

Chapter 2: Sets

Sections 2.1–2.3

Dana C. Ernst

Plymouth State University
Department of Mathematics
<http://oz.plymouth.edu/~dcernst>

Fall 2009

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory.

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts.

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts. These will act as our underlying assumptions.

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts. These will act as our underlying assumptions.

We will assume:

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts. These will act as our underlying assumptions.

We will assume:

- elementary properties of the natural numbers

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$$

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts. These will act as our underlying assumptions.

We will assume:

- elementary properties of the natural numbers

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$$

- an informal understanding of the integers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\},$$

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts. These will act as our underlying assumptions.

We will assume:

- elementary properties of the natural numbers

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$$

- an informal understanding of the integers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\},$$

the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} ,

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts. These will act as our underlying assumptions.

We will assume:

- elementary properties of the natural numbers

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$$

- an informal understanding of the integers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\},$$

the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} , the real numbers \mathbb{R} (rational and irrational),

2.1 Sets and Set Notation

In this chapter, we will develop several set-theoretic ideas and theorems without a direct appeal to the axioms of set theory. Instead we take for granted some intermediate yet basic facts. These will act as our underlying assumptions.

We will assume:

- elementary properties of the natural numbers

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$$

- an informal understanding of the integers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\},$$

the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} , the real numbers \mathbb{R} (rational and irrational), and the Cartesian plane \mathbb{R}^2 .

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in .

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

- A **set** is a collection of things.

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

- A **set** is a collection of things.
- An **element** is one of the things that lies in the set.

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

- A **set** is a collection of things.
- An **element** is one of the things that lies in the set.

We write $x \in A$ if x is an element of the set A .

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

- A **set** is a collection of things.
- An **element** is one of the things that lies in the set.

We write $x \in A$ if x is an element of the set A . On the other hand, if x is not an element of the set A , then we write $x \notin A$.

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

- A **set** is a collection of things.
- An **element** is one of the things that lies in the set.

We write $x \in A$ if x is an element of the set A . On the other hand, if x is not an element of the set A , then we write $x \notin A$.

We can think of a set as a box containing some stuff.

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

- A **set** is a collection of things.
- An **element** is one of the things that lies in the set.

We write $x \in A$ if x is an element of the set A . On the other hand, if x is not an element of the set A , then we write $x \notin A$.

We can think of a set as a box containing some stuff. If we rearrange the items in the box, the contents do not change.

We have a few undefined terms, such as **set**, **element**, and \in . We assume an intuitive understanding of these terms.

Intuitively:

- A **set** is a collection of things.
- An **element** is one of the things that lies in the set.

We write $x \in A$ if x is an element of the set A . On the other hand, if x is not an element of the set A , then we write $x \notin A$.

We can think of a set as a box containing some stuff. If we rearrange the items in the box, the contents do not change. The order of the elements in a set is immaterial.

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$ (listing all the elements of a finite set)

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$ (listing all the elements of a finite set)
- $E = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$ (listing all the elements of a finite set)
- $E = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$ (listing the elements of an infinite set by establishing an easy to recognize pattern)

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$ (listing all the elements of a finite set)
- $E = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$ (listing the elements of an infinite set by establishing an easy to recognize pattern)
- $E = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n = 2k \text{ for some } k\}$

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$ (listing all the elements of a finite set)
- $E = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$ (listing the elements of an infinite set by establishing an easy to recognize pattern)
- $E = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n = 2k \text{ for some } k\}$ (providing a description of the elements of a set; this one is describing an infinite set)

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$ (listing all the elements of a finite set)
- $E = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$ (listing the elements of an infinite set by establishing an easy to recognize pattern)
- $E = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n = 2k \text{ for some } k\}$ (providing a description of the elements of a set; this one is describing an infinite set)
- $T = \{w : w \text{ is an English word that begins with } t\}$

Here are some examples that illustrate the notation we use to denote sets.

