

## Chapter 1: Sets, Fields and Orders

**1.1 Definition:** For sets  $A$  and  $B$ , we use the following notation. We write  $x \in A$  when  $x$  is an **element** of the set  $A$ . We denote the **empty set**, that is the set with no elements, by  $\emptyset$ . We write  $A = B$  when the sets  $A$  and  $B$  are **equal**, that is when  $A$  and  $B$  have the same elements. We write  $A \subseteq B$  (some books write  $A \subset B$ ) when  $A$  is a **subset** of  $B$ , that is when every element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$ . We write  $A \subset B$ , or for emphasis  $A \not\subseteq B$ , when  $A$  is a **proper subset** of  $B$ , that is when  $A \subseteq B$  but  $A \neq B$ . We denote the **union** of  $A$  and  $B$  by  $A \cup B$ , the **intersection** of  $A$  and  $B$  by  $A \cap B$ , the set  $A$  **remove**  $B$  by  $A \setminus B$  and the **product** of  $A$  and  $B$  by  $A \times B$ , that is

$$\begin{aligned} A \cup B &= \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}, \\ A \cap B &= \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}, \\ A \setminus B &= \{x \mid x \in A \mid x \notin B\}, \text{ and} \\ A \times B &= \{(a, b) \mid x \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}. \end{aligned}$$

We say that  $A$  and  $B$  are **disjoint** when  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

**1.2 Theorem:** (Properties of Sets) Let  $A, B, C \subseteq X$ . Then

- (1) (Idempotence)  $A \cup A = A$ ,  $A \cap A = A$ ,
- (2) (Identity)  $A \cup \emptyset = A$ ,  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$ ,  $A \cup X = X$ ,  $A \cap X = A$ ,
- (3) (Associativity)  $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$  and  $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$ ,
- (4) (Commutativity)  $A \cup B = B \cup A$  and  $A \cap B = B \cap A$ ,
- (5) (Distributivity)  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$  and  $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ ,
- (6) (De Morgan's Laws)  $X \setminus (A \cup B) = (X \setminus A) \cap (X \setminus B)$  and  $X \setminus (A \cap B) = (X \setminus A) \cup (X \setminus B)$ .

Proof: The proof is left as an exercise.

**1.3 Definition:** We write  $\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  for the set of **natural numbers** (which we take to include the number 0),  $\mathbf{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$  for the set of **integers**,  $\mathbf{Q}$  for the set of **rational numbers** and we write  $\mathbf{R}$  for the set of **real numbers**. We assume familiarity with the algebraic operations  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\cdot$ ,  $\div$  and with the order relations  $<$ ,  $\leq$ ,  $>$ ,  $\geq$  on these sets. Some of the fundamental properties of these operations and order relations are discussed in this chapter.

**1.4 Definition:** For  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$  with  $a \leq b$  we write

$$\begin{aligned} (a, b) &= \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid a < x < b\}, \quad [a, b] = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid a \leq x \leq b\}, \\ (a, b] &= \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid a < x \leq b\}, \quad [a, b) = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid a \leq x < b\}, \\ (a, \infty) &= \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid a < x\}, \quad [a, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid a \leq x\}, \\ (-\infty, b) &= \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x \leq b\}, \quad (-\infty, b] = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x \leq b\}, \\ &\quad (-\infty, \infty) = \mathbf{R}. \end{aligned}$$

An **interval** in  $\mathbf{R}$  is any set of one of the above forms. In the case that  $a = b$  we have  $(a, b) = [a, b] = (a, b] = \emptyset$  and  $[a, b] = \{a\}$ , and these intervals are called **degenerate** intervals. The intervals  $\emptyset$ ,  $(a, b)$ ,  $(a, \infty)$ ,  $(-\infty, b)$  and  $(-\infty, \infty)$  are called **open** intervals. The intervals  $\emptyset$ ,  $[a, b]$ ,  $[a, \infty)$ ,  $(-\infty, b]$  and  $(-\infty, \infty)$  are called **closed** intervals.

