1 Lecture 1

1.1 Set theory

A simple random experiment - roll a fair die,

$$\Omega = \mathcal{S} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

Also, Ω , \mathcal{S} is sample space.

• Each event of interest can be describe by a subset of $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. For example,

 $A_1 =$ the outcome is odd $= \{1, 3, 5\},$

 $A_2 =$ the outcome is divisible by $3 = \{3, 6\},\$

 $A_3 =$ the outcome is prime $= \{2, 3, 5\}.$

- There are $C_6^0 + C_6^1 + C_6^2 + C_6^3 + C_6^4 + C_6^5 + C_6^6 = 2^6 = 64$ distinct subsets of Ω .
- In order to fully characterize a random experiment, we must know the probability of each of these sets.

1.2 Events

- Events are subsets of Ω .
- The collection of all events is called the event space,

$$\mathcal{F}(\Omega) = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{64}\}.$$

• Our random experiment is completely characterized by

$$\{\Omega, \mathcal{F}(\Omega), P(\cdot)\},\$$

where

$$P(\cdot): \mathcal{F}(\Omega) \to [0,1],$$

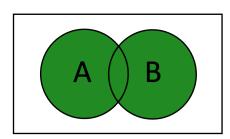
and assigns probability to each of the events.

1.3 Basic Set Theory

A set is simply a collection of objects. In any given problem, the set containing all possible elements of interest is called the universe, universal set, or space. We typically denote the space by Ω or \mathcal{S} .

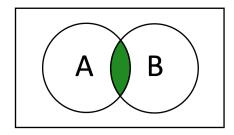
• The union of two sets A and B, denoted $A \cup B$, is defined as

$$A \cup B = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ or } \omega \in B \}.$$



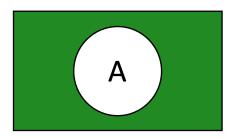
• The intersection of two sets A and B, denoted $A \cap B$, is defined as

$$A \cap B = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ and } \omega \in B \}.$$



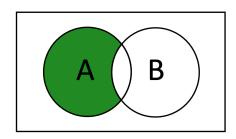
• The complement of a set A (with respect to Ω), denoted \overline{A}, A'', A^c , is defined as

$$\overline{A} = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \notin A \}.$$



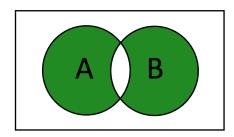
- The set containing no elements is called the <u>empty set</u> or <u>null set</u>, and is denoted by \varnothing or $\{\}$. (n.b. $\{\varnothing\}$ is not correct notation.)
- If two sets A and B have no elements in common, then $A \cap B = \emptyset$, and A and B are said to be disjoint.
- The set difference of two sets A and B is defined as

$$A - B = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ and } \omega \notin B \}$$
$$= A \cap \overline{B}.$$



 \bullet The symmetric difference of two sets A and B, is defined as

$$A\Delta B = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ or } \omega \in B, \text{ but not both. } \}$$
$$= (A \cup B) - (A \cap B)$$
$$= (A \cap \overline{B}) \cup (\overline{A} \cap B).$$



 \bullet Two sets A and B are equal if and only if they contain exactly the same elements.

$$\iff A = B \Leftrightarrow A \subset B \text{ and } B \subset A.$$

Proof,

 \Leftarrow

If $B \subset A$, then $\omega \in B \Rightarrow \omega \in A$, and if $A \subset B$, then $\omega \in A \Rightarrow \omega \in B$.

If both conditions hold, that means every element of B is an element of A, and every element of A is an element of B. (or say, A has no element that are not in B and B has no elements that are not in A.)

A and B have exactly the same elements, A = B.

From the definition of the subset, $A = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \}, B = \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in B \}.$

If A = B, every element of A is an element of B, $A \subset B$. Similarly, every element of B is an element of A, $B \subset A$.

