EDUCATALYSTS

Class(12th)

Introduction to Set Theory

1«1.1 Definitions

A set is a well-deflned class or collection of objects. By a well detined collection we mean that there exists a rule with the help of which it is possible to tell whether a given object belongs or does not belong to the given collection. The objects in sets may be anything, numbers, people, mountains, rivers etc. The objects constituting the set are called elements or members of the set.

A set is often described in the following two ways.

(1) Roster method or Listing method : In this method a set is described by listing elements, separated by commas, within braces {}. The set of vowels of English alphabet may be described as {a, e, *i, o, u}.*

***The* set of even natural numbers can be described as <2, 4, 6......................................}. Here the dots stand for •and so on*.**

The order in which the elements are written in a set makes no difference. Thus {a, e, i, o, u} and {e, a, i, o, u} denote the same set. Also the repetition of an element has no effect. For example, {1, 2, 3, 2} is the same set as {1, 2, 3}

(2) Set-builder method or Rule method : In this method, a set is described by a characterizing property P(x) of its elements *x*. In such a case the set is described by *{x* : P(x) holds} or *{x* | P(x) holds}, which is read as 'the set of all *x* such that *P(x)* holds'. The symbol T or is read as 'such that'.

The set *E of* all even natural numbers can be written as E = {x | x is natural number and x = 2n for n e *N}* or *E = {x \ x e N, x = 2n, n e N}*

or *E = {x e N \ x = 2n, n e N}*

The *set A* = {0.1,4.9.16_______....) can be written as A = |x^2| *x* G *Z)*

Symbols

Symbol	Meaning
	Implies
€	Belongs to
AaB	A is a subset of *B*
co	Implies and is implied by

Symbol	Meaning
	Does not belong to
s.t.	Such that
v	For every
3	There exists
iff	If and only if
&	And
a | *b*	a is a divisor of *b*
N	Set of natural numbers
I or Z	Set of integers
R	Set of real numbers
C	Set of complex numbers
Q	Set of rational numbers

Example: 1 The set of intelligent students in a class is (a) A null set (AMU 1998]

(b) A singleton set

(c) A finite set

(d) Not a well defined collection

Solution: (d) Since, intelligency is not defined for students in a class *i.e”* Not a well defined collection.

1.1.2 Types of Sets

(1) **Null set or Empty set:** The set which contains no element at all is called the null set. This set is sometimes also called the "empty set" or the "void set". It is denoted by the symbol ♦ or {}.

A set which has at least one element is called a non-empty set.

Let A = {x:.r^2 + 1 = Oand *x* is real)

Since there is no real number which satisfies the equation x ’ +1 = 0, therefore the set *A* is empty set.

“Olf *A* and *B* are any two empty sets, then x e *A* iff x e B is satisfied because there is no element *x* in either *A* or *B* to which the condition may be applied. Thus *A* = *B*. Hence, there is only one empty set and we denote it by ♦. Therefore, article 'the' is used before empty set.

(2) **Singleton set:** A set consisting of a single element is called a singleton set. The set {5} is a singleton set.

(3) **Finite set:** A set is called a finite set if it is either void set or its elements can be listed (counted, labelled) by natural number 1, 2, 3, ... and the process of listing terminates at a certain natural number n (say).

Cardinal number of a finite set: The number n in the above definition is called the cardinal number or order of a finite set *A* and is denoted by *n(A)* or O(A).

(4) **Infinite set:** A set whose elements cannot be listed by the natural numbers 1, 2, 3 ____________ *n, for* any natural number n is called an infinite set.

(5) **Equivalent set**: Two finite sets *A* and *B* are equivalent if their cardinal numbers are same *i.e. n(A)* = *n(B).*

Example: 4 = |1.3.5.7); e = {10, 12.14,16) are equivalent sets *[• : 0(A) = 0(B) = 4*

(6) **Equal set**: Two sets *A* and *B* are said to be equal *iff every* element of X is an element of *B* and also every element of *B* is an element of *A*. We write *“A* = B” if the sets *A* and *B* are equal and “A * B" if the sets *A* and *B* are not equal. Symbolically, *A* = *B if xeAoxeB.*

The statement given in the definition of the equality of two sets is also known as the axiom of extension.

