

## Mathematical Analysis in Machine Learning reading notes

---



I haven't thought of a title yet

School of Computer Science  
WuHan University

Franz Hu

## **What is the first**

This is my first time to write notes all in English.

## Contents

# 1 Preliminaries

## 1.1 Set and Collections

**Definition 1.1.1** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a collection of sets. The union of  $\mathcal{C}$ , denoted by  $\bigcup \mathcal{C}$ , is the set defined by

$$\bigcup \mathcal{C} = \{x | x \in S \text{ for some } S \in \mathcal{C}\}.$$

If  $\mathcal{C}$  is a non-empty collection, its intersection is the set  $\bigcap \mathcal{C}$  given by

$$\bigcap \mathcal{C} = \{x | x \in S \text{ for every } S \in \mathcal{C}\}.$$

Here, the generalized union and generalized intersection of sets simply involve performing the union or intersection operation on each element within the set.

Note that if  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  are two collections such that  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ , then

$$\bigcup \mathcal{C} \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{D} \text{ and } \bigcap \mathcal{D} \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{C}$$

Within the framework of collections of subsets of a given set  $S$ , we extend the previous definition by taking  $\bigcap \emptyset = S$  for the empty collection of subsets of  $S$ .

This is consistent with the fact that  $\emptyset \subseteq \mathcal{C}$  implies  $\bigcap \mathcal{C} \subseteq S$ .

**Definition 1.1.2** The symmetric difference of sets denoted by  $\oplus$  is defined by  $U \oplus V = (U - V) \cup (V - U)$  for all sets  $U, V$ .

The symmetric difference operation is easily shown to satisfy symmetry and associativity, and also  $U \oplus U = \emptyset$ . Next, we will prove the associativity.

### Proof 1.1.1

$$\begin{aligned} LEFT &= ((U - V) \cup (V - U)) \oplus T \\ &= (((U - V) \cup (V - U)) - T) \cup (T - ((U - V) \cup (V - U))) \\ &= ((U\bar{V} \cup V\bar{U}) \cap \bar{T}) \cup (T \cap (\bar{U}\bar{V} \cup U\bar{V})) \\ &= \sum_{i=1,2,4,7} m_i \end{aligned}$$

$$RIGHT = LEFT$$

However, the above method is rather cumbersome. We can instead adopt the characteristic function approach for the proof. Here, we first supplement the relevant concepts of characteristic functions.

**Definition 1.1.3** For any set  $A$ , the function

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A, \\ 0, & x \notin A \end{cases}$$

is called the characteristic function of the set  $A$ .

The characteristic function has the following properties:

1. The necessary and sufficient condition for  $A = X$  is  $\chi_A(x) \equiv 1$ , and the necessary and sufficient condition for  $A = \emptyset$  is  $\chi_A(x) \equiv 0$ ;
2. The necessary and sufficient condition for  $A \subset B$  is

$$\chi_A(x) \leq \chi_B(x), (\forall x \in X);$$

3.  $\chi_{\bar{P}}(x) = 1 - \chi_P(x)$ .
4.  $\chi_{A \cup B}(x) = \chi_A(x) + \chi_B(x) - \chi_{A \cap B}(x)$ .
5.  $\chi_{A \cap B}(x) = \chi_A(x) \cdot \chi_B(x)$ ;
- 6.

$$\chi_{\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha}(x) = \max_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \chi_{A_\alpha}(x)$$

$$\chi_{\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha}(x) = \min_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \chi_{A_\alpha}(x)$$

7. Let  $\{A_k\}$  be an arbitrary sequence of sets, then

$$\chi_{\overline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k}(x) = \overline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \chi_{A_k}(x)$$

$$\chi_{\underline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k}(x) = \underline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \chi_{A_k}(x);$$

8. The necessary and sufficient condition for  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k$  to exist is that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \chi_{A_k}(x)$  exists ( $\forall x \in X$ ), and when the limit exists, we have

$$\chi_{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k}(x) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \chi_{A_k}(x) \quad (x \in X).$$

$$\overline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k$$

The limit superior of a sequence of sets reflects the collection of elements that "repeatedly appear" in the sequence of sets.

$$\underline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k$$

The limit inferior of a sequence of sets reflects the collection of elements that exhibit "stable membership" within the sequence of sets.

$$\overline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \chi_{A_k}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sup_{k \geq n} \chi_{A_k}(x))$$

$$\underline{\lim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \chi_{A_k}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\inf_{k \geq n} \chi_{A_k}(x))$$

Next, we will employ the method of characteristic functions to complete the proof of the associativity of the symmetric difference operation.

