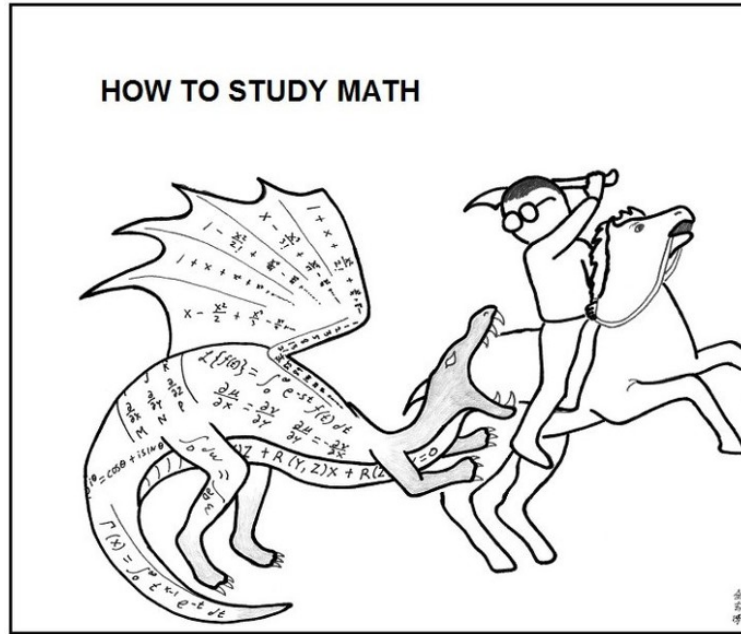


Appendix

In this “*Appendix*”, we try to provide some preliminary knowledge for our **Lectures**, which could be more than necessary while the students may want to read when the need arises.



Don't just read it; fight it!

— Paul R. Halmos

1 Basic Set Theory

This section follows closely *Halmos's* book, as he puts in the *Preface*, “Every mathematician agrees that every mathematician must know some set theory if you want to be a mathematician, you need some, and here it is; read it, absorb it, and forget it.” For the purpose of complementing our **Lecture notes**, we would only need to manipulate the *set operations*, so for example, the *Partial Ordering*, *Axiom of Choice*, *Zorn's Lemma*, *Schröder-Bernstein's Theorem* are not covered here. We send interested students to *Halmos's* book.

★ ★ ★**Reference.** Paul R. Halmos, *Naive Set Theory*, Graduate Texts in Mathematics, Springer.

A group of students, a basket of eggs, or a list of all possible results obtained from an experiment, are all examples of sets of things. To avoid terminological monotony, we sometimes say *collection*, *class* or *space* instead of *set*. The things that a *set* contains are called *members* or *elements*. Usually, we use capital letter A , B , etc, to denote the sets while we write lower-case ones for the elements. For example, $A = \{a, b, c\}$ means A is a set of three elements a , b , c . If a set contains nothing, *i.e.* no element, we call it an *empty set*, denoted by \emptyset . For a nonempty set A , we write $a \in A$ to indicate a is an element in the set A or a belongs to

A , where \in is the fifth letter of Greek alphabet. One should also note that $\{1, 3\} = \{3, 1\}$, that is, *the order of elements in a set does not matter*.

Definition 1.1. Given two nonempty sets A and B , we say A is contained in B or B contains A if for any $a \in A$, $a \in B$. And we call A is a subset of B and write $A \subset B$ or $B \supset A$. Moreover, A is called a **proper subset** of B if in addition, $A \neq B$, in this case we write $A \subsetneq B$.

Notation. We write \forall to denote “for any” or “for all” ; $A \subset B$ if $\forall a \in A$, $a \in B$.

Remark 1.2. One can see that \emptyset is a subset of any set; $A = B$ if and only if $A \subset B$ and $B \subset A$. Please note that this is a basic principle to show the equality between two sets. ◀

One can get a subset from a given set A by specifying some certain condition or property, for example $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, +\infty)$ is the set of real numbers, we define a subset B of \mathbb{R} as follows

$$B = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x| \leq 1\},$$

that is, we collect the elements $x \in \mathbb{R}$ that satisfy the condition “absolute value of x is not greater than 1” to form a new set B . Clearly, $B = [-1, 1]$. Usually the “condition” could be simply a sentence.