Example: If A = (2.3.5.6) and B = (6.S.3.2). Then $A = B$, because each element of ^4 is an element of B and vice-versa.

: □ Equal sets are always equivalent but equivalent sets may need not be equal set.

(7) **Universal set**: A set that contains all sets in a given context is called the universal set.

or

A set containing of all possible elements which occur in the discussion is called a universal set and is denoted by U.

Thus in any particular discussion, no element can exist out of universal set. It should be noted that universal set is not unique. It may differ in problem to problem.

(8) **Power set** : If S is any set, then the family of all the subsets of S is called the power set of S.

The power set of S is denoted by P(S). Symbolically, P(S) = {T : Tc S}. Obviously ♦ and S are both elements of P(S).

Example : Let S = (a, *b, c}*, then P(S) = {/, {a}, *{b}*, {c}, {a, *b}, {a, c}, {b*, c}, {a, *b, c}}*. : □ *If A* then *P(A)*has one element ♦, .-.

n|P(A)| = I

□ Power set of a given set is always non-empty.

□ If A has n elements, then *P(A)* has *2"* elements. □

Hence = 4 .

(9) **Subsets (Set inclusion)** : Let A and B be two sets. If every element of A is an element of B, then A is called a subset of B.

If A is subset of B, we write A Q B, which is read as "A is a subset of B" or "A is contained in B".

Thus, *AQB^>aeA=^aeB.*

: □ Every set is a subset of itself.

- The empty set is a subset of every set.
- The total number of subset of a finite set containing n elements is 2".

Proper and improper subsets: If A is a subset of *B* and A * B, then A is a proper subset of *B.* We write this as *Ac.B.*

The null set ♦ is subset of every set and every set is subset of itself, *i.e., /czA* and *AaA* for every set *A.* They are called improper subsets of *A.* Thus every non-empty set has two improper subsets. It should be noted that ♦ has only one subset ♦ which is improper. Thus *A* has two improper subsets iff it is non-empty.

All other subsets of *A* are called its proper subsets. Thus, if A c B. <4 * B, X * , then *A* is said to be proper subset of *B.*

Example: Let A = {1.2}. Then *A* has ^;{1|.(2}.{1,2) as its subsets out of which ♦ and {1, 2} are improper and {1} and {2}

Example: *2* Which of the following is the empty set (Karnataka CBT 1990)

(a) (J is a real number and <³ - I ^o| (b) *{x : x* is a real number and x^2 + I ■ 0|

(c) {x : x is a real number and x^1 -9 «0) (d) (x : x is a real number and <1² ■ ! ♦ 2}

are proper subsets.

Solution: (b) Since i² ♦ I - 0. gives x^2 - -I => x«±i

Example: 3 The set 4 ■ (A : 4 e *R.*x^2 ■ 16 and - 6| equals (Karnatalui CKT 1995]

(a) ♦ (b) [14. 3,41 (c) [3] (d) [4]

Solution: (a) x^2 ■ 16 =» x >±4

...*x* is not real but *x* is real (given) ••• No value of *x* is possible.

■ 6 x ■ 3

There is no value of *x* which satisfies both the above equations. Thus, A ■ •. Example: *4* If a set A has n elements, then the total number of subsets of *A* is Karnataka CET 1992. 2000) [Roorkee 1991;

(a) n (b) n² (c) 2' (d) *2n*

Solution: (c) Number of subsets of *A* -*c₀ +"C, +_______+"c, = 2".

Example: 5 Two finite sets have m and n elements. The total number of subsets of the first set is 56 more than the total number of subsets of the second set. The values of m and n are 【MNR I99B. 9>; UPSEAT 1999, 2000]

(a) 7. 6 (b) 6, 3 (c) 5. 1 (d) 8, 7

Solution: (b) Since 2- -2" « 56 = 8x7.2' x7 => 2"(2"- - l)-2* x7

n-3 and 2"-* =8 = 2' =» m-ft ■ 3 o m-3■ 3 o m ■ 6

Example: 6 The number of proper subsets of the set {1, 2, 3} is

(a) 8 (b) 7 (c) 6 (d) 5

Solution: (c) Number of proper subsets of the set {1, *2*, 3) = 2^1 - 2 ■ 6.

