37181: WEEK 3: EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM, SET THEORY

A/Prof Murray Elder, UTS Wednesday 7 August 2019

PLAN

- · introduction to set theory notation
- · Division and remainder lemma
- Euclidean algorithm
- power set

SET THEORY

A set is a well-defined collection of objects. ¹ The objects are called elements of the set, or members of the set.

We can represent a set using brackets, for example

$$A = \{1, 2, a, 5, c, 3\}.$$

The elements are the five symbols you see listed inside the brackets. We could also describe a set using variables satisfying some

A =
$$\{x \mid ((x \in \mathbb{N}) \land (1 \leqslant x \leqslant 5) \land (x \neq 4)) \lor (x = a) \lor (x = c)\}$$
.

The set $\{1, 5, 3, c, \underline{a, 1, 2}\}$ is the same as the set A, since a set is defined only by the elements it contains, no matter how they are listed or displayed.

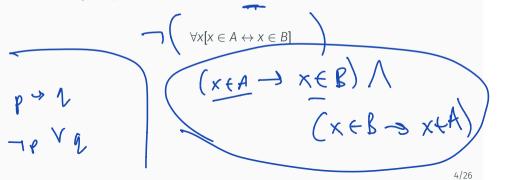
¹Carefully defining what well-defined means will take us beyond the scope of this 3/26 course, into axiomatic set theory and foundations of mathematics.

SET THEORY

belongs to in

The notation $x \in A$ means x is an element of A and $x \notin A$ means $\neg (x \in A)$.

Formally, if A, B are sets we define A = B if



SET THEORY

Eg:

- $A = \{x \mid x \in \mathbb{Q}, x < 0\}$ $B = \{y \mid y \in \mathbb{R}, y^2 = 2\}$ Test: where does $-\sqrt{2}$ live?

Definition A,B sets.

- $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\} \text{ (intersection)}$
- $\cdot A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$ (union)

Note the similarity of notation for \cap and \wedge , and \cup and \vee .

In our Eg:
$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

YOUR TURN



Let $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}, B = \{b, d, e\}, C = \{f, g, a\}.$ Find

1. $(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) = \{a, b, d\}$ 2. $A \cap (B \cup C) = \{a, b, d\}$



A pictorial way to do this exercise is to draw a Venn diagram.



SETMINUS

If A, B are sets then $A \setminus B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \notin B\}$.

Eg:
$$A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}, B = \{b, d, e\}, C = \{f, g, a\}.$$
 Find

1. $A \setminus B$

C

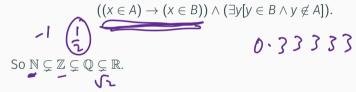
- 2. *A* \ *C*



MORE NOTATION

If
$$A, B$$
 are sets we say A is a subset of B if $\forall x \in A, x \in B$ or $(x \in A) \rightarrow (x \in B)$. Notation $A \subseteq B$.

The notation $A \subsetneq B$ means strictly contains:



Let \mathscr{U} be some large "universal" set, so we assume all sets we speak about are subsets of \mathscr{U} . Then $\overline{A} = \{x \mid x \notin A\} = \mathscr{U} \setminus A$ means the set of elements in \mathscr{U} that are not in A.



LOGIC VS. SET THEORY

There is a <u>strong connection</u> to the logic we covered before. We have three operations on sets: \cap , \cup , which we can use to build new sets from old ones, and in logic we have three connectives \wedge , \vee , \neg .

Recall the tautologies in logic such as

$$(p \land q) \leftrightarrow \neg p \lor \neg q$$
 DeMorga

In set theory we could consider sets

$$\overline{A \cap B}$$
 and $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.

How do we show two sets are the same? We show they contain exactly the same elements.

Formally, if A, B are sets we define A = B if

$$\forall x ((x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)) \land (x \in B)$$

DE MORGAN (SET VERSION)

ANB SAU

Lemma

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

The proof goes: pick some arbitrary element of the LHS.

Show it belongs to the RHS.

Since we picked an arbitrary thing, this shows everything in the LHS $\times \in \mathcal{B}$ is also in the RHS, so LHS \subseteq RHS. $\longrightarrow \times \in \overline{\mathcal{A}} \cup \overline{\mathcal{B}}$

Repeat to get RHS \subseteq LHS, then LHS=RHS.

DE MORGAN (SET VERSION)

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

Proof. Suppose $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$.

Then x is not in $A \cap B$.

Now either $x \in A$ or not. If $x \in A$ then since $x \notin A \cap B$ we must have x is not in B.

So either $x \in \overline{A}$ or $x \in \overline{B}$, so $x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.

Thus

$$\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
.

YOUR TURN

Next, start over and suppose $x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.

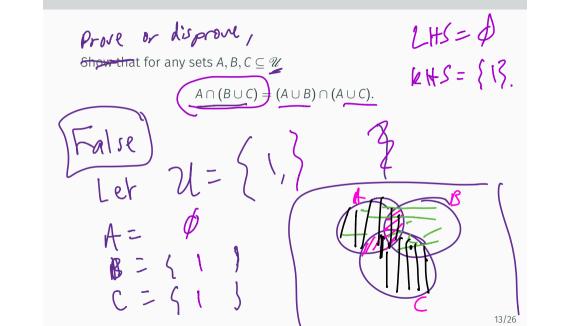
Thus

$$\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$$
.

Since each set is contained in the other, they are equal.



YOUR TURN



VENN DIAGRAMS ARE NOT PROOFS

Note: a *Venn diagram* can be useful to check if a statement about sets looks correct, or to find a counterexample.