1.4 Index sets \mathcal{I}

- Indexed collections of sets $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$, where \mathcal{I} is an index set.
- So $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$ is a "set of sets", or a family of sets, or a <u>collection of sets</u>.
- There is one and only one set A_i , for each $i \in \mathcal{I}$. For example,

$$\mathcal{I} = \{1, 2, 3\},\$$

$$A_1 = [0, 1] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; 0 \le x \le 1\},\$$

$$A_2 = [1, 2],\$$

$$A_3 = [2, 3],\$$

$${A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}} = {A_1, A_2, A_3} = {[0, 1], [1, 2], [2, 3]},$$

$$\bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} A_i = [0, 1] \cup [1, 2] \cup [2, 3].$$

Typical Index sets:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{N} &= \{1,2,3,\ldots\} = \text{ natural numbers }, \\ \mathbb{Z} &= \{\ldots-1,0,1,2,\ldots\} = \text{ integers }, \\ \mathbb{Z}_+ &= \{0,1,2,\ldots\} = \text{ non-negative integers }, \\ \mathbb{R} &= (-\infty,\infty), \\ \mathbb{I}_n &= \{0,1,2,\ldots,n-1\}. \end{split}$$

For another example,

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

There are 64 subsets, A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_{64} ,

 $\{A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_{64}\}$ is an indexed collection of sets.

- An index set \mathcal{I} is countable if it has an infinite number of elements and they can be put in one-to-one correspondance with the natural numbers \mathbb{I} .
- Given an indexed collection of sets $\{A_i; i \in \mathcal{I}\}$, the union of the family is

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \triangleq \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_i \text{ for at least one } i \in \mathcal{I} \}.$$

the intersection of the family is

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \triangleq \{ \omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_i \text{ for all } i \in \mathcal{I} \}.$$

For example,

Let $F_r = [0, 1/r), r \in (0, 1]$. Find

$$\bigcup_{r \in (0,1]} F_r \quad \text{and} \quad \bigcap_{r \in (0,1]} F_r.$$

Short answer,

$$\bigcup_{r \in (0,1]} F_r = \bigcup_{r \in (0,1]} [0,1/r) = \left\{ \omega : \omega \in [0,1/r) \text{ for at least one } r \in (0,1] \right\} = [0,\infty).$$

$$\bigcap_{r \in (0,1]} F_r = \bigcap_{r \in (0,1]} [0,1/r) = \{\omega : \omega \in [0,1/r) \text{ for all } r \in (0,1]\} = [0,1).$$

Algebra of Set Theory 1.5

There are 16 rules,

1.
$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$
.
2. $A \cap B = B \cap A$.
3. $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$.
4. $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$.

5.
$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$$
.
 $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$

```
5. A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C).
6. A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C). \} Distributive laws
```

7. $\overline{\overline{A}} = A$.

8.
$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
.
9. $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$. De Morgan's Laws

10. $\overline{S} = \emptyset$.

11.
$$A \cap S = A$$
.

12.
$$A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$$
.

13.
$$A \cup \mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S}$$
.

14.
$$A \cup \emptyset = A$$
.

15.
$$A \cup \bar{A} = \mathcal{S}$$
.

16.
$$A \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$$
.

Proof:

1) Union is commutative.

$$A \cup B \triangleq \{x \in \Omega : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

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

2) Intersection is commutative.

$$A \cap B \triangleq \{x \in \Omega : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$

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

3) Union is associative.

$$\begin{split} A \cup (B \cup C) &\triangleq \{x \in \Omega: & x \in A \text{ or } x \in (B \cup C)\} \\ &= \{x \in \Omega: & x \in A \text{ or } x \in B \text{ or } x \in C\} \\ &= \{x \in \Omega: & x \in (A \cup B) \text{ or } x \in C)\} \\ &= (A \cup B) \cup C. \end{split}$$

4) Intersection is associative.

$$A \cap (B \cap C) \triangleq \{x \in \Omega : x \in A \text{ and } x \in (B \cap C)\}$$

$$= \{x \in \Omega : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B \text{ and } x \in C\}$$

$$= \{x \in \Omega : x \in (A \cap B) \text{ and } x \in C)\}$$

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

5) Intersection is distributive over union.

Let
$$x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$$
. Then, $x \in A$ and $x \in (B \cup C)$,

 $\Rightarrow x \in A$ and at the same time, $x \in B$ or $x \in C$, possibly both,

 \Rightarrow either $x \in A$ and $x \in B$, or $x \in A$ and $x \in C$ (possibly both).

