#### CHAPTER 2

#### **2.1 Sets**

Proper subset:  $D \subset E \Leftrightarrow \forall \{\# \in D \# \Rightarrow \# \in E, \# \exists \} \{\# \in E \land \} \notin D, \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq B \text{ and } A \neq B \}$ 

# 1. The cardinality of set

**Theorem 1** Definition **1** Let S be a set. If there are exactly n distinct elements in S where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that S is a *finite* set and that n is the *cardinality* of S.

Notation: |S| ---- the cardinality of S

# 2. The power set

[Definition] Given a set S, the *power set* of S is the set of all subsets of the set S.

Notation: P(S) ---- the power set of S.  $P(S) = \{x | x \subseteq S\}$ 

- $\triangleright$  |S|=n implies  $|P(S)|=2^n$
- $\triangleright$  S is finite and so is P(S).
- $ightharpoonup x \in P(S) \Rightarrow x \subseteq S \ , \ x \in S \Rightarrow \{x\} \in P(S) \ , \ S \in P(S)$

#### 3. Cartesian Products

**The ordered n-tuple**  $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$  is the ordered collection that has  $a_1$  as its first element,  $a_2$  as its second element, ..., and  $a_n$  as its nth element.

$$(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_n) \Leftrightarrow a_i = b_i (i=1,2,..., n)$$

In particular, 2-tuples are called *ordered pairs*.

$$ightharpoonup$$
 If  $x \neq y$ , then $(x,y) \neq (y,x)$ .  $(x,y) = (u,v) \Rightarrow x = u$  and  $y = v$ 

The Cartesian product of A and B:  $A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A \land b \in B\}$ 

The Cartesian product of  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n : A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i=1, 2, ..., n\}.$ 

Note:

- ightharpoonup If |A|=m, |B|=n, Then  $|A\times B|=|B\times A|=mn$
- $\triangleright$   $A \times B \neq B \times A$
- $\rightarrow$   $A \times \varphi = \varphi \times A = \varphi$
- $\blacktriangleright$   $(x,y) \in A \times B \Rightarrow x \in A \land y \in B; (x,y) \notin A \times B \Rightarrow x \notin A \lor y \notin B$
- 4. Truth Sets of Quantifiers

Given a predicate P, and a domain D. The *truth set* of P is the set of elements x in D for which P(x) is true. namely, The *truth set* of  $P = \{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$ 

# 2.2 Set Operations

# 1. Set Operations

#### 1) Union

 $A \cup B = \{x | x \in A \lor x \in B\}$ 

- $(1)A \subseteq A \cup B, B \subseteq A \cup B$
- $(2)A \subseteq C, B \subseteq C \Rightarrow A \cup B \subseteq C$
- $(3)|A \cup B| \le |A| + |B|$
- $(4)A \cup B = B \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq B$

# 2) Intersection

 $A \cap B = \{x | x \in A \land x \in B\}$ 

- $(1)A \cap B \subseteq A, A \cap B \subseteq B$
- $(2)C \subseteq A, C \subseteq B \Rightarrow C \subseteq A \cap B$
- $(3)|A \cap B| \le |A|, |A \cap B| \le |B|$
- $(4)A \cap B = A \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq B$

Two sets are called *disjoint* if their intersection is the empty set, namely  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ 

**The cardinality of the union of two finite sets:**  $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$ 

# 3) Difference of A and B

$$A - B = \{x | x \in A \land x \notin B\}$$

# 4) The complement of a set

$$\overline{A} = \{x | x \notin A, x \in U\}, \text{ Where } U \text{ is the universal set}$$

Note: 
$$A - B = A \cap \overline{B}$$

5) Symmetric difference 
$$A \oplus B = (A \cup B) - (A \cap B)$$

Four ways to prove set identities 相同

- 1. Show that  $A \subseteq B$  and that  $A \supseteq B$ .
- 2. Use logical equivalences to prove equivalent set definitions.
- 3. Use a membership table.
- 4. Use previously proven identities.