**1.5 Definition:** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. A **relation** on  $A \times B$  is a subset  $r \subseteq A \times B$ . When  $r$  is a relation on  $A \times B$  and  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ , we say that  $a$  and  $b$  are **related** under  $r$  and we write  $arb$  when  $(a, b) \in r$ . The **domain** and **range** of the relation  $r$  are the sets  $\text{Domain}(r) = \{x \in A | xry \text{ for some } y \in B\}$  and  $\text{Range}(r) = \{y \in B | xry \text{ for some } x \in A\}$ .

**1.6 Definition:** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. A **function** from  $A$  to  $B$  is a relation  $f$  on  $A \times B$  with the property that for every  $x \in A$  there exists a unique element  $y \in B$  such that  $xfy$ . When  $f$  is a function from  $A$  to  $B$ , we write  $f : A \rightarrow B$ . When  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $x \in A$  we denote the unique element  $y \in B$  for which  $xfy$  by  $f(x)$ . Note that  $\text{Domain}(f) = A$  and  $\text{Range}(f) \subseteq B$ . A **binary operation** on  $A$  is a function  $f : A \times A \rightarrow A$

**1.7 Definition:** A **field** is a set  $F$  with two distinct elements  $0, 1 \in F$  and two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  such that

- (1) (Additive Associativity) for all  $x, y, z \in F$  we have  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$ ,
- (2) (Additive Commutativity) for all  $x, y \in F$  we have  $x + y = y + x$ ,
- (3) (Additive Identity) for all  $x \in F$  we have  $0 + x = x$ ,
- (4) (Additive Inverse) for all  $x \in F$  there exists a unique  $y \in F$  such that  $x + y = 0$ ,
- (5) (Multiplicative Associativity) for all  $x, y, z \in F$  we have  $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$ ,
- (6) (Multiplicative Commutativity) for all  $x, y \in F$  we have  $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$ ,
- (7) (Multiplicative Identity) for all  $x \in F$  we have  $1 \cdot x = x$ ,
- (8) (Multiplicative Inverse) for all  $0 \neq x \in F$  there exists a unique  $y \in F$  such that  $x \cdot y = 1$ .
- (9) (Distributivity) for all  $x, y, z \in F$  we have  $x \cdot (y + z) = (x \cdot y) + (x \cdot z)$ .

**1.8 Theorem:**  $\mathbf{Q}$  and  $\mathbf{R}$  are fields.

Proof: We omit the proof, but we remark that  $\mathbf{Z}$  is not a field because it does not satisfy Property (8).

**1.9 Notation:** Let  $F$  be a field and let  $a, b \in F$ . We denote the unique additive inverse of  $a$  by  $-a$  and we write  $a - b = a + (-b)$ . We usually write  $a \cdot b$  simply as  $ab$ , and, when  $a \neq 0$ , we denote the unique multiplicative inverse of  $a$  by  $a^{-1}$  and we write  $b \div a = \frac{b}{a} = ba^{-1}$ .

**1.10 Theorem:** Let  $F$  be a field. Then for all  $x, y, z \in F$  we have

- (1) (Additive Cancellation) if  $x + y = x + z$  then  $y = z$ ,
- (2) (Uniqueness of Additive Identity) if  $x + y = x$  then  $y = 0$ ,
- (3) (Multiplicative Cancellation) if  $xy = xz$  then either  $x = 0$  or  $y = z$ ,
- (4) (Uniqueness of Multiplicative Identity) if  $xy = x$  then  $y = 1$ ,
- (5) (No Zero Divisors) if  $xy = 0$  then  $x = 0$  or  $y = 0$ .

Proof: The proof is left as an exercise.

**1.11 Theorem:** (Properties of Fields) Let  $F$  be a field. Then for all  $x, y \in F$  we have  $0 \cdot x = 0$ ,  $-(-x) = x$ ,  $-(x + y) = -x - y$ ,  $(-1)x = -x$ ,  $(-x)y = -(xy)$ ,  $(-x)(-y) = xy$ ,  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$ ,  $(ab)^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1}$  and  $(-a)^{-1} = -a^{-1}$ .

Proof: The proof is left as an exercise.

**1.12 Definition:** An **order** on a set  $X$  is a binary relation  $\leq$  on  $X$  such that

- (1) (Totality) for all  $x, y \in X$ , either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ ,
- (2) (Antisymmetry) for all  $x, y \in X$ , if  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq x$  then  $x = y$ , and
- (3) (Transitivity) for all  $x, y, z \in X$ , if  $x < y$  and  $y < z$  then  $x < z$ .

