

Discrete Mathematics for Computer Science

Department of Computer Science

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Reference Book: Discrete Mathematics and its applications BY

Kenneth H. Rosen -8^{th} edition

2.1 Sets

- A set is a new type of structure, representing an unordered collection (group) of zero or more distinct (different) objects. The objects are called elements or members of the set.
 - ■Notation: $x \in S$
- Set theory deals with operations between, relations among, and statements about sets.

2.1 Sets

- The objects are called the elements or members of the set.
- Sets are denoted by capital letters A, B, C ..., X, Y, Z.
- The elements of a set are represented by lower case letters a, b, c, ..., x, y, z.
- If an object x is a member of a set A we write x Î A, which reads "x belongs to A" or "x is in A" or "x is an element of A", otherwise we write x ÏA, which reads "x does not belong to A" or "x is not in A" or "x is not an element of A".



Basic Properties of Sets

- Sets are inherently unordered:
 - No matter what objects a, b, and c denote,
 {a, b, c} = {a, c, b} = {b, a, c} =
 {b, c, a} = {c, a, b} = {c, b, a}.
- All elements are distinct (unequal); multiple listings make no difference!
 - If a = b, then $\{a, b, c\} = \{a, c\} = \{b, c\} = \{a, a, b, a, b, c, c, c, c\}$.
 - This set contains (at most) 2 elements!

Basic Notations for Sets

TABULAR FORM

Listing all the elements of a set, separated by commas and enclosed within braces or curly brackets{}.

EXAMPLES

 $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ is the set of first five **Natural Numbers**.

 $B = \{2, 4, 6, 8, ..., 50\}$ is the set of **Even numbers** up to 50.

 $C = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9, ...\}$ is the set of **positive odd numbers.**

NOTE

The symbol "..." is called an ellipsis. It is a short for "and so forth."

We can denote a set S in writing by listing all of its elements in curly braces:

9/21 [a,b,c] is the set whose elements are a, b, and c

Basic Notations for Sets

DESCRIPTIVE FORM:

Stating in words the elements of a set.

EXAMPLES

 $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

A = set of first five Natural Numbers(Descriptive Form)

 $B = \{2, 4, 6, 8, ..., 50\}$

B = set of positive even integers less or equal to fifty.

 $C = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9, ...\}$

C = set of positive odd integers. (Descriptive Form)

Basic Notations for Sets

Set builder notation:

- For any statement P(x) over any domain, $\{x \mid P(x)\}\$ is the set of all x such that P(x) is true
- **Example**: {1, 2, 3, 4}
 - = $\{x \mid x \text{ is an integer where } x > 0 \text{ and } x < 5 \}$
 - = $\{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid x > 0 \text{ and } x < 5 \}$

SUBSET

SUBSET: If A & B are two sets, A is called a subset of B, written A ⊆ B, if, and only if, any element of A is also an element of B. **Symbolically:** A ⊆ B \Leftrightarrow if x ∈ A then x ∈ B

REMARK:

- 1. When $A \subseteq B$, then B is called a superset of A.
- 2. When A is not subset of B, then there exist at least one $x \in A$ such that $x \notin B$.
- 3. Every set is a subset of itself.

EXAMPLES:

 $A = \{1, 3, 5\} B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} C = \{1, 2, 3, 4\} D = \{3, 1, 5\}$

 $A \subseteq B$ (Because every element of A is in B)

 $C \subseteq B$ (Because every element of C is also an element of B)

Proper SUBSET

SUBSET: Let A and B be sets. A is a proper subset of B, if, and only if, every element of A is in B but there is at least one element of B that is not in A, and is denoted as $A \subset B$.

EXAMPLE:

Let $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ $B = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$ then $A \subset B$ (Because there is an element 2 of B which is not in A).

Try Yourself! Prove that empty set is a subset of any set.



