DISCRETE MATHEMATICS AND ITS APPLICATIONS

2.1 SETS

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Introduction to Set Theory

Introduction:

- A *set* is a new type of structure, representing an *unordered* collection (group, plurality) of zero or more *distinct* (different) objects.
- Set theory deals with operations between, relations among, and statements about sets.
- Sets are ubiquitous in computer software systems.
- All of mathematics can be defined in terms of some form of set theory (using predicate logic).

Definition:

- A **set** is a collection or group of **objects** (对象) or **elements** (元素) or **members** (成员). (Cantor 1895, Germany)
- A set is said to *contain* (包含) its elements.
- There must be an underlying universal set (全集)
 U, either specifically stated or understood.

Notation (Roster method):

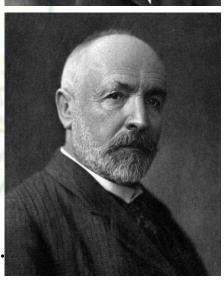
list the elements between braces:

$$S = \{a, b, c, d\} = \{b, c, a, d, d\}$$

Note:

- listing object more than once does't change the set.
- Ordering means nothing.





Cantor 1845-1918

Notation: specification by predicates (谓词)

$$\mathbf{S} = \{x | P(x)\}$$

- P(x) denote a sentence or statement P concerning the variable object x.
- S contains all the elements from U which make the predicate
 P true.
- x is a member of S or x is an element of S: $x \in S$.
- x is not an element of S: $x \notin S$.

Examples:

- $\{x \mid x \text{ is a positive integer less than } 4\} = \{1,2,3\}$
- $\{x \mid x \text{ is a letter in the word "byte"}\} = \{b, y, t, e\}$
- If A={BASIC,PASCAL,ADA} and B={ADA,PASCAL,BASIC}, then A=B.
- Two sets A and B are equal (相等) if and only if they have the same elements, we write A=B.

Common Universal Sets:

- \blacksquare \mathbb{R} = Reals
- N = Nature numbers = $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, the counting numbers
- \mathbb{Z} = All numbers = {..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3...}
- \mathbb{Z}^+ = The set of positive numbers
- Q = The Rational numbers

EMPTY SET(空集)

Definition:

■ The *void* set, the *null* set, the *empty* set, denoted $\{\}$ or \emptyset , is the set with no members.

Example:

• $\{x \mid x \text{ is a real number and } x^2=-1\}=\emptyset$.

SUBSETS(子集)

Definition:

■ The set A is a *subset* of the set B, or A contained in (包含于) B, denoted $A \subseteq B$, iff (当且仅当)

$$\forall x[x \in A \rightarrow x \in B]$$

• If A is not a subset of B, denote $A \not\subseteq B$.

Note:

- The assertion $x \in \emptyset$ is always false. Hence $\forall x[x \in \emptyset \to x \in B]$ is always true(vacuously). Therefore, \emptyset is a subset of every set, $\emptyset \subseteq B$.
- A set B is always a subset of itself, $B \subseteq B$.

SUBSETS(子集)

Examples:

- $\mathbb{Z}^+ \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$
- $\mathbf{Z}^+ \subseteq \mathbb{R}$
- Let $A=\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, B=\{2, 4, 5\}, C=\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$
- Then
 - \blacksquare B \subseteq A, B \subseteq C, C \subseteq A
 - $A \not\subseteq B$, $A \not\subseteq C$, $C \not\subseteq B$

PROPER SUBSET (真子集)

Definition:

■ If $A \subseteq B$ but $A \neq B$ then we say A is a *proper subset* (真子集) of B, denoted $A \subset B$ (in some texts).

Examples:

- $\mathbf{Z}^+ \subset \mathbf{Z}$
- $Z^+ \subset \mathbb{R}$

CARDINALITY(基数)

Definition:

- The number of distinct elements in set A, denoted |A|, is called the *cardinality* of A.
- If the cardinality is a natural number (in N), then the set is called *finite*, else *infinite*.

Example:

- $A = \{a, b\}, |A| = ?$
- = B={a, b, a, c}, |B|=?
- C=∅, |C|=?
- D=N, |D|=|N|=?

- N is *infinite* since |N| is not a natural number.
- It is called a transfinite cardinal number.

THE POWER SET (幂集)

Definition:

- The set of all subset of a set A, denoted P(A), is called the power set (\$\mathbb{F}\$) of A.
- \blacksquare A is finite and so is P(A).

Example:

• If $A = \{a, b\}$ then $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$

幂集中的元素都是集合

THE POWER SET (幂集)

Note:

Sets can be both members and subsets of other sets.

