



# Image

## Théorie des Ensembles

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# Preface

Some notations are used throughout this book:

- $\mathbb{N}$ : Set of natural numbers (including 0).
- $\mathbb{N}^*/\mathbb{N}_+$ : Set of natural numbers (excluding 0).
- $\mathbb{Z}$ : Set of integers.
- $\mathbb{Q}$ : Set of rational numbers.
- $\mathbb{R}$ : Set of real numbers.
- $\mathcal{P}(A)$ : Power set of set  $A$ .
- $|A|$ : Cardinality of set  $A$ .

# Chapter 1 Naive Set Theory

## 1.1 Sets and Their Operations

### Definition 1.1 (Power Set)

Let  $X$  be a set. The **power set** of  $X$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ , is defined as the set of all subsets of  $X$ :

$$\mathcal{P}(X) = \{A \mid A \subseteq X\}.$$



## 1.2 Relations and Mappings

### Relations

### Definition 1.2 (Cartesian Product)

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two sets. The **Cartesian product** (or direct product) of  $X$  and  $Y$ , denoted by  $X \times Y$ , is defined as the set of all ordered pairs  $(x, y)$  where  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$ :

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

The Cartesian product can be extended to finitely many sets.

The Cartesian product of  $X$  and itself  $n$  times is denoted by  $X^n$ :



### Definition 1.3 (Relation)

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two sets. A **relation**  $R$  from  $X$  to  $Y$  is a subset of the Cartesian product  $X \times Y$ :

$$R \subseteq X \times Y.$$

If  $(x, y) \in R$ , we say that  $x$  is related to  $y$  by the relation  $R$ , denoted by  $xRy$ .

If  $A \subseteq X$ , then the subset of  $Y$  defined by

$$R(A) = \{y \in Y \mid \exists x \in A, (x, y) \in R\}$$

is called the **image** of  $A$  under the relation  $R$ .  $R(X)$  is called the **range** of the relation  $R$ .



There are several special types of relations:

**Empty relation** The empty set  $\emptyset$  is a relation from  $X$  to  $Y$ .

**Total relation** The Cartesian product  $X \times Y$  is a relation from  $X$  to  $Y$ .

**Identity relation** The relation  $I_X = \{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$  is called the **identity relation** on  $X$ .

When studying binary relations, we often focus on whether they have some special properties. For a binary relation  $R$  on a set  $X$ , we define the following special properties:

**Reflexive**  $(\forall x \in X) xRx$ .

**Irreflexive**  $(\forall x \in X) \neg xRx$ .

**Symmetric**  $(\forall x, y \in X) (xRy \Leftrightarrow yRx)$ .

**Antisymmetric**  $(\forall x, y \in X) (xRy \wedge yRx) \Rightarrow x = y$ .

**Transitive**  $(\forall x, y, z \in X) (xRy \wedge yRz) \Rightarrow xRz$ .


**Connected (Total)**  $(\forall x, y \in X) x \neq y \Rightarrow (xRy \vee yRx)$ .

**Well-founded**  $(\exists x \in X \neq \emptyset) (\forall y \in X \setminus \{x\}) \neg (yRx)$ .

**Transitive of incomparability**  $(\forall x, y, z \in X) (\neg(xRy \vee yRx) \wedge \neg(yRz \vee zRy)) \implies \neg(xRz \vee zRx)$ .

Then we can define the equivalence relations based on these properties:

**Definition 1.4 (Equivalence Relation)**

A binary relation  $R$  on a set  $X$  is called an **equivalence relation** if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. 

## Mappings

**Definition 1.5 (Mapping (Function))**

A **mapping** (or function)  $f$  from a set  $X$  to a set  $Y$  is a relation such that for every  $x \in X$ , there exists a unique  $y \in Y$  such that  $(x, y) \in f$ . We denote this by  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and write  $f(x) = y$ .

The set  $X$  is called the **domain** of  $f$ , and the set  $Y$  is called the **codomain** of  $f$ .

The set  $f(X) = \{f(x) \mid x \in X\}$  is called the **image** of  $f$ . 

There are several special types of mappings:

**Identity mapping** The mapping  $\text{id}_X : X \rightarrow X$  defined by  $\text{id}_X(x) = x$  for all  $x \in X$  is called the **identity mapping** on  $X$ .

