CHAPTER 1

SET THEORY*

1.1 Sets

1.1.1 Basics of Sets

Definition 1.1.1 A set is a collection of objects called the members (or elements or points) of the set. If X is a set and x is an element of X, we write

$$x \in X$$
.

If X is a set and x is not an element of X, we write

$$x \notin X$$
. \diamond

Sometimes it is possible to specify a set by listing its members between curly brackets. For example, $\{1,2,...,n,...\}$ is the set of all positive integers, $1 \in \{1,2\}$, $3 \notin \{1,2\}$.

Remark 1.1.1 Notice that $\{a, b, c\} = \{c, a, b\}.$

Using the *elementary logic*, we say that, if x is an object and X is a set,

[•] A. Maceri, Set Theory, e-ISBN 978-88-85929-59-3, © Accademica 2019

2 SET THEORY

then one of the two properties

$$x \in X$$
 $x \notin X$

is true and the other is false.

Definition 1.1.2 Let I be a set. If to each $i \in I$ there is assigned a set A_i , then the set $\{A_i : i \in I\}$ is called an *indexed family of sets*. In this case, I is called the *index set* for the family and the elements of I are called *indices*. \diamond

Definition 1.1.3 Let P and Q be any two property. We say that P implies Q and we write

$$P \Rightarrow Q$$

if Q is true every time P is true. We say that P and Q are equivalent and we write

$$P \Leftrightarrow Q$$

if it is simultaneously

$$P \Rightarrow Q$$

$$Q \Rightarrow P. \diamond$$

If x and y are the same object, we say that x and y are equal and we write

$$x=y$$
.

If x and y are distinct objects, we say that x and y are distinct and we write

$$x \neq y$$
.

Definition 1.1.4 Let A and B be any two sets. If each member of A

if also member of B, we say that A is a *subset* (or a *part*) of B (or that A is *contained* in B) or that B *contains* A and we write

$$A \subseteq B$$

or

$$B \supseteq A. \diamond$$

Definition 1.1.5 Let A and B be any two sets. If A and B have precisely the same members, we say that A is equal to B and we write

$$A = B. \diamond$$

Obviously

$$(A = B) \Leftrightarrow (A \subseteq B \text{ and } B \subseteq A).$$

Definition 1.1.6 If $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$ we say that A is a proper subset of B and we write $A \subseteq B$ or $B \supset A$.

Definition 1.1.7 The set containing no elements at all is called the void set (or empty set) and is denoted by the symbol \emptyset . \diamond

The set \emptyset is clearly a subset of every set.

1.1.2 Operations on Sets

Definition 1.1.8 Let A and B be given sets. We call union of A and B, and denote by $A \cup B$, the set consisting of all elements which belong to at least one of the sets A and B. In symbols

$$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}. \diamond$$

For example, we have $\{1,2\} \cup \{2,3\} = \{1,2,3\}$.

Definition 1.1.9 We call union of the indexed family of sets $\{A_i: i \in I\}$, and denote by $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$, the set consisting of all elements which belong to at least one of the sets A_i . \diamond

Definition 1.1.10 Let A and B be given sets. We call intersection of A and B, and denote by $A \cap B$, the set consisting of all elements which belong to both A and B. In symbols

$$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}. \diamond$$

For example, we have $\{1,2\} \cup \{1,2,3\} = \{1,2\}.$

Definition 1.1.11 We call intersection of the indexed family of sets $\{A_i: i \in I\}$, and denote by $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$, the set consisting of all elements which belong to every one of the sets A_i .

From the above definitions it immediately follows that the operations \cup and \cap are *commutative*, i.e., that

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$
$$A \cap B = B \cap A,$$

associative, i.e., that

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

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

and obey the following distributive laws

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

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

Definition 1.1.12 Let A and B be given sets. We say that A and B are disjoint if they have no elements in common, i.e., if

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$
. \diamond

Definition 1.1.13 Let \mathcal{F} be a family of sets such that $A \cap B = \emptyset$ for every pair of sets A, B in \mathcal{F} . Then the sets in \mathcal{F} are said to be pairwise disjoint. \diamond

Definition 1.1.14 Let X be given set, A a subset of X. We call complement of A and denote by A^c (or by X - A) the set of all elements of X which do not belong to A. \diamond

Remark 1.1.2 Let X be a given set, $\{A_i : i \in I\}$ an indexed family of subset of X. We easily verify that $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ and $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$ are both subset of X.

Remark 1.1.3 Let A, B, C be any sets. We easily verify that

$$A \cup A = A$$

 $A \cap A = A$
 $A \cup \emptyset = A$
 $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
 $A \subset A \cup B$
 $A \cap B \subset A. \diamond$

Theorem 1.1.1 [De Morgan's Laws] Let X be given set, $\{A_i : i \in I\}$ an indexed family of subset of X. It results

$$(1.1.1) \qquad (\cup_{i \in I} A_i)^c = \cap_{i \in I} (A_i)^c$$

$$(1.1.2) \qquad (\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i)^c = \bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i)^c.$$

Proof. To prove (1.1.1), suppose $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)^c$, i.e., x does not belong to any of the sets A_i . It follows that x belongs to each of the complements $(A_i)^c$ and hence $x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} (A_i)^c$. Thus $(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)^c \subseteq \bigcap_{i \in I} (A_i)^c$.

Conversely, suppose $x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} (A_i)^c$, so that x belongs to every set $(A_i)^c$, i.e., x does not belong to any of the sets A_i . Hence x does not belong to the union $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$, and then $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)^c$. Thus $\bigcap_{i \in I} (A_i)^c \subseteq (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)^c$. This proves (1.1.1).

The (1.1.2) can be proved similarly. \diamond

Definition 1.1.15 Let B be a given set, A be a subset of B. We call cover of A any indexed family $\{A_i: i \in I\}$ of subset of B such that

$$A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$$
.

Definition 1.1.16 Let X be a given set. Any family $\{X_i : i \in I\}$ of pairwise disjoint subset of X such that

$$\cup_{i\in I}\,X_i=X$$

is called a *partition* (or *decomposition*) of X. \diamond

Definition 1.1.17 Let X and Y be given sets. We call $Cartesian^{1.1.1}$ product of X and Y the set $^{1.1.2}$

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

Every element (x, y) of $X \times Y$ is called *ordered pair*, where x is called the *first coordinate* of (x, y) and y is called the *second coordinate* of (x, y).

Remark 1.1.4 If (x, y) and (a, b) are two ordered pairs, we write

^{1.1.1} To honor René Descartes, La Haye (French) 1506 -. Stockholm 1650.

^{1.1.2} The symbol ": " means "such that".

(x,y) = (a,b) if and only if x = a and y = b. Thus $(1,5) \neq (5,1)$ while $\{1,5\} = \{5,1\}$.

Definition 1.1.18 Let n be a positive integer number and $X_1, ..., X_n$ be n sets. We call Cartesian product of $X_1, ..., X_n$ the set

$$X_1 \times ... \times X_n = \{x = (x_1, ..., x_n) : x_i \in X_i \ \forall i \in \{1, ..., n\} \}.$$

We call, $\forall i \in \{1, ..., n\}$, the point $x_i \in X_i$ the *i*th *coordinate* of the *ordered* $n \text{ tuple } (x_1, ..., x_n) \in X_1 \times ... \times X_n$.

1.1.3 Relations

Definition 1.1.19 Let X be a set. Any subset R of $X \times X$ is called a (binary) relation on X. If $(x, y) \in R$ we say that R is verified by the ordered pair (x, y) and we write

$$x R y$$
. \diamond

Definition 1.1.20 Let X be a set, R be a relation on X. We call domain of R the set $^{1.1.3}$

$$\operatorname{dom} R = \{ x \in X : \exists (x, y) \in R \}.$$

We call *range* of *R* the set

$$\operatorname{rng} R = \{ y \in X : \exists (x, y) \in R \}. \diamond$$

 $^{^{1.1.3}}$ The symbol " \exists " means "it exists".

Definition 1.1.21 Let R be a relation on X. We say that R is reflexive if $\forall x \in \text{dom } R$

$$(1.1.3) x R x,$$

symmetric if

$$(1.1.4) x R y \Rightarrow y R x,$$

antisymmetric if

$$(1.1.5) (x R y and y R x) \Rightarrow (x = y),$$

transitive if

$$(1.1.6) (x R y and y R z) \Rightarrow (x R z). \diamond$$

Definition 1.1.22 Let R be a relation on X such that dom R = X. We say that R is an equivalence relation on X if it is reflexive, symmetric and transitive. \diamond

If R is an equivalence relation on X, the element x R y is often denoted $x \equiv y$ and we say that x is *equivalent* to y by R.

Definition 1.1.23 Let R be an equivalence relation on X and $x \in X$. The set

$$R_x = \{y \in X : y \equiv x\}$$

is called *equivalence class of X containing x*. \diamond

We also say that R_x is represented by any one of its elements. Besides, if $y \in R_x$, y is said a representative of R_x . It is easy to check that the family

$$\frac{X}{R_x} = \{R_x : x \in X\}$$

of all such equivalence classes is a family of nonvoid pairwise disjoint sets and its union is X and then is a partition of X.

