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0 Mathematical Basics

In this first section we will provide mathematical notations and concepts which are fundamental and crucial for the further presentation.

0.1 Statements

By a statement we mean a linguistic or mental construction that is either true or false.

Example 0.1

- "4 is an even number." is a true statement.
- "Bananas have conic shape." is a false statement.
- "In the night, it is colder than outside." is not a statement.
- "There are infinitely many stars." is a statement, which can be true or false.

Relations and Operations

 $\neg A$: A is false (negation)

 $A \Rightarrow B$: from A follows B; if A is true, then also B is true (implication)

we say: A is sufficient for B, B is necessary for A

 $A \Leftrightarrow B$: A is true, if and only if B is true. (equivalence)

Note that the following two statements are equivalent

$$A \Rightarrow B$$
$$\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$$

0.2 Sets

Definition 0.2 (Set) According to Cantor a **set** is a well-defined collection of distinct objects, considered as an object in its own right. The objects that make up a set (also known as the set's **elements**) can be anything: numbers, people, letters of the alphabet, other sets, and so on.

Notation: curly brackets {}

Example 0.3

Definition 0.4 (Cardinality) If a set M is **finite** (i.e., it only contains finitely many elements), then we denote by |M| the number of elements contained in M and call it **cardinality of** M.

Set relations and further definitions

 $a \in M$ (or $M \ni a$): a is element of M; M contains a $a \notin M$ (or $M \not\ni a$): a is not element of M; M does not contain a

M = N: M contains the same elements as N

 $M \neq N$: M does not contain the same elements as N

 $M \subset N$ (or $M \subseteq N$): M is subset of N, i.e., each element of M is also

an element of N; equality of sets is permitted.

 $N \supset M$ (or $N \supseteq M$): N is superset of M; analogously

 $M \subsetneq N$: M is strict subset of N; $M \neq N$

 $\emptyset = \{\}$: empty set

Remark: Very useful in practice to show that two sets are equal:

$$M = N \iff M \subset N \text{ and } N \subset M$$

$$M \times N$$
: Cartesian product defined by $M \times N := \{(m,n) : m \in M, n \in N\}$
 $M^n := M \times \ldots \times M \ (n \text{ times})$

[image:Cartesian grid]

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{P}(M) & \text{power set of } M \text{ defined by} \\ \mathcal{P}(M) := 2^M := \{N : N \subset M\} \text{ (set of all subsets of } M) \\ & \text{We find } |\mathcal{P}(M)| = 2^{|M|} \end{array}$

Summary: Set relations and further definitions

 $a \in M$ (or $M \ni a$): a is element of M; M contains a

 $a \notin M$ (or $M \not\ni a$): a is not element of M; M does not contain a

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 $\emptyset = \{\}:$ empty set

 $M \times N$: Cartesian product defined by $M \times N := \{(m, n) : m \in M, n \in N\}$

 $M^n := M \times \ldots \times M \ (n \text{ times})$

 $\mathcal{P}(M)$ power set of M defined by

 $\mathcal{P}(M) := 2^M := \{N : N \subset M\}$ (set of all subsets of M)

We find $|\mathcal{P}(M)| = 2^{|M|}$

Set operations

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M \cup N := \{a: a \in M \text{ or } a \in N\} (union)

M \cap N := \{a: a \in M \text{ and } a \in N\} (intersection)

M \setminus N := \{a: a \in M \text{ and } a \notin N\} (difference)

If N \subset M

N^c := \overline{N}:=M \setminus N (complement of N with respect to M)
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M, N are called **disjoint**, if $M \cap N = \emptyset$.

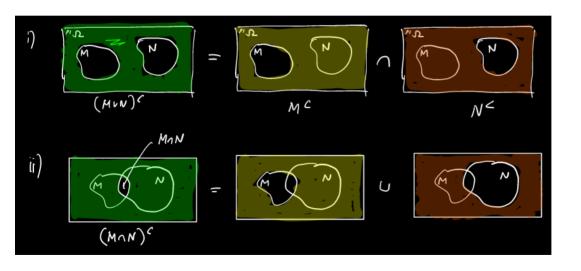
For combinations of those set operations we have the following result:

Lemma 0.6 (De Morgan's laws) Let Ω be a set and $M, N \subset \Omega$. Then we find

- i) $(M \cup N)^c = M^c \cap N^c$,
- ii) $(M \cap N)^c = M^c \cup N^c$.

Here the complements are taken with respect to Ω .

Proof. Exercise.