**Constant mapping** A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is called a **constant mapping** if there exists a fixed element  $y_0 \in Y$  such that  $f(x) = y_0$  for all  $x \in X$ .

Mappings can be classified based on their behavior:

**Injective (One-to-One):** A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is **injective** if for every  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ ,  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  implies  $x_1 = x_2$ .

**Surjective (Onto):** A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is **surjective** if for every  $y \in Y$ , there exists an  $x \in X$  such that  $f(x) = y$ .

**Bijjective:** A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is **bijjective** if it is both injective and surjective.


For  $A \subseteq X$ , let

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A \\ 0, & x \notin A, \end{cases}$$

be the **characteristic function** of set  $A$ .


**Definition 1.6 (Inverse Mapping and Composition Mappings)**

Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a bijective mapping. The **inverse mapping** of  $f$ , denoted by  $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ , is defined by  $f^{-1}(y) = x$  if and only if  $f(x) = y$ .

Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow Z$  be two mappings. The **composition mapping** of  $f$  and  $g$ , denoted by  $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$ , is defined by  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$  for all  $x \in X$ . 

**Definition 1.7 (Restriction and Extension)**

Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a mapping, and let  $A \subseteq X$ . The **restriction** of  $f$  to  $A$ , denoted by  $f|_A$ , is the mapping from  $A$  to  $Y$  defined by  $f|_A(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in A$ .

Conversely, if  $g : A \rightarrow Y$  is a mapping and  $A \subseteq X$ , an **extension** of  $g$  to  $X$  is a mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $f|_A = g$ . 

# Chapter 2 Zermelo–Fraenkel Set Theory

## 2.1 Axioms of ZFC

### Definition 2.1 (Zermelo–Fraenkel Set Theory with Choice (ZFC))

Zermelo–Fraenkel Set Theory with Choice (ZFC) is a formal system that provides a foundation for much of modern mathematics. It consists of a set of axioms that describe the properties and behavior of sets.

The axioms of ZFC are as follows:

**Axiom of Extensionality** Two sets are equal (are the same set) if they have the same elements.

$$\forall A \forall B (\forall x (x \in A \Leftrightarrow x \in B) \Rightarrow A = B)$$

**Axiom of Regularity (Foundation)** Every non-empty set  $A$  contains an element that is disjoint from  $A$ .

$$\forall A (A \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \exists B (B \in A \wedge B \cap A = \emptyset))$$

**Axiom Schema of Specification (Separation)** For any set  $A$  and any property  $P(x)$ , there exists a subset  $B$  of  $A$  containing exactly those elements of  $A$  that satisfy the property  $P(x)$ .

$$\forall A \exists B \forall x (x \in B \Leftrightarrow (x \in A \wedge P(x)))$$

**Axiom of Pairing** For any two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , there exists a set  $C$  that contains exactly  $A$  and  $B$  as elements.

$$\forall A \forall B \exists C \forall x (x \in C \Leftrightarrow (x = A \vee x = B))$$

**Axiom of Union** For any set  $A$ , there exists a set  $B$  that contains exactly the elements of the elements of  $A$ .

$$\forall A \exists B \forall x (x \in B \Leftrightarrow \exists C (C \in A \wedge x \in C))$$

**Axiom Schema of Replacement** For any set  $A$  and any definable function  $F$ , there exists a set  $B$  that contains exactly the images of the elements of  $A$  under  $F$ .

$$\forall A \exists B \forall y (y \in B \Leftrightarrow \exists x (x \in A \wedge y = F(x)))$$

**Axiom of Infinity** There exists a set  $A$  that contains the empty set and is closed under the operation of taking the successor.

$$\exists A (\emptyset \in A \wedge \forall x (x \in A \Rightarrow x \cup \{x\} \in A))$$

**Axiom of Power Set** For any set  $A$ , there exists a set  $B$  that contains exactly the subsets of  $A$ .

$$\forall A \exists B \forall C (C \in B \Leftrightarrow C \subseteq A)$$

**Axiom of Choice** For any set  $A$  of non-empty sets, there exists a choice function  $f$  that selects exactly one element from each set in  $A$ .

$$\forall A (\forall B \in A B \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \exists f : A \rightarrow \bigcup A \forall B \in A (f(B) \in B))$$



## 2.2 Axiom of Choice

## 2.3 Von Neumann–Bernays–Gödel Set Theory

# Chapter 3 Ordinals

## 3.1 Order

### Definition 3.1 (Preordered Set)

A **preordered set** is a set  $P$  together with a binary relation  $\preceq$  that is reflexive and transitive.