**Proof 1.1.2**

$$\begin{aligned}
\chi_{A \oplus B}(x) &= \chi_{(A-B) \cup (B-A)}(x) \\
&= \chi_{A-B}(x) + \chi_{B-A}(x) \\
&= \chi_A(x) \cdot \chi_{\bar{B}}(x) + \chi_{\bar{A}}(x) \cdot \chi_B(x) \\
&= \chi_A(x) + \chi_B(x) - 2\chi_{A \cap B}(x)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
LEFT &= \chi_{(U \oplus V) \oplus T}(x) \\
&= \chi_U(x) + \chi_V(x) + \chi_T(x) - 2\chi_{U \cap V}(x) - 2\chi_{V \cap T}(x) - 2\chi_{U \cap T}(x) + 4\chi_{U \cap V \cap T}(x) \\
&= RIGHT
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 1.1.4** Below are several concepts pertaining to sets.

1. An ordered pair is a collection of sets  $\{\{x, y\}, \{x\}\}$ . It can be readily verified that  $x$  and  $y$  are determined uniquely.
2. Let  $\{\{x, y\}, \{x\}\}$  be an ordered pair. Then  $x$  is the first component of  $p$  and  $y$  is the second component of  $p$ .
3. Let  $X, Y$  be two sets. Their product is the set  $X \times Y$  that consists of all pairs of the form  $(x, y)$  where  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$ .
4. Let  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  be two collections of sets such that  $\bigcup \mathcal{C} = \bigcup \mathcal{D}$ .  $\mathcal{D}$  is a **refinement** of  $\mathcal{C}$  if, for every  $D \in \mathcal{D}$ , there exists  $C \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $D \subseteq C$ . This is denoted by  $\mathcal{C} \sqsupseteq \mathcal{D}$ .
5. A collection of sets  $\mathcal{C}$  is **hereditary** if  $U \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $W \subseteq U$  implies  $W \in \mathcal{C}$ .
6. The set of subsets of  $S$  that contain  $k$  elements is denoted by  $\mathcal{P}_k(S)$ . Clearly, for every set  $S$ , we have  $\mathcal{P}_0(S) = \{\emptyset\}$ . The set of all finite subsets of a set  $S$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{P}_{fin}(S) = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{P}_k(S)$ .
7. Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a collection of sets and let  $U$  be a set. The **trace** of the collection  $\mathcal{C}$  on the set  $U$  is the collection  $\mathcal{C}_U = \{U \cap C \mid C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ .

**Definition 1.1.5** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  be two collections of sets.

1.  $\mathcal{C} \vee \mathcal{D} = \{C \cup D \mid C \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and } D \in \mathcal{D}\}$ ,
2.  $\mathcal{C} \wedge \mathcal{D} = \{C \cap D \mid C \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and } D \in \mathcal{D}\}$ ,
3.  $\mathcal{C} - \mathcal{D} = \{C - D \mid C \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and } D \in \mathcal{D}\}$ .

Attention, unlike  $\cup$  and  $\cap$ , the operations  $\vee$  and  $\wedge$  between collections of sets are not idempotent. Indeed, we have, for example,

$$\mathcal{D} \vee \mathcal{D} = \{\{y\}, \{x, y\}, \{u, y, z\}, \{u, x, y, z\}\} \neq \mathcal{D}.$$

**Definition 1.1.6** A partition of a non-empty subsets of  $S$  that are pairwise disjoint and whose union equals  $S$ .

The members of  $\pi$  are referred to as the blocks of the partition  $\pi$ . The collection of partitions of a set  $S$  is denoted by  $PART(S)$ . A partition is finite if it has a finite number of blocks. The set of finite partitions of  $S$  is denoted by  $PART_{fin}(S)$ .

If  $\pi \in PART(S)$  then a subset  $T$  of  $S$  is  $\pi$ -saturated if it is a union of blocks of  $\pi$ .