Example

- $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$ (listing all the elements of a finite set)
- $E = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$ (listing the elements of an infinite set by establishing an easy to recognize pattern)
- $E = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n = 2k \text{ for some } k\}$ (providing a description of the elements of a set; this one is describing an infinite set)
- $T = \{w : w \text{ is an English word that begins with } t\}$ (providing a description of the elements of a set; this one is large, but finite)

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$,

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x .

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Let's take a look at a different type of example.

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Let's take a look at a different type of example.

Example

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Let's take a look at a different type of example.

Example

Consider the set $S = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \{5\}, 5\}$.

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Let's take a look at a different type of example.

Example

Consider the set $S = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \{5\}, 5\}$. Describe the elements of S .

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Let's take a look at a different type of example.

Example

Consider the set $S = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \{5\}, 5\}$. Describe the elements of S . Is 2 an element of S ?

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Let's take a look at a different type of example.

Example

Consider the set $S = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \{5\}, 5\}$. Describe the elements of S . Is 2 an element of S ? How about 5?

Notice that in the last two examples above, both sets were in the form $S = \{x \in X : P(x)\}$, where x is a variable, X is the universe of values that x can take on, and $P(x)$ is a predicate that describes x . The set S is collection of values from X that make $P(x)$ true.

Let's take a look at a different type of example.

Example

Consider the set $S = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \{5\}, 5\}$. Describe the elements of S . Is 2 an element of S ? How about 5?

We can also use **interval notation** to denote sets (of real numbers).

Example

Example

Interval notation:

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$ (open interval)

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$ (open interval)

It is convenient to be able to refer to a set with no elements

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$ (open interval)

It is convenient to be able to refer to a set with no elements (i.e., an empty box).

Example

Interval notation:

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$ (closed interval)
- $[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$ (half-closed or half-open interval)
- $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$ (open interval)

It is convenient to be able to refer to a set with no elements (i.e., an empty box). We refer to any set with no elements as the **empty set** and denote it by \emptyset , or possibly $\{\}$.

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

- Consider the set

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}.$$

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

- Consider the set

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}.$$

Does this set contain any elements?

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

- Consider the set

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}.$$

Does this set contain any elements? No. So, we write $A = \emptyset$.

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

- Consider the set

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}.$$

Does this set contain any elements? No. So, we write $A = \emptyset$.
However, what about the set $B = \{x \in \mathbb{C} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}$
(where \mathbb{C} is the set of complex numbers)?

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

- Consider the set

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}.$$

Does this set contain any elements? No. So, we write $A = \emptyset$. However, what about the set $B = \{x \in \mathbb{C} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}$ (where \mathbb{C} is the set of complex numbers)? This set is nonempty since it contains the imaginary number i .

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

- Consider the set

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}.$$

Does this set contain any elements? No. So, we write $A = \emptyset$. However, what about the set $B = \{x \in \mathbb{C} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}$ (where \mathbb{C} is the set of complex numbers)? This set is nonempty since it contains the imaginary number i .

- Consider the set

$$X = \{p : p \text{ is a person in this room whose name starts with } x\}.$$

Let's consider a couple of examples.

Example

- Consider the set

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}.$$

Does this set contain any elements? No. So, we write $A = \emptyset$. However, what about the set $B = \{x \in \mathbb{C} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}$ (where \mathbb{C} is the set of complex numbers)? This set is nonempty since it contains the imaginary number i .

- Consider the set

$$X = \{p : p \text{ is a person in this room whose name starts with } x\}.$$

This set is equal to \emptyset .

2.2 Subsets

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$).

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

Example

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

Example

1. Consider the set $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$.

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

Example

1. Consider the set $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$. Let's find all subsets of A .

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

Example

1. Consider the set $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$. Let's find all subsets of A .
2. Consider the set $B = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$.

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

Example

1. Consider the set $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$. Let's find all subsets of A .
2. Consider the set $B = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$. List all of the subsets of B .