### Definition 3.2 (Partially Ordered Set (Poset))

A **partially ordered set** (or **poset**) is a set  $P$  together with a binary relation  $\preceq$  that is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive. The relation  $\preceq$  is called a **partial order** on  $P$ .

Sometimes,  $\prec$  is called a **strict partial order** on  $P$  if it is irreflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.



### Definition 3.3 (Totally Ordered Set (Chain))

A **totally ordered set** (or **chain**) is a poset  $P$  such that for every  $a, b \in P$ , either  $a \preceq b$  or  $b \preceq a$ , that is, any two elements are comparable.



### Definition 3.4 (Well-Ordered Set)

A **well-ordered set** is a totally ordered set  $P$  such that every non-empty subset of  $P$  has a least element.



Here is a table summarizing the different types of relations:

**Table 3.1:** Types of Relations

Binary Relation	Reflexive	Symmetric	Antisymmetric	Transitive	Connected	Well-founded
Equivalence	✓	✓		✓		
Preorder	✓			✓		
Partial Order	✓		✓	✓		
Total Order	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Well-Order	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓

## 3.2 Ordinal Numbers

### Definition 3.5 (Transitive Set)

A set  $A$  is called **transitive** if every element of  $A$  is also a subset of  $A$ , i.e.,  $(\forall x \in A) (x \subseteq A)$ .



### Definition 3.6 (Ordinal)

A set  $\alpha$  is an ordinal number (an **ordinal**) if it is transitive and well-ordered by the membership relation  $\in$ . All ordinals form a proper class denoted by  $\text{Ord}$ .



Ordinals can be classified into three types:

**Zero** The empty set  $\emptyset$  is the only ordinal that is neither a successor nor a limit.

**Successor Ordinal** An ordinal  $\alpha$  is a **successor ordinal** if there exists an ordinal  $\beta$  such that  $\alpha = \beta + 1 = \beta \cup \{\beta\}$ .

**Limit Ordinal** An ordinal  $\lambda$  is a **limit ordinal** if it is nonzero and not a successor, i.e.,  $\lambda = \bigcup_{\beta < \lambda} \beta$ .

#### Definition 3.7 (Natural Number)

Denote the least nonzero limit ordinal by  $\omega$  (or  $\mathbb{N}$ ). The ordinals less than  $\omega$  are called **finite numbers**, or **natural numbers**. Specially,

$$0 = \emptyset, \quad 1 = \{0\}, \quad 2 = \{0, 1\}, \quad 3 = \{0, 1, 2\}, \quad \dots$$

A set  $X$  is finite if there is a one-to-one mapping of  $X$  onto some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .  $X$  is infinite if it is not finite.



## 3.3 Induction and Recursion

#### Theorem 3.1 (Transfinite Induction)

Let  $C$  be a class of ordinals and assume that:

- (i)  $0 \in C$ .
- (ii) If  $\alpha \in C$ , then  $\alpha + 1 \in C$ .
- (iii) If  $\lambda$  is a nonzero limit ordinal and  $(\forall \beta < \lambda) \beta \in C$ , then  $\lambda \in C$ .

Then  $C = \text{Ord}$ .



#### Theorem 3.2 (Transfinite Recursion)

Let  $F$  be a class function that assigns to each ordinal  $\alpha$  an element  $F(\alpha, g)$ , where  $g$  is a function with domain  $\alpha$ . Then there exists a unique class function  $G$  with domain  $\text{Ord}$  such that for every ordinal  $\alpha$ ,

$$G(\alpha) = F(\alpha, G \upharpoonright \alpha),$$

where  $G \upharpoonright \alpha$  is the restriction of  $G$  to the domain  $\alpha$ .