## 1.2 Relations and Functions

**Definition 1.2.1** Let  $X, Y$  be two sets. A relation on  $X, Y$  is a subset  $\rho$  of the set product  $X \times Y$ . If  $X = Y = S$ , we refer to  $\rho$  as a relation on  $S$ . The relation  $\rho$  on  $S$  is:

- reflexive if  $(x, x) \in \rho$  for every  $x \in S$ ;
- irreflexive if  $(x, x) \notin \rho$  for every  $x \in S$ ;

- symmetric if  $(x, y) \in \rho$  implies  $(y, x) \in \rho$  for all  $x, y \in S$ ;
- antisymmetric if  $(x, y) \in \rho$  and  $(y, x) \in \rho$  imply  $x = y$  for all  $x, y \in S$ ;
- transitive if  $(x, y) \in \rho$  and  $(y, z) \in \rho$  imply  $(x, z) \in \rho$  for all  $x, y, z \in S$ .

A **partial order** on  $S$  is a relation  $\rho$  that belongs to  $\text{REFL}(S) \cap \text{ANTISYMM}(S) \cap \text{TRAN}(S)$ , that is, a relation that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

In current mathematical practice, we often write  $x\rho y$  instead on  $(x, y) \in \rho$ , where  $\rho$  is a relation of  $S$  and  $x, y \in S$ . This alternative way to denote the fact that  $(x, y)$  belongs to  $\rho$  is known as the infix notation.

**Definition 1.2.2** Let  $X, Y$  be two sets. A function (or a mapping) from  $X$  to  $Y$  is a relation  $f$  on  $X, Y$  such that  $(x, y), (x, y') \in f$  implies  $y = y'$ .

Let  $X, Y$  be two sets and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ .

The domain of  $f$  is the set

$$\text{Dom}(f) = \{x \in X \mid y = f(x) \text{ for some } y \in Y\}.$$

The range of  $f$  is the set

$$\text{Ran}(f) = \{y \in Y \mid y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in X\}.$$

**Definition 1.2.3** Let  $X$  be a set,  $Y = \{0, 1\}$  and let  $L$  be a subset of  $S$ . The characteristic function is discussed above. The indicator function of  $L$  is the function  $I_L : S \rightarrow \mathcal{R} \cup \infty$  defined by

$$I_L(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in L. \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for  $x \in S$ .

**Definition 1.2.4** A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is:

1. **injective or one-to-one** if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  implies  $x_1 = x_2$  for  $x_1, x_2 \in \text{Dom}(f)$ ;
2. **surjective or onto** if  $\text{Ran}(f) = Y$ ;
3. **total** if  $\text{Dom}(f) = X$ .

If  $f$  both injective and surjective, then it is a **bijective** function.

**Theorem 1.2.1** A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is injective if and only if there exists a function  $g : Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $g(f(x)) = x$  for every  $x \in \text{Dom}(f)$ .

A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is surjective if and only if there exists a function  $h : X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $f(h(y)) = y$  for every  $y \in Y$ .

Here we provide the proof for the latter theorem.

**Proof 1.2.1** Suppose that  $f$  is a surjective function. The collection  $\{f^{-1}(y) \mid y \in Y\}$  indexed by  $Y$  consists of non-empty sets. By the Axiom of Choice there exists a choice function for this collection, that is a function  $h : Y \rightarrow \bigcup_{y \in Y} f^{-1}(y)$  such that  $h(y) \in f^{-1}(y)$ , or  $f(h(y)) = y$  for  $y \in Y$ .

Conversely, suppose that there exists a function  $h : X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $f(h(y)) = y$  for every  $y \in Y$ . Then,  $f(x) = y$  for  $y = h(y)$ , which shows that  $f$  is surjective.

**The Axiom of Choice:** Let  $\mathcal{C} = \{C_i \mid i \in I\}$  be a collection of non-empty sets indexed by a set  $I$ . There exists a function  $\phi : I \rightarrow \bigcup \mathcal{C}$  (known as a choice function) such that  $\phi(i) \in C_i$  for each  $i \in I$ .

**Theorem 1.2.2** *There is a bijection  $\Psi : \mathcal{P}(S) \rightarrow (S \rightarrow \{0, 1\})$  between the set of subsets of  $S$  and the set of characteristic functions defined on  $S$ .*

**Definition 1.2.5** *A set  $S$  is indexed by a set  $I$  if there exists a surjection  $f : I \rightarrow S$ . In this case we refer to  $I$  as an index set.*

*If  $S$  is indexed by the function  $f : I \rightarrow S$  we write the element  $f(i)$  just as  $s_i$ , if there is no risk of confusion.*

**Definition 1.2.6** *A sequence of length  $n$  on a set  $X$  is a function  $x : \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} \rightarrow X$ .*