An **ordered set** is a set  $X$  with an order  $\leq$ .

**1.13 Theorem:** *Each of  $\mathbf{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{Z}$ ,  $\mathbf{Q}$  and  $\mathbf{R}$  is an ordered set using its standard order  $\leq$ . Under the inclusions  $\mathbf{N} \subseteq \mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  the orders coincide (so that for example when  $a, b \in \mathbf{N}$  we have  $a \leq b$  in  $\mathbf{N}$  if and only if  $a \leq b$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ ).*

Proof: We omit the proof.

**1.14 Notation:** When  $\leq$  is an order on  $X$ , we write  $x < y$  when  $x \leq y$  and  $x \neq y$ , we write  $x \geq y$  when  $y \leq x$  and we write  $x > y$  when  $y < x$ .

**1.15 Definition:** An **ordered field** is a field  $F$  with an order  $\leq$  such that for all  $x, y, z \in F$

- (1) if  $x \leq y$  then  $x + z \leq y + z$ , and
- (2) if  $0 \leq x$  and  $0 \leq y$  then  $0 \leq xy$ .

When  $F$  is an ordered field and  $x \in F$  we say that  $x$  is **positive** when  $x > 0$ , we say  $x$  is **negative** when  $x < 0$ , we say  $x$  is **nonpositive** when  $x \leq 0$ , and we say  $x$  is **nonnegative** when  $x \geq 0$ .

**1.16 Theorem:**  $\mathbf{Q}$  and  $\mathbf{R}$  are ordered fields.

Proof: We omit the proof.

**1.17 Theorem:** *(Properties of Ordered Fields) Let  $F$  be an ordered field. Then for all  $x, y, z \in F$*

- (1) if  $x > 0$  then  $-x < 0$ , and if  $x < 0$  then  $-x > 0$ ,
- (2) if  $x > 0$  and  $y < z$  then  $xy < xz$ ,
- (3) if  $x < 0$  and  $y < z$  then  $xy > xz$ ,
- (4) if  $x \neq 0$  then  $x^2 > 0$ , and in particular  $1 > 0$ , and
- (5) if  $0 < x < y$  then  $0 < \frac{1}{y} < \frac{1}{x}$ .

Proof: The proof is left as an exercise.

**1.18 Definition:** Let  $F$  be an ordered field. For  $a \in F$  we define the **absolute value** of  $a$  to be

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

**1.19 Theorem:** *(Properties of Absolute Value) Let  $F$  be an ordered field. For all  $x, y \in F$*

- (1) (Positive Definiteness)  $|x| \geq 0$  with  $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$ ,
- (2) (Symmetry)  $|x - y| = |y - x|$ ,
- (3) (Multiplicativeness)  $|xy| = |x||y|$
- (4) (Triangle Inequality)  $||x| - |y|| \leq |x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$ , and
- (5) (Approximation) for  $a, b \in F$  with  $b \geq 0$  we have  $|x - a| \leq b \iff a - b \leq x \leq a + b$ .

Proof: The proof is left as an exercise.

**1.20 Theorem:** (Induction Principle) Let  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $F(n)$  be a statement about  $n$ . Suppose that

- (1)  $F(m)$  is true, and
- (2) for all  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $k \geq m$ , if  $F(k)$  is true then  $F(k + 1)$  is true.

Then  $F(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n \geq m$ .

Proof: We omit the proof.

**1.21 Theorem:** (Basic Order Properties in  $\mathbf{Z}$ )

- (1) for  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  we have  $n \in \mathbf{N}$  if and only if  $n \geq 0$ ,
- (2) for all  $k, n \in \mathbf{Z}$  we have  $k \leq n$  if and only if  $k < n + 1$ .

Proof: We omit the proof.

**1.22 Theorem:** (Strong Induction Principle) Let  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$ . Let  $F(n)$  be a statement about  $n$ . Suppose that for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n \geq m$ , if  $F(k)$  is true for all  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $m \leq k < n$  then  $F(n)$  is true. Then  $F(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n \geq m$ .

