02-680 Module 2 Essentials of Mathematics and Statistics

Aidan Jan

September 4, 2025

Number Sets

Booleans

A boolean is a data type that takes two values: True and False.

- Sometimes we use 1 and 0 instead
- Can also be thought of as yes/no, on/off, etc.
- can be represented using 1 bit.

Integers

An integer is a number with **no fractional** part.

- We use the symbol \mathbb{Z} to represent the set of all possible integers
 - There is a lot of them (infinitely many!), so unlike booleans we can't just list all integers.
 - Can be positive or negative or zero. (As opposed to **natural numbers**, represented by \mathbb{N} , and includes only positive integers)
 - The number of bits needed to represent an integer increases with the value.

Rational Numbers

A rational number is one that can be represented by a **ratio** between two integers. That is, it can be written in form $\frac{m}{n}$, where $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- \bullet We use the symbol $\mathbb Q$ to represent the set of all ${\bf rational\ numbers}.$
- Real numbers that are not rational are called irrational numbers.

Real Numbers

A real number is one that can be used to **measure a continuous one-dimensional quantity** such as a length, duration, or temperature.

- Includes all integers, rational numbers, and all numbers "between" rational numbers.
- We use the symbol \mathbb{R} to represent the set of all real numbers.
- Typically we need more bits to store real-valued numbers
 - proportional to the value and precision
 - many representations

Complex Numbers

Complex numbers were invented in order to allow for taking the square root of negative numbers

- Each complex number has a **real** and **imaginary** part, and is written as a + bi, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- We denote the set of all **complex numbers** as \mathbb{C} .
- Note that \mathbb{R} is a subset of \mathbb{C} , where all values of b are 0.

Set Theory

Why does set theory matter?

Suppose we define a property like:

"Genes that are significantly upregulated under condition A"

Then we collect all the genes that match this property. This collection is a set.

We may also define a set by listing its members. Single-cell transcriptomics may identify:

Cell type set $= \{T \text{ cell, B cell, Macrophage, Fibroblast}\}\$

A sample space is the collection of all possible outcomes of an experiment.

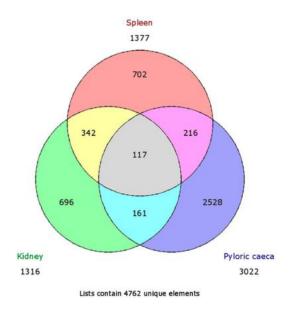
• The sample space of an experiment can be thought of as a set, or collection, of different possible outcomes; and each outcome can be thought of as a point, or an element, in the sample space.

Venn Diagrams

Venn diagrams can be used to compare sets. Each circle represents a set, and members common to multiple sets are included in the overlap of the circles.

Below is an example using differentially expressed genes (DEGs):

Common genes between the three tissues



What is a Set?

A set is an unordered collection of objects. We have already been talking about these in the abstract:

- ullet Set of all integers $\mathbb Z$
- $\bullet\,$ Set of all real numbers $\mathbb R$

We write a set using braces "{" and "}"

- use capital letters as names (when applicable)
- if we wanted to define the set of all algebraic operators we may use $O = \{+, -, \cdot, \div\}$
- or maybe the set of all prime numbers: $P = \{2, 3, 5, 7, \dots\}$

We have two standard ways of explicitly defining a set.

• First is simple (exhaustive) enumeration:

$$A = {\text{"Welcome"}, "to", "02-680"}}$$

In this case the set contains 3 elements, each of which is a string.

• The second way is to define a set by abstraction:

$$B = \{x^2 | x = 2 \lor x = 3\}$$

We could say that $4 \in B$, but $16 \notin B$.

- The definition after the | is a statement written in **propositional logic**.

Set Membership

For a set S and an object x, the expression $x \in S$ is true when x is one of the objects in the set S.

- We read $x \in S$ as "x is an element of S", or "x is in S".
- There is also the notion of non-membership
 - if the set P is the set of all primes, then $4 \notin P$.
 - that is, 4 is not in P, or 4 is not prime.

Set Cardinality

For a set S, |S| is the number of distinct elements in S.

Often we want to know how large a set is so we can compare sets.