Definition of Set Equality

- Two sets are declared to be equal if and only if they contain exactly the same elements.
- In particular, it does not matter how the set is defined or denoted.
- Example:

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The set {1, 2, 3, 4}
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- = $\{x \mid x \text{ is an integer where } x > 0 \text{ and } x < 5\}$
- = $\{x \mid x \text{ is a positive integer where } x^2 < 20\}$

Infinite Sets

- Conceptually, sets may be infinite (i.e., not finite, without end, unending).
- Symbols for some special infinite sets:

$$N = \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$$
 the set of Natural numbers.

$$Z = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2,...\}$$
 the set of Integers.

$$Z^+ = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$$
 the set of positive Integers.

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p,q \in \mathbf{Z}, \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$$

the set of Rational numbers.

R = the set of "Real" numbers.



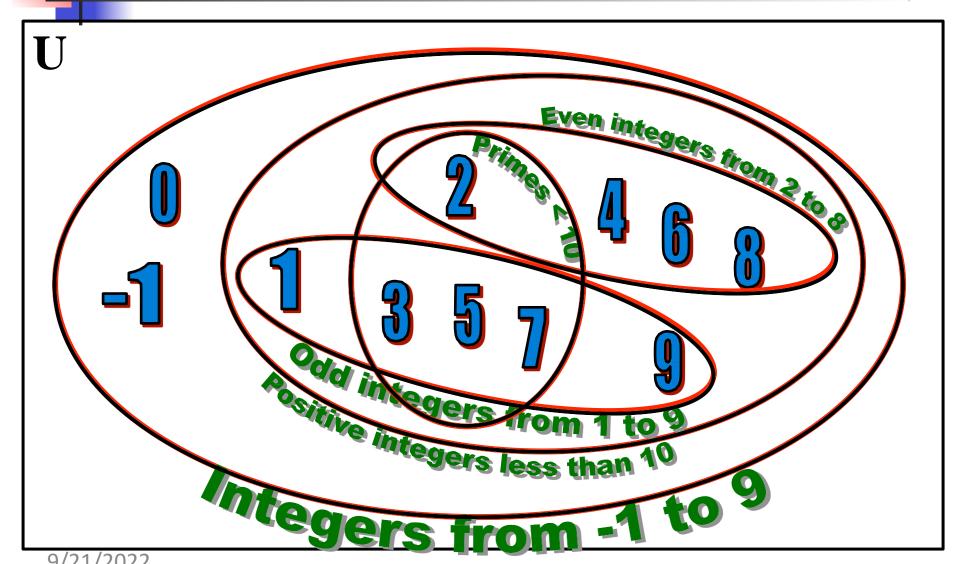
Basic Set Relations

- x∈S ("x is in S") is the proposition that object x is an ∈lement or member of set S.
 - $e.g. 3 \in \mathbb{N}$, $a \in \{x \mid x \text{ is a letter of the alphabet}\}$
 - Can define set equality in terms of \in relation: $\forall S, T$: $S = T \leftrightarrow [\forall x (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)]$ "Two sets are equal iff they have all the same members."
- $x \notin S \equiv \neg(x \in S)$ "x is not in S"

The Empty Set

- Ø ("null", "the empty set") is the unique set that contains no elements whatsoever.
- $= \emptyset = \{ \} = \{ x \mid \mathsf{False} \}$
- No matter the domain of discourse, we have the axiom $\neg \exists x$: $x \in \emptyset$.
- $\blacksquare \{ \} \neq \{\emptyset\} = \{ \{ \} \} \}$
 - \blacksquare { \varnothing } it isn't empty because it has \varnothing as a member!

Venn Diagrams





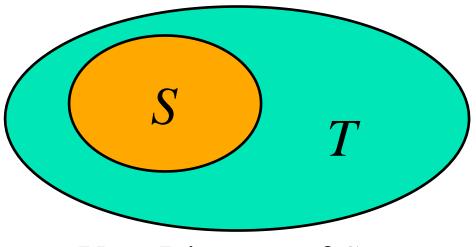
Subset and Superset

- $S \subseteq T$ ("S is a subset of T") means that every element of S is also an element of T.
- $\blacksquare S \subseteq T \equiv \forall x (x \in S \rightarrow x \in T)$
- Ø⊆S, S⊆S
- $S \supset T$ ("S is a superset of T") means $T \subseteq S$
- Note $(S = T) \equiv (S \subseteq T \land T \subseteq S)$ $\equiv \forall x (x \in S \rightarrow x \in T) \land \forall x (x \in T \rightarrow x \in S)$ $\equiv \forall x (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)$
- $S \nsubseteq T$ means $\neg (S \subseteq T)$, *i.e.* $\exists x (x \in S \land x \notin T)$