TABLE 1 Set Identities.	
Identity	Name
$A \cap U = A$ $A \cup \emptyset = A$	Identity laws
$A \cup U = U$ $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$	Domination laws
$A \cup A = A$ $A \cap A = A$	Idempotent laws
$\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$	Complementation law
$A \cup B = B \cup A$ $A \cap B = B \cap A$	Commutative laws
$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$	Associative laws
$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$	Distributive laws
$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	De Morgan's laws
$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$	Absorption laws
$A \cup \overline{A} = U$ $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$	Complement laws

4. Generalized Unions and Intersections

$$A_1$$
;  $A_2$ ; 6;  $A_n = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i$ ,  $A_1 4 A_2 4 6 4 A_n = \underbrace{4}_{i=1}^n A_i$ 

5. Computer Representation of Set

Using bit strings to represent sets.

- (1) Specify an arbitrary ordering of the elements of U, for instance  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$
- (2) Represent a subset A of U with the bit string of length n, where the ith bit is 1 if  $a_i$  belongs to A and is 0 if  $a_i$  does not belong to A.

Union: bitwise OR

Intersection: bitwise AND

#### 2.3 Functions

【Definition】 Let A and B be nonempty sets. A function (mapping or transformations) f from A to B:  $f: A \rightarrow B$   $\forall a(a \in A \rightarrow \exists!b \ (b \in B \land f(a) = b))$ 

A is called the *domain* of f, B is called the *codomain* of f.

f(a) = b

- $\blacktriangleright$  b is called the *image* of a under f
- > a is called a preimage of b

f(A): the range of f is the set of all images of elements in A under f.

If f is a function from A to B, we say that f maps A to B.

**Let**  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  be functions from A to R. Then  $f_1 + f_2$  and  $f_1 f_2$  are also functions from A to R defined by  $(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x)$ ,  $(f_1 f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x)$ 

**Let** f be a function from A to B and let S be a subset of A. The image of S is the subset of B that consists of the images of the elements of S. We denote the image of S by f(S), so that f(S)

- $= \{ f(s) \mid s \in S \}$
- $\rightarrow$  f( $\varnothing$ ) =  $\varnothing$
- $ightharpoonup f(\{a\}) = \{f(a)\}$
- $\rightarrow$  f(A U B) = f(A) U f(B)
- $ightharpoonup f(A \cap B) \subseteq f(A) \cap f(B)$

#### 1) One-to-One Functions

A function f is one-to-one (denoted 1-1), or injective  $\forall a \forall b (f(a) = f(b) \rightarrow a = b)$ 

Note:

- $\triangleright$  This means that if  $x \neq y$  then  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ .
- A function is said to be an *injection* if it is 1-1.

### 2) Onto Functions

A function f from A to B is called *onto*, or *surjective*  $\forall b \in B \exists a \in A(f(a) = b)$ 

Note:

- This means that for every b in B there must be an a in A such that f(a) = b. //
- $\triangleright$  Every b in B has a preimage.
- A function is called a *surjection* if it is onto.

#### 3) One-to-one Correspondence Functions

The function *f* is a *one-to-one correspondence*, or a *bijection*, if it is both *one-to-one* and *onto*. Note:

 $\triangleright$  Whenever there is a bijection from A to B, the two sets must have the same number of elements or the same *cardinality*.

Suppose that  $f: A \to B$ .

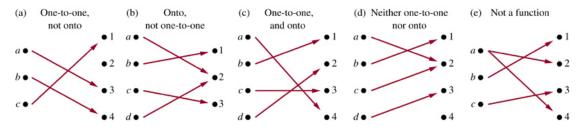
To show that f is injective Show that if f(x) = f(y) for arbitrary  $x, y \in A$  with  $x \neq y$ , then x = y.

To show that f is not injective Find particular elements  $x, y \in A$  such that  $x \neq y$  and f(x) = f(y).

To show that f is surjective Consider an arbitrary element  $y \in B$  and find an element  $x \in A$  such that f(x) = y.

To show that f is not surjective Find a particular  $y \in B$  such that  $f(x) \neq y$  for all  $x \in A$ .