Definition 1.1.24 The partition (1.1.7) of X is called quotient set of X. \diamond

Definition 1.1.25 Let R be a relation on X such that dom R = X. We say that R is a partial order on X if it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive. If R is a partial order on X, we usually write $a \le b$ or $b \ge a$ instead a R b.

Definition 1.1.26 The notation a < b (or b > a) indicates that $a \le b$ and $a \ne b$.

Definition 1.1.27 If X is a set provided with a partial order, we say that X is a partially ordered set. \diamond

Definition 1.1.28 We say that X is an ordered set (or a totally ordered set) if

- (1.1.8) X is a partially ordered set,
- (1.1.9) $\forall x, y, z \in X$ one and only one of the statements

$$x < y$$
, $x = y$, $y < x$

is true (*trichotomy property*). ⋄

Definition 1.1.29 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. If there exists a $\beta \in X$ such that $x \le y$ for every $x \in Y$, we say that Y is bounded above,

and call β an upper bound for Y. \diamond

Definition 1.1.30 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. If there exists an $\alpha \in X$ such that $\alpha \leq x$ for every $x \in Y$, we say that Y is bounded below, and call α a lower bound for Y. \diamond

Definition 1.1.31 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. If Y has both an upper bound and a lower bound, then we say that Y is bounded.

Definition 1.1.32 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. By a maximum of Y we mean an element of Y, denoted max Y, such that max Y is an upper bound for Y. \diamond

Remark 1.1.5 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. It is clear that Y can have at most one maximum. \diamond

Definition 1.1.33 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. By a minimum of Y we mean an element of Y, denoted min Y, such that min Y is a lower bound for Y. \diamond

Remark 1.1.6 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. It is clear that Y can have at most one minimum. \diamond

Definition 1.1.34 Let X be an ordered set, $Y \subseteq X$, $Y \neq \emptyset$. We say that X has the *least-upper-bound property* if there exists an element of X, called *supremum* (or *least upper bound*) of Y, and denoted

 $\sup Y$,

such that

- (1.1.10) sup Y is an upper bound for Y,
- (1.1.11) if γ is any upper bound for Y, then $\sup Y \leq \gamma$. \diamond

Remark 1.1.7 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. We underline that if $\alpha = \sup Y$ exists, then α may or may not be a member of Y. Furthermore, we underline that, if Y has the least-upper-bound property, denoting B the set of the upper bounds of Y, it results

$$\sup Y = \min B. \diamond$$

Remark 1.1.8 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. It is clear that Y can have at most one supremum. \diamond

Definition 1.1.35 Let X be an ordered set, $Y \subseteq X$, $Y \neq \emptyset$. We say that X has the greatest-lower-bound property if there exists an element of X, called infimum (or greatest lower bound) of Y, and denoted

 $\inf Y$,

such that

- (1.1.12) inf Y is a lower bound for Y,
- (1.1.13) if δ is a lower bound for Y, then $\inf Y \geq \delta$. \diamond

Remark 1.1.9 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. We underline that if $\alpha = \inf Y$ exists, then α may or may not be a member of Y. Furthermore, we underline that, if Y has the greatest-lower-bound property, denoting A the set of the lower bounds of Y, it results

$$\inf Y = \max A. \diamond$$

Remark 1.1.10 Let X be an ordered set, and $Y \subseteq X$. It is clear that Y can have at most one infimum. \diamond

Theorem 1.1.2 Suppose X is an ordered set with the least-upper-bound property, $Y \subseteq X$, Y is not empty, and Y is bounded below. Let A be the set of all lower bounds of Y. Then

 $\alpha = \max A$

exists in X, and $\alpha = \inf Y$.

Proof. Obviously $A \subseteq X$. Moreover, since Y is bounded below, A is not empty. Since $A = \{y \in X : y \le x \mid \forall x \in Y\}$, every $x \in Y$ is an upper bound of A, hence A is bounded above. By hypothesis, X has the least-upper-bound property. Hence $\exists \alpha \in X : \alpha = \sup A$.

Since $\alpha = \sup A$, we have that α is greater or equal than every upper bound of A. So, if $\mu < \alpha$ then μ is not an upper bound of A, hence $\mu \notin Y$. In fact, we have already seen that every member of Y is an upper bound of A. It follows that, for every $y \in Y$, we have $\alpha \leq y$. Thus $\alpha \in A$.

Hence $\alpha = \max A$, hence $\alpha = \inf Y$. \diamond

Remark 1.1.11 Theorem 1.1.2 show that that every ordered set with the least-upper-bound property also has the greatest-lower-bound property.

