

# 18.100A: Typed Lecture Notes

## Lecture 1:

### Sets, Set Operations, and Mathematical Induction

For this class, we will be using the book [Introduction to Real Analysis, Volume I](#) by Jiří Lebl [L]. I will use ■ to end proofs of examples, and □ to end proofs of theorems.

## Basic Set Theory

**Remark 1.** *There are two main goals of this class:*

1. *Gain experience with proofs.*
2. *Prove statements about real numbers, functions, and limits.*

### Sets

A **set** is a collection of objects called elements or members of that set. The **empty set** (denoted  $\emptyset$ ) is the set with no elements. There are a few symbols that are super helpful to know as a shorthand, and will be used throughout the course. Let  $S$  be a set. Then

- $a \in S$  means that " $a$  is an element in  $S$ ."
- $a \notin S$  means that " $a$  is not an element in  $S$ ."
- $\forall$  means "for all."
- $:=$  means "define."
- $\exists$  means "there exists."
- $\exists!$  means "there exists a unique."
- $\implies$  means "implies."
- $\iff$  means "if and only if."

### **Definition 2 (Set Relations)**

We want to relate different sets, and thus we get the following notation/definitions:

1. A set  $A$  is a subset of  $B$ ,  $A \subset B$ , if every element of  $A$  is in  $B$ . Given  $A \subset B$ , if  $a \in A \implies a \in B$ .
2. Two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are equal,  $A = B$ , if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .
3. A set  $A$  is a proper subset of  $B$ ,  $A \subsetneq B$  if  $A \subset B$  and  $A \neq B$ .

One way we can describe a set is using "set building notation". We write

$$\{x \in A \mid P(x)\} \quad \text{or} \quad \{x \mid P(x)\}$$

to mean "all  $x \in A$  that satisfies property  $P(x)$ ". One example of this would be  $\{x \mid x \text{ is an even number}\}$ . There are a few key sets that we will use throughout this class:

1. The set of natural numbers:  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ .
2. The set of integers:  $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots\}$ .

3. The set of rational numbers:  $\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } n \neq 0\}$ .

4. The set of real numbers:  $\mathbb{R}$ .

It follows that

$$\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}.$$

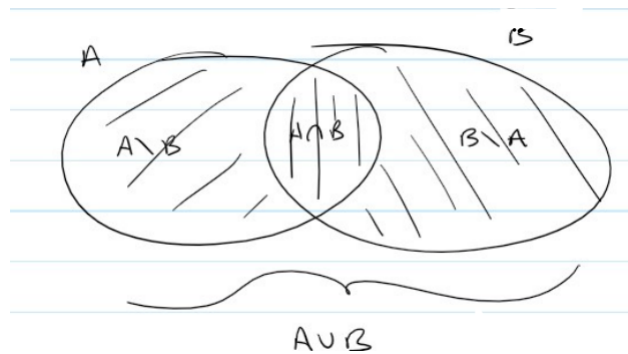
The fourth item on this list brings us to an important question, and the first goal of our course:

### Problem 3

How do we describe  $\mathbb{R}$ ?

We will answer this question in Lectures 3 and 4. In the meantime, let's continue our study of sets and proof methods. Given sets  $A$  and  $B$ , we have the following definitions:

1. The union of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set  $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ .
2. The intersection of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set  $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$ .
3. The set difference of  $A$  and  $B$  is the set  $A \setminus B = \{x \in A \mid x \notin B\}$ .
4. The complement of  $A$  is the set  $A^c = \{x \mid x \notin A\}$ .
5.  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .



### Theorem 4 (De Morgan's Laws)

If  $A, B, C$  are sets then

1.  $(B \cup C)^c = B^c \cap C^c$ ,
2.  $(B \cap C)^c = B^c \cup C^c$ ,
3.  $A \setminus (B \cup C) = (A \setminus B) \cap (A \setminus C)$ ,
4. and  $A \setminus (B \cap C) = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$ .

We will prove the first statement to give an example of how such a proof would go, but the rest will be left to you.

