

2 An Introduction to the Theory of Sets

Intuitively, the word “set” is meant to describe a “collection of things.” The way that we will *formally* describe what sets are and what properties they have is by introducing the *axioms of set theory*. Before we get to the point where we can write and understand the axioms, we need to establish a couple of things.

In formal contexts, we will primarily speak using the *first-order logic*. A *first-order theory*¹ is a formal language built upon the first-order logic by establishing a *universe of discourse*, introducing *predicate symbols*,^{2,3} and then writing down *axioms*⁴ that describe the basic truths.⁵ Since we are no longer doing logic *per se*, and thanks to the many theorems we proved about the first-order logic, we will now switch away from using the \equiv and \vdash symbols, which are not typically used by mathematicians. When referring to *logical equivalences* and *biconditionals*, we will now consolidate the \equiv and \leftrightarrow symbols into the \Leftrightarrow symbol. Similarly, when referring to *entailments* or *conditionals*, we replace the \vdash and \rightarrow symbols by the \Rightarrow symbol.

There are two special *meta-symbols* that we will use for introducing new *definitions*. When we want to define a new kind of object, we use the $:=$ symbol; this can be used in one of two ways. If, in the context of something like a proof or an article, we want to give the label x to the number 5, we would use the syntax $x := 5$. This is usually understood to be a temporary label that only exists for the context of “the discussion,” whatever it may be; that way, we could reuse the symbol for a different definition like $x := 6$ in a *different* proof or article. However, within a context (e.g., a proof), once a symbol has been defined to mean something, you *can not modify what it means*. If you define $x := 5$ at the top of your proof, you can’t then change your mind within the same proof and “*update*” x to be $5 + 1$. This is one important way in which mathematics has different *semantics* to programming.⁶ The other way this can be used is to define a *general operation*. For example, we will soon define what the *union of two sets is*: given two sets A and B , we define their union to be $A \cup B := \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}$.⁷

When we want to introduce a new *predicate*, we use the $:\Leftrightarrow$ symbol. We will see examples of this below when we introduce the basic predicate symbols of set theory.

2.1 Equality

Our first fundamental predicate is called *equality*, denoted by the $=$ symbol. Given two terms x and y , the syntax for using this predicate looks like either $x = y$ or $x \neq y$.

$$x = y \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad x \text{ and } y \text{ refer to the same object}$$

$$x \neq y \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \neg(x = y)$$

This predicate has three important properties that, despite probably being “*obvious*” to those with prior experience using this symbol, we will formalize explicitly below.

1. $\forall x(x = x)$. *Reflexivity*
2. $\forall x \forall y(x = y \Rightarrow y = x)$. *Symmetry*
3. $\forall x \forall y \forall z((x = y \wedge y = z) \Rightarrow x = z)$. *Transitivity*

The significance of these properties is that, whenever we have two terms x and y such that $x = y$, we can *replace* any occurrence of x with y (and *vice versa*).

¹... like ZFC set theory...

²... and their properties...

³In other contexts, it may also be important to introduce *functional symbols* and *constant symbols*.

⁴... which are first-order sentences written in terms of the predicate (and possibly other) symbols...

⁵In the same way that *predicate symbols* transform terms into truth values, *functional symbols* transform terms into other terms. *Constant symbols* are just constant terms that are considered important enough to specify upfront for the whole theory.

⁶... unless you’re working with a pure (usually functional) programming language (e.g., Agda, Haskell, Idris, Lean) in which state is *immutable*...

⁷We don’t understand what this means yet; that’s okay. This was just meant to showcase how we use $:=$ to define a new operation that takes objects as inputs and produces objects as outputs.

2.2 Elementhood

Since “sets” are meant to be “collections of things,” our second fundamental predicate helps us describe when one object is “inside of” another one. This predicate is usually called *elementhood*, denoted by the \in symbol. Given two terms x and y , the syntax for using this predicate looks like either $x \in y$ or $x \notin y$.

$$x \in y \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad x \text{ is an element of } y$$

$$x \notin y \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \neg(x \in y)$$

... in other words, x is “contained physically inside of” y ...

This predicate doesn’t have any stand-alone properties like equality does. Instead, we will understand how \in works based on how it interacts with the $=$ symbol. We will encode this understanding formally by introducing some new *notation* and some *axioms for set theory*.