Hence,

$$x \in (A \cap B)$$
 or $x \in (A \cap C)$,

i.e. $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. So we have that

$$x \in A \cap (B \cup C) \Rightarrow x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C),$$

$$\Rightarrow A \cap (B \cup C) \subset (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C).$$

Next we assume that $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. Then, $x \in (A \cap B)$ or $x \in (A \cap C)$,

$$\Rightarrow x \in A$$
 in addition to being in B or C , or both, $\Rightarrow x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

This gives us that

$$x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \Rightarrow x \in A \cap (B \cup C),$$
$$\Rightarrow (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subset A \cap (B \cup C).$$

Combining the two results we have

$$A \cap (B \cup C) \subset (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$
 and $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subset A \cap (B \cup C)$
 $\Rightarrow A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C).$

6) Union is distributive over intersection.

Let $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$. Then, $x \in A$ or $x \in (B \cap C)$,

 \Rightarrow either $x \in A$, or $x \in B$ and $x \in C$, possibly both.

If $x \in A$, we have $x \in A \cup B$ and $x \in A \cup C$ both satisfied. If $x \in B \cap C$, we have $x \in B$ and $x \in C$. Then $x \in A \cup B$ and $x \in A \cup C$ both hold,

 \Rightarrow either $x \in A$ or $x \in B$ and at the same time, either $x \in A$ or $x \in C$,

$$\Rightarrow x \in (A \cup B)$$
, and $x \in (A \cup C)$,

i.e. $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$. So we have that

$$x \in A \cup (B \cap C) \Rightarrow x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C),$$
$$\Rightarrow A \cup (B \cap C) \subset (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C).$$

Next we assume that $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$. Then, $x \in (A \cup B)$ and $x \in (A \cup C)$. If $x \in A$, $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$ holds. If $x \notin A$, since $x \in (A \cup B)$ and $x \in (A \cup C)$, we have $x \in B$ and $x \in C$. It gives $x \in (B \cap C)$, related on $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$.

$$x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) \Rightarrow x \in A \cup (B \cap C),$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) \subset A \cup (B \cap C).$$

Combining the two results we have

$$A \cup (B \cap C) \subset (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$
 and $(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) \subset A \cup (B \cap C)$
 $\Rightarrow A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C).$

7)
$$\overline{\overline{A}} = \{x \in \Omega : \omega \notin \overline{A}\}$$

$$= \{x \in \Omega : \omega \in A\}$$

$$= A$$

8) De Morgan's Laws

$$x \in \overline{A \cap B} \Leftrightarrow x \notin A \cap B$$
, By definition of complement.
$$\Leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \text{ or } x \in \overline{B}, \text{ By definition of intersection and complement.}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}, \text{ By definition of union.}$$
 By definition of union.
$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}.$$

9) De Morgan's Laws

$$x \in \overline{A \cup B} \Leftrightarrow x \notin A \text{ and } x \notin B,$$
 By definition of union and complement.
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \text{ and } x \in \overline{B},$ By definition of complement.
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B},$ By definition of intersection.
 $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}.$

10) Here \mathcal{S} is the universal set. Based on the definition,

$$\overline{S} = \{ \omega \in \Omega(\Omega = S) : \omega \notin S \}.$$

The complement of the set S is the difference between the universal set S and set S itself. Obviously, no element satisfies this statement. The set containing no elements is empty set. Hence, $\overline{S} = \emptyset$.

11) Here S is the universal set. First we show that $A \cap S \subset A$. In general, the set resulting from the intersection of two sets is a subset of both of the sets. Let $x \in A \cap B$, x is an element of $A \cap B$.

$$x \in A \cap B \Rightarrow x \in A \text{ and } x \in B,$$
 By definition of intersection.
 $\Rightarrow x \in A,$
 $\Rightarrow A \cap B \subset A.$

Next, we want to show that $A \subset A \cap S$. Let $x \in A$, then $x \in S$ such that $x \in A$. Therefore, $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in (A \cap S) \Rightarrow A \subset A \cap S$. Since $A \cap S \subset A$ and $A \subset A \cap S$, we have that $A \cap S = A$.

12) First we show that $A \cap \emptyset \subset \emptyset$. We have shown in 11) that the set resulting from the intersection of two sets is a subset of both of the sets. Hence, $A \cap \emptyset \subset \emptyset$ holds.

Next, we want to show that $\emptyset \subset A \cap \emptyset$. Since every set contains the set itself and the empty set, the \emptyset is subset of a set resulting from $A \cap \emptyset$, i.e., $\emptyset \subset A \cap \emptyset$.

Since $A \cap \emptyset \subset \emptyset$ and $\emptyset \subset A \cap \emptyset$, we have $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$.

13) Here S is the universal set. First we show that $S \subset A \cup S$. In general, both of the sets are subsets of the set resulting from the union of two sets. Let $x \in B$, x is an element of B.

$$x \in B \Rightarrow x \in A \text{ or } x \in B,$$

 $\Rightarrow x \in A \cup B,$ By definition of union.
 $\Rightarrow B \subset A \cup B.$

Next, we want to show that $A \cup S \subset S$. Let $x \in A \cup S$, then $x \in S$ such that $x \in A$ or $x \in S$.

$$x \in A \cup S \Rightarrow x \in A \text{ or } x \in S$$
, By definition of union.
 $\Rightarrow x \in S$, By the case that A is subset of S .
 $\Rightarrow A \cup S \subset S$.

Since $S \subset A \cup S$ and $A \cup S \subset S$, we have that $A \cup S = S$.

14) First we show that $A \subset A \cup \emptyset$. We have shown in 13) that both of the sets are subsets of the set resulting from the union of two sets. Hence, $A \subset A \cup \emptyset$ holds.

Next, we want to show that $A \cup \emptyset \subset A$. Let $x \in A \cup \emptyset$, we have $x \in A$ or $x \in \emptyset$. Since no element exists in empty set, $x \in \emptyset$ is logically false. Hence, only $x \in A$ holds. It results in $x \in A \cup \emptyset \Rightarrow x \in A$.

Since $A \subset A \cup \emptyset$ and $A \cup \emptyset \subset A$, we have $A \cup \emptyset = A$.

15) First we show that $A \cup \overline{A} \subset \mathcal{S}$. We have shown in 13) that both of the sets are subsets of the set resulting from the union of two sets. Hence, $A \subset A \cup \overline{A} \Rightarrow A \subset \mathcal{S}$, and $\overline{A} \subset A \cup \overline{A} \Rightarrow \overline{A} \subset \mathcal{S}$. Let $x \in A \cup \overline{A}$, $x \in A$ or $x \in \overline{A}$, we all have $x \in \mathcal{S}$. $A \cup \overline{A} \subset \mathcal{S}$ holds.

Next, let $x \in \mathcal{S}$, for the statements x is an element of A, and x is not an element of A, only one statement is true. Hence, either $x \in A$ is true or $x \notin A$ is true, i.e., $x \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow x \in A$ or $x \notin A$. Hence, $\mathcal{S} \subset A \cup \overline{A}$.

Since $A \cup \overline{A} \subset \mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{S} \subset A \cup \overline{A}$, we have $A \cup \overline{A} = \mathcal{S}$.

16) First we show that $A \cap \overline{A} \subset \emptyset$. Let $x \in A \cap \overline{A}$,

$$x \in A \cap \overline{A} \Rightarrow x \in A \text{ and } x \in \overline{A}$$

 $\Rightarrow x \in A \text{ and } x \notin A$
 $\Rightarrow \text{no element satisfies both statement.}$

Since no element exists in empty set, such statement result in a set contain no element, i.e., $A \cap \overline{A} \subset \emptyset$ holds.

Next, we want to show that $\emptyset \subset A \cap \overline{A}$. Since every set contains the set itself and the empty set, the \emptyset is subset of a set resulting from $A \cap \overline{A}$, i.e., $\emptyset \subset A \cap \overline{A}$.

Since $A \cap \overline{A} \subset \emptyset$ and $\emptyset \subset A \cap \overline{A}$, we have $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$.

[Ref]:

R. G. Bartle, D. R. Sherbert, "Sets and Functions" in "Introduction to Real Analysis", 3rd Edition, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 2000. ch 1, pp 3.

W. Rudin, "Basic Topology" in "Principles of Mathematical Analysis", 3rd Edition, McGraw-Hill Inc. ch 2, pp 28.