**Proof:** Let  $B, C$  be sets. We must prove that

$$(B \cup C)^c \subset B^c \cap C^c \text{ and } B^c \cap C^c \subset (B \cup C)^c.$$

If  $x \in (B \cup C)^c \implies x \notin B \cup C \implies x \notin B$  and  $x \notin C$ . Hence,  $x \in B^c$  and  $x \in C^c \implies x \in B^c \cap C^c$ . Thus,  $(B \cup C)^c \subset B^c \cap C^c$ .

If  $x \in B^c \cap C^c$  then  $x \in B^c$  and  $x \in C^c \implies x \notin B$  and  $x \notin C$ . Hence,  $x \notin B \cup C \implies x \in (B \cup C)^c$ . Thus,  $B^c \cap C^c \subset (B \cup C)^c$ .  $\square$

### Mathematical Induction

We will now talk about some of the biggest proof methods there are. Firstly, note that  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  has an ordering (as  $1 < 2 < 3 < \dots$ ).

#### **Axiom 5** (Well-ordering property)

The well-ordering property of  $\mathbb{N}$  states that if  $S \subset \mathbb{N}$  then there exists an  $x \in S$  such that  $x \leq y$  for all  $y \in S$ . In other words, there is always a smallest element.

Note that this is an axiom, and thus we have to assume this without proof.

#### **Theorem 6** (Induction)

This concept was invented by Pascal in 1665. Let  $P(n)$  be a statement depending on  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Assume that

1. (Base case)  $P(1)$  is true and
2. (Inductive step) if  $P(m)$  is true then  $P(m+1)$  is true.

Then,  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proof:** Let  $S = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid P(n) \text{ is not true}\}$ . We wish to show that  $S = \emptyset$ . We will prove this by contradiction.

**Remark 7.** When we prove something by contradiction, we assume the conclusion we want is false, and then show that we will reach a false statement. Rules of logic thus imply that the initial statement must be false. Thus in this case, we will assume  $S \neq \emptyset$  and derive a false statement.

Suppose that  $S \neq \emptyset$ . Then, by the well-ordering property of  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $S$  has a least element  $m \in S$ . Since  $P(1)$  is true,  $m \neq 1$ , i.e.  $m > 1$ . Since  $m$  is a least element,  $m-1 \notin S \implies P(m-1)$  is true. This implies that  $P(m)$  is true  $\implies m \notin S$  by assumption. But then  $m \in S$  and  $m \notin S$ . This is a contradiction. Thus  $S = \emptyset$  and hence  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .  $\square$

Let's see an example of induction in action.

#### **Theorem 8**

For all  $c \neq 1$  in the real numbers, and for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$1 + c + c^2 + \dots + c^n = \frac{1 - c^{n+1}}{1 - c}.$$

**Proof:** We will prove this by induction. First, we prove the base case ( $n = 1$ ). The left hand side of the equation is  $1 + c$  for  $n = 1$ . The right hand side is  $\frac{1-c^2}{1-c} = \frac{(1-c)(1+c)}{1-c} = 1 + c$ . Hence, the base case has been shown.

Assume that the equation is true for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , in other words

$$1 + c + c^2 + \dots + c^k = \frac{1 - c^{k+1}}{1 - c}.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
\implies 1 + c + c^2 + \dots + c^k + c^{k+1} &= (1 + c + c^2 + \dots + c^k) + c^{k+1} \\
&= \frac{1 - c^{k+1}}{1 - c} + c^{k+1} \\
&= \frac{1 - c^{k+1} + c^{k+1}(1 - c)}{(1 - c)} \\
&= \frac{1 - c^{(k+1)+1}}{1 - c}.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, our proof is complete. □

Let's do another example:

**Theorem 9**

For all  $c \geq -1$ ,  $(1 + c)^n \geq 1 + nc$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proof:** We prove this through induction. In the base case, we have:  $(1 + c)^1 = 1 + 1 \cdot c$ . For the inductive step, suppose that

$$(1 + c)^m \geq 1 + mc.$$

Then,

$$(1 + c)^{m+1} = (1 + c)^m \cdot (1 + c).$$

By assumption,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\geq (1 + mc) \cdot (1 + c) \\
&= 1 + (m + 1)c + mc^2 \\
&\geq 1 + (m + 1)c.
\end{aligned}$$

By induction, our proof is complete. □