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

Example

1. Consider the set $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$. Let's find all subsets of A .
2. Consider the set $B = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$. List all of the subsets of B .

Notice that the statement “If $x \in S$, then $x \in A$ ” is an implication.

2.2 Subsets

Definition 2.2.1

If A and S are sets, we say that S is a **subset** of A if every element of S is in A (i.e., if $x \in S$, then $x \in A$). In this case, we write $S \subseteq A$.

Example

1. Consider the set $A = \{\square, \blacksquare, \triangle\}$. Let's find all subsets of A .
2. Consider the set $B = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$. List all of the subsets of B .

Notice that the statement “If $x \in S$, then $x \in A$ ” is an implication. So, if we want to prove that $S \subseteq A$, what do we need to do?

To show $S \subseteq A$ for anything with more than a small number of elements, we should assume that an arbitrary member of the universe x is an element of S and then show that x is also a member of A .

To show $S \subseteq A$ for anything with more than a small number of elements, we should assume that an arbitrary member of the universe x is an element of S and then show that x is also a member of A .

This type of argument is called an **element argument**.

To show $S \subseteq A$ for anything with more than a small number of elements, we should assume that an arbitrary member of the universe x is an element of S and then show that x is also a member of A .

This type of argument is called an **element argument**. All element arguments should start with the phrase “Let $x \in S$ ” (or equivalent), where S is the smaller set in question.

To show $S \subseteq A$ for anything with more than a small number of elements, we should assume that an arbitrary member of the universe x is an element of S and then show that x is also a member of A .

This type of argument is called an **element argument**. All element arguments should start with the phrase “Let $x \in S$ ” (or equivalent), where S is the smaller set in question.

Theorem 2.2.2

To show $S \subseteq A$ for anything with more than a small number of elements, we should assume that an arbitrary member of the universe x is an element of S and then show that x is also a member of A .

This type of argument is called an **element argument**. All element arguments should start with the phrase “Let $x \in S$ ” (or equivalent), where S is the smaller set in question.

Theorem 2.2.2

For all sets X , $\emptyset \subseteq X$ and $X \subseteq X$.

To show $S \subseteq A$ for anything with more than a small number of elements, we should assume that an arbitrary member of the universe x is an element of S and then show that x is also a member of A .

This type of argument is called an **element argument**. All element arguments should start with the phrase “Let $x \in S$ ” (or equivalent), where S is the smaller set in question.

Theorem 2.2.2

For all sets X , $\emptyset \subseteq X$ and $X \subseteq X$.

We will prove this theorem for homework and it will definitely be one of the ones that I ask you to present.

Note that two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements.

Note that two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements. In other words, $A = B$ iff $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Note that two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements. In other words, $A = B$ iff $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$. (This is Definition 2.2.7 in the book and should come before the next definition.)

Note that two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements. In other words, $A = B$ iff $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$. (This is Definition 2.2.7 in the book and should come before the next definition.)

Definition 2.2.5

Note that two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements. In other words, $A = B$ iff $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$. (This is Definition 2.2.7 in the book and should come before the next definition.)

Definition 2.2.5

If B is a subset of X and $B \neq X$, then we say that B is a **proper subset** of X .

2.3 Set Operations

2.3 Set Operations

Just like with numbers, there are ways to combine sets together in various ways.

2.3 Set Operations

Just like with numbers, there are ways to combine sets together in various ways.

Definition 2.3.1

2.3 Set Operations

Just like with numbers, there are ways to combine sets together in various ways.

Definition 2.3.1

Let U be a set and let $S \subseteq U$. Define

$$S_U^C = \{x \in U : x \notin S\}.$$

2.3 Set Operations

Just like with numbers, there are ways to combine sets together in various ways.

Definition 2.3.1

Let U be a set and let $S \subseteq U$. Define

$$S_U^C = \{x \in U : x \notin S\}.$$

The set S_U^C is called the **complement of S in U** .

