

## Section 2.3: Extended Set Operations and Families of Sets

### Families of Sets

Recall that not every collection of objects forms a \_\_\_\_\_. We did this to avoid paradoxes.

**Definition 1.** A *family of sets* is a collection of sets.

**Note 2.** Here are a few comments:

1. Most families are also sets, but not all. All of the families that we'll talk about will also be sets.
2. Any power set is an example of a family of sets.
3. We'll usually use script letters for families.

**Example 3.**

(a) Let  $A = \{a, b\}$ . Then

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

$\mathcal{P}(A)$  is an example of a family.

(b) Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{3, 4, 5\}, \{3, 6\}\}$ . This is also a family of sets. Note that  $2 \underline{\hspace{0.5cm}} \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\} \underline{\hspace{0.5cm}} \mathcal{A}$ , but  $2 \underline{\hspace{0.5cm}} \mathcal{A}$ .

**Definition 4.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a family of sets. The *union over  $\mathcal{A}$*  is

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

Similarly, the *intersection over  $\mathcal{A}$*  is

$$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

**Example 5.**

(a) Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{3, 4, 5\}, \{3, 6\}\}$ . Then

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

and

$$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

(b) Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be set of all open intervals of the form  $(-b, b)$ , where  $b$  is a positive real number. Then

$$\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B = \underline{\hspace{10em}} = \underline{\hspace{10em}}$$

and

$$\bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B = \underline{\hspace{10em}} = \underline{\hspace{10em}}.$$

**Note 6.**

1.  $x \in \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$  iff  $(\exists A)(A \in \mathcal{A} \wedge x \in A)$
2.  $x \in \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$  iff  $(\forall A)(A \in \mathcal{A} \implies x \in A)$

**Theorem 7** (2.8). *For every set  $B$  in a family  $\mathcal{A}$ ,*

$$(a) \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A \subseteq B;$$

$$(b) B \subseteq \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A;$$

(c) *If  $\mathcal{A}$  is nonempty, then*

$$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A \subseteq \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A.$$

*Proof.*

(a)

(b) See Exercise 2.3.3

(c)

□

# Indexing Sets

It is often useful to “tag” the sets in a family.

**Definition 8.** Let  $\Delta$  be a nonempty set such that for each  $\alpha \in \Delta$ , there is a corresponding  $A_\alpha$ . The set

$$\{A_\alpha : \alpha \in \Delta\}$$

is called an *indexed family of sets*. The set  $\Delta$  is called the *index set* and each  $\alpha$  is called an *index*.

Intuitively, you should think of each  $\alpha$  as being a “tag” and  $\Delta$  as being the collection of all “tags.”

**Example 9.**

(a) Let  $A_1 = \{1, 2\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{2, 3, 4\}$ , and  $A_3 = \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$ . Also, let

$$\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, A_2, A_3\}.$$

In this case,  $\Delta = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

(b) Let  $\Delta = \mathbb{N}$  and for each  $n \in \Delta$ , define  $A_n = \{n, n^2, n^3\}$ . Now, let

$$\mathcal{A} = \{A_n : n \in \Delta\}.$$

Describe  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Here is a potentially useful analogy:

Imagine you have a filing cabinet filled with file folders. Some of the folders have a lot of stuff in them, some may be empty, and maybe some of them contain duplicate information. In this case, the cabinet is the family, each folder is a set in the family, and each item in a folder represents an element of one of the sets. The labels on the folders are the indices. If the folders are unlabeled, then the family is not indexed.

**Note 10.**

1. Every family of sets can be turned into an indexed family of sets if you find a large enough index set.
2. An index set may be finite or infinite.
3. Generally, we want our indexing to be unique, but it doesn't have to be. That is, a set may get “tagged” by more than one index. For example, you could have  $A_3 = A_{126}$ .

4. If a family is indexed by  $\Delta$ , then we may write

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

and

$$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

In particular, if  $\Delta = \mathbb{N}$ , then

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

and

$$\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

**Example 11.**

(a) Let  $A_n = [0, \frac{1}{n})$ . Then

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^6 A_i = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^6 A_i = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

(b) Let  $B_x = [x^2, x^2 + 1]$  for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$B_{1/2} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

$$B_{-1/2} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

$$\bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} B_x = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

$$\bigcap_{x \in \mathbb{R}} B_x = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

**Theorem 12 (2.9).** Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_\alpha : \alpha \in \Delta\}$ . Then

$$(a) \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha \subseteq A_\beta \text{ for each } \beta \in \Delta;$$

$$(b) A_\beta \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha \text{ for each } \beta \in \Delta;$$

$$(c) \left( \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha \right)^c = \underline{\hspace{4cm}};$$

$$(d) \left( \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha \right)^c = \underline{\hspace{4cm}};$$

*Proof.*

(a) See Exercise 2.3.5(a).

(b) See Exercise 2.3.5(a).

(c)

(d) See page 91 or Exercise 2.3.5(b).

□

**Definition 13.** An indexed family  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_\alpha : \alpha \in \Delta\}$  is *pairwise disjoint* iff for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \Delta$ , if  $A_\alpha \neq A_\beta$ , then  $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta = \emptyset$ . (In other words, no two distinct sets intersect each other.)

Venn diagram: