 0.05 mm, represented by the interval $[9.95, 10.05]$). If a measurement falls outside this acceptable interval, the component is deemed defective. Similarly, in control systems engineering, intervals are used to define the safe operating range for variables like temperature, pressure, or voltage. If a system's variable deviates outside its predefined stability interval, corrective action must be taken to prevent failure, underscoring the critical role of interval definitions in maintaining system reliability and safety.

Furthermore, in **statistics and data science**, intervals form the backbone of **confidence intervals**. A confidence interval provides a range of values, calculated from sample data, that is likely to contain the true value of an unknown population parameter with a specified degree of certainty (e.g., 95% confidence). This interval notation allows statisticians to communicate the uncertainty inherent in estimation. In fields like operations research and economics, intervals are used to define constraints in optimization problems or to model the range of market fluctuations.

For instance, defining the optimal production level might involve specifying that production must fall within a specific interval $[\$a, \$b]$ to maximize profit while minimizing cost, demonstrating the practical, decision-making power derived from interval analysis.

Conclusion

The interval is far more than a simple mathematical construct; it is a foundational element that enables the rigorous description and quantification of continuity, range, and bounds across the quantitative disciplines. From the definition of fundamental concepts in real analysis, such as limits and continuity, to the practical specification of engineering tolerances and the measurement of physical phenomena, intervals provide the necessary precision to handle continuous sets of numbers effectively. Their classification based on endpoint inclusion (open, closed, mixed) and extent (finite, infinite) allows for nuanced representation tailored to specific theoretical or applied contexts.

The continued relevance of intervals stems from their ability to translate complex conceptual boundaries into unambiguous mathematical language. Whether one is solving systems of inequalities, defining the domain of a complex function, or calculating the probability distribution over a specific range, interval notation serves as the standard, efficient means of communication. The systematic understanding and application of intervals ensure accuracy and prevent ambiguity in both academic research and practical, real-world problem-solving across physics, computer science, and engineering.

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