Proper (Strict) Subsets & Supersets

- $S \subset T$ ("S is a proper subset of T") means that $S \subseteq T$ but $T \not\subseteq S$. Similar for $S \supset T$.
- Example: {1, 2} ⊂ {1, 2, 3}



Sets Are Objects, Too!

- The objects that are elements of a set may themselves be sets.
- Example:

Let
$$S = \{x \mid x \subseteq \{1, 2, 3\}\}$$

then $S = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

■ Note that $1 \neq \{1\} \neq \{\{1\}\}$!!!!





Cardinality and Finiteness

- |S| (read "the *cardinality* of S") is a measure of how many <u>different</u> elements S has.
- E.g., $|\varnothing| = 0$, $|\{1, 2, 3\}| = 3$, $|\{a, b\}| = 2$, $|\{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5\}\}| = 2$

The Power Set Operation

- The *power set* P(S) of a set S is the set of all subsets of S. $P(S) = \{x \mid x \subseteq S\}$.
- Examples

$$-P(\{a, b\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\} \}$$

$$S = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$P(S) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{0, 1, 2\}\}$$

- $P(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$
- $P(\{\varnothing\}) = \{\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}\}$
- Note that for finite S, $|P(S)| = 2^{|S|}$.
- It turns out $\forall S (|P(S)| > |S|)$, e.g. |P(N)| > |N|.



Cartesian Products of Sets

■ For sets A and B, their **Cartesian product** denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Hence,

$$A \times B = \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A \land b \in B \}$$

- E.g. $\{a, b\} \times \{1, 2\}$ = $\{(a, 1), (a, 2), (b, 1), (b, 2)\}$
- Note that for finite A, B, $|A \times B| = |A||B|$.
- Note that the Cartesian product is **not** commutative: *i.e.*, $\neg \forall A, B (A \times B = B \times A)$.
- Extends to $A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_n$ = $\{(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$

4

The Union Operator

- For sets A and B, their **union** $A \cup B$ is the set containing all elements that are either in A, **or** (" \vee ") in B (or, of course, in both).
- Formally, $\forall A,B$: $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$.
- Note that A∪B is a superset of both A and B (in fact, it is the smallest such superset):

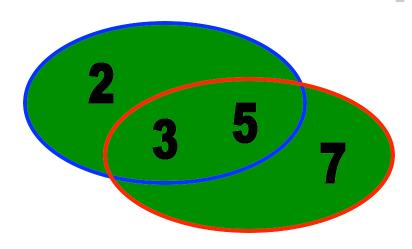
$$\forall A,B: (A \cup B \supset A) \land (A \cup B \supset B)$$



Union Examples

- \blacksquare {a, b, c} \cup {2, 3} = {a, b, c, 2, 3}
- $= \{2, 3, 5\} \cup \{3, 5, 7\} = \{2, 3, 5, 3, 5, 7\}$ $= \{2, 3, 5, 7\}$

Required Form



The Intersection Operator

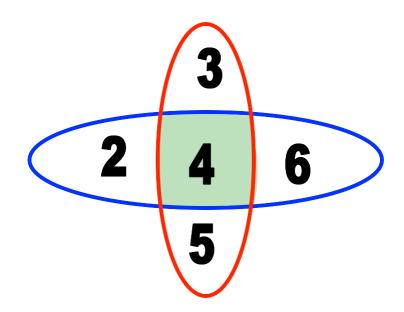
- For sets A and B, their *intersection* $A \cap B$ is the set containing all elements that are simultaneously in A and (" \wedge ") in B.
- Formally, $\forall A,B$: $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$.
- Note that A∩B is a subset of both A and B (in fact it is the largest such subset):

$$\forall A,B: (A \cap B \subseteq A) \land (A \cap B \subseteq B)$$



Intersection Examples

- $\{a, b, c\} \cap \{2, 3\} = \emptyset$
- $= \{2, 4, 6\} \cap \{3, 4, 5\} = \underline{\{4\}}$



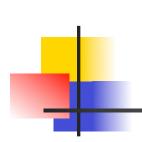


Disjointedness

Two sets A, B are called disjoint (i.e., unjoined) iff their intersection is empty. (A ∩ B = ∅)

Example: the set of even integers is disjoint with the set of odd integers.





