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3.4 The Power Set

Task: Understand what the power set of a set A is.

Definition: Let A be a set. The power set of A denoted $P(A)$ is the collection of all subsets of A .

Recall: $\emptyset \subseteq A$. It is also clear from the definition of a subset that $A \subseteq A$.

Examples:

1. $A = \{0, 1\}$
 $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$
2. $A = \{a, b, c\}$
 $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$
3. $A = \emptyset$
 $P(A) = \{\emptyset\}$
 $P(P(A)) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$

NB: \emptyset and $\{\emptyset\}$ are different objects. \emptyset has no elements, whereas $\{\emptyset\}$ has one element.

Remark: $P(A)$ and A are viewed as living in separate worlds to avoid phenomena like Russell's paradox.

Q: If A has n elements, how many elements does $P(A)$ have?

A: 2^n

Theorem: Let A be a set with n elements, then $P(A)$ contains 2^n elements.

Proof: Based on the on/off switch idea.

$\forall x \in A$, we have two choices: either we include x in the subset or we don't (on vs off switch). A has n elements \Rightarrow we have 2^n subsets of A .

qed

Alternate Proof: Using mathematical induction.

NB: It is an axiom of set theory (in the ZFC standard system) that every set has a power set, which implies no set consisting of all possible sets could exist, else what would its power set be?

3.5 Cartesian Products

Task: Understand sets like \mathbb{R}^1 in a more theoretical way.

Recall from Calculus:

$$\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^1 \ni x$$

$$\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2 \ni (x_1, x_2)$$

\vdots

$$\underbrace{\mathbb{R} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R}}_{n \text{ times}} = \mathbb{R}^n \ni (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

These are examples of Cartesian products.

Definition: Let A, B be sets. The Cartesian product denoted by $A \times B$ consists of all ordered pairs (x, y) s.t. $x \in A \wedge y \in B$, **i.e.**

$$A \times B = \{(x, y) \mid x \in A \wedge y \in B\}$$

Further Examples:

1. $A = \{1, 3, 7\}$

$B = \{1, 5\}$

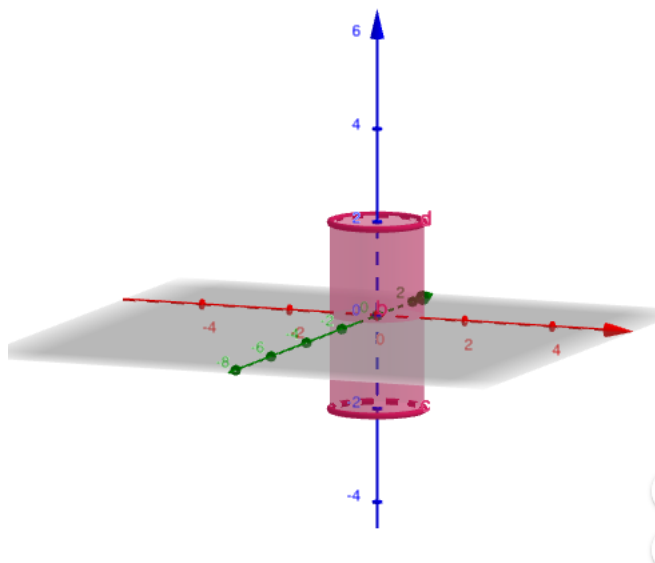
$A \times B = \{(1, 1), (1, 5), (3, 1), (3, 5), (7, 1), (7, 5)\}$

NB: The order in which elements in a pair matters: $(7, 1)$ is different from $(1, 7)$. This is why we call (x, y) an ordered pair.

2. $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\} \leftarrow$ circle of radius 1

$B = \{z \in \mathbb{R} \mid -2 \leq z \leq 2\} = [-2, 2] \leftarrow$ closed interval

$A \times B \leftarrow$ cylinder of radius 1 and height 4



3.5.1 Cardinality (number of elements) in a Cartesian product

If A has m elements and B has p elements, $A \times B$ has mp elements.

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned}
1. \quad \#(A) &= 3 & A &= \{1, 3, 7\} \\
\#(B) &= 2 & B &= \{1, 5\} \\
\#(A \times B) &= 3 \times 2 = 6
\end{aligned}$$

2. Both A and B are infinite sets, so $A \times B$ is infinite as well.

Remark: We can define Cartesian products of any length, **e.g.** $A \times A \times B \times A$, $B \times A \times B \times A \times B$, etc. If all sets are finite, the number of elements is the product of the numbers of elements of each factor. If $\#(A) = 3$ and $\#(B) = 2$ as above, $\#(A \times B \times A) = 3 \times 2 \times 3 = 18$ and $\#(B \times A \times B) = 2 \times 3 \times 2 = 12$.