Example: 7 If X-(8"-7/»-l:neN| and r - (49(„-l):n€ N). then

(a) *XQY* (b) *YQX* (d) None of these

Solution: (a) Since 8"-7n-l -(7 + lf-7n-l = 7. +*C,7-' +*Cj7"-^{J} +.....+"C..$_I$7+*$_{\text{I}\ddagger}$C,-7,„-l

G7^I +*'C,1^3* ++*C.7‘

=49CC, +"Cj(7) +......+T.7-⁚|

.-.8"-*7n-l* is a multiple of 49 for *nil.*

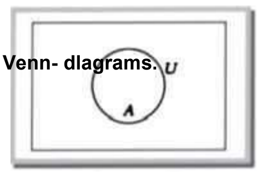
For n»l, 8"-7/i-l-«-7-l»0 ; For n-2. 8" -7n-i - 64 - 14 - I ■ 49 .-.8* -7”-I is

a multiple of 49 *for* all *neN.*

1.1.3 Venn-Euler Diagrams

X contains elements which are multiples of 49 and clearly Y contains all multiplies of 49- *XQY.*

In venn-diagrams the universal set *U is* represented by points within a rectangle and its subsets are represented by points in closed curves (usually circles) within the The combination of rectangles and circles are called *Venn-Euler diagrams* or simply Venn- dlagrams. rectangle. If a set X is a subset of a set *B,* then the circle representing *A* is drawn inside the circle representing *B.* If *A* and *B* are not equal but they have some common



elements, then to represent *A* and *B* we draw two intersecting circles. Two disjoints sets are represented by two non-intersecting circles.

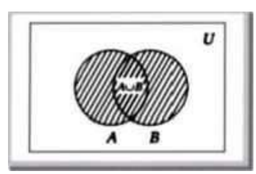
1.1.4 Operations on Sets

I **Union of sets** : Let *A* and *B* be two sets. The union of *A* and *B* is the set of all elements which are in set *A* or in *B.* We denote the union of *A* and *B* by

which is usually read as “*A* union B”.

symbolically, *A<uB = {x : x e A ot x e B}.*

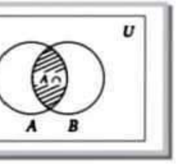
It should be noted here that we take standard mathematical usage of “or". When we say that x € X or x eB we do not exclude the possibility that x is a member of both *A* and *B.*


U
A
B

: □ if A_1, A_2.................... A_n is a finite family of sets, then their union is denoted by (Jx, or

(2) Intersection of sets : Let *A* and *B* be two sets. The intersection of *A* and *B* is the set of all those elements that belong to both *A* and *B.*

The intersection of *A* and *B* is denoted by X n B (read as "*A* intersecti Thus, *Ar>B = {x:xeA*



and *x* e B}.

Clearly, *xeAr^BoxeA* and *x e B.*

In fig. the shaded region represents *Ar> B.* Evidently *Ar<BcA, Ar>BcB.*

Note : □ If A_n is a finite family of sets, then their intersection is denoted by

P A or n 4, r> n...............................r> A_x.
i > i '

(3) Disjoint sets : Two sets *A* and B are said to be disjoint, *if A r< B = /. If A r. B* then *A* and *B* are said to be non-intersecting or non-overlapping sets.

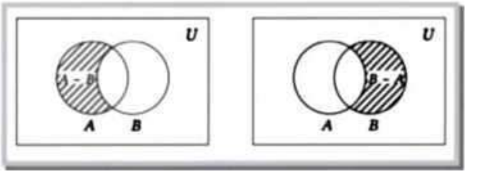
In other words, if *A* and *B* have no element in common, then *A* and *B* are called disjoint sets.

Example : Sets {1, 2}; <3, 4} are disjoint sets.

