

Remember! In order to prove that $A=B$ (A and B are sets), it is enough to show $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

2.3 Extended set operations + indexed families

① Family of sets

\mathcal{Q} is a family (or collection) of sets if each element $A \in \mathcal{Q}$ is itself a set.
[In short \mathcal{Q} is a set of sets].

Example: $\mathcal{Q} = \{ \{1,2,3\}, \{3,4,5\}, \{6,7\} \}$

is a family of (finite) sets.

Note that $\{1,2,3\} \in \mathcal{Q}$ but $\{1,2,3\} \neq \mathcal{Q}$,
and also $1 \notin \mathcal{Q}$, for example.

$\mathcal{B} = \{ [b, \infty) : b \in \mathbb{R} \}$ is a family of sets.

~~$\mathcal{B} = \{ [b, \infty) : b \in \mathbb{R} \}$~~

For each $b \in \mathbb{R}$, $[b, \infty) \in \mathcal{B}$, so $[1, \infty) \in \mathcal{B}$

$[-3, \infty) \in \mathcal{B}$, $[787, \infty) \in \mathcal{B}$, $[\sqrt{2}, \infty) \in \mathcal{B}$, etc...

There are infinitely many elements in \mathcal{B} .

② Def: Let \mathcal{Q} be a family of sets.

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{Q}} A = \{x : x \in A \text{ for some } A \in \mathcal{Q}\}$$

Think: $A \cup B \cup C, x \in A \cup B \cup C$

If ~~there is a~~ x is in one of the sets A, B or C

$$= \{x : (\exists A) ((A \in \mathcal{Q}) \wedge (x \in A))\}$$

$$= \{x : (\exists A \in \mathcal{Q}) (x \in A)\}$$

e.g. $\mathcal{Q} = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{3, 4, 5\}, \{6, 7\}\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{Q}} A &= \{1, 2, 3\} \cup \{3, 4, 5\} \cup \{6, 7\} \\ &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}. \end{aligned}$$

e.g. $\mathcal{B} = \{[b, \infty) : b \in \mathbb{R}\}$

$$\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B = (-\infty, \infty) = \mathbb{R}$$

PA: Let $x \in \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$. Then for some $b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$x \in [b, \infty)$. But $[b, \infty) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, so $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Therefore $\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Now let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Need to show that $x \in [b, \infty)$ for some $b \in \mathbb{R}$. But clearly $x \in [x, \infty) \in \mathcal{B}$ so that $x \in \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$. Therefore $\mathbb{R} \subseteq \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$.

③ Def: Let \mathcal{A} be a family of set.

$$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \{x : x \in A \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

$$= \{x : (\forall A) (A \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow x \in A)\}$$

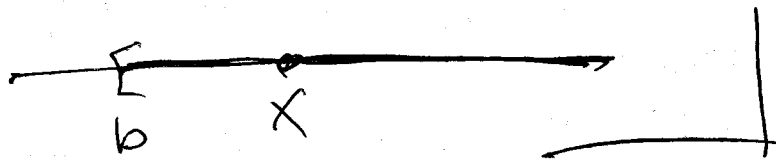
$$= \{x : (\forall A \in \mathcal{A}) (x \in A)\}.$$

e.g. $\mathcal{A} = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{3, 4, 5\}, \{6, 7\}\}$

$$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \{1, 2, 3\} \cap \{3, 4, 5\} \cap \{6, 7\} = \emptyset$$

e.g. $\bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B = \emptyset$

$$\mathcal{B} = \{ [b, \infty) : b \in \mathbb{R} \}$$



PA: Let $x \in \bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$. Then $x \in [b, \infty)$ for every $b \in \mathbb{R}$. This means that $b \leq x$ for every $b \in \mathbb{R}$, that is, that x is the largest real number. This contradicts the known fact that there is no such number.

OR Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $b = x + 1$. Since $x + 1 > x$, $x \notin [x + 1, \infty)$. Hence $x \notin \bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$. This means

$$\mathbb{R} \subseteq \left(\bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B \right) \text{ so } \bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B \subseteq \widetilde{\mathbb{R}} = \emptyset.$$

e.g. Let $\mathcal{C} = \{ (-a, a) : a \in \mathbb{R} \}$

Then $\bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C = \mathbb{R}$ $\bigcap_{C \in \mathcal{C}} C = \{0\}$

③ Indexed Family of Sets.

e.g. $\mathcal{Q} = \{ \{1, 2, 3\}, \{3, 4, 5\}, \{6, 7\} \}$

Let $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $A_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$, $A_3 = \{6, 7\}$

Write $\mathcal{Q} = \{A_1, A_2, A_3\}$

If we let $\Delta = \{1, 2, 3\}$, then the sets A in \mathcal{Q} are indexed by Δ .