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#### **Monotonic Functions**

A monotonic 单调 function f is

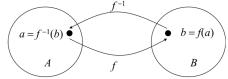
- $\blacktriangleright$  either monotonically (strictly) increasing  $\forall x \forall y (x < y \rightarrow f(x) < f(y))$
- $\triangleright$  or monotonically (strictly) decreasing  $\forall x \forall y (x < y \rightarrow f(x) > f(y))$

#### **Inverse Functions**

Let f be a bijection from A to B. Then the *inverse function* of f, denoted as  $f^{-1}$ , is the function from B to A defined as  $f^{-1}(y) = x$  iff f(x) = y

Note:

- $\triangleright$  No inverse function exists unless f is a bijection.
- > Function f is invertible iff f is bijective



# **Compositions of Functions**

Let g be a function from the set A to the set B and let f be a

function from the set B to the set C. The composition of the

functions f and g, denoted by  $f \circ g$ , is defined by:  $f \circ g(a) = f(g(a))$ 

Note:

 $\triangleright$   $f \circ g$  can't be defined unless the range of g is a subset of the domain of f.

#### **The Floor Functions**

**The** floor function f(x) is the largest integer less than or equal to the real number x. Notation:  $\lfloor x \rfloor$ 

# **The Ceiling Functions**

**The ceiling function** f(x) is the smallest integer greater than or equal to the real number x.

Notation:  $\lceil x \rceil$ 

# **TABLE 1** Useful Properties of the Floor and Ceiling Functions.

(n is an integer, x is a real number)

(1a) 
$$\lfloor x \rfloor = n$$
 if and only if  $n \le x < n + 1$ 

(1b) 
$$\lceil x \rceil = n$$
 if and only if  $n - 1 < x \le n$ 

(1c) 
$$\lfloor x \rfloor = n$$
 if and only if  $x - 1 < n \le x$ 

(1d) 
$$\lceil x \rceil = n$$
 if and only if  $x \le n < x + 1$ 

(2) 
$$x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor \le x \le \lceil x \rceil < x + 1$$

(3a) 
$$\lfloor -x \rfloor = -\lceil x \rceil$$

(3b) 
$$\lceil -x \rceil = -\lfloor x \rfloor$$

$$(4a) \quad \lfloor x + n \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + n$$

(4b) 
$$\lceil x + n \rceil = \lceil x \rceil + n$$

# 2.4 Sequence and Summations

# TABLE 2 Some Useful Summation Formulae.

TABLE 2 Some Oserui Summation Formulae.	
Sum	Closed Form
$\sum_{k=0}^{n} ar^k \ (r \neq 0)$	$\frac{ar^{n+1}-a}{r-1}, r \neq 1$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k$	$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2$	$\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^3$	$\frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$
$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k,  x  < 1$	$\frac{1}{1-x}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kx^{k-1},  x  < 1$	$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$

# 2.5 Cardinality of Sets

# The cardinality of an infinite set

**The cardinality of a set** A is equal to the cardinality of a set B, denoted |A| = |B|, iff there exists a bijection from A to B.

[Definition 2] If there is an injection from A to B, the cardinality of A is less than or the same as

the cardinality of B and we write  $|A| \le |B|$ . When  $|A| \le |B|$  and A and B have different cardinality, we say that the cardinality of A is less than the cardinality of B and write |A| < |B|.

[Definition] A set that is either finite or has the same cardinality as the set of positive integers called *countable*.

A set that is not countable is called *uncountable*.

When an infinite set S is countable, we denote the cardinality of S by  $\Re_0$  ( aleph null ).

If  $|A| = |Z^+|$ , the set A is countable infinite.

- An infinite set is countable iff it is possible to list all the elements of the set in a sequence The properties of the countable sets:
- No infinite set has a smaller cardinality than a countable set.
- > The union of two countable sets is countable.
- The union of finite number of countable sets is countable.
- > The union of a countable number of countable sets is countable.
- 3. Cantor Diagonalization Argument

[Theorem] The set of real numbers between 0 and 1 is uncountable.

[Theorem] The set of real numbers  $R = (-\infty, +\infty)$  has the same cardinality as the set (0,1).

#### Computability

We say that a function is computable if there is a computer program in some programming language that finds the values of this function. If a function is not computable we say it is uncomputable.

**C** Schröder-Bernstein Theorem **1** If A and B are sets with  $|A| \le |B|$  and  $|B| \le |A|$  then |A| = |B|. In other words, if there are one-to-one functions f from A to B and g from B to A, then there is a one to –one correspondence between a A and B.

Theorem The cardinality of the power set of an arbitrary set has a greater cardinality than the original arbitrary set.

The Continuum Hypothesis: The continuum hypothesis (CH) asserts that there is no cardinal number a such that  $\aleph_0 < a < \aleph_1$ .