(4) Difference of sets : Let *A* and *B* be two sets. The difference of *A* and *B* written *as A - B,* is the set of all those elements of *A* which do not
belong to *B.*

Thus, *A-B={x:xeA* and *x e B}*

or *A - B = {x e A : x t B}* Clearly, *xeA-Bc^xeA* and *x e B.* In fig. the shaded part represents *A - B.*



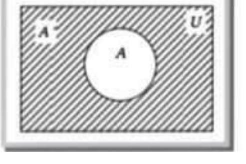
Similarly, the difference*B-A Is* the set of all those elements of *B* that do not belong to *A i.e. B-A* = *[xeB:xtA}*

Example: Consider the sets A = {1.2,3) and *B* = (3.4,5), then *A - B = {1.2}:B - A* = |4.5)

As another example, *R-Q is* the set of all irrational numbers.

(5) Symmetric difference of two sets: Let *A* and *B* be two sets. The symmetric difference of sets *A* and *B* is the set *{A- B)<J(B- A)* and is denoted by4 AB. Thus, A AB = *(A - B)<J(B - A)={x :x e A B}*

(6) Complement of a set : Let *U* be the universal set and let *A* be a set such that $A \subset U$. Then, the complement of *A* with respect to *U* is denoted by *A'* or A^c or C(A) *or U - A* and is defined the set of all those elements of *U* which are not in *A.*



Thus, $A' = \{x e U : x e A\}$.

Clearly, $x e A' o x e A$

Example: Consider l/= (1.2,......................10) and A = (1.3.5.7.9).

Example: 8 Given the sets 4 = (1.Z3|.B = (3.4), C = {4, 5» 6}, then is [MNB 1988; Kunikshetra CEE 1996]

(a) <3> (b) {1,2, 3, 4) (c) {1. 2,4. 5} (d) {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}

Solution: (b) finC=(4), r. = {1, 2, 3, 4>.

Example: 9 If AQB_T then A <JB *is* equal to (a) A

(b) $Br\backslash A$ (c) (d) None of these

Solution: (c) Since AQB =» A<JB = B.

Then 4' = (2.4.6.8,10)

Example: 10 If A and B are any two sets, then *A<j(Ar> B)is* equal to

(a) A (b) B (c) (d)

Solution: (a) AOBQA. Hence A <J(A A.

Example: 11 If A and B are two given sets, then A n(4 *o Bf* is equal to [AMU 1998; Kuruksbetra CEE 19991

(a) A (b) B (c) ♦ (d)

Solution: (d) *Ar\{Ar>Bf* «Xn(4^r vB^4) = (An4^r)k>(Xnr) = */^(Ar\B*)• AnB*^{1}.

Example: 12

(a) (b) N、$_2$ (c) N、 (d)

Solution; (b) (3.6.9.12.15| n(4.8.12.16.20_______.....|

=<12. 24, 36"""} = N_{12}

Trick: $N_3 r\backslash N_4 = N_{12}$ [••• 3> 4 are relatively prime numbers]

Example: 13 If *aN - [ox :x e N}* and *bN r\cN = dN*,where *b,* CGN are relatively prime, then

(a) *d^bc* (b) *c = bd* (c) *b^cd* (d) None of these

Solution: (a) *bN* = the set of positive integral multiples of *b, cN* = the set of positive Integral multiples of c.

bNr\cN = the set of positive integral multiples of *be = bcN* [*:b,c* are prime】

... *d»bc* .

Example: 14 If the sets A and B are defined as

A ■ I (x. y) : y ■ —. 0 < x c R、

B = ((x.v): >• = -x.x € /?},then

(a) *Ar>B = A* (b) *Ar\B=B* (d) None of these

Solution: (c) Since v ■ —.v ■ -x meet when -x ■ — => x^2 ■ -I, which does not give any real value of *x* x

Hence *Ar>B*

Example: 15 Let X >(x :x € x| < 1|; s|x : x € x - I|^ I] and A<JB = R- D. then the set D is

(a) b : 1 < J s 2) (b) k : 1 s x < 2] (c) U : 1 S x < 2]

Solution: (b) *A=[x:xeR.-l<x<l]*

= or x-i ^1J= |x:x€/? ^Oorx^2J

... *A<JB = R-D*

Where *D « [xtjt <2]*

Example: 16

If the sets *A* and *B* are defined as A = ((x.v): y «e'.x € *R*,

B = ((xv):v = x..re/f), then (UPSEAT 1994, 2002]

(a) (b) *AQB* (c) *Ar>B = 4* (d) *A<JB = A*

Solation: (c) Since, $y = e^x$ and $y = x$ do not meet for any *xeR* ∴*AnB* =

/.