2.3 Set Operations

Just like with numbers, there are ways to combine sets together in various ways.

Definition 2.3.1

Let U be a set and let $S \subseteq U$. Define

$$S_U^C = \{x \in U : x \notin S\}.$$

The set S_U^C is called the **complement of S in U** .

If the set U is understood, we may just write S^C and call it the complement of S .

2.3 Set Operations

Just like with numbers, there are ways to combine sets together in various ways.

Definition 2.3.1

Let U be a set and let $S \subseteq U$. Define

$$S_U^C = \{x \in U : x \notin S\}.$$

The set S_U^C is called the **complement of S in U** .

If the set U is understood, we may just write S^C and call it the complement of S . To avoid paradoxes, we must always take complements relative to some larger (or possibly equal) set.

Example

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Let A and B be sets.

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Let A and B be sets.

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

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Let A and B be sets.

1. $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ (the **union** of A and B)

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Let A and B be sets.

1. $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ (the **union** of A and B)
2. $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Let A and B be sets.

1. $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ (the **union** of A and B)
2. $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$ (the **intersection** of A and B)

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Let A and B be sets.

1. $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ (the **union** of A and B)
2. $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$ (the **intersection** of A and B)

Let's draw the corresponding **Venn diagrams** for union and intersection.

Example

1. Consider the sets $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
What is S_U^C ?
2. What is $\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{R}}^C$?

Definition 2.3.4

Let A and B be sets.

1. $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ (the **union** of A and B)
2. $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$ (the **intersection** of A and B)

Let's draw the corresponding **Venn diagrams** for union and intersection. See pages 44–45 for a discussion of Venn diagrams.

Definition 2.3.6

Definition 2.3.6

If A and B are sets that do not intersect (i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$), then we say that A and B are disjoint.

Definition 2.3.6

If A and B are sets that do not intersect (i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$), then we say that A and B are disjoint.

Of course we can take unions and intersections of more than two sets, even an infinite collection of sets.

Definition 2.3.6

If A and B are sets that do not intersect (i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$), then we say that A and B are disjoint.

Of course we can take unions and intersections of more than two sets, even an infinite collection of sets. Often it will be useful for us to **index** the sets when doing this.

Definition 2.3.6

If A and B are sets that do not intersect (i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$), then we say that A and B are disjoint.

Of course we can take unions and intersections of more than two sets, even an infinite collection of sets. Often it will be useful for us to **index** the sets when doing this. We will illustrate indexing through an example.

Definition 2.3.6

If A and B are sets that do not intersect (i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$), then we say that A and B are disjoint.

Of course we can take unions and intersections of more than two sets, even an infinite collection of sets. Often it will be useful for us to **index** the sets when doing this. We will illustrate indexing through an example.

(For now, an intuitive understanding of indexing will suffice.)

Example 2.3.11

Example 2.3.11

Consider the set of intervals

$$A = \{[0, 1/n] : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

Example 2.3.11

Consider the set of intervals

$$A = \{[0, 1/n] : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

This determines the intervals

$$[0, 1], [0, 1/2], [0, 1/3], \dots$$

Example 2.3.11

Consider the set of intervals

$$A = \{[0, 1/n] : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

This determines the intervals

$$[0, 1], [0, 1/2], [0, 1/3], \dots$$

There is a natural way to “index” these sets for easy reference:

Example 2.3.11

Consider the set of intervals

$$A = \{[0, 1/n] : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

This determines the intervals

$$[0, 1], [0, 1/2], [0, 1/3], \dots$$

There is a natural way to “index” these sets for easy reference:

$$I_1 = [0, 1], I_2 = [0, 1/2], I_3 = [0, 1/3], \dots$$

Example 2.3.11

Consider the set of intervals

$$A = \{[0, 1/n] : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

This determines the intervals

$$[0, 1], [0, 1/2], [0, 1/3], \dots$$

There is a natural way to “index” these sets for easy reference:

$$I_1 = [0, 1], I_2 = [0, 1/2], I_3 = [0, 1/3], \dots$$

so that $I_n = [0, 1/n]$.