Example:

- $\bullet A = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}.$
- A has two elements and hence four subsets:
 - \bullet \varnothing , $\{\varnothing\}$, $\{\varnothing\}$, $\{\varnothing,\{\varnothing\}\}$
- Note that \emptyset is both a member of A and a subset of A!

Example:

- Let A be a set and let $B = \{A, \{A\}\}$, Then
- $A \in B$ and $\{A\} \in B$, $\{A\} \subseteq B$ and $\{\{A\}\} \subseteq B$. $A \not\subseteq B$
- P(B)=?

CARDINALITY OF POWER SET

- $A = \{a, b\}, |A| = 2$
- $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}, |P(A)| = 4$
- Useful fact: |A|=n implies $|P(A)|=2^n$.

Examples:

- \bullet A={1, 2, 3}, |A|=3
- P(A) = ?, |P(A)| = ?

ORDERED N-TUPLES

Definition:

- These are like sets, except that duplications matter, and the order makes a difference.
- For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, an ordered n-tuple or a sequence or list of length n is written $(\mathbf{a_1}, \mathbf{a_2}, ..., \mathbf{a_n})$, and it's first element is $\mathbf{a_1}$, etc.
- Empty sequence, singlet, pairs, triples, quadruples, quintuples, ..., n-tuples

Examples:

- $\bullet (1, 2) \neq (2, 1) \neq (2, 1, 1)$
- $\{1, 2\} = \{2, 1\} = \{2, 1, 1\}$

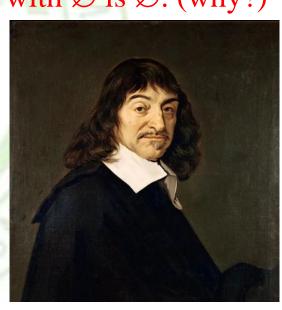
CARTESIAN PRODUCT(笛卡尔乘积)

Definition:

- The *Cartesian product* of *A* with *B*, denoted $A \times B$, is the set of ordered pairs $\{\langle a, b \rangle \mid a \in A \land b \in B\}$ $\{(a, b) \mid a \in A \land b \in B\}$
- Notation: $\underset{i=1}{\overset{n}{\times}} A_i = \{ \langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle | a_i \in A_i \}$
- Note: The Cartesian product of anything with \emptyset is \emptyset . (why?)

Example

- $A = \{a, b\}, B = \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $A \times B$
- $= \{ \langle a, 1 \rangle, \langle a, 2 \rangle, \langle a, 3 \rangle, \langle b, 1 \rangle, \langle b, 2 \rangle, \langle b, 3 \rangle \}$
- What is $B \times A$? $A \times B \times A$?
- When $A \times B = B \times A$?
- If |A| = m and |B| = n, what is $|A \times B|$?



1596-1650, France

CARTESIAN PRODUCT(笛卡尔乘积)

Properties:

- $AxB \neq BxA \ (A \neq \emptyset \land B \neq \emptyset \land A \neq B)$
- $(AxB)xC \neq Ax(BxC) (A \neq \emptyset \land B \neq \emptyset \land A \neq B)$
- When $A_1 = A_2 = ... = A_n$, then $A_1 \times A_2 \cdot ... \times A_n = A^n$
 - 笛卡尔乘积不满足交换律
 - 笛卡尔乘积不满足结合律

USING SET NOTATION WITH QUANTIFIERS

Example 22

- What do the statements $\forall x \in R \ (x^2 \ge 0)$ and $\exists x \in Z(x^2=1)$ mean?
- For every real number x, $x^2 \ge 0$. This statement can be expressed as "The square of every real number is nonnegative." $A = \{x \in R \mid x^2 \ge 0\}$
- There exists an integer x such that x² = 1. This statement can be expressed as "There is an integer whose square is 1." This is also a true statement because x = 1 is such an integer (as is −1).

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x^2 = 1\}$$

TRUTH SETS OF QUANTIFIERS

Definition:

• Given a predicate P, and a domain D, The *truth set* of P(x) is denoted by $\{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$.