Example: 17 If X = (4"-3,,-l :neN) and *Y* - (9(n-l):n€ N). then *X^JY* is equal to (Karnataka CET 1997)

(a) X (b) Y (c) N (d) None of these

Solution: (b) Since, 4"-3n-l =(3 + lf-3n-l = 3" +"C,3'-'+'C,3-² +"...t'C,., 3+"C. - 3n -1

='C,3²+'C,.3^J+"...+-C.3. (■Co^C./q -'C..! ac.)

=9|*C, +*Cj(3) +...... ....+*C,3-'|

.'. 4'-3n-l is a multiple of 9 for n 2 2.

For n = 1. 4' - 3n - l = 4-3-1=0, For n = 2, 4*-3n-l = 16-6-1=9 ... 4'-3n-l Isa multiple of 9

for all n e W

.'. *X* contains elements which are multiples of 9 and clearly *Y* contatos all multiples of 9. *XQY*, = r.

1.1.5 Some Important Results on Nmnlier of Elements in Seto

If A, B and *C* are finite sets and *U* be the finite universal set, then

(1) n(A uB) = nG4) + n(B) - n(A n B)

(2) *n(A* u B) = *n(A)* + n(B) <=> *A, B* are disjoint non-void sets.

(3) n(X - B) = n(X) - n(A n B) *i.e.* n(X - B) + nM n B) = n(>4)

(4) nQ4 A B) = Number of elements which belong to exactly one of X or B

=n(G4 - B) u (B - A))

=n M - B) + n(B - *A}* [••• (A - B) and (B - *A)* are disjoint]

=*n(A)* - *n(A* n B) + n(B) - *n(A* n B) = *n(A)* + *n(B)* - *2n(A* n B)

(5) n(A u B u C) = n(A) + n(B) + n(C) - *n(A* n B) - n(B n C) - *n(A* n C) + n(A n B n C)

(6) n (Number of elements in exactly two of the sets *A, B,* C) = *n(A* n B) + n(B r> C) + n(Cn A)- *3n(ArSriC)*

(7) n(Number of elements in exactly one of the sets *A, B,* C) = n(A) + n(B) + n(C)

-2n(A n B) - 2n(B n C) - 2n(Xn C) + 3n(A n B n C)

(8) n(X' u B') = *n(A* r> B). = *n(U)* - n(X n B)

(9) n(A' n B) = *n(A* u B)' = *n(UJ - n(A* u B)

Example: 18 uB Sets *A* and *B* have 3 and 6 elements respectively. What can be the minimum number of elements in *A*

(MNR 1987; Karnataka CET 1996] (d) 18

Example: 19 (a) 3 (b) 6 (c) 9

Solution: (b) *n(A^jB)* = n(A) + n(B) - n(X n B) = *3-^6-niAnB)*

Since maximum number of elements in *Ar>B = 3* ..Minimum number of elements in *A<JB = 9 -3 = 6* .

(a) 240 (b) 50 (c) 40 (d) 20

Solution: (d) *B)»n(A)^n(B)-n(Ar\B}*

If *A* and *B* are two sets such that n(A)s70 , 60 and 110,then *n^Ar\B)*is equal to

Example: 20 Let n(C0»7OO./K^)« 200,n(fi)« 300 and HX). then *n(A^f^* [Kurukshetra CEE 1999]

(a) 400 (b) 600 (c) 300 (d) 200

Solution: (c) *n(A^r^ riB^f^) = n[(A* u *B)^c^] =* = *n(U)* - (M/4) + *n(B) -n(Ar\B)]* = 700 - [200 ♦ 300 - 100]= 300.