## 3.4 Ordinal Arithmetic

#### Theorem 3.3 (Cantor's Normal Form)

Every ordinal  $\alpha > 0$  can be uniquely expressed in the form

$$\alpha = \omega^{\beta_1} \cdot c_1 + \omega^{\beta_2} \cdot c_2 + \dots + \omega^{\beta_n} \cdot c_n,$$

where  $n$  is a positive integer,  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  are positive integers, and  $\beta_1 > \beta_2 > \dots > \beta_n$  are ordinals.





# Chapter 4 Cardinals

## 4.1 Cardinality

### ¶ Equinumerosity and Cardinality

#### Definition 4.1 (Equinumerosity and Cardinality)

Two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are said to be **equinumerous** (or have the same cardinality), denoted by  $|A| = |B|$ , if there exists a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$ .

The **cardinality** of a set  $A$  is the least ordinal  $\kappa$  such that  $|A| = |\kappa|$ .



#### Definition 4.2 (Aleph Numbers)

The **aleph numbers** are a sequence of cardinal numbers defined as follows:

- $\aleph_0$  is the cardinality of the set of natural numbers  $\mathbb{N}$ .
- For any ordinal  $\alpha$ ,  $\aleph_{\alpha+1}$  is the least cardinal number greater than  $\aleph_\alpha$ .
- For any limit ordinal  $\lambda$ ,  $\aleph_\lambda = \sup\{\aleph_\beta \mid \beta < \lambda\}$ .



#### Theorem 4.1 (Cantor-Bernstein-Schröder Theorem)

If there exist injections  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow A$ , then there exists a bijection  $h : A \rightarrow B$ . In particular,  $|A| = |B|$ .



### ¶ Countable and Uncountable Sets

#### Theorem 4.2



### ¶ Continuum Hypothesis

## 4.2 Cardinal Arithmetic

## 4.3 The Canonical Well-Ordering of $\alpha \times \alpha$

## 4.4 Cofinality

# Chapter 5 Real Numbers

## 5.1 Construction of Real Numbers and the Cardinality of the Continuum

## 5.2 Point Sets in Euclidean Space

In this section, we explore the point sets in Euclidean space. Furthermore, these concepts can be generalized to metric spaces and topological spaces.

### Definition 5.1 (Diameter and Bounded Set)

Let  $A$  be a subset of the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The **diameter** of set  $A$  is defined as

$$\text{diam}(A) = \sup\{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in A\},$$

where  $d(x, y)$  denotes the Euclidean distance between points  $x$  and  $y$ .

A set  $A$  is called **bounded** if there exists a real number  $M > 0$  such that

$$d(x, y) < M, \quad \forall x, y \in A.$$

Let  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\delta > 0$ , the set

$$B(x_0, \delta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid d(x, x_0) < \delta\}$$

is called the **open ball** (or **neighborhood**) with center  $x_0$  and radius  $\delta^a$ . Similarly, the closed ball can be defined as

$$\bar{B}(x_0, \delta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid d(x, x_0) \leq \delta\}.$$


Let  $a_i, b_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) be real numbers with  $a_i < b_i$ , the set

$$\prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i] = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

is called a **rectangle** (or **box**) in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If all the edge lengths are equal, i.e.,  $b_i - a_i = c$  for some constant  $c > 0$  and for all  $i$ , then the rectangle is called a **cube** with side length  $c$ . Similarly, we can define the open rectangle (or open box) as

$$\prod_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i) = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid a_i < x_i < b_i \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}.$$

Rectangles are often denoted by  $I, J, \dots$  and their volumes by  $|I|, |J|, \dots$ .

<sup>a</sup>It can be also denoted as  $N(x_0, \delta)$  or  $U(x_0, \delta)$ . When  $\delta$  does not need to be emphasized, it can also be abbreviated as  $B(x_0)$ . 

### Definition 5.2 (Limit)

Let  $\{x_k\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $\{x_k\}$  **converges** to  $x$ , or  $x$  is the **limit** of the sequence  $\{x_k\}$ , if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a natural number  $N$  such that

$$d(x_k, x) < \varepsilon, \quad \forall k > N.$$

In this case, we write

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = x.$$



## Classification of Points

### Definition 5.3 (Classification of Points)

Let  $E$  be a subset of the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  can be classified based on their relationship to set  $E$ :

**Interior Point** A point  $x \in E$  is called an **interior point** of set  $E$  if there exists  $U(x)$  such that  $U(x) \subseteq E$ .