*At times, we will use the same term to designate a function  $x : \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \rightarrow X$ .*

*The set of sequence of length  $n$  on a set  $X$  is denoted by  $\text{Seq}_n(X)$ .*

*An infinite sequence, or simply, a sequence on a set  $X$  is a function  $x : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow X$ . The set of infinite sequences on  $X$  is denoted by  $\text{Seq}(X)$ .*

*Let  $S_0, \dots, S_{n-1}$  be  $n$  sets. An  $n$ -tuple on  $S_0, \dots, S_{n-1}$  is a function  $t : \{0, \dots, n-1\} \rightarrow S_0 \cup \dots \cup S_{n-1}$  such that  $t(i) \in S_i$  for  $0 \leq i \leq n-1$ . The  $n$ -tuple  $t$  is denoted by  $(t(0), \dots, t(n-1))$ .*

*The set of all  $n$ -tuples on  $S_0, \dots, S_{n-1}$  is referred to as the Cartesian product of  $S_0, \dots, S_{n-1}$  and is denoted by  $S_0 \times \dots \times S_{n-1}$ .*

The Cartesian product of a finite number of sets can be generalized for arbitrary families of sets. Let  $\mathcal{S} = \{S_i | i \in I\}$  be a collection of sets indexed by the set  $I$ . The Cartesian product of  $\mathcal{S}$  is the set of all functions of the form  $s : I \rightarrow \bigcup \mathcal{S}$  such that  $s(i) \in S_i$  for every  $i \in I$ . This set is denoted by  $\prod_{i \in I} S_i$ .

**Definition 1.2.7** *Let  $\mathcal{S} = \{S_i | i \in I\}$  be a collection of sets indexed by the set  $I$ . The  $j^{\text{th}}$  projection (for  $j \in I$ ) is the mapping  $p_j : \prod_{i \in I} S_i \rightarrow S_j$  defined by  $p_j(s) = s(j)$  for  $j \in I$ .*

*Let  $X, Y$  be two sets and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. If  $U \subseteq \text{Dom}(f)$ , the image of  $U$  under  $f$  is the set*

$$f(U) = \{y \in Y | y = f(u) \text{ for some } u \in U\}.$$

*If  $T \subseteq Y$ , the pre-image of  $T$  under  $f$  is the set  $f^{-1}(T) = \{x \in X | f(x) \in T\}$ .*

**Theorem 1.2.3** *Let  $X, Y$  be two sets and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. If  $V \subseteq Y$ , then  $X - f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(Y - V)$ .*

**Theorem 1.2.4** *Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. We have  $U \subseteq f^{-1}(f(U))$  for every subset  $U$  of  $X$  and  $f(f^{-1}(V)) \subseteq V$  for every subset  $V$  of  $Y$ .*

*Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. If  $U, V \subseteq \text{Dom}(f)$  we have  $f(U \cup V) = f(U) \cup f(V)$  and  $f(U \cap V) \subseteq f(U) \cap f(V)$ .*

*If  $S, T \subseteq \text{Ran}(f)$ , then  $f^{-1}(S \cup T) = f^{-1}(S) \cup f^{-1}(T)$  and  $f^{-1}(S \cap T) = f^{-1}(S) \cap f^{-1}(T)$ .*

**Theorem 1.2.5** *Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. We have  $U \subseteq f^{-1}(f(U))$  for every subset  $U$  of  $X$  and  $f(f^{-1}(V)) \subseteq V$  for every subset  $V$  of  $Y$ .*

### 1. Why does the image "shrink"?

**Reason:** The function may be a "partial mapping" or "not surjective."

- Given  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $V \subseteq Y$ , when computing  $f(f^{-1}(V))$ :
  - $f^{-1}(V)$  takes all elements in  $X$  that can be mapped to  $V$ .
  - However,  $f$  may not cover the entire  $Y$  (i.e.,  $f$  is not necessarily surjective), so  $f(f^{-1}(V))$  only contains the part of  $V$  that is *actually* mapped by  $f$ . Thus:

$$f(f^{-1}(V)) \subseteq V$$



- **Extreme cases:**

- If  $V$  is entirely outside the image of  $f$  (i.e.,  $V \cap f(X) = \emptyset$ ), then  $f^{-1}(V) = \emptyset$ , so  $f(f^{-1}(V)) = \emptyset \subseteq V$  (still holds but shrinks to the empty set).
- If  $f$  is surjective, then  $f(f^{-1}(V)) = V$  (equality holds).