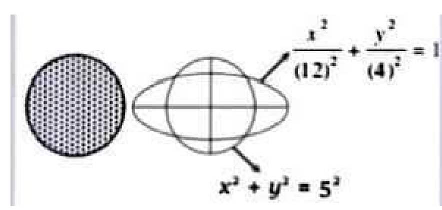
=> 11O = 70 ♦ 60 - n(A r» B) ... m4nfi)-l3()-H0«20.

Example: 21 3003] If *A* =[u.y):.r² + v² = 25) and *B* = |(x.y):x² +9y² ■ 144 |, then *Ar\B* contains (AMU 1996; Pb. CET

n (X n B) = 5% of 10,000 = 500, n (BnC) = 3% of 10,000 = 300

(a) One point (b) Three points (c) Two points (d) Four points

Solution: (d) X = Set of all values (x, *y):* j² + v² = 25 =5²



Clearly, X r> B consists of four points.

Example: 22 In a town of 10,000 families it was found that 40% family)aper *B* and 10% families buy newspaper C, 5% families buy *A* and B, 3% buy *B* and C and 4% buy *A* and C. If 2% families buy all the three newspapers, then number of families which buy *A* only is

(a) 3100 (b) 3300 (c) 2900 (d) 1400

Solution: (b) n(X) = 40% of 10,000 = 4,000

n(B) = 20% of 10,000 = 2,000 n(O = 10% of 10,000 = 1,000

n(CnX) « 4% of 10,000 = 400, n(4 n B r» C) » 2% of 10,000 = 200

We want to find n(X n r, O = n[4 n (B o C)^c^]

=n(X) - n(4 n (B *ଙ C)] = n(X) - n[(A n B) u (A n C)] = n(X) - [n(A fl) ♦ n(A n C) - n(X r» B C)]

=4000 - (500 ♦ 400 - 200] = 4000 - 700 = 3300.

Example: 23 In a city 20 percent of the population travels by car, 50 percent travels by bus and 10 percent travels by both car and bus. Then persons travelling by car or bus is

Solution: (c)

(a) 80 percent (b) 40 percent (c) 60 percent (d) 70 percent

n(C) = 20, n(B) = 50, n(C r» B) = 10

Now, n(C κJB) = *n(C)* ♦ n(B) - n(C r» B) = 20 + 50 - 10 = 60.

Hence, required number of persons = 60%.

Example: 24 Suppose .... A_K are thirty sets each having 5 elements and ....Bn are n sets each with 3 elements. Let *JA,* = *()B/* = *S* and each elements of *S* belongs to exactly 10 of the *A,s* and •■I /-I exactly 9 of the *B s.* Then n is equal to

(a) 15 (b) 3 (c) 45 (d) None of these

Solution: (c) O(S) = x 30)= 15

Since, element in the union S belongs to 10 of Ai *s*

Also, O(S) = ^-15 =>«-45.

Example: 25 In a class *of* 55 students, the number of students studying different subjects are 23 in Mathematics, *24* in Physics, 19 in Chemistry, 12 in Mathematics and Physics, 9 in Mathematics and Chemistry, 7 in Physics and Chemistry and 4 in all the three subjects. The number of students who have taken exactly one subject is (UPSKAT1990)

(a) 6 (b) 9 (c) 7 (d) All of these

Solution: (d) n(M) = 23, n(P) = 24,

n(C)= 19

n(M r>P) = 12, *n(M* n C)= 9, *n(P* n C)= 7 n(M ri Pr> C) = 4

We have to find n(M r. F r> C), n(P *r>M'nC'),n(.Cr<M'r\P")* Now

n(MnPnC) = n[M r>(Pw C)[1])

=n(Af)-n(Af n

=n(M) - n(M r>P)- n(M r> C) ♦ n(M r- P n C) = 23 -12 - 9 + 4 = 27 -21 = 6

n(PnAfnC) = n[Pr> (M C)]

■ n(P)- n(Pr>(Mi->C)] = = *n(P) - n(P r<* *M) - n(P C) n(P r\ M r, C)* = 24 -12- 7*4 = 9

n(C r>*fr>P) = n(C) - *n(Cr>P) - n(C* r> M)+ n(C nPnM) =

1.1.6 Laws of Algebra of Sets

i9-7-9*4=:23-16 = 7 Hence (d) is the correct answer.