0.3 Functions

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Definition 0.7 (function) Let M, N be two sets. A function or mapping f from M to N (notation: f: M \to N) is determined by its domain M, its codomain N, and a rule, that uniquely assigns to each element a \in M an b := f(a) \in N (notation: a \mapsto f(a)).
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Two functions $f_1:M_1\to N_1$ and $f_2:M_2\to N_2$ are called **equal** (abbr. $f_1\equiv f_2$) (identical), if $M_1=M_2$, $N_1=N_2$ and $f_1(a)=f_2(a)$ for all $a\in M_1$ (i.e., equal, domain, codomain and rule).

We introduce function related sets:

Definition 0.9 (Image, preimage, graph) Let $A \subset M$ and $B \subset N$, then

- i) the set $f(A) = \{f(a) : a \in A\} \subset N$ is called **image set** of A (under f),
- ii) the set $f^{-1}(B) = \{a \in M : f(a) \in B\} \subset M$ is called **preimage** of B (under f),
- iii) the set $graph(f) := \{(a, f(a)) : a \in M\} \subset M \times N \text{ is called the } graph \text{ of } f.$
- \rightarrow **Attention**: Here, f^{-1} is not the inverse function (see below).

[abstract picture with with image, preimage and graph]

Important properties of functions:

Definition 0.10 (Injective, surjective, bijective) A function $f: M \to N$ is called

- i) injective (one-to-one), if $f(a) \neq f(\tilde{a})$ for all $a, \tilde{a} \in M$ with $a \neq \tilde{a}$;
- ii) surjective (onto), if for all $b \in N$ there exists an $a \in M$ with f(a) = b (or equivalently f(M) = N);
- iii) bijective, if f is injective as well as surjective relation.

We can invert bijective functions:

Definition 0.11 (Inverse function) Let $f: M \to N$ be a bijective (invertible) function. Then there exists a (unique) function $f^{-1}: N \to M$, the so-called **inverse of** f, such that

$$f(a) = b \iff f^{-1}(b) = a.$$

We can concatenated two or more functions:

Definition 0.13 (Composition) Let $f: M \to N$ and $g: N \to P$ be functions, then we call the function

$$g \circ f \colon M \to P$$
, $a \mapsto g(f(a))$

composition of f and g.

[abstract picture for composition of the functions

A function with "no effect":

Definition 0.14 (Identity function) Let M be a set. Then the function

$$id := id_M \colon M \to M, \ a \mapsto a$$

is called the **identity function on** M.

0.4 Numbers

The notion of **number** has been extended over the centuries, here we do not go in detail through the axiomatic construction but just point out some properties that are useful in the remaining.

Here is an overview:

N	Natural	{1,2,3,4,5,}	counting objects
\mathbb{Z}	Integer	$\{\ldots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$	adding zero and negative numbers (borrowing money,) $(\mathbb{Z},+)$ ordered, commutative group
Q	Rational	$\left\{\frac{p}{q}:\ p,q\in\mathbb{Z},q\neq0\right\}$	adding fractions of objects (one half of a cake) $(\mathbb{Q},+,\cdot) \text{ ordered field}$
\mathbb{R}	Real	$\mathbb{Q} \cup \{limits \; of \; sequences \; in \; \mathbb{Q}\}$	adding square roots $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{5},), \pi,$ $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ ordered and complete field
C	Complex	${a+ib: a,b \in \mathbb{R}}, i := \sqrt{-1}$	adding e.g. square root of negative numbers $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ with a special multiplication $(\mathbb{C},+,\cdot)$ complete field (not ordered)

We have

$$\mathbb{N} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{Z} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{Q} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{R} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{C}$$

0.4.1 Complex Numbers C

 $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ with a special multiplication"

- extension: e.g., imaginary unit $i := \sqrt{-1}, \sqrt{-3}, \dots$
- in real life: electricity and roots of polynomials (e.g., which do not touch the x-axis)

Definition 0.15 (Complex numbers \mathbb{C}) We define the field of complex numbers $(\mathbb{C},+,\cdot)$ by $\mathbb{C}:=\mathbb{R}\times\mathbb{R}$ with the binary operations

+:
$$(a_1, b_1) + (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2),$$

·: $(a_1, b_1) \cdot (a_2, b_2) := (a_1 a_2 - b_1 b_2, a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1).$

Note that \mathbb{R} itself is identified with $\mathbb{R} \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{C}$.

Remarks

- the product in C is all the magic
- $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$ is a (complete) field
- as a 2-dimensional object, C does **not** possess an order relation

In order to alleviate the memorizing of the product definition, it is customary to use the so-called **imaginary** unit $i := \sqrt{-1}$ and perform computations as if it would be a real number:

For $z=(a_1,b_1),\ w=(a_2,b_2)\in\mathbb{C}$ we write

$$z = a_1 + ib_1$$
 and $w = a_2 + ib_2$.