## 2. Why does the preimage "expand"?

**Reason:** The function may be "many-to-one".

- Given  $U \subseteq X$ , when calculating  $f^{-1}(f(U))$ :

- $f(U)$  is the image of  $U$  in  $Y$ .
- $f^{-1}(f(U))$  takes all elements in  $X$  that can be mapped to  $f(U)$ .
- Since  $f$  may be "many-to-one", there may be additional  $x \notin U$  that are also mapped to  $f(U)$ , so:

$$U \subseteq f^{-1}(f(U))$$

- **Extreme cases:**

- If  $f$  is injective (one-to-one), then  $U = f^{-1}(f(U))$  (the equality holds).
- If  $f$  is a constant function (all  $x$  are mapped to the same  $y$ ), then  $f^{-1}(f(U)) = X$  (great expansion).

**Theorem 1.2.6** Let  $X, Y$  be two sets and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. If  $U \subseteq X$ , then  $\text{Ran}(f) - f(U) \subseteq f(\text{Dom}(f) - U)$ . If  $f$  is injective, then  $\text{Ran}(f) - f(U) = f(\text{Dom}(f) - U)$ .

**Theorem Statement:** All images not mapped by  $U$  must come from the mapping of  $X - U$ . If  $f$  is injective, then the two sets are exactly equal.

**Theorem 1.2.7** Let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be an injection. We have  $f(\overline{U}) = \overline{f(U)}$  for every subset  $U$  of  $X$ .

**Theorem 1.2.8** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. If  $V, W \subseteq Y$ , then  $f^{-1}(V - W) = f^{-1}(V) - f^{-1}(W)$ . Furthermore, if  $\mathcal{C} = \{C_i | i \in I\}$  is a collection of subsets of  $Y$  we have  $f^{-1}(\bigcap_{i \in I} C_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} f^{-1}(C_i)$  and  $f^{-1}(\bigcup_{i \in I} C_i) = \bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}(C_i)$ .

**Proof 1.2.2** Let  $x \in f^{-1}(V - W)$ . We have  $f(x) \in V$  and  $f(x) \notin W$ . Therefore,  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$  and  $x \notin f^{-1}(W)$ , so  $x \in f^{-1}(V) - f^{-1}(W)$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $x \in f^{-1}(V) - f^{-1}(W)$ , that is,  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$  and  $x \notin f^{-1}(W)$ . This means that  $f(x) \in V$  and  $f(x) \notin W$ , so  $f(x) \in V - W$ , which yields  $f(x) \in V - W$ . Thus,  $x \in f^{-1}(V - W)$ , which concludes the proof of the first equality.

The inverse image operation  $f^{-1}$  completely preserves all basic set operations:

- Difference set:  $f^{-1}(V - W) = f^{-1}(V) - f^{-1}(W)$
- Arbitrary intersection:  $f^{-1}(\bigcap_{i \in I} C_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} f^{-1}(C_i)$
- Arbitrary union:  $f^{-1}(\bigcup_{i \in I} C_i) = \bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}(C_i)$

**Definition 1.2.8** Let  $X, Y$  be two finite non-empty and disjoint sets and let  $\rho$  be a relation,  $\rho \subseteq X \times Y$ . A perfect matching for  $\rho$  is an injective mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  such that if  $y = f(x)$ , then  $(x, y) \in \rho$ .

For a subset  $A$  of  $X$  define the set  $\rho[A]$  as

$$\rho[A] = \{y \in Y | (x, y) \in \rho \text{ for some } x \in A\}.$$

**Theorem 1.2.9 (Hall's Perfect Matching Theorem):** Let  $X, Y$  be two finite non-empty and disjoint sets and let  $\rho$  be a relation,  $\rho \in X \times Y$ . There exists a perfect matching for  $\rho$  if and only if for every  $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  we have  $|\rho[A]| \geq |A|$ .

**Proof 1.2.3** The proof is by induction on  $|X|$ . If  $|X| = 1$ , the statement is immediate.

Suppose that the statement holds for  $|X| \leq n$  and consider a set  $X$  with  $|X| = n + 1$ . We need to consider two cases: either  $|\rho[A]| > |A|$  for every subset  $A$  of  $X$ , or there exists a subset  $A$  of  $X$  such that  $|\rho[A]| = |A|$ .

In the first case, since  $|\rho[\{x\}]| > 1$  there exists  $y \in Y$  such that  $(x, y) \in \rho$ .