(3) Commutative laws : For any two sets *A* and *B,* we have

(i) A u B = B u A (i) Idempotent laws : For any set *A,* we have (ii) *A r\ B* = *B r\A* (iii) A AB = *BSA*

i.e. union, intersection and symmetric difference of two sets are commutative, (iv) *A-B^B-A* (iv) AxB#BxA

i.e., difference and cartesian product of two sets are not commutative

(4) Associative laws *: If A, B* and C are any three sets, then

(i) (A u B) u C = A ᘐ/ (B u C) (ii) *A (B r> C) = (A n B) C* (iii) *(AABySC* = AA(BAC) i.e” union, intersection and symmetric difference of two sets are associative, (iv) (A -B)-C* A -(B-C) (V) (4xB)xC# Ax(BxC)

i.e., difference and cartesian product of two sets are not associative.

(5) **Distributive law** *: If A, B* and C are any three sets, then

(i) A u (B n C) = (A o B) n (A u C) (ii) A n (B u C) = (A n B) u (A n C)

i.e. union and intersection are distributive over intersection and union respectively, (iii) Ax(BnO = (AxB)n(AxC) (iv) /i x(fiuC) = (4 x xC) (v)

Ax(B-C) = (4 xB)-(4xC)

(6) **De-Morgan*s law** : If *A* and *B* are any two sets, then

(i) *(.A* u *BY =A'r>B-* (ii) (A n B)' = A’ u B'

(iii) *A-(B^O = (A-B)r>(A-O* (iv) *A-(B r>C) = (A - B)u(A - O*

: □ **Theorem 1:** If *A* and B are any two sets, then

(i) *A- B = Ar\B‘* (ii) B - A = B n A'

(iii) *A-B = AoAr\B = /* (iv) (A-B)uB=A»uB

(v)(A - B)nB = (vi) *A^Bc^B'* ဓ *A'*

(viii) (71 - B) u (B - A) = (X u B) - (4 n B)

□ **Theorem 2** : If A, B and *C* are any three sets, then

(i) A ’ (B n C) = (A - B) u (X - C) (ii) A - (B u C) = (X - B) n (A - C)

(iii) A n (B - C) = (A n B) - (A n C) (iv) *A n (B A C) = (A B) A (A r> C)*

Example: *26* If *A, B* and C are any three sets, then X x (B n C) is equal to

(a) (X X S) V (A X C) (b) (A X B) r> (A X C) (C) (A o B) x (A u C) (d) (A n B) x (X n C)

Solution: (b) A X (B r> C) « (X X B) r> (A X C). It is distributive law.

Example: *27* If *A, B* and C are any three sets, then X x (B C) is equal to

(a) (X X B) V (A X 0 (b) (A kJ B) X (A kJ C) (c) (A x B) n (A x c) (d) None of these

Solution: (a) It is distributive law.

Example: a8 If *A, B* and *C* are any three sets, then X - (B w C) is equal to

(a) (A - B) u (X - C) (b) (A - B) n (A - C) (C) (A - B) u C (d) (A - fi) n C

Solution: (b) It is De' Morgan law.

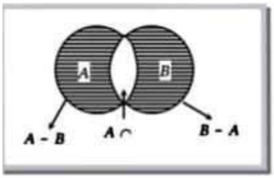
Example: 29 A) If *A=[x :x* is a multiple of 3] and B = (x : x is a multiple of 5], then A - B is (X means complement of (AMU 1998]

(a) *AriB* (b) *Ar\B* (c) *AnB* (d) *AnB*

Solution: (b)

Example: 30 (AMU 1992. 1998; DCE 1998) If *A, B* and C are non-empty sets, then (A - B) o (B - A) equals

(a) (X o B) - B (b) A - (A r» B) (c) (A o fi) - (A r» B) (d) (A B) u (A *ය B)



1.1.7 Cartesian Product of Sets

Solution: (c) (A - B) VJ (B - A) = (A kJ B) - (A n B).