- For the set of all algebraic operators described before |O|=4
- For the set of all possible bit values B, |B| = 2.

but sometimes, we can't actually count how many there are. For example,

- $|\mathbb{Z}| = \infty$
- but, we still know that $|\mathbb{Z}| < |\mathbb{R}|$, since we know that \mathbb{Z} is a subset of \mathbb{R} .

In the examples mentioned earlier:

$$A = \{\text{"Welcome"}, \text{"to"}, \text{"02-680"}\}$$

$$B = \{x^2 | x = 2 \lor x = 3\}$$

$$|A| = 3$$
 and $|B| = 2$.

Note that if we define another set:

$$C = \{(2+2), (2-2), (2\cdot 2), (2 \div 2), (2^2)\}\$$

the cardinality |C| = 3. It is not 5 since cardinality only includes unique elements.

Set Construction

As described earlier, there are two ways to construct a set. Exhaustive enumeration and set abstraction.

- Note that not all sets need to be assigned a name.
- Remember that sets are **unordered**, so the following sets are equivalent.
 - $-\{2+2,2\cdot 2,2\div 2,2-2\}$
 - $-\{0,1,4\}$
 - $-\{4,0,1\}$

Set Abstraction

Let U be a set of possible elements called the **universe**. Let P(x) be a condition, also called a **predicate**, that

- for every element $x \in U$
- P(x) is **true** or **false**.

then we can write $\{x \in U : P(x)\}$

- which is all of the objects from $x \in U$
- for which P(x) is **true**.

For example:

- set of even prime numbers: $\{x \in \mathbb{Z} \ge 1 : x \text{ is prime and } x \text{ is even}\}$
- set of primes between 10 and 20: $\{y \in \mathbb{Z} : y \text{ is prime and } 10 \le y \le 20\}$
- set of bits: $\{b \in \mathbb{Z} : b^2 = b\}$

For convenience, sometimes we don't use the universe if it's obvious

- this is particularly helpful when the predicate determines the universe
- In that case we could write something like $\{x : P(x)\}$

There is, of course, multiple ways to write these sets as well.

- Two digit perfect squares: $\{n \in \mathbb{Z} : \sqrt{n} \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } 10 \le n \le 99\}$
- $\{n^2 : n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } 10 \le n^2 \le 99\}$
- $\{n^2 : n \in \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}\}$ are the same set

Special Sets

There are some sets that we use that are so important we define them on their own, they also usually have special symbols.

The Empty Set, also called the null set, is a set that contains no elements.

$$\emptyset = \{\}$$

Since there are no elements in \emptyset , which we can write as $\forall x: x \notin \emptyset$, or $\nexists x: x \in \emptyset$, $|\emptyset| = 0$.

- Any set with **no elements** can be reduced to \emptyset
- Can also be defined as $\{x : \text{False}\}\$ (similar to an if statement with "false" in the condition)

Additionally, we have common sets for groups of numbers.

- N: natural numbers (positive whole numbers)
- Z: integers (all whole numbers)
- Q: rational numbers (numbers representable as fractions)
- R: real numbers (decimal numbers)
- {0,1}: booleans (no special symbol, represents two states)
- Σ: characters (sometimes, "alphabet")

Sometimes, we want to slightly restrict these sets, so sometimes you may see something like \mathbb{Z}^+ , which is equivalent to $x \in \mathbb{Z}|x > 0$, or $\mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$, which is equivalent to $x \in \mathbb{Z}|x \geq 0$.

Operators

We have four standard operators used to compare sets, referred to as **set operators**.

• Union (\cup): The union of two sets S and T, denoted $S \cup T$, is the set of all elements in either S or T (or both).

$$S \cup T = \{x : x \in S \text{ or } x \in T\}$$

• Intersection (\cap): The intersection of two sets S and T, denoted $S \cap T$, is the set of all elements in both S and T.

$$S \cap T = \{x : x \in S \text{ and } x \in T\}$$

• Set Difference (\): Similar to numerical subtraction, given two sets S and T, $S \setminus T$ is the set of elements in S but not T.

$$S\backslash T=\{x|x\in S\wedge x\notin T\}$$

- For set difference, order matters. $S \setminus T$ and $T \setminus S$ are different sets.
- Sometimes, set difference is represented using the minus (-) symbol instead of backslash (\).
- Complement ($\bar{}$): While we can write something like $\bar{}$ S, it is normally written as \bar{S} . This represents the set of elements that are not in S.

$$\bar{S} = \tilde{S} := \{ x \in U | x \notin S \}$$

Properties of Union and Intersection

Instead of writing long unions and intersections over multiple sets, we can use indexed notation, just like we do with summation and products.