Proof: Let  $G(n)$  be the statement “ $F(k)$  is true for all  $m \leq k < n$ ”. Note that  $G(m)$  is true vacuously since there are no elements  $k$  with  $m \leq k < m$ . Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n \geq m$  and suppose, inductively, that  $G(n)$  is true, in other words that  $F(k)$  is true for all  $m \leq k < n$ . It follows from the hypothesis of the theorem that  $F(n)$  is true, and so we have  $F(k)$  true for all  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $m \leq k \leq n$ . By the Basic Order Property (2), it follows that  $F(k)$  is true for all  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $m \leq k < n + 1$ , or equivalently that  $G(n + 1)$  is true. By the Induction Principle, it follows that  $G(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n \geq m$ . Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n \geq m$ . Since  $G(n)$  is true, we know that  $F(k)$  is true for all  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $m \leq k < n$ . By the hypothesis of the theorem, it follows that  $F(n)$  is true. Thus  $F(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n \geq m$ .

**1.23 Example:** Let  $a_0 = 0$  and  $a_1 = 1$  and for  $n \geq 2$  let  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 6a_{n-2}$ . Show that  $a_n = \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n)$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

Solution: We claim that  $a_n = \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n)$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . When  $n = 0$  we have  $a_n = a_0 = 0$  and  $\frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n) = \frac{1}{5}(3^0 - (-2)^0) = 0$ , so the claim is true when  $n = 0$ . When  $n = 1$  we have  $a_n = a_1 = 1$  and  $\frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n) = \frac{1}{5}(3 - (-2)) = 1$ , so the claim is true when  $n = 1$ . Let  $n \geq 2$  and suppose the claim is true for all  $k < n$ . In particular we suppose the claim is true for  $n - 1$  and  $n - 2$ , that is we suppose  $a_{n-1} = \frac{1}{5}(3^{n-1} - (-2)^{n-1})$  and  $a_{n-2} = \frac{1}{5}(3^{n-2} - (-2)^{n-2})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
a_n &= a_{n-1} + 6a_{n-2} \\
&= \frac{1}{5}(3^{n-1} - (-2)^{n-1}) + \frac{6}{5}(3^{n-2} - (-2)^{n-2}) \\
&= \left(\frac{1}{5} \cdot 3^{n-1} + \frac{6}{5} \cdot 3^{n-2}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{5}(-2)^{n-1} + \frac{6}{5}(-2)^{n-2}\right) \\
&= \left(\frac{3}{5} \cdot 3^{n-2} + \frac{6}{5} \cdot 3^{n-2}\right) - \left(-\frac{2}{5}(-2)^{n-2} + \frac{6}{5}(-2)^{n-2}\right) \\
&= \frac{9}{5} \cdot 3^{n-2} - \frac{4}{5}(-2)^{n-2} = \frac{1}{5} \cdot 3^n - \frac{1}{5}(-2)^n \\
&= \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n) = \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n).
\end{aligned}$$

By Strong Induction, we have  $a_n = \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n)$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

**1.24 Definition:** Let  $X$  be an ordered set and let  $A \subseteq X$ . We say that  $A$  is **bounded above** (in  $X$ ) when there exists an element  $b \in X$  such that  $x \leq b$  for all  $x \in A$ , and in this case we say that  $b$  is an **upper bound** for  $A$  (in  $X$ ).

We say that  $A$  is **bounded below** (in  $X$ ) when there exists an element  $a \in X$  such that  $a \leq x$  for all  $x \in A$ , and in this case we say that  $a$  is a **lower bound** for  $A$  (in  $X$ ). We say that  $A$  is **bounded** (in  $X$ ) when  $A$  is bounded above and bounded below.

**1.25 Definition:** Let  $X$  be an ordered set and let  $A \subseteq X$ . We say that  $A$  has a **supremum** (or a **least upper bound**) (in  $X$ ) when there exists an element  $b \in X$  such that  $b$  is an upper bound for  $A$  with  $b \leq c$  for every upper bound  $c \in X$  for  $A$ , and in this case we say that  $b$  is the **supremum** (or the **least upper bound**) of  $A$  (in  $X$ ) (note that if the supremum exists then it is unique by antisymmetry) and we write  $b = \sup A$ . When the supremum  $b = \sup A$  exists and we have  $b \in A$ , then we also say that  $b$  is the **maximum element** of  $A$  and we write  $b = \max A$ .