Cartesian product of sets : Let *A* and *B* be any two non-empty sets. The set of all ordered pairs (a, b) such that *a e A* and b e B is called the cartesian product of the sets *A* and *B* and is denoted by A x B.

Thus, *A x B* = [(a, *b} : a e A* and *b e B]*

If X = 4 or B = A then we define *A x* B = /.

Example : Let *A* = {a, *b,* c} and *B = {p, q}.*

Then *A x* B = {(a, p), (a, q), (b, p), *(b, q),* (c, p), (c, *q)}*

Also *B xA = {(p, a),* (p, *b),* (p, c), *(q,* a), *(q, b), (q,* c)}

Important theorems on cartesian product of sets :

Theorem 1: For any three sets *A, B, C*

(i) *A x (B<JC) =(A* x B) ∪ (A x C) (ii) x (B n C) *=(A x B) n (A x C)*

Theorem *2 : For* any three sets *A, B, C*

A x (B-C) = (A x B)- (A x C)

Theorem 3 : If A and *B* are any two non-empty sets, then

AxB=BxAoA=B

Theorem 4 : *If* AQ *B,* then *A x A* Q *(.A x B)* (.BxA) **Theorem 5 :** *If* AQB, then A x c c B x C for any set C.

Theorem 6 : *If A* Q *B* and *C* QD, then *A x c* Q *B x D*

Theorem 7 : For any sets *A, B, C, D*

CA x B) n (C x D) = (A n C) x (B n D)

Theorem 8 : For any three sets *A, B, C*

(i) x X (B' u cy = (A X B) r> (A X C) (ii) A x (B' n C)' = (A x B) u (A x C)

Theorem 9 : Let *A* and B two non-empty sets having n elements in common, then *A x* B and *B x A* have n^2 elements in common.

Example: 31 If A = <o, 1), and B = {1, o}, then *A x B is* equal to

(a) {o, 1,1, 0} (b) <(o, 1), (1, o)} (c) {0,0} (d) <(O,l),(O,O),(l,l),(l,O)}

Solution: (d) By the definition of cartesian product of sets Clearly, A x fl = {(o, 1), (o, o), (1,1), (1, o)}. If A-(Z4.5J. B = {7. 8.9J. then

Example: 32 (a) 6 (b) 9 (c) 3 (d) o

is equal to

Solution: (b) A x fl = {(2, 7),(2,8), (2, 9), (4, 7). (4,8), (4,9). (5. 7), (5. 8),(5, 9» *n(A* x fl) = n(A) . n(B) = 3x3 = 9.

If the set *A* has *p* elements, fl has *q* elements, then the number of elements in X x fl is

Solution: (c)

Example: 33

(a) (c) *n* (d) P^3

Solution: (c)

Example: 34 If *A* ■ = then ((a.c).(a</).(d.</).(/».e)l is equal to (AMU 1999; Him. CET 2002]

(a) An (fl uC) (b) X u (fl n C) (c) *A* x (fluC) (d) 4 x (fl r. C)

B o C = {<:• d} vJ (d, e> = {c, d, e}

[Kerala (Engg.) 200a]

(a) <(2,4), (3, 4)> (b) {(4,2), (4, 3)> (c) «2, 4), (3, 4), (4, 4» (d) {(2,2), (3,3), (4,4). (5,5)

Example: 35

Solution: (a) Clearly, *A* = (2, 3}, *B* = <2, 4}, *C* = (4, 5>

BAC ={4}

••• A x(fl nQ = {(2,4), (3,4)}.

Example: 36 If P_t *Q* and *R* are subsets of a set A_t then K x (^ o*(yy*

(a) (/? x P) n (K x Q) (b) *(R^Q)ry(R^P)* (d) None of these

Solution: (a, b)= *R^(Pr>Q)»(RK p)n(RxQ)=*

(1) *A<JA = A* (ii) *Ar>A = A*

(2) **Identity laws :** For any set *A,* we have

(i) A u # = X **(ii) *Ar>U = A***

i.e. #and *U* are identity elements for union and intersection respectively.