# ENEE 620 RANDOM PROCESSES IN COMMUNICATION AND CONTROL FALL 2016

#### **SET THEORY:**

#### Basic notation.

The set of integers and the set of non-negative integers are denoted by  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{N}$ , respectively. So

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

and

$$\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \ldots\} = \{z \in \mathbb{Z} : z \ge 0\}.$$

It is sometimes convenient to write  $\mathbb{N}_0$  to denote the set of all positive integers, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{N}_0 = \{1, 2, \ldots\} = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n > 0\}.$$

Also, we use  $\mathbb{R}$  to denote the collection of *all* real numbers – Think of  $\mathbb{R}$  as the real line. We shall write  $\mathbb{R}_+$  to denote the set of all non-negative real numbers, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{R}_+ = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : \ x \ge 0 \}.$$

#### Countable vs. non-countable \_

A set S is said to be *countable* if there exists an *injective* mapping  $T: S \to \mathbb{N}$  – To be injective means that if T(x) = T(y) for x and y in S, then x = y necessarily. Put differently, it is not possible for  $x \neq y$  in S to satisfy T(x) = T(y). In some literature, an injective mapping is also known as a *one-to-one* mapping. A set said that is *not* countable is said to be *uncountable*!

If S is countable, then the cardinality |S| of S is either finite or infinite. If |S| is finite, say |S| = n for some non-negative integer n, we say that S is a finite set and we can represent it as  $\{x_i, i = 1, \ldots, n\}$  by labeling its elements. If  $|S| = \infty$ , then S is said to be *countably infinite*, and we now represent it as  $\{x_i, i \in I\}$  by indexing the elements of S through the index set I (which per force has to be countably infinite as well). Usually, but not always, I is taken to be  $\mathbb{N}$  or  $\mathbb{N}_0$ .

It is easy to check the following: The sets  $\{1, \ldots, m\}$  with  $m = 1, 2, \ldots$ , the set  $\mathbb{Z}$  of all integers and the set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of all rationals are countable sets, the last two

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being countably infinite. The unit interval [0,1], the real line  $\mathbb{R}$  and the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are not countable.

#### De Morgan's laws

Let E be an arbitrary set. If  $\{A_i, i \in I\}$  is a collection of subsets of E, i.e.,  $A_i \subseteq E$  for each i in I, then

$$(\bigcup_{i\in I} A_i)^c = \bigcap_{i\in I} A_i^c$$

and

$$(\cap_{i\in I} A_i)^c = \cup_{i\in I} A_i^c$$

These two facts together are known as De Morgan's laws.

### Distributivity

Let E be an arbitrary set. If  $\{A_i, i \in I\}$  is a collection of subsets of E, then for any subset B of E, we have

$$B \cap (\cup_{i \in I} A_i) = \cup_{i \in I} (B \cap A_i)$$

and

$$B \cup (\cap_{i \in I} A_i) = \cap_{i \in I} (B \cup A_i)$$
.

## Inverting mappings \_

Consider a mapping  $a: E \to F$  where E and F are arbitrary sets. We refer to E and F as the domain and range of a, respectively.

For each y in F, define

$$a^{-1}(y) = \{x \in E : a(x) = y\}.$$

The set  $a^{-1}(y)$  is a subset of E and is often called the *pre-image* of y; it is the set of all elements in E that map to y. Of course it is possible to have  $a^{-1}(y) = \emptyset$ .

More generally, we define

$$a^{-1}(A) = \{ x \in E : a(x) \in A \}, A \subseteq F.$$

Note that

$$a^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset.$$

#### **Properties of inverting mappings**

Consider a mapping  $a: E \to F$  where E and F are arbitrary sets. If  $\{A_i, i \in I\}$  is a collection of subsets of F, then the following facts hold:

(i) We have

$$a^{-1}(\bigcup_{i\in I} A_i) = \bigcup_{i\in I} a^{-1}(A_i)$$

and

$$a^{-1}(\cap_{i\in I}A_i) = \cap_{i\in I}a^{-1}(A_i)$$
.

(ii) If the sets  $\{A_i, i \in I\}$  are *pairwise disjoint*, then the sets  $\{a^{-1}(A_i), i \in I\}$  are also pairwise disjoint: Indeed, pick distinct i and j in I. By assumption, the sets are pairwise disjoint, i.e.,

$$A_i \cap A_i = \emptyset.$$

As a result,

(1) 
$$a^{-1}(A_i) \cap a^{-1}(A_i) = a^{-1}(A_i \cap A_i) = a^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset,$$

and the sets  $a^{-1}(A_i)$  and  $a^{-1}(A_j)$  are therefore disjoint.

(iii) Mapping inversion and complementarity commute as we have

$$a^{-1}(A^c) = (a^{-1}(A))^c, \quad A \subseteq F.$$

This is a simple consequence of (ii) as we note the following: Since  $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$ , we have  $a^{-1}(A) \cap a^{-1}(A^c) = \emptyset$ . It then follows that  $a^{-1}(A^c) \subseteq (a^{-1}(A))^c$