

## Sets and Mathematical Notation

A **set**  $X$  is a “well-defined” collection of objects. In this course, the objects will be (mostly) real numbers. To say that  $X$  is well-defined means that there must be an unambiguous test for determining whether or not something belongs to  $X$ . If  $x$  belongs to  $X$ , we write  $x \in X$ ; if not, we write  $x \notin X$ . If  $x \in X$ , we say that  $x$  is an **element** of  $X$ .

### Examples:

1. We can define a set by listing explicitly all the elements:  $X = \{2, \pi, 3\}$ .
2. We can define the elements of  $X$  by the requirement that they have a certain property:  $X = \{x \mid x \text{ is a root of } x^3 + 5x^2 + 2\}$ . In this context, the symbol  $\mid$  is read as “such that”.
3. It is not necessarily a trivial matter to determine whether or not  $x \in X$ . For instance, we can define  $\mathbb{A} = \{x \mid x \text{ is a root of some polynomial with integer coefficients}\}$ . Such numbers are called **algebraic numbers**. For instance,  $\sqrt{2}$  is algebraic, since it’s a root of  $p(x) = x^2 - 2$ . So is  $e^{(2\pi i)/3}$ , since it’s a root of  $p(x) = x^3 - 1$ . It is true, but not easily proven, that neither  $\pi$  nor  $e$  is algebraic. Numbers that are not algebraic are called **transcendental**.
4.  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$  is the set of **natural numbers**.
5.  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  is the set of **integers**. It consists of the natural numbers, their negatives, and the element 0.
6.  $\mathbb{Q} = \{m/n \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0\}$  is the set of **rational numbers**.
7.  $\mathbb{R}$  is the set of **real numbers**. The precise definition of  $\mathbb{R}$  requires some care, and will be given later in the course. Similarly with  $\mathbb{C}$ , the set of **complex numbers**.

If  $X$  is a set, then  $A$  is a **subset** of  $X$  if every element of  $A$  belongs to  $X$ . We write this as  $A \subseteq X$ . For instance,  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . And for any set  $X$ ,  $X \subseteq X$ . Two sets  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to be **equal** if each is a subset of the other:  $X \subseteq Y$ , and  $Y \subseteq X$ .

The **empty set**, denoted  $\emptyset$ , is the set containing no elements. For any set  $X$ , it is true that  $\emptyset \subseteq X$ , because every element of  $\emptyset$  (there are none) belongs to  $X$ . It is also true that  $X \subseteq X$  for any set  $X$ .

### “Operations” on sets

- $X \cup Y = \{x \mid x \in X \text{ or } x \in Y\}$ . This is not an “exclusive or”;  $x$  can belong to either  $X$  or  $Y$ , or both.  $X \cup Y$  is called the **union** of the two sets  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- $X \cap Y = \{x \mid x \in X \text{ and } x \in Y\}$  is called the **intersection** of  $X$  and  $Y$ .

- $\sim X = \{x \mid x \notin X\}$  is called the **complement** of  $X$ . Here  $X$  is assumed to be a subset of some known set like the real numbers.
- $X \setminus A = \{x \mid x \in X \text{ and } x \notin A\}$  is called the **complement of  $A$  in  $X$** . For instance,  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  is the set of irrational numbers.
- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are two sets, their **Cartesian product**, denoted  $X \times Y$  is defined by

$$X \times Y = \{(x, y) \mid x \in X, \text{ and } y \in Y\}.$$

That is, the Cartesian product of  $X$  and  $Y$  is the set of all ordered pairs, the first element of which belongs to  $X$  and the second to  $Y$ . If  $X = Y$ , then we write  $X \times X$  as  $X^2$ . For instance, the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is the same as  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ . Similarly,  $X^n = X \times \cdots \times X$  ( $n$  times).