Example 23:

- What are the truth sets of the predicates P(x), Q(x), and R(x), where the domain is the set of integers?
 - P(x): |x| = 1
 - $Q(x): x^2 = 2$
 - R(x): |x| = x

REVIEW OF 2.1 SET

- Definition of Sets
- Special sets: R, N, Z, Q.....
- Set notations: $\{a, b, ...\}$, $\{x | P(x)\}$...
- Relations: $x \in S$, $S \subseteq T$, $S \subseteq T$, S = T...
- Cardinality
- Power set
- Cartesian Product

HOMEWORK

- **§ 2.1**
 - **8**, 12, 18, 24, 48

DISCRETE MATHEMATICS AND ITS APPLICATIONS

2.2 SET OPERATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

■ Logical calculus (逻辑演算) and set theory (集合论) are both instances of an algebraic system (代数系统) called a

Boolean Algebra(布尔代数)

- The **operators** in set theory are defined in terms of the corresponding operator in propositional calculus
- As always there must be a universe U, all sets are assumed to be subsets of U.

EQUAL (相等)

Definition:

■ Two sets A and B are *equal*, denoted A = B, iff $\forall x[x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B]$.

Note:

By a previous logical equivalence we have

$$A = B \text{ iff } \forall x[(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land (x \in B \rightarrow x \in A)]$$

or

$$A = B \text{ iff } A \subseteq B \text{ and } B \subseteq A$$

SET OPERATIONS

- The *union* (并集) of *A* and *B*, denoted $A \cup B$, is the set $\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$
- The *intersection* (交集) of A and B, denoted $A \cap B$, is the set $\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$
 - Note: If the intersection is void, A and B are said to be $\frac{disjoint}{\sqrt{A}}$
- - Note: Alternative notation is A^c , and $\{x | x \notin A\}$.

THE ADDITION PRINCIPLE (加法原理)

Theorem

- If A and B are finite sets, then $|A \cup B| = |A/+|B|-|A \cap B|$
- It also called the *inclusion-exclusion principle*(容斥原理)
- The Addition principle for Disjoint Sets: $|A \cup B| = |A/+/B|$

Example:

- Let $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ and $B = \{c, e, f, h, k, m\}$.
- Verify inclusion-exclusion principle.

Solution:

- $A \cup B = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, h, k, m\} \text{ and } A \cap B = \{c, e\}$
- |A| = 5, |B| = 6, $|A \cup B| = 9$ and $|A \cap B| = 2$
- $|A| + |B| |A \cap B| = 9 = |A \cup B|$

Q.E.D

THE DIFFERENCE OF SETS

Definitions :

■ The *difference* ($\not\equiv$) of A and B, or the *complement* of B relative to A, denoted A - B, is the set

$$A \cap B$$

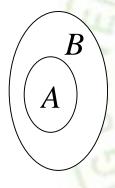
- Note: The (absolute) complement of B is U B (i.e. B)
- The symmetric difference (对称差) of A and B, denoted $A \oplus B$, is the set

$$(A-B)\cup(B-A)$$

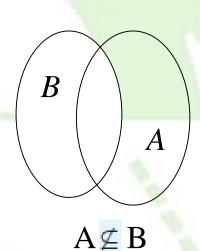
VENN DIAGRAMS(文氏图)

 Diagrams used to show relationships between sets after the British logician John Venn

Example:



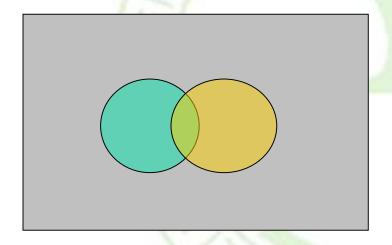


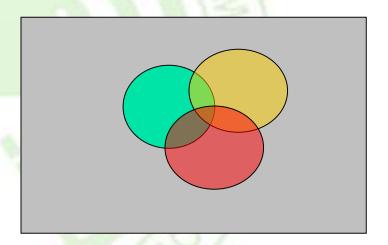


John Venn 1834-1923

VENN DIAGRAMS

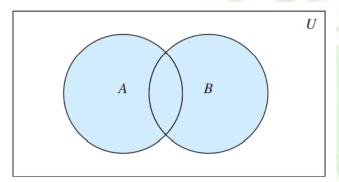
- A useful geometric visualization tool (for 3 or less sets)
 - The Universe U is the rectangular box
 - Each set is represented by a circle and its interior
 - All possible combinations of the sets must be represented



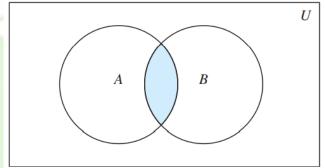


Shade the appropriate region to represent the given set operation.

