

