Inclusion-Exclusion Principle

- How many elements are in $A \cup B$? $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$
- Example: How many students in the class major in Computer Science or Mathematics?
 - Consider set $E = C \cup M$, $C = \{s \mid s \text{ is a Computer Science major}\}$ $M = \{s \mid s \text{ is a Mathematics major}\}$
 - Some students are joint majors! $|E| = |C \cup M| = |C| + |M| - |C \cap M|$

Set Difference

- For sets A and B, the difference of A and B, written A B, is the set of all elements that are in A but not B.
- Formally:

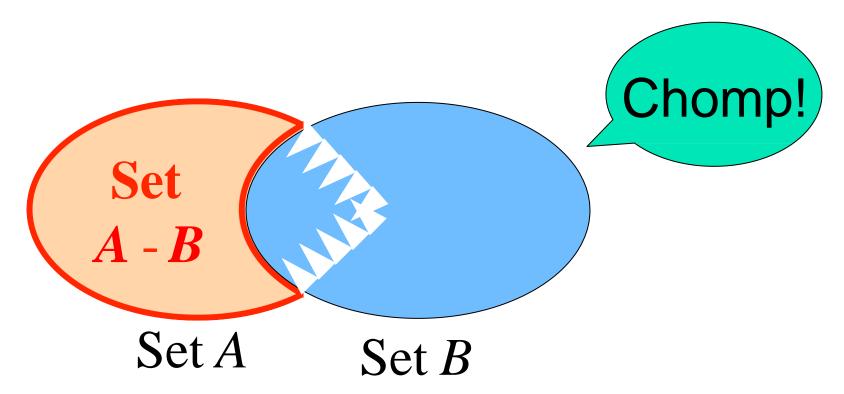
$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \notin B\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \to x \in B)\}$$

Also called:
The complement of B with respect to A.



Set Difference: Venn Diagram

■ A - B
is what's left after B "takes a bite out of A"





Set Difference Examples

- (1)
$$\frac{7}{4}$$
, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{6}{5}$, $\frac{6}{6}$ - {2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11} = {1, 4, 6}

■ **Z** - **N** = {..., -1, 0, 1, 2, ...} - {0, 1, ...}
= {
$$x \mid x$$
 is an integer but not a natural #}
= {..., -3, -2, -1}
= { $x \mid x$ is a negative integer}



Set Complements

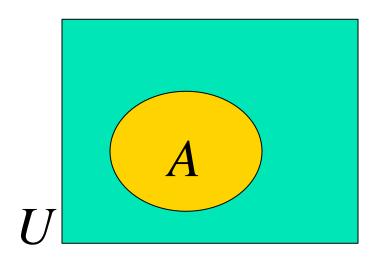
- The universe of discourse (or the domain) can itself be considered a set, call it U.
- When the context clearly defines U, we say that for any set $A \subseteq U$, the **complement** of A, written as \overline{A} , is the complement of A with respect to U, *i.e.*, it is U A.
- E.g., If U = N, $\overline{\{3,5\}} = \{0,1,2,4,6,7,...\}$

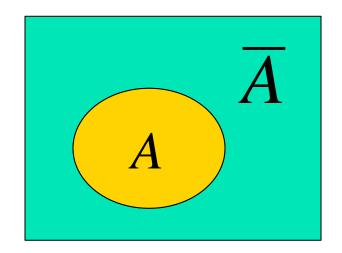


More on Set Complements

An equivalent definition, when U is obvious:

$$\overline{A} = \{ x \mid x \notin A \}$$





Computer Representation of Sets

- **How to represent sets in the computer?**
- One solution: Data structures like a list
- A better solution:
- First, specify an arbitrary ordering of the elements of U, for instance $a1, a2, \ldots, an$. Represent a subset A of U with the bit string of length n, where the ith bit in this string is 1 if ai belongs to A and is 0 if ai does not belong to A.