Definition 1.3. Given a collection \mathcal{C} of sets, there exists a set Y such that if $x \in X$ for some $X \in \mathcal{C}$, then $x \in Y$ and if $x \in Y$, then $x \in X$ for some $X \in \mathcal{C}$. Such a set Y is called the **union** of the collection \mathcal{C} . And we write

$$Y = \bigcup_{X \in \mathcal{C}} X.$$

Convention. If $\mathcal{C} = \emptyset$, $Y = \emptyset$.

Example 1.4. Let $A = \{1, 2, \text{apple}\}$ and $B = \{1, \text{strawberry}, a, b\}$, then the union of A and B , denoted by $A \cup B$, is equal to $\{1, 2, \text{apple}, \text{strawberry}, a, b\}$.

Attention! The number 1 is very different from the set $\{1\}$. Think about the following analogy: a box that contains a hat and nothing else is not the same thing as a hat. So similarly, $\{1\} \neq \{\{1\}\}$, the latter is a large box that contains a smaller box with a hat inside (the smaller box)!

Remark 1.5. $\emptyset \cup A = A$ for any set A . In general, for two given sets A, B , $A \subset B$ if and only if $A \cup B = B$. ◀

Definition 1.6. Given a collection \mathcal{C} of sets, there exists a set Z such that

- $x \in Z$ if and only if $x \in X$ for each $X \in \mathcal{C}$; **or**
- $Z = \emptyset$ and sets in \mathcal{C} have no common elements.

In other words, Z is a set of common elements of sets in \mathcal{C} . Such a set Z is called the **intersection**¹ of the collection \mathcal{C} . And we write

$$Z = \bigcap_{X \in \mathcal{C}} X.$$

Remark 1.7. To continue with *Example 1.4.*, $A \cap B = \{1\}$. To continue with *Remark 1.5.*, we have $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$; $A \subset B$ if and only if $A \cap B = A$. ◀

¹The existence of intersection, as well as the union is stated as an **axiom**.

Here are some easily proved facts about unions and intersections of sets:

- $A \cup B = B \cup A$; $A \cap B = B \cap A$.
- $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$; $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$.
- $A \cup A = A$; $A \cap A = A$.
- $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$; $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.

Definition 1.8. If A and B are two sets, the *relative complement* of B in A or *set difference* of A in B is the set $A \setminus B$ defined by

$$A \setminus B = \{x \in A : x \notin B\} .$$

Notation. We also write exchangeably $A - B$ for $A \setminus B$. $x \notin B$ means that x does not belong to B .

Now we consider a *universal* space U , we call $A^c := U \setminus A$ the *complement* of A in U , where $A \subset U$.

Here are some easily proved facts about complementation and set difference: If $A, B, C \subset U$,

- $(A^c)^c = A$; $\emptyset^c = U$; $U^c = \emptyset$; $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$; $A \cup A^c = U$.
- $A - B = A \cap B^c$; $A \subset B$ if and only if $A - B = \emptyset$.
- $(A - B) - C = (A - C) - B$ but in general, $(A - B) - C \neq A - (B - C)$; $A - (A - B) = A \cap B$.
- $A \subset B$ if and only if $B^c \subset A^c$; $A \cap (B - C) = (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$.
- $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$; $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$. A generalization of these two equalities is called the **De Morgan's Law**: let $(A_i, i \in I)$ be a collection of sets, B be a set, then

$$B \cup \left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (B \cup A_i) ; \quad B \cap \left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \right) = \bigcup_{i \in I} (B \cap A_i) .$$

Note that these facts can be easily proved and we suggest students do the exercises instead of simply memorizing them. One can use the *Venn Diagram* to grasp some intuition, for instance, see below :