Let  $X' = X - \{x\}$ ,  $Y' = Y - \{y\}$ , and let  $\rho' = \rho \cap (X' \times Y')$ . Note that for every  $B \subseteq X'$  we have  $|\rho'[B]| \geq |B| + 1$  because for every subset  $A$  of  $X$  we have  $|\rho[A]| \geq |A| + 1$  and deleting a single element  $y$  from  $\rho[A]$  still leaves at least  $|A|$  elements in this set. By the inductive hypothesis, there exists a perfect matching  $f'$  for  $\rho'$ . This matching extends to a matching  $f$  for  $\rho$  by defining  $f(x) = y$ .

In the second case, let  $A$  be a proper subset of  $X$  such that  $|\rho[A]| = |A|$ . Define the sets  $X', Y', X'', Y''$  as

$$\begin{aligned} X' &= A, & X'' &= X - A, \\ Y' &= \rho[A], & Y'' &= Y - \rho[A] \end{aligned}$$

and consider the relations  $\rho' = \rho \cap (X' \times Y')$ , and  $\rho'' = \rho \cap (X'' \times Y'')$ . We shall prove that there are perfect matchings  $f'$  and  $f''$  for the relations  $\rho'$  and  $\rho''$ . A perfect matching for  $\rho$  will be given by  $f' \cup f''$ .

Since  $A$  is a proper subset of  $X$  we have both  $|A| \leq n$  and  $|X - A| \leq n$ .

For any subset  $B$  of  $A$  we have  $\rho'[B] = \rho[B]$ , so  $\rho'$  satisfies the condition of the theorem and a perfect matching  $f'$  for  $\rho'$  exists.

Suppose that there exists  $C \subseteq X''$  such that  $|\rho''[C]| < |C|$ . This would imply  $|\rho[C \cup A]| < |C \cup A|$  because  $\rho[C \cup A] = \rho''[C] \cup \rho[A]$ , which is impossible. Thus,  $\rho''$  also satisfies the condition of the theorem and a perfect matching exists for  $\rho''$ .

**Implication:** The theorem reduces the problem of matching existence to verifying local constraints on every subset of the graph, bypassing the need for explicit matching construction.

### 1.3 Sequences and Collections of Sets

**Definition 1.3.1** A sequence of  $S = (S_0, S_1, \dots, S_n, \dots)$  is expanding if  $i < j$  implies  $S_i \subseteq S_j$  for every  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $i < j$  implies  $S_j \subseteq S_i$  for every  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ , then we say that  $S$  is a contracting sequence of sets. A sequence of sets is monotone if it is expanding or contracting.

**Definition 1.3.2** Let  $S$  be an infinite sequence of subsets of a set  $S$ , where  $S(i) = S_i$  for  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ .

The set  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \bigcap_{j=i}^{\infty} S_j$  is referred to as the lower limit of  $S$ ; the set  $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j=i}^{\infty} S_j$  is the upper limit of  $S$ . These two sets are denoted by  $\liminf S$  and  $\limsup S$ , respectively.

Clearly, we have  $\liminf S \subseteq \limsup S$ .

**Definition 1.3.3** A sequence of sets  $S$  is convergent if  $\liminf S = \limsup S$ . In this case the set  $L = \liminf S = \limsup S$  is said to be the limit of the sequence  $S$  and is denoted by  $\lim S$ .

Every expanding sequence of sets is convergent.

**Definition 1.3.4** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a collection of subsets of a set  $S$ . The collection  $\mathcal{C}_\sigma$  consists of all countable unions of members of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

The collection  $\mathcal{C}_\delta$  consists of all countable intersections of members of  $\mathcal{C}$ ,

$$\mathcal{C}_\sigma = \left\{ \bigcup_{n \geq 0} C_n \mid C_n \in \mathcal{C} \right\} \text{ and } \mathcal{C}_\delta = \left\{ \bigcap_{n \geq 0} C_n \mid C_n \in \mathcal{C} \right\}.$$

Observe that by taking  $C_n = C \in \mathcal{C}$  for  $n \geq 0$  it follows that  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_\sigma$  and  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_\delta$ . Furthermore, if  $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{C}'$  are two collections of subsets of  $S$  and  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{C}'$ , then  $\mathcal{C}_\sigma \subseteq \mathcal{C}'_\sigma$  and  $\mathcal{C}_\delta \subseteq \mathcal{C}'_\delta$ .