Example: All possible elements: U={1 2 3 4 5}

- Assume $A = \{2,5\}$
- Computer representation: A = 01001
- Assume $B = \{1,5\}$
- Computer representation: B = 10001



Interval Notation

- \blacksquare a, $b \in \mathbb{R}$, and a < b then
 - $-(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x < b\}$ Open Interval
 - \blacksquare [a, b] = {x ∈ R | a ≤ x ≤ b} Closed Interval
 - $-(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x \le b\}$
 - $-(-\infty, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \le b\}$
 - $[a, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \le x\}$
 - $(a, ∞) = {x ∈ R | a < x}$



Set Identities

- Identity: $A \cup \emptyset = A = A \cap U$
- Domination: $A \cup U = U$, $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- Idempotent: $A \cup A = A$, $A \cap A = A$
- Double complement: $\overline{(A)} = A$
- Commutative: $A \cup B = B \cup A$, $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- Associative: $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$,

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

■ Distributive: $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$,

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

- Absorption: $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$, $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$
- Complement: $A \cup \overline{A} = U$, $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$



DeMorgan's Law for Sets

Exactly analogous to (and provable from) DeMorgan's Law for propositions.

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

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



Proving Set Identities

- To prove statements about sets, of the form $E_1 = E_2$ (where the E_3 are set expressions), here are three useful techniques:
 - Use set builder notation
 logical equivalences.
 - 2. Use a membership table.
 - 3. Use a Venn diagram.

Method 1: Set Builder Notation & Logical Equivalence

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

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin (A \cap B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in (A \cap B))\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \land x \in B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid x \notin A \lor x \notin B\}$$

$$= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \lor x \in \overline{B}\}$$

$$= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}\}$$

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

def. of complement

def. of "does not belong"

def. of intersection

De Morgan's law (logic)

def. of "does not belong"

def. of complement

def. of union

by set builder notation



Method 2: Membership Tables

- Analog to truth tables in 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.



Membership Table Example

■ Prove $(A \cup B) - B = A - B$.

| A | B | $A \cup B$ | $(A \cup B) - B$ | A-B |
|---|---|------------|------------------|-----|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | \setminus O | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |



Membership Table Exercise

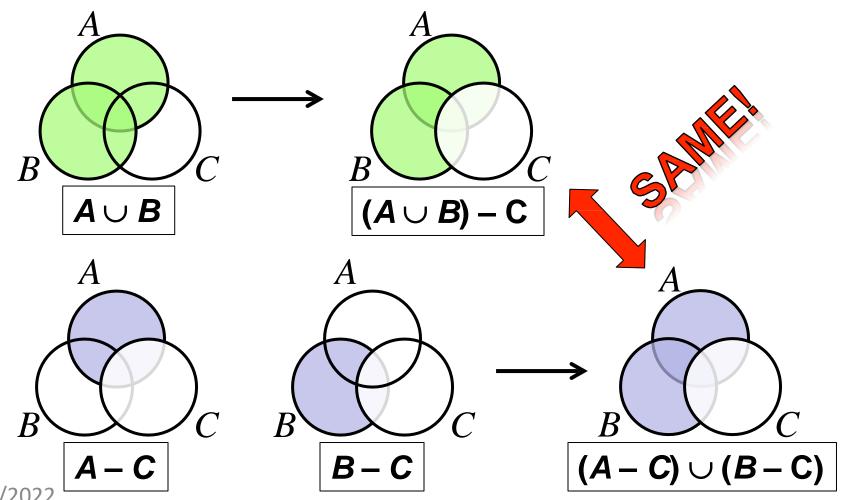
■ Prove $(A \cup B) - C = (A - C) \cup (B - C)$.