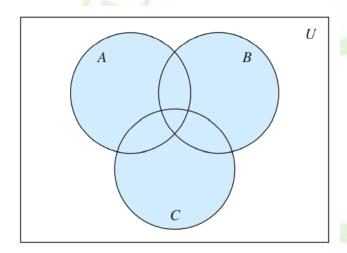
VENN DIAGRAMS



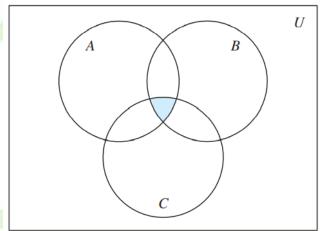
 $A \cup B$ is shaded.



 $A \cap B$ is shaded.

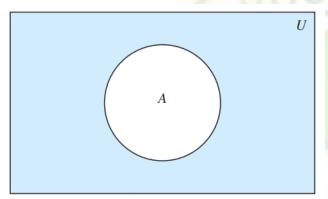


(a) $A \cup B \cup C$ is shaded.

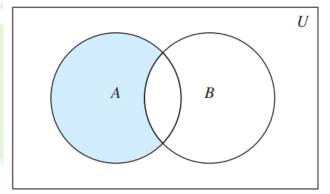


(b) $A \cap B \cap C$ is shaded.

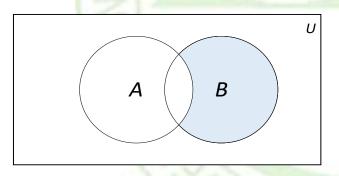
VENN DIAGRAMS



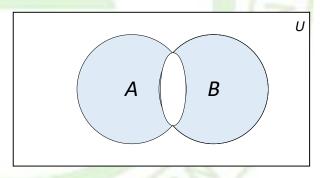
 \bar{A} is shaded.



A - B is shaded.



B-A is shaded



 $A \oplus B$ is shaded

EXAMPLES OF SET OPERATIONS

- $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$
- $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}.$ Then
 - \bullet $A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$
 - $A \cap B = \{4, 5\}$
 - $A = \{0, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$
 - $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 9, 10\}$
 - A B =
 - B A =
 - $A \oplus B =$

■ Commutative properties (law) (交換律)

$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$
$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

■ Associative properties (结合律)

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$$
$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$$

■ Distributive properties (分配律)

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$
$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

■ Idempotent properties (幂等律)

$$A \cup A = A$$
$$A \cap A = A$$

■ Properties of the Complement (补集性质)

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$$

$$A \cup \overline{A} = U$$

$$A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$$

$$\overline{\emptyset} = U$$

$$\overline{U} = \emptyset$$

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

Properties of a Universal Set

$$A \cup U = U$$

$$A \cap U = A$$

Properties of the Empty Set

$$A \cup \emptyset = A$$

$$A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$$

Absorption law

$$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$$

$$A \cap (A \cup B) = A$$

- Properties of Cartesian product
 - $Ax(B \cup C) = (AxB) \cup (AxC)$
 - $(B \cup C)xA = (BxA) \cup (CxA)$
 - $Ax(B \cap C) = (AxB) \cap (AxC)$
 - $(B \cap C)xA = (BxA) \cap (CxA)$

■ 笛卡尔积对并和交运 算满足分配律

- *Example:* $A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{a, b\}, C = \{a, c\}.$ Then
 - $Ax(B \cup C)=$
 - $(AxB) \cup (AxC) =$
 - $(B \cap C)xA =$
 - $(BxA)\cap(CxA)=$

PROVING SET IDENTITIES

Method:

To prove statements about sets, of the form $S_1 = S_2$ (where the Si are set expressions), here are three useful techniques:

- 1) Prove $S_1 \subseteq S_2$ and $S_2 \subseteq S_1$ separately.
- 2) Use set builder notation & logical equivalences.
- 3) Use a membership table.

METHOD 1: MUTUAL SUBSETS

Example:

Show $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. (Distributive properties)

- Part 1: Show $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Assume $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$, & show $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - We know that $x \in A$, and $x \in B$ or $x \in C$.
 - Case 1: $x \in B$. Then $x \in A \cap B$, so $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Case 2: $x \in C$. Then $x \in A \cap C$, so $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Therefore, $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Therefore, $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
- Part 2: Show $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subseteq A \cap (B \cup C)$.

...

METHOD 2: USE SET BUILDER NOTATION

Example 11: Proof that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$
 by definition of complement
$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in (A \cap B))\}$$
 by definition of does not belong symbol
$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \land x \in B)\}$$
 by definition of intersection
$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)\}$$
 by the first De Morgan law for logical equivalences
$$= \{x \mid x \notin A \lor x \notin B\}$$
 by definition of does not belong symbol
$$= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \lor x \in \overline{B}\}$$
 by definition of complement
$$= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \lor \overline{B}\}$$
 by definition of union
$$= \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
 by meaning of set builder notation

METHOD 3: MEMBERSHIP TABLES

Just like truth tables for propositional logic

- Columns for different set expressions.
- Rows for all combinations of memberships in constituent sets.
- Use "1" to indicate membership in the derived set, "0" for non-membership.
- Prove equivalence with identical columns.