But drawing a picture of a Venn diagram does not constitute a proof – you must do the LHS, RHS proof.

Eg: check if you think $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap C$ is true or not.

PAUSE

RECALL

An element s in a subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is called a *first element* in S if $s \leqslant x$ for every $x \in S$.

Eg: $\{5,4,6,7\}$ has a first element, 4.

Lemma

First elements are unique. (So we can say "the" first element).



Axiom (Well ordering principle)

Every non-empty subset of $\ensuremath{\mathbb{N}}$ has a first element.

axiom = fact which does not follow from other facts.

Let
$$n, d \in \mathbb{Z}$$
 with $d > 0$. Then there exist $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leqslant r < d$ such

n-100nd=n(1-100a)

that
$$n = qd + r$$
.

Proof: Define
$$M = \{n - qd \mid q \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$
. Then $M \cap \mathbb{N}$ is a subset of $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots \}$

It is non-empty because if $n \ge 0$ you can take q = 0 and if n < 0 take q = 100n (which is a negative number, so -qd is a big positive

Therefore by the well ordering principle
$$M \cap \mathbb{N}$$
 has a first element, call it r .

number).

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n=50, d=7 50=7.7+1

APPLICATION: DIVISION AND REMAINDER

Since $r \in M \cap \mathbb{N}$ we have $r \geqslant 0$ and r = n - qd for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

If $r \ge d$ (for contradiction) then $r - d \ge 0$ and r - d = n - (q + 1)d so belongs to $M \cap \mathbb{N}$, and is smaller than r, contradicting our choice of r as first element.

APPLICATION OF DIVISION LEMMA

Definition

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $d \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the greatest common divisor of a and b if $d \mid a, d \mid b$, and if $c \mid a, c \mid b$ then $c \mid d$.

Eg: compute

$$gcd(3,9) = 45$$

 $gcd(6,8) = 452$

$$gcd(6,8) = 4$$

The following algorithm claims to compute gcd. It is called the Euclidean algorithm. We should not believe this claim, until we know how to prove algorithms are correct (lecture 6):

1. stops 2. gives the correct output

EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

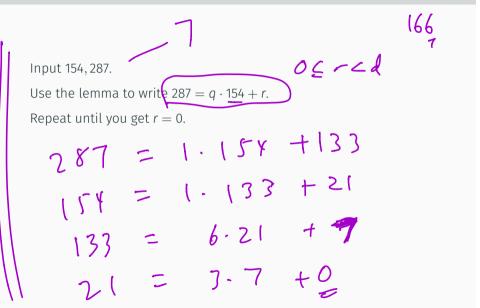
Use the lemma to write $187 = q_1 \cdot 54 + r_1$.

Use the lemma to write $54 = \frac{2}{q_2} \cdot 2 + r_2$.

Repeat until you get
$$r_i = 0$$
. 25 = 6.4 + 1
4 = 4.1 + 0

$$g(\lambda(m,n)=r_{i-1})$$

YOUR TURN



ONE MORE PROOF

Lemma

Let $n, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ with d > 0. Then there exist unique integers q, r with $0 \le r < d$ such that n = qd + r.

Proof.

 $r_1 - r_2 = d(q_2 - q_1).$

We already proved some q, r values exist. Suppose they are not unique.

Then we have q_1, q_2, r_1, r_2 and $n = q_1d + r_1 = q_2d + r_2$ so

This means d divides $r_1 - r_2$, but since they are both between 0 and d-1 we must have $r_1 - r_2 = 0$, so $r_1 = r_2$ and then $q_1 - q_2 = 0$ so $q_1 = q_2$.

BACK TO THE DEFINITION OF "SET"

The next exercise explains why well-defined collection of objects is not quite good enough.

Let P(S) be the property (of sets) that S does not contain itself. For example, $P(\mathbb{N})$ is true because \mathbb{N} contains numbers, it does not contain sets so it cannot contain itself.

Another example: the *empty set* \emptyset is the set that has no elements, $\emptyset = \{\}$. So it contains nothing so cannot contain itself.

(a) Give some more examples.

BACK TO THE DEFINITION OF "SET"

Consider the set of all abstract concepts. Call it \mathscr{A} . Then A contains things like art, postmodernism, democracy, imaginary numbers.

(b) Which is true:
$$\mathscr{A} \in \mathscr{A}$$
 or $\mathscr{A} \notin \mathscr{A}$?

Let $\mathcal{S} = \{S \mid P(S)\}$ be the set of all sets that do not contain themselves.

So
$$\mathbb{N} \in \mathscr{S}$$
 and $\mathscr{A} \notin \mathscr{S}$.

(c) Which is true:
$$\mathscr{S} \in \mathscr{S}$$
 or $\mathscr{S} \notin \mathscr{S}$?

The moral of this story: you cannot define a set using a condition, in general. *i.e.* $\{x \mid P(x)\}$ may not actually be a well-defined collection of objects.

POWER SET

Let A be a set. Then (axiom)

$$\mathscr{P}(A) = \{B \mid B \subseteq A\}$$

is a set. Its called the *power set* of A.

Questions:

- is $\emptyset \in \mathscr{P}(A)$?
- is $A \in \mathcal{P}(A)$?
- is $\mathscr{P}(A) \in \mathscr{P}(A)$?

Another axiom: ∅ is a set.

What can you build with just these two axioms?

YOUR TURN

• Given $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ is a set, what is $\mathcal{P}(A)$?

• Prove that if A is a set then $A \subsetneq \mathscr{P}(A)$

NEXT

Next lecture:

- induction
- · correctness of computer code
- relations and functions