2.3 Notation

Given finitely many terms x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} , we introduce the notation $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ to denote the set containing exactly those elements x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} . This is sometimes called *set roster notation* or *set builder notation*.⁸ We define below what this notation formally means by explaining what it means for an arbitrary term x to be an *element* of the set described by the $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$ notation.

$$x \in \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\} \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad (x = x_0) \vee (x = x_1) \vee \dots \vee (x = x_{n-1})$$

For example, consider three objects a, b , and c . Then, for any x , we say $x \in \{a, b, c\}$ is equivalent to saying $x = a$ or $x = b$ or $x = c$. The biggest restriction of this notation is that *there can only be finitely many elements*, and they must *all be written out explicitly* between the brackets. Trying to describe a set by writing an expression that looks like $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 127\}$ is an *abuse of notation* and is fundamentally *informal*.

The above notation is clearly cumbersome when dealing with a set containing a “large” amount of elements and can not be used at all when describing “infinite” sets.

2.4 The Axiom of “Infinity” (Informal)

The only existentially quantified axiom we will introduce, which we call the *Axiom of Infinity*, is unfortunately an axiom that we are not yet ready to fully understand or appreciate. We will instead introduce this axiom *informally* for now; when we are ready, after studying the rest of the relevant axioms of set theory, we will come back to this.

Axiom o: Infinity (Informal).

The “set of all natural numbers” exists.

We use the symbol \mathbb{N} to refer to this “set of all natural numbers,” and *informally speaking* it looks like $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. We will revisit this in more detail later.

2.5 The Axiom of Extensionality

Our first significant axiom begins formalizing what the elementhood predicate \in means in terms of equality $=$ by asserting that *sets are equal when they have the same elements*.

⁸... though in most other contexts, “set builder notation” is actually synonymous with “set comprehension notation” as we later describe it...

Axiom 1: Extensionality.

$$\forall x \forall y (x = y \Leftrightarrow \forall z (z \in x \Leftrightarrow z \in y)).$$

In English, this says that, given two sets x and y , we determine $x = y$ if and only if every element of x is also an element of y and *vice versa*. For example, the sets $\{0, 0, 1, 2\}$ and $\{2, 1, 0\}$ are equal because they each contain *all* and *only* the elements 0, 1, and 2.

Given two sets x and y , we define x to be a *subset* of y when every element of x is also an element of y . Formally, we say $x \subseteq y \Leftrightarrow \forall z (z \in x \Rightarrow z \in y)$. You might now be able to notice that this definition is closely related to the Axiom of Extensionality.

Theorem 2.1.

$$\forall x \forall y (x = y \Leftrightarrow (x \subseteq y \wedge y \subseteq x)).$$

Proof. Let x and y be sets. Suppose $x = y$ and let z be an arbitrary set. Then, by the *axiom of extensionality*, we know $z \in x \Leftrightarrow z \in y$. This means $z \in x \Rightarrow z \in y$, and also $z \in y \Rightarrow z \in x$. Clearly, since z was arbitrary, we can then say $\forall w (w \in x \Rightarrow w \in y)$ and $\forall w (w \in y \Rightarrow w \in x)$. Therefore, $x \subseteq y$ and $y \subseteq x$ by definition.

Now, in the other direction, suppose $x \subseteq y$ and $y \subseteq x$ and let z be an arbitrary set. By definition, we know $\forall w (w \in x \Rightarrow w \in y)$, so that $z \in x \Rightarrow z \in y$. Similarly, we know $\forall w (w \in y \Rightarrow w \in x)$ by definition, so that $z \in y \Rightarrow z \in x$. Thus, $z \in x \Leftrightarrow z \in y$. Since z was arbitrary, we can then say $\forall w (w \in x \Leftrightarrow w \in y)$, from which we conclude $x = y$ by the *axiom of extensionality*.

$$\text{Therefore, } x = y \Leftrightarrow (x \subseteq y \wedge y \subseteq x).$$

QED

We will demonstrate that $x = y \Leftrightarrow (x \subseteq y \wedge y \subseteq x)$ by showing the *forward* and *backward* directions separately.

2.6 The Axiom of Pairing

Our next axiom encodes something that should feel very intuitive based on the idea that sets are “*collections of things*.” If we take two things that we know exist (because they’re objects in our universe of discourse), we should be able to put those two things together in a collection by themselves, and that collection should exist. In other words, we should be allowed to construct *unordered pairs* of things.

Axiom 2: Pairing.

$$\forall x \forall y \exists z (z = \{x, y\}).$$