## Quantifiers

- The symbol  $\forall$  is read “for all”. Equivalently, “for every”, “for any” and “for each”. For instance

$$A \subseteq X \text{ means } \forall x \in A, x \in X.$$

- The symbol  $\exists$  is read “there exists”. Equivalently, “for some”, “there is”, or “one can find”. For instance,

$$A \text{ is not a subset of } X \text{ if } \exists x \in A \setminus X. (A \setminus X \neq \emptyset)$$

## Implications

A **proposition** (also, depending on the context, called a theorem, lemma, or corollary) is a (grammatically correct) sentence of the form “if  $A$ , then  $B$ ”. This is written  $A \Rightarrow B$ , and is read as “ $A$  implies  $B$ ”. That is, if  $A$  is true, then  $B$  must be true.  $A$  is said to be “sufficient” for  $B$ , and  $B$  is “necessary” for  $A$ . Propositions are also called **implications**. A well-formed proposition is either true or false, and formal mathematics can be said to consist of the proof or disproof of mathematical propositions. (Actually, there is a lot of tricky business involved with set theory, and it’s a famous theorem of Godel that there exist well-formed statements whose truth or falsity cannot be determined. But we’ll ignore this minor issue, since it doesn’t arise here.)

To **prove** the implication  $A \Rightarrow B$ , you assume that  $A$  is true, and then attempt to show that  $B$  is also true. To **disprove** it, you must find an example for which  $A$  holds, but  $B$  does not.

Examples:

1.  $0 < x < 1 \Rightarrow x^2 < x$ . Here,  $A$  is the statement “Suppose  $x$  is any real number in  $(0, 1)$ .”, and  $\Rightarrow$  is read “then”, while  $B$  is the statement “ $x^2 < x$ .” Proof: Assume that  $x$  is a real number in  $(0, 1)$ . Then, since  $x > 0$ , multiplying both sides of an inequality by  $x$  doesn’t reverse the inequality. Since  $x < 1$ , we have  $x \cdot x = x^2 < x \cdot 1 = x$ .

2. The **converse** of  $A \Rightarrow B$  is the implication  $B \Rightarrow A$ . The converse of  $A \Rightarrow B$  may be either true or false, regardless of the truth or falsity of  $A \Rightarrow B$ . The converse of the implication above is the implication  $x^2 < x \Rightarrow 0 < x < 1$ . In this case, the converse is true. Here is an example where the converse is false:  $x^2 = 5 \Rightarrow x \notin \mathbb{Q}$ .
3. The **contrapositive** of the implication  $A \Rightarrow B$  is the implication  $\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$ , where the symbol  $\neg$  is read as “not”. The contrapositive is logically equivalent to the original implication. For instance, “If Amy is human then Amy is a mammal.” The contrapositive is “If Amy is not a mammal, then Amy is not human”. We often use the contrapositive implication to prove something - this is called a “proof by contradiction”. The contrapositive of (1) is the statement  $x^2 \geq x \Rightarrow x \notin (0, 1)$ . Proof: Suppose that  $x^2 \geq x$ . If  $x \in (0, 1)$ , then we can show (above)  $x^2 < x$ . Therefore,  $x \notin (0, 1)$ .

## Double implications

An implication of the form  $A \iff B$  is really two implications,  $A \Rightarrow B$ , and  $B \Rightarrow A$ . That is, both  $A \Rightarrow B$  and its converse are true. Both must be proven to establish the truth of this statement. In English, we read  $A \iff B$  as “A implies and is implied by B”, or “A is true if and only if (iff) B is true” or (as our forefathers might say, “A is necessary and sufficient for B”).

Definitions should be read as double implications: for instance

$$A \subseteq B \iff \forall x \in A, x \in B.$$

That is, if  $A \subseteq B$ , then any element of  $A$  belongs to  $B$ . And conversely, if any element of  $A$  belongs to  $B$  then  $A \subseteq B$ . If you’re given that  $A \subseteq B$ , you know that any element of  $A$  belongs to  $B$ . On the other hand, if  $A$  and  $B$  are two sets and you can show that any element of  $A$  belongs to  $B$ , then you’ve proven that  $A \subseteq B$ .

Another implied double implication is involved in proving the equality of two sets. For example, to show

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C),$$

you must show that  $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$  and conversely. To do this, you start by assuming that  $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$  and show that  $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ . Then do the converse.

## Negations

Negations can be a bit tricky. Obviously, we replace “is” by “is not”. We also replace  $\exists$  with  $\forall$  and vice versa. For example, the contrapositive of the implication

$$\forall x \in A, x \in B \Rightarrow A \subseteq B$$

is the statement

$$\neg(A \subseteq B) \Rightarrow \neg(\forall x \in A, x \in B), \text{ or}$$

$A$  is not a subset of  $B \Rightarrow \exists x \in A \mid x \notin B$ .

In English, the right hand side of the implication reads “for some  $x \in A$ ,  $x$  is not in  $B$ ”.