

**18.100B (ANALYSIS I)**  
**PRIMER: SETS AND BASIC LOGIC**

This primer collects some mathematical nomenclature we shall use throughout the course.

**Sets.** For our purposes, it is sufficient to exclusively deal with “naive set theory” whose terminology is as follows.<sup>1</sup>

Sets are collections of elements (or members). If  $A$  is any set, we mean by  $x \in A$  that  $x$  is an element of  $A$ ; if  $x$  is not an element of  $A$ , we write  $x \notin A$ .

The set which contains no element is called the *empty set* and denoted by  $\emptyset$ . Any set containing at least one element is referred to as *non-empty*.

If  $A$  and  $B$  are sets such that every element of  $A$  is an element of  $B$ , we say that  $A$  is a *subset* of  $B$ , which we denote by  $A \subseteq B$ ; or occasionally by  $B \supseteq A$ . (Alternative notations for  $\subseteq$  and  $\supseteq$  are  $\subset$  and  $\supset$ , respectively.) Note that the empty set is always a subset, i. e., we have that  $\emptyset \subseteq A$  holds for every  $A$ .

If both  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$  hold, we write  $A = B$ ; and  $A \neq B$  otherwise. We call  $A$  a *proper subset* of  $B$  if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A \neq B$ , and we denote this by writing  $A \subsetneq B$ .

In many instances, sets are either given by explicitly listing their elements, e. g.,  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ , or by stating properties that all elements have in common, e. g.,  $A = \{x : x \text{ is an even integer}\}$ .

Prominent examples of sets are: the natural numbers  $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ ; the integers  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ ; the rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$ ; the real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ ; and the complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ . Note that  $\mathbb{N} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z} \subsetneq \mathbb{Q} \subsetneq \mathbb{R} \subsetneq \mathbb{C}$ .

Given two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , we define their *union*

$$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\},$$

and their *intersection*

$$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$$

One can prove the following rules:

- (1)  $A \cap B = B \cap A, \quad A \cup B = B \cup A;$
- (2)  $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C, \quad A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C;$
- (3)  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C), \quad A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C);$
- (4)  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset, \quad A \cup \emptyset = A.$

Furthermore, the set

$$A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$

is called the *difference* of  $A$  with respect to  $B$ . Note that  $A \setminus A = \emptyset$ , as well as  $A \setminus B = A$  whenever  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

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<sup>1</sup>For further reading on axiomatic set theory, see e.g. [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Axiomatic\\_set\\_theory](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Axiomatic_set_theory)

Be aware of the fact that sets can contain sets. The *power set*

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \text{set of all subsets of } A$$

furnishes an illuminating example for this, e. g.,

$$\mathcal{P}(\{1, 2\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\}.$$

Later in the course we will identify the power set of the natural numbers,  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ , with the set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Finally, we turn to the *cartesian product* defined by

$$A \times B = \{(x, y) : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\},$$

with  $A$  and  $B$  being two sets. Here  $(x, y)$  denotes the ordered pair, where we say that  $(x_1, y_1) = (x_2, y_2)$  holds if and only if  $x_1 = x_2$  and  $y_1 = y_2$ . Also, we remark that  $A \times B = \emptyset$  holds if and only if  $A = \emptyset$  or  $B = \emptyset$ .

Furthermore, we define the *n-fold cartesian product* of the sets  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  by

$$A_1 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_1 \in A_1 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } x_n \in A_n \}.$$

A useful example of this construction is given by  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which is the  $n$ -fold cartesian product of  $\mathbb{R}$  with itself.

**Basic Logic.** Supplementing Rudin's textbook, we briefly recall some basic notations related to mathematical logic.<sup>2</sup>

Symbol	Meaning	Example
$\exists$	there exists	$\exists q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $q^2 = 4$
$\nexists$	there does not exist	$\nexists q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $q^2 = 2$
$\exists!$	there exists only one	$\exists! n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $12.1 < n < 13.1$
$\forall$	for all	$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that $x^2 \geq 0$
$\Rightarrow$	implies that	$x > 0 \Rightarrow x^2 > 0$
$\Leftrightarrow$	is equivalent to	$x \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow 1/x \neq 0$
$\sim, !, \neg$	negation	$X \text{ is true} \Leftrightarrow \neg X \text{ is false}$

We remark that the implication  $X \Rightarrow Y$  can be rephrased by saying that “if  $X$ , then  $Y$ ” or “when  $X$  is true,  $Y$  is true” or “ $Y$  is true only if  $X$  is true”. In this case, we say that  $X$  is *sufficient* for  $Y$ , and that  $Y$  is *necessary* for  $X$ . It is a beginner's common mistake to confuse sufficient and necessary.

A ubiquitous word in the mathematical literature is “*iff*” which serves as an abbreviation for “*if and only if*”. For instance, the equivalence  $X \Leftrightarrow Y$  means that “ $X$  is true iff  $Y$  is true”.

<sup>2</sup>An easy-to-read and informal introduction to mathematical logic can be found Terence Tao's new textbook “Analysis, Volume I”, Chapter 12, pp. 118; see <http://www.math.ucla.edu/~tao/preprints/books.html> where you can download sample chapters (including Chapter 12).