Δ is arbitrary: could say $\Delta = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$
and let $A_\alpha = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $A_\beta = \{3, 4, 5\}$, $A_\gamma = \{6, 7\}$

Can write ~~$\mathcal{Q} = \{A_1, A_2, A_3\}$~~

$$\mathcal{Q} = \{A_i : i \in \Delta\}.$$

e.g. $\mathcal{B} = \{ [b, \infty) : b \in \mathbb{R} \}$, can take $\Delta = \mathbb{R}$

then for each $b \in \Delta$, define $B_b = [b, \infty)$

$$\text{Then } \mathcal{B} = \{B_b : b \in \Delta\}.$$

e.g. (p 89) $\Delta = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$$A_x = \{2x+4, 8, 12-2x\} \text{ for } x \in \Delta.$$

$$\mathcal{Q} = \{A_x : x \in \Delta\} = \{A_0, A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4\}$$

$$= \{ \{4, 8, 12\}, \{6, 8, 10\}, \underbrace{\{8, 8, 8\}}_{\{8\}}, \underbrace{\{10, 8, 6\}}_{\text{same as } \{6, 8, 10\} \text{ already here}}, \underbrace{\{12, 8, 4\}}_{\text{same as } \{4, 8, 12\} \text{ already here}} \}$$

$$= \{ \{4, 8, 12\}, \{6, 8, 10\}, \{8\} \}$$

④ Unions + Intersections

$$\text{Let } \mathcal{Q} = \{ A_i : i \in \Delta \}$$

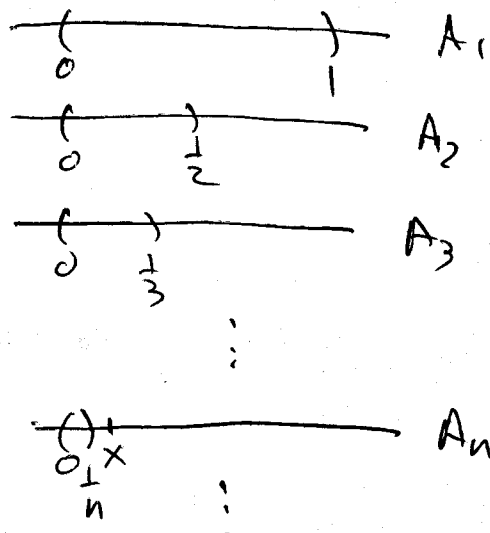
$$\bigcup_{i \in \Delta} A_i = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{Q}} A = \{ x : x \in A_i \text{ for some } i \in \Delta \}$$

$$\bigcap_{i \in \Delta} A_i = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{Q}} A = \{ x : x \in A_i \text{ for all } i \in \Delta \}$$

eg $A_n = (0, \frac{1}{n})$, $\mathcal{Q} = \{ A_n : n \in \mathbb{N} \}$

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n = (0, 1)$$

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n = \emptyset$$

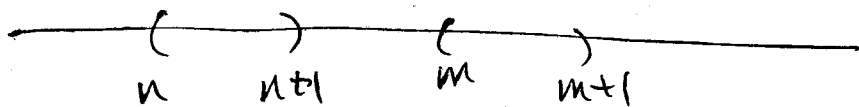


A family \mathcal{A} of sets is pairwise disjoint if $A \cap B = \emptyset$ for every distinct $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$

An indexed family $\{A_\alpha : \alpha \in \Delta\}$ is pairwise disjoint if $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta = \emptyset$ ~~for every~~ whenever $A_\alpha \neq A_\beta$.

eg #1 (g) not pairwise disjoint

$$(m) \quad A_n = (n, n+1) \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{Z}$$



A_n, A_m so pairwise disjoint.

2.4 Induction

① Induction gives a technique for proving statements of the form

$$(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$$

where $P(n)$ is some open sentence defined on \mathbb{N} .

e.g. 1) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$1+2+3+\dots+n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \leftarrow P(n)$$

$$\underline{n=1}: 1 = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2}$$

$$\underline{n=2}: 1+2 = \frac{2 \cdot 3}{2}$$

$$\underline{n=4}: \underbrace{1+2+3+4}_{10} = \underbrace{\frac{4(5)}{2}}_{10}$$

2) For every set A with n elements,
 $\mathcal{P}(A)$ has 2^n elements. $\leftarrow P(n)$

$$3) \sum_{i=0}^n r^i = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1} \leftarrow P(n)$$

② The Principle of Mathematical Induction (PMI) is a fundamental property of \mathbb{N} :

If $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ satisfies:

(i) $1 \in S$

(ii) for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n \in S$ then $n+1 \in S$

$$[(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) (n \in S \Rightarrow n+1 \in S)]$$

then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

How do you prove $(\forall n) P(n)$ using PMI?

PA: Let $S = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : P(n)\}$

(i) Show that $P(1)$ is true. (this is $1 \in S$)

(ii) Show that whenever $P(n)$ is true $P(n+1)$ is true ($P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$). (this is $n \in S \Rightarrow n+1 \in S$)

(ii') Then $P(n)$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. (this is $S = \mathbb{N}$)

e.g. Prove that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

PA: (i) Suppose that $n=1$. Then the result is

$$1 = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2} \text{ which is true.}$$

(ii) Suppose that $1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$. Want to show

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n + (n+1) = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$

By the induction hypothesis

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n) + (n+1) &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (n+1) \\ &= \frac{n(n+1) + 2(n+1)}{2} = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

(ii') Therefore the result holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.