| ABC | $A \cup B$ | A | $\cup B$ | -C | A-C | B-C | A-C | $C) \cup ($ | (B-C) |
|-------|------------|---|----------|----|-----|-----|-----|-------------|-------|
| 1 1 1 | 1 | | 0 | | 0 | 0 | | 0 | |
| 1 1 0 | 1 | | 1 | | 1 | 1 | | 1 | |
| 1 0 1 | 1 | | 0 | | 0 | 0 | | 0 | |
| 1 0 0 | 1 | | 1 | | 1 | 0 | | 1 | |
| 0 1 1 | 1 | | 0 | | 0 | 0 | | 0 | |
| 0 1 0 | 1 | | 1 | | 0 | 1 | | 1 | |
| 0 0 1 | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | 0 | | 0 | |
| 0 0 0 | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | 0 | | 0 | |



Method 3: Venn Diagram

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



Venn Diagram

UNION:

Let A and B be subsets of a universal set U. The union of sets A and B is the set of all elements in U that belong to A or to B or to both, and is denoted $A \cup B$. Symbolically:

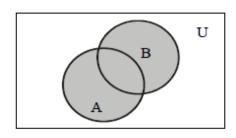
$$A \cup B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

EMAMPLE:

Let
$$U = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$$

 $A = \{a, c, e, g\}, B = \{d, e, f, g\}$
Then $A \cup B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$
 $= \{a, c, d, e, f, g\}$

VENN DIAGRAM FOR UNION:



A ∪ B is shaded



Venn Diagram

UNION:

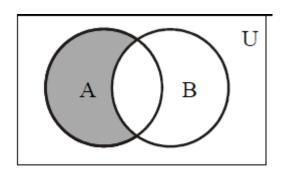
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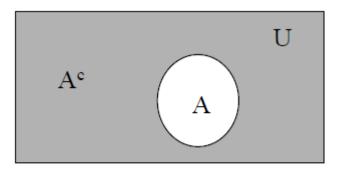
$$A \cup B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

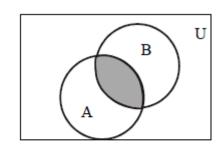
EMAMPLE:

Let
$$U = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$$

 $A = \{a, c, e, g\}, B = \{d, e, f, g\}$
Then $A \cup B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$
 $= \{a, c, d, e, f, g\}$







A-B is shaded 9/21/2022 Discrete Mathematics I Fall 2022

Ac is shaded

A ∩ B is shaded

Venn Diagram

EXERCISE:

Given the following universal set U and its two subsets P and Q, where

$$U = \{x \mid x \in Z, 0 \le x \le 10\}$$

 $P = \{x \mid x \text{ is a prime number}\}\$

$$Q = \{x \mid x^2 < 70\}$$

- (i) Draw a Venn diagram for the above
- (ii) List the elements in $Pc \cap Q$

$$P^{c} = U - P = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 10\} - \{2, 3, 5, 7\}$$

= \{0, 1, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10\}

and

$$\begin{array}{c} U \\ \hline 2,3,5,7P \\ \hline 0,1,4,6,8 \\ \hline 9/21/2022 \\ \text{Discrete Mathematics I Fall 2022} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 9,10 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$P^{c} \cap Q = \{0, 1, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10\} \cap \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$$

= $\{0, 1, 4, 6, 8\}$

Proving Set Identities by Venn Diagram

Prove the following using Venn Diagrams:

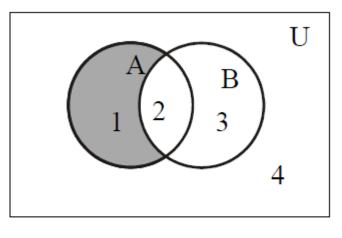
(i)
$$A - (A - B) = A \cap B$$

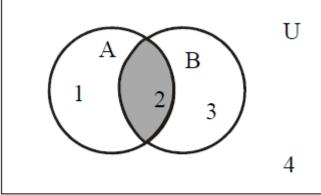
(ii)
$$(A \cap B)^C = A^C \cup B^C$$

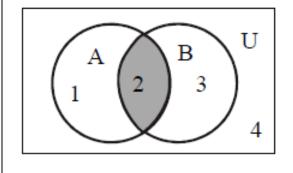
(iii)
$$A - B = A \cap B^C$$

$$A = \{ 1, 2 \}$$

 $B = \{ 2, 3 \}$







 $A \cap B$ is shaded

$$A - B$$
 is shaded

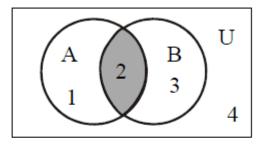
$$A - (A - B)$$
 is shaded

Proving Set Identities by Venn Diagram

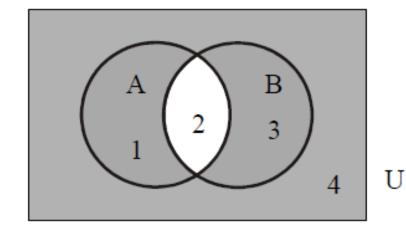
SOLUTION (ii)

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

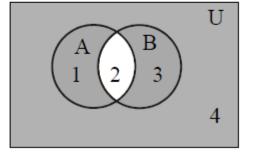
(a)



 $A \cap B$



(b)



 $A^c \cup B^c$ is shaded.

 $(A \cap B)^c$

Proving Set Identities by Membership Table

Prove the following using Membership Table:

(i)
$$A - (A - B) = A \cap B$$

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

(iii)
$$A - B = A \cap B^C$$

$$A = \{ 1, 2 \}$$

 $B = \{ 2, 3 \}$

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

| A | В | A-B | A-(A-B) | A∩B |
|---|---|-----|---------|-----|
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

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

| A | В | A∩B | $(A \cap B)^{c}$ | A c | B° | $\mathbf{A}^{\mathfrak{c}} \cup \mathbf{B}^{\mathfrak{c}}$ |
|---|---|-----|------------------|-----|----|--|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Applications of Venn Diagram

- A number of computer users are surveyed to find out if they have a printer, modem or scanner. Draw separate Venn diagrams and shade the areas,
- which represent the following configurations:
- (i) modem and printer but no scanner
- (ii) scanner but no printer and no modem
- (iii) scanner or printer but no modem.
- (iv) no modem and no printer.

Let

P represent the set of computer users having printer.

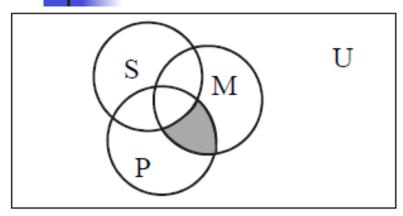
M represent the set of computer users having modem.

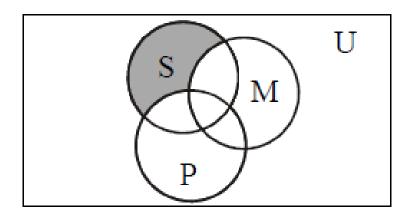
S represent the set of computer users having scanner.

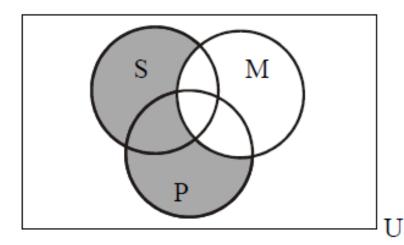
Discrete Mathematics I Fall 2022

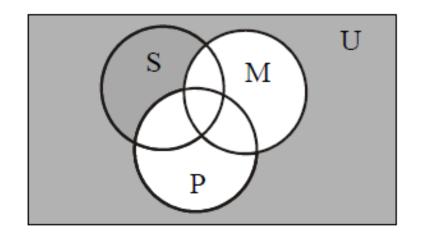


Applications of Venn Diagram











Applications of Venn Diagram

Do Yourself!

- Of 21 typists in an office, 5 use all manual typewriters (M), electronic typewriters (E) and word processors (W); 9 use E and W; 7 use M and W; 6 use M and E; but no one uses M only.
- (i) Represent this information in a Venn Diagram.
- (ii) If the same number of typists use electronic as use word processors, then
- 1. (a) How many use word processors only,
- 2. (b) How many use electronic typewriters?