Example 2.3.11

Consider the set of intervals

$$A = \{[0, 1/n] : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

This determines the intervals

$$[0, 1], [0, 1/2], [0, 1/3], \dots$$

There is a natural way to “index” these sets for easy reference:

$$I_1 = [0, 1], I_2 = [0, 1/2], I_3 = [0, 1/3], \dots$$

so that $I_n = [0, 1/n]$. In this case, we say that the sets we are working with are indexed by $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.

Example 2.3.11

Consider the set of intervals

$$A = \{[0, 1/n] : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

This determines the intervals

$$[0, 1], [0, 1/2], [0, 1/3], \dots$$

There is a natural way to “index” these sets for easy reference:

$$I_1 = [0, 1], I_2 = [0, 1/2], I_3 = [0, 1/3], \dots$$

so that $I_n = [0, 1/n]$. In this case, we say that the sets we are working with are indexed by $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. We can write

$$A = \{I_1, I_2, I_3, \dots\} = \{I_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \{I_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = \{I_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}.$$

Any set, finite or infinite, can be used as an indexing set.

Any set, finite or infinite, can be used as an indexing set. We will denote arbitrary index sets by Λ and an arbitrary index by α .

Any set, finite or infinite, can be used as an indexing set. We will denote arbitrary index sets by Λ and an arbitrary index by α . See Example 2.3.12 for more discussion of the notation.

Any set, finite or infinite, can be used as an indexing set. We will denote arbitrary index sets by Λ and an arbitrary index by α . See Example 2.3.12 for more discussion of the notation.

Definition 2.3.13

Any set, finite or infinite, can be used as an indexing set. We will denote arbitrary index sets by Λ and an arbitrary index by α . See Example 2.3.12 for more discussion of the notation.

Definition 2.3.13

Suppose we have a collection of indexed sets $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$.

Any set, finite or infinite, can be used as an indexing set. We will denote arbitrary index sets by Λ and an arbitrary index by α . See Example 2.3.12 for more discussion of the notation.

Definition 2.3.13

Suppose we have a collection of indexed sets $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$.

1. The union of all the sets is denoted $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the union over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

Any set, finite or infinite, can be used as an indexing set. We will denote arbitrary index sets by Λ and an arbitrary index by α . See Example 2.3.12 for more discussion of the notation.

Definition 2.3.13

Suppose we have a collection of indexed sets $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$.

1. The union of all the sets is denoted $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the union over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha = \{x : x \in B_\alpha \text{ for some } \alpha \in \Lambda\}$$

Definition 2.3.13 (continued)

Definition 2.3.13 (continued)

2. The intersection of all the sets is denoted $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the intersection over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

Definition 2.3.13 (continued)

2. The intersection of all the sets is denoted $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the intersection over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha = \{x : x \in B_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Lambda\}$$

Definition 2.3.13 (continued)

2. The intersection of all the sets is denoted $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the intersection over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha = \{x : x \in B_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Lambda\}$$

Let's return to our previous example.

Definition 2.3.13 (continued)

2. The intersection of all the sets is denoted $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the intersection over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha = \{x : x \in B_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Lambda\}$$

Let's return to our previous example.

Example

Definition 2.3.13 (continued)

2. The intersection of all the sets is denoted $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the intersection over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha = \{x : x \in B_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Lambda\}$$

Let's return to our previous example.

Example

We see that

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n =$$

Definition 2.3.13 (continued)

2. The intersection of all the sets is denoted $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha$, which is read “the intersection over alpha in Lambda of the B -alphas.”

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} B_\alpha = \{x : x \in B_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Lambda\}$$

Let's return to our previous example.

Example

We see that

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n = [0, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \geq 0\}.$$

Example (continued)

Example (continued)

Also, we see that

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n =$$

Example (continued)

Also, we see that

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n = \{0\}.$$