1.1.4 Functions

Definition 1.1.36 Let X and Y be sets, X' be a subset of X. A rule f associating a unique $y \in Y$ with each $x \in X'$ is called a (single-valued) function from X' into Y. The set X' is called the domain (of definition) of f and is denoted by dom f. The unique element f of f (associated by f with the element f of f (associated by f and denoted by f (f). We say that f maps f into f and we write

$$f: X \to Y$$

$$f: x \in X' \subseteq X \to f(x) \in Y$$
.

The set $\{f(x) \in Y : x \in X'\}$ is called the *range* of f (or *image* of X') and is denoted f(X') or rng f. \diamond

Remark 1.1.12 Obviously $f(X') \subseteq Y$ and in general an element of f(X') is the value of f at several elements of X'. \diamond

Definition 1.1.37 If dom f = X and f(X') = Y we say that f is a function from X onto Y. \diamond

Remark 1.1.13 A function is also called *single-valued relation* or mapping or transformation or operation or correspondence or application.

Definition 1.1.38 Let f be a function that maps $X' \subseteq X$ into Y. If

$$\forall x, z \in X'$$
 $x \neq z \Rightarrow f(x) \neq f(z)$.

we say that *f* is a *reversible* function. \diamond

Remark 1.1.14 Let $f: X' \subseteq X \to Y$ be any reversible function. Obviously $\forall y \in \operatorname{rng} f$ there exists one and only one $x \in X'$ such that f(x) = y.

Definition 1.1.39 Let f be a function that maps $X' \subseteq X$ into Y. If f is a reversible function, the (single-valued) function f^{-1}

$$\forall y \in \operatorname{rng} f \to \operatorname{the unique} x \in X' \operatorname{such that} f(x) = y$$

is called the *inverse* of f. \diamond

Remark 1.1.15 If $f: X' \subseteq X \to Y$ is a reversible function, obviously $dom f^{-1} = rngf$ and $rngf^{-1} = dom f$.

Definition 1.1.40 Let f be a function that maps X onto Y. If f is a reversible function, we say that f is a *one to one* (or *biunique*) correspondence from X onto Y. \diamond

Thus, to say that f is a one to one (or biunique) correspondence from X onto Y simply means that each element of Y is the correspondent (by f) of one and only one element of X and each element of X is the correspondent (by f^{-1}) of one and only one element of Y.

Definition 1.1.41 If $f: X \to Y$ is a function and $A \subset X$, we define the restriction of f to A to be the function $f_A: A \to Y$ such that

$$x \in A \rightarrow f_A(x) = f(x) \in Y.$$

Remark 1.1.16 Usually the restriction f_A of f to A is denoted by the same symbol f of the function. \diamond

Definition 1.1.42 If $f: X \to Y$ is a function and $X \subset B$, we define the extension of f to B to be the function $f_B: B \to Y$ such that

$$x \in X \rightarrow f_B(x) = f(x) \in Y.$$

Remark 1.1.17 Usually the extension f_B of f to B is denoted by the same symbol f of the function. \diamond

Definition 1.1.43 Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$ be any functions. We define the *composite* function $g \circ f$ to be the function

$$x \in X \rightarrow g \circ f(x) = g(f(x)) \in Y.$$

Definition 1.1.44 Let X be any set and A be any subset of X. The function χ_A with domain X and range contained in $\{0,1\}$ such that

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in X - A, \end{cases}$$

is called the *characteristic function of* A. \diamond

Remark 1.1.18 The characteristic functions are very useful in the Mathematical Analysis. •

Definition 1.1.45 A sequence is a function having $\mathbb{N}^{1.1.4}$ as its domain. If x is a sequence, we will write x_n instead of x(n) for the value of x at n. The value x_n is called the n^{th} term of the sequence. The sequence x whose n^{th} term is x_n will be denoted by

$$x_1, ..., x_n, ...$$

or simply

$$\{x_n\}.$$

If Y is a set and if $x_n \in Y \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\{x_n\}$ is said to be a sequence in Y, or a sequence of elements of Y.

Definition 1.1.46 Two sets A and B are said equivalent if there exists some one-to-one function from A onto B. \diamond

Definition 1.1.47 A set X is said finite if either $X = \emptyset$ or else exists some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that X is equivalent to $\{j \in \mathbb{N} : 1 \le j \le n\}$.

All sets that are not finite are said to be *infinite*.

A set equivalent to \mathbb{N} is said *denumerable* (or *enumerable*).

A set that is either finite or denumerable is said to be *countable*.

Any set that is not countable is called uncountable. •

 $^{^{1.1.4}}$ We denote by $\mathbb N$ the set of all positive integer numbers.