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} S_i = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_n$$
$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} S_i = S_1 \cap S_2 \cap \dots \cap S_n$$

Since a union combines two sets, the following is true:

$$\max\{|S|, |T|\} \le |S \cup T| \le |S| + |T|$$

Since an intersection only contains elements present in both sets, the following is true:

$$0 \le |S \cap T| \le \min\{|S|, |T|\}$$

Arithmetics and Sets

We previously saw the use of sums and products like

$$\sum_{i=2}^{5} 2^i = 8 + 16 + 32 = 56$$

but we can do the same using a set. Define $S = \{3, 4, 5\}$, then we can say:

$$\sum_{x \in S} 2^x = 8 + 16 + 36 = 56$$

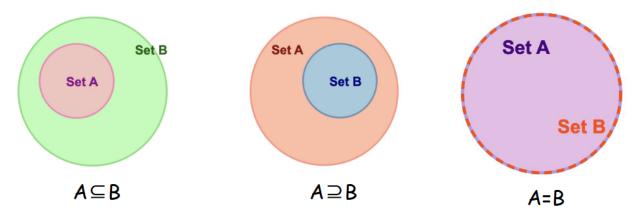
We can do the same with product, max, and min:

$$\prod_{x \in S} x \qquad \max_{x \in S} x \qquad \min_{x \in S} x$$

Comparing Sets

We often need to know if one set is contained within another. (notice while similar this is different from saying one is larger than another.)

- Subset $A \subseteq B$: A is fully contained within B.
- Superset $A \supseteq B$: B is fully contained within A.
- Equality A = B: A contains all elements of, but no more than, B.



Subset (⊆)

We say one set is a **subset** of another if all of its elements are in both sets.

$$S \subseteq T \Leftrightarrow \forall x \in S \ : \ x \in T$$

A set S is a subset of a set T, written $S \subseteq T$, if every $x \in S$ is also an element of T.

• In other words, $S \subseteq T$ is equivalent to $S - T = \{\}.$

Superset (⊇)

If a set contains another set, we can say the original is a **superset** of the other.

$$S\supseteq T \Leftrightarrow \forall x\in T\ :\ x\in S$$

Equality (=)

If two sets contain the same elements, they are equal.

$$S = T \Leftrightarrow (\forall x \in S : x \in T) \land (\forall y \in T : y \in S)$$

S is equal to T if and only if every element of S is also in T, and every element of T is also in S.

$$S = T \Leftrightarrow (S \subseteq T) \land (S \supseteq T)$$

Proper Subset and Proper Supersets

We also have the proper subset (\subset) and proper superset (\supset) operators, which represent subset and superset (but not equality).

• We define a proper subset as

$$S \subset T \Leftrightarrow (\forall x \in S : x \in T) \land (\exists y \in T : \notin S)$$

- A set S is a proper subset of a set T, written $S \subset T$, if $S \subseteq T$ and $S \neq T$. In other words, $S \subset T$ whenever $S \subseteq T$, but $T \nsubseteq S$.
- We define a proper superset as

$$S \supset T \Leftrightarrow (\forall x \in T : x \in S) \land (\exists y \in S : \notin T)$$

-S is a proper superset of T if and only if every element of T is in S, and there exists at least one element in S that is not in T.

Power Sets

The **power set** represents the collection of all subsets of a given set. It is a set of sets.

$$P(S) := \{T | T \subseteq S\}$$

The **power set** of S is denoted by (S).

For example, the power set of 0, 1, 2:

$$(\{0,1,2\}) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0,1\}, \{0,2\}, \{1,2\}, \{0,1,2\}\}$$

Also, a power set of a power set is a set of set of sets...

Cardinality of a Power Set

An interesting fact is that the size of the power set of a set is

$$|P(S)| = 2^{|S|}$$

Think of each element of P(S) as a binary number of length |S|. If the *i*-th bit (or position) is 1, then the *i*-th element from S is in that subset. Then, each binary number represents a unique subset of S.