Example:

Prove $(A \cup B) - B = A - B$

\boldsymbol{A}	B	$A \cup B$	$(A \cup B) - B$	A– B
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0

METHOD 3: MEMBERSHIP TABLES

Exercise:

Prove $(A \cup B) - C = (A - C) \cup (B - C)$.

ABC	$A \cup B$	$(A \cup B) - C$	A-C	B-C	$(A-C)\cup (B-C)$
0 0 0	0	0	7		0
0 0 1	0	0	1	18	0
0 1 0	1	1		100	11
0 1 1	1	0			0
100	1	1	- 4		W io
1 0 1	12	0		9	0
1 1 0	15	1		79.0	1
1 1 1	1	0		30	0

GENERALIZED UNION

- Union & intersection are commutative and associative.
- Binary union operator: $A \cup B$
- *n*-ary union:

$$A \cup A_2 \cup \ldots \cup A_n := ((\ldots((A_1 \cup A_2) \cup \ldots) \cup A_n))$$

(grouping & order is irrelevant)

- "Big U" notation: $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$ or for infinite sets: $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A$
- Or more generally: $\bigcup_{A \in X} A$

GENERALIZED INTERSECTION

- Union & intersection are commutative and associative.
- Binary intersection operator: $A \cap B$
- *n*-ary intersection:

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \ldots \cap A_n \equiv ((\ldots((A_1 \cap A_2) \cap \ldots) \cap A_n))$$

(grouping & order is irrelevant)

- "Big Arch" notation: $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$ or for infinite sets: $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A$
- Or more generally: $\bigcap_{A \in X} A$

GENERALIZED UNIONS & INTERSECTIONS

Example 16:

closed interval, open interval

- Let $A_i = [i, \infty), 1 \le i < \infty$ (For i is integer)
- Then

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = ?$$

$$[1,\infty)$$

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = ?$$

 $[n,\infty)$

Exampe 17:

- Let $A_i = [1,i], 1 \le i < \infty$ (For i is integer)
- Then

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \equiv ?$$

$$[1,\infty)$$

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = ?$$

{1}

REPRESENTATIONS

- A frequent theme of this course will be methods of *representing* one discrete structure using another discrete structure of a different type.
- **E.g.**, one can represent natural numbers as
 - Sets: $0:=\emptyset$, $1:=\{0\}$, $2:=\{0,1\}$, $3:=\{0,1,2\}$, ...
 - Bit strings: 0:=0, 1:=1, 2:=10, 3:=11, 4:=100, ...

REPRESENTING SETS WITH BIT STRINGS

Method:

For an enumerable u.d. U with ordering $x_1, x_2, ...,$ represent a finite set $S \subseteq U$ as the finite bit string $B = b_1 b_2 ... b_n$ where $\forall i : x_i \in S \leftrightarrow (i < n \land b_i = 1)$.

Example:

$$U=N$$
, $S=\{2,3,5,7,11\}$, $B=001101010001$.

■ In this representation, the set operators " \cup ", " \cap ", " $\overline{}$ " are implemented directly by bitwise OR, AND, NOT!

COMPUTER REPRESENTATION OF SETS

Example 18

- Let $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, and the ordering of elements of U has the elements in increasing order; that is, $a_i = i$.
- What bit strings represent the subset of all odd integers in U, the subset of all even integers in U, and the subset of integers not exceeding 5 in U?

1010101010, 0101010101, 11111100000

COMPUTER REPRESENTATION OF SETS

Example 19

• We have seen that the bit string for the set {1, 3, 5, 7, 9} (with universal set {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10}) is 10 1010 1010. What is the bit string for the complement of this set?

Example 20

• The bit strings for the sets {1, 2, 3, 4, 5} and {1, 3, 5, 7, 9} are 11 1110 0000 and 10 1010 1010, respectively. Use bit strings to find the union and intersection of these sets.

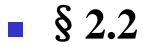
1111100000 1010101010 11111101010

1111100000 1010101010 1010100000

REVIEW of 2.2

- Set Operations: \cup , \cap , -, \oplus
- Set equality proof techniques:
 - Mutual subsets.
 - Derivation using logical equivalences.
 - Member table.

HOMEWORK



21, 32, 54