We say that  $A$  has an **infimum** (or a **greatest lower bound**) (in  $X$ ) when there exists an element  $a \in X$  such that  $a$  is a lower bound for  $A$  with  $c \leq a$  for every lower bound  $c$  for  $A$ , and in this case we say that  $a$  is the **infimum** (or the **greatest lower bound**) of  $A$  (in  $X$ ) and we write  $a = \inf A$ . When  $a = \inf A \in A$  we also say that  $a$  is the **minimum element** of  $A$  and we write  $a = \min A$ .

**1.26 Example:** Let  $A = (0, \infty)$  and  $B = [1, \sqrt{2}]$ . The set  $A$  is bounded below but not bounded above. The numbers  $-1$  and  $0$  are both lower bounds for  $A$  and we have  $\inf A = 0$ . The set  $A$  has no minimum element and no maximum element. The set  $B$  is bounded above and below. The numbers  $0$  and  $1$  are both lower bounds for  $B$  and the numbers  $\sqrt{2}$  and  $3$  are both upper bounds for  $B$ . We have  $\inf B = 1$  and  $\sup B = \sqrt{2}$ . The set  $B$  has a minimum element, namely  $\min B = \inf B = 1$ , but  $B$  has no maximum element.

**1.27 Theorem:** (Completeness Properties of  $\mathbf{R}$ )

- (1) Every nonempty subset of  $\mathbf{R}$  which is bounded above in  $\mathbf{R}$  has a supremum in  $\mathbf{R}$ .
- (2) Every nonempty subset of  $\mathbf{R}$  which is bounded below in  $\mathbf{R}$  has an infimum in  $\mathbf{R}$ .

Proof: We omit the proof.

**1.28 Theorem:** (Approximation Property of Supremum and Infimum) Let  $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ .

- (1) If  $b = \sup A$  then for all  $0 < \epsilon \in \mathbf{R}$  there exists  $x \in A$  with  $b - \epsilon < x \leq b$ , and
- (2) if  $a = \inf A$  then for all  $0 < \epsilon \in \mathbf{R}$  there exists  $x \in A$  with  $a \leq x < a + \epsilon$ .

Proof: Let  $b = \sup A$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Suppose, for a contradiction, that there is no element  $x \in A$  with  $b - \epsilon < x$ , or equivalently that for all  $x \in A$  we have  $b - \epsilon \geq x$ . Let  $c = b - \epsilon$ . Note that  $c$  is an upper bound for  $A$  since  $x \leq b - \epsilon = c$  for all  $x \in A$ . Since  $b = \sup A$  and  $c$  is an upper bound for  $A$  we have  $b \leq c$ . But since  $\epsilon > 0$  we have  $b > b - \epsilon = c$  giving the desired contradiction. This proves that there exists  $x \in A$  with  $b - \epsilon < x$ . Choose such an element  $x \in A$ . Since  $b = \sup A$  we know that  $b$  is an upper bound for  $A$  and hence  $b \geq x$ . Thus we have  $b - \epsilon < x \leq b$ , as required.

**1.29 Theorem:** (Well-Ordering Properties of  $\mathbf{Z}$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ )

- (1) Every nonempty subset of  $\mathbf{Z}$  which is bounded above in  $\mathbf{R}$  has a maximum element.
- (2) Every nonempty subset of  $\mathbf{Z}$  which is bounded below in  $\mathbf{R}$  has a minimum element, in particular every nonempty subset of  $\mathbf{N}$  has a minimum element.

Proof: We prove Part (1). Let  $A$  be a nonempty subset of  $\mathbf{Z}$  which is bounded in  $\mathbf{R}$ . By Completeness,  $A$  has a supremum in  $\mathbf{R}$ . Let  $n = \sup A$ . We must show that  $n \in A$ . Suppose, for a contradiction, that  $n \notin A$ . By the Approximation Property (using  $\epsilon = 1$ ), we can choose  $a \in A$  with  $n - 1 < a \leq n$ . Note that  $a \neq n$  since  $a \in A$  and  $n \notin A$  and so we have  $a < n$ . By the Approximation Property again (using  $\epsilon = n - a$ ) we can choose  $b \in A$  with  $a < b \leq n$ . Since  $a < b$  we have  $b - a > 0$ . Since  $n - 1 < a$  and  $b \leq n$  we have  $1 = n - (n - 1) > b - a$ . But then we have  $b - a \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $0 < b - a < 1$  which contradicts the Basic Order Properties of  $\mathbf{Z}$  (since  $b - a < 1 \implies b - a \leq 0$ ). Thus  $n \in A$  so  $A$  has a maximum element.