Then the product naturally computes as

$$z \cdot w = (a_1 + ib_1) \cdot (a_2 + ib_2) = a_1a_2 + ib_1a_2 + ia_1b_2 + \underbrace{i^2}_{1}b_1b_2 = (a_1a_2 - b_1b_2) + i(a_1b_2 + a_2b_1).$$

Example 0.16

[note on real and imaginary part, complex conjugate]

In $\mathbb C$ every non-constant polynomial has at least one root in $\mathbb C$ (we say $\mathbb C$ is algebraically closed):

Theorem 0.17 (Fundamental theorem of algebra) Let $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{C}$ with $n \geq 1$, $\alpha_n \neq 0$ (i.e., nonzero leading coefficient) and consider the nonconstant polynomial $p: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$,

$$p(z) := \sum_{i=0}^{n} \alpha_i z^i.$$

Then, there are numbers $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$p(z) = \alpha_n \prod_{i=1}^n (z - \lambda_i) = \alpha_n \cdot (z - \lambda_1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (z - \lambda_n), \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}.$$

In particular, the λ_i are precisely the roots of p, i.e., $p(\lambda_i) = 0$ for i = 1, ..., n.

0.4.2 Summary

$$\mathbb{N} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{Z} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{Q} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{R} \; \subsetneqq \; \mathbb{C}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline \mathbb{N} & \textbf{Natural} & \{(0),1,2,3,\ldots\} & \text{order relation} \\ \mathbb{Z} & \textbf{Integer} & \{\ldots,-3,-2,-1,0,1,2,3,\ldots\} & (\mathbb{Z},+) \text{ ordered, commutative group} \\ \mathbb{Q} & \textbf{Rational} & \{\frac{p}{q}:\ p,q\in\mathbb{Z},q\neq0\} & (\mathbb{Q},+,\cdot) \text{ ordered field} \\ \mathbb{R} & \textbf{Real} & \mathbb{Q}\cup\{\text{limits of sequences in }\mathbb{Q}\} & (\mathbb{R},+,\cdot) \text{ ordered and complete field} \\ \mathbb{C} & \textbf{Complex} & \{a+ib:\ a,b\in\mathbb{R}\},\ i:=\sqrt{-1} & (\mathbb{C},+,\cdot) \text{ algebraically closed field} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Most theoretical investigations deal with real numbers $r \in \mathbb{R}$.

Numerical computations can only be performed with *floating point numbers* (short: *floats*) with a relative error (typically 10^{-16}) in each operation.

Many of the following results hold for general fields, say $(\mathbb{F},+,\cdot)$. However the only fields we will know about are the real numbers \mathbb{R} and the complex numbers \mathbb{C} ; thus we always think of $\mathbb{F} \in \{\mathbb{R},\mathbb{C}\}$.

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0.5 Sequences

Numerical methods often produce sequences which (in the best case) *converge* to a desired solution. Also besides this, the concept of a limiting process to *infinity* is the basis for many other notions in mathematics (differentiation/integration/...).

For simplicity, in the following we only consider sequences in \mathbb{R} . In order to have a notion of "distance" we will consider the metric

$$d: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to [0, +\infty), \quad d(x, y) := |x - y|,$$

where

$$|x| := \mathsf{abs}(x) := \left\{ egin{array}{ll} x \,, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x \,, & \text{else} \end{array}
ight.$$
 (absolute value of x).

In the following, \mathbb{R} can also be replaced by any set X which can be equipped with a so-called metric d (in math we call (X, d) a metric space).

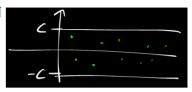
We introduce the notion of sequence and some important related properties:

Definition 0.20 (Sequence) Let M be a set. Then a function $x: \mathbb{N} \to M$ is called a **sequence**. Notation: $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$, $\{x^k\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ or $\{x^k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$.

Definition 0.22 Let $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in \mathbb{R} . Then $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is called

i) bounded, if there exists a <u>uniform bound</u> C>0 such that for all $k\in\mathbb{N}$

$$d(x^k,0)=|x^k|\leq C.$$



ii) Cauchy, if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $m, n \geq k_0$

$$d(x^m, x^n) = |x^m - x^n| < \varepsilon.$$

iii) null sequence, if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $k \geq k_0$

$$d(x^k,0)=|x^k|<\varepsilon.$$

We write $\lim_{k\to\infty} x^k = 0$.

iv) convergent, if there exists a $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $(x^k - \bar{x})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a null sequence, i.e., $\lim_{k \to \infty} (x^k - \bar{x}) = 0$.

We write $\lim_{k\to\infty} x^k = \bar{x}$.

v) divergent, if it does not converge.