Power Set of the Empty Set

The cardinality of the power set of the empty set is 1. $(2^0 = 1)$. This is because even though the empty set is empty, it still has one subset, which is itself.

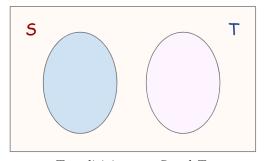
$$P(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$$

Note that $\{\emptyset\} \neq \emptyset$. This is a set containing the empty set, not the empty set itself. In fact,

$$P(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\$$

Disjoint Sets

Two sets S and T are disjoint if there is no $x \in S$ where $x \in T$. In other words, if $S \cap T = .$



Two disjoint sets S and T.

For example, the sets $\{1,2,3\}$ and $\{4,5,6\}$ are disjoint, since their intersection is $\{\}$. However, $\{2,3,5,7\}$ and $\{2,4,6,8\}$ are not disjoint, because 2 is an element of both.

Partitions

The first interesting use of a set of sets is to form a partition of S into a set of disjoint subsets whose union is precisely S.

- A partition of a set S is a set $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k\}$ of nonempty sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k , for some $k \geq 1$, such that
 - $-A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_k = S$
 - for any i, j, where $j \neq i$, the sets A_i and A_j are disjoint.

For example, consider the set $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$. Here are some different ways to partition S:

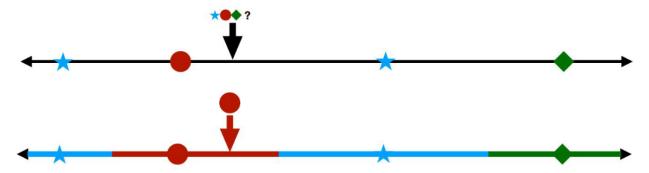
- $\{\{1,3,5,7,9\},\{2,4,6,8,10\}\}$
- $\{\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}, \{10\}\}$
- $\{\{1,4,7,10\},\{2,5,8\},\{3,6,9\}\}$
- {{1}, {2}, {3}, {4}, {5}, {6}, {7}, {8}, {9}, {10}}
- {{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10}}

Use of Sets

In machine learning we often label data points. One way we can do that is using nearest neighbor:

- Given a set of labelled data and a new unlabeled point
- Use the "closest" point to label the new one.

This method creates a partition of the space into those that are closest to some label.



Jaccard Coefficient

Jaccard measures the **correlation** of two sets as a ratio of:

- how many elements are in both sets, over
- how many elements are in either set.

$$J(A,B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A| + |B| - |A \cap B|}$$

Functions

We will say that a function provides a **mapping** from one set onto another. Formally we say that a function f that maps from a set S to a set T is written as

$$f : S \mapsto T$$

Formal Definition

Let S and T be sets. A function f from S to T, written $f: S \mapsto T$, assigns to each input value $a \in A$ a **unique** output value $b \in T$; the unique value b assigned to a is denoted by f(a).

We sometimes say that f maps a to f(a). Note that S and T are allowed to be in the same set.

For example, a function might have inputs and outputs that are both elements of \mathbb{Z}

Domain, Codomain, and Range

When writing $f: S \mapsto T$, we call S the **domain** set, and T the **codomain**. Note that the **codomain** is slightly different from the range of a function; the **range** is the subset of T that is reachable from an input in S. Formally the range is

$$y \in T | \exists x \in S : f(x) = y$$

The set of all y in T such that there exists an x in S with f(x) = y.

• Note that not all possible outputs in the codomain are actually achieved. There may be an element $b \in T$ for which there's no $a \in S$ with f(a) = b.

Range/Image

The range (or image) of a function $f: S \mapsto T$ is the set of all $b \in T$ such that f(a) = b for some $a \in S$. The range of f is the set

 $\{y \in T : \text{ there exists at least one } x \in S \text{ such that } f(x) = y\}$

Domain and Codomain

The **domain** and **codomain** of a fuction are its sets of possible inputs and outputs: for a function $f: S \mapsto T$, the set S is called the **domain**, and the set T is called the **codomain** of the function f. Some examples:

- Not has domain {True, False}, and codomain {True, False}. In this case, range = codomain.
- The square function maps $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. However, in this case, Range \subset Codomain, since the range does not span negative numbers.