**Exterior Point** A point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus E$  is called an **exterior point** of set  $E$  if there exists  $U(x)$  such that  $U(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \setminus E$ , or equivalently,  $U(x) \cap E = \emptyset$ .

**Boundary Point** A point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a **boundary point** of set  $E$  if for every  $U(x)$ , the set  $U(x)$  contains points in both  $E$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus E$ .

**Accumulation Point (Limit Point)** A point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is called an **accumulation point** (or **limit point**) of set  $E$  if for every  $U(x)$ , the set  $U(x)$  contains at least one point of  $E$  different from  $x^a$ .

**Isolated Point** A point  $x \in E$  is called an **isolated point** of set  $E$  if  $x$  is not an accumulation point of  $E$ , i.e., there exists  $U(x)$  such that  $U(x) \cap E = \{x\}$ .

<sup>a</sup>Obviously, only infinite sets can have accumulation points. In fact, here, containing at least one (distinct) point in the neighborhood is equivalent to containing infinitely many points.

Any point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  can be uniquely classified into one of the following three categories:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Interior Point} & \text{if } \exists U(x) \subseteq E; \\ \text{Boundary Point} & \text{if } \forall U(x) \cap (\mathbb{R}^n \setminus E) \neq \emptyset; \\ \text{Exterior Point} & \text{if } \exists U(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \setminus E; \end{cases}$$

Or it can be uniquely classified into one of the following three categories:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Accumulation Point} & \text{if } \forall U(x) \cap (E \setminus \{x\}) \neq \emptyset; \\ \text{Isolated Point} & \text{if } \exists U(x) \cap E = \{x\}; \\ \text{Exterior Point} & \text{if } \exists U(x) \cap E = \emptyset; \end{cases}$$

### Definition 5.4

Let  $E$  be a subset of the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Derived Set** The **derived set** of  $E$ , denoted by  $E'$ , is the set of all accumulation points of  $E$ .

**Interior** The **interior** of set  $E$ , denoted by  $\text{int}(E)$ , or  $\overset{\circ}{E}$ , is the set of all interior points of  $E$ .

**Boundary** The **boundary** of set  $E$ , denoted by  $\partial E$ , is the set of all boundary points of  $E$ , or equivalently,  $\partial E = \bar{E} \setminus \overset{\circ}{E}$ .

**Closure** The **closure** of set  $E$ , denoted by  $\bar{E}$ , is the union of  $E$  and its accumulation points, i.e.,  $\bar{E} = E \cup E'$ .

### Property

- $(\overset{\circ}{E})^c = \overline{E^c}$ ,  $(\bar{E})^c = \overset{\circ}{E^c}$ ;
- Let  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $A' \subseteq B'$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{A} \subseteq \overset{\circ}{B}$  and  $\bar{A} \subseteq \bar{B}$ ;
- $(A \cup B)' = A' \cup B'$ .

**Note** In a metric space, an alternative definition of accumulation point can be given: A point  $x$  is an accumulation point of set  $E$  if and only if it is the limit of some sequence of points in  $E$ .

**Remark** By replacing the Euclidean distance with a general metric  $d$ , all the above definitions can be naturally extended to a general metric space  $(X, d)$ .

By replacing the metric  $d$  with the family of open sets in a general topological structure, all the above

definitions can be extended to a general topological space  $(X, \tau)$ .

### Open and Closed Sets

#### *Definition 5.5 (Classification of Point Sets)*

Let  $E$  be a subset of the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Point sets can be classified:

**Closed Set** A set  $E$  is called a **closed set** if it contains all its accumulation points.

**Open Set** A set  $E$  is called an **open set** if every point in  $E$  is an interior point of  $E$ .

**Compact Set** A set  $E$  is called a **compact set** if every open cover of  $E$  has a finite subcover, or equivalently, if  $E$  is closed and bounded (Heine-Borel Theorem).

**Perfect Set** A set  $E$  is called a **perfect set** if it is closed and has no isolated points, i.e., every point in  $E$  is an accumulation point of  $E$ , or equivalently,  $E = E'$ .



## Chapter 6 Special Classes of Sets

## Chapter 7 Filters and Boolean Algebras

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