**1.30 Theorem:** (Floor and Ceiling Properties of  $\mathbf{Z}$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ )

- (1) (Floor Property) For every  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  there exists a unique  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $x - 1 < n \leq x$ .
- (2) (Ceiling Property) For every  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  there exists a unique  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $x \leq m < x + 1$ .

Proof: We prove Part (1). First we prove uniqueness. Let  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  and suppose that  $n, m \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $x - 1 < n \leq x$  and  $x - 1 < m \leq x$ . Since  $x - 1 < n$  we have  $x < n + 1$ . Since  $m \leq x$  and  $x < n + 1$  we have  $m < n + 1$  hence  $m \leq n$ . Similarly, we have  $n \leq m$ . Since  $n \leq m$  and  $m \leq n$ , we have  $n = m$ . This proves uniqueness.

Next we prove existence. Let  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ . First let us consider the case that  $x \geq 0$ . Let  $A = \{k \in \mathbf{Z} \mid k \leq x\}$ . Note that  $A \neq \emptyset$  because  $0 \in A$  and  $A$  is bounded above in  $\mathbf{R}$  by  $x$ . By The Well-Ordering Property of  $\mathbf{Z}$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ ,  $A$  has a maximum element. Let  $n = \max A$ . Since  $n \in A$  we have  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $n \leq x$ . Also note that  $x - 1 < n$  since  $x - 1 \geq n \implies x \geq n + 1 \implies n + 1 \in A \implies n \neq \max A$ . Thus for  $n = \max A$  we have  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $x - 1 < n \leq x$ , as required.

Next consider the case that  $x < 0$ . If  $x \in \mathbf{Z}$  we can take  $n = x$ . Suppose that  $x \notin \mathbf{Z}$ . We have  $-x > 0$  so, by the previous paragraph, we can choose  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $-x - 1 < m \leq -x$ . Since  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$  but  $x \notin \mathbf{Z}$  we have  $m \neq -x$  so that  $-x - 1 < m < -x$  and hence  $x < -m < x + 1$ . Thus we can take  $n = -m - 1$  to get  $x - 1 < n < x$ . This completes the proof of Part (1).

**1.31 Definition:** Given  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  we define the **floor** of  $x$  to be the unique  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $x - 1 < n \leq x$  and we denote the floor of  $x$  by  $\lfloor x \rfloor$ . The function  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$  given by  $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$  is called the **floor function**.

**1.32 Theorem:** (Archimedean Properties of  $\mathbf{Z}$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ )

- (1) For every  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  there exists  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n > x$ .
- (2) For every  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  there exists  $m \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $m < x$ .

Proof: Let  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ . Let  $n = \lfloor x \rfloor + 1$  and  $m = \lfloor x \rfloor - 1$ . Since  $x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor$  we have  $x < \lfloor x \rfloor + 1 = n$  and since  $\lfloor x \rfloor \leq x$  we have  $m = \lfloor x \rfloor - 1 \leq x - 1 < x$ .

**1.33 Theorem:** (Density of  $\mathbf{Q}$  in  $\mathbf{R}$ ) For all  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$  with  $a < b$  there exists  $q \in \mathbf{Q}$  with  $a < q < b$ .

Proof: Let  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$  with  $a < b$ . By the Archimedean Property, we can choose  $n \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $n > \frac{1}{b-a} > 0$ . Then  $n(b-a) > 1$  and so  $nb > na + 1$ . Let  $k = \lfloor na + 1 \rfloor$ . Then we have  $na < k \leq na + 1 < nb$  hence  $a < \frac{k}{n} < b$ . Thus we can take  $q = \frac{k}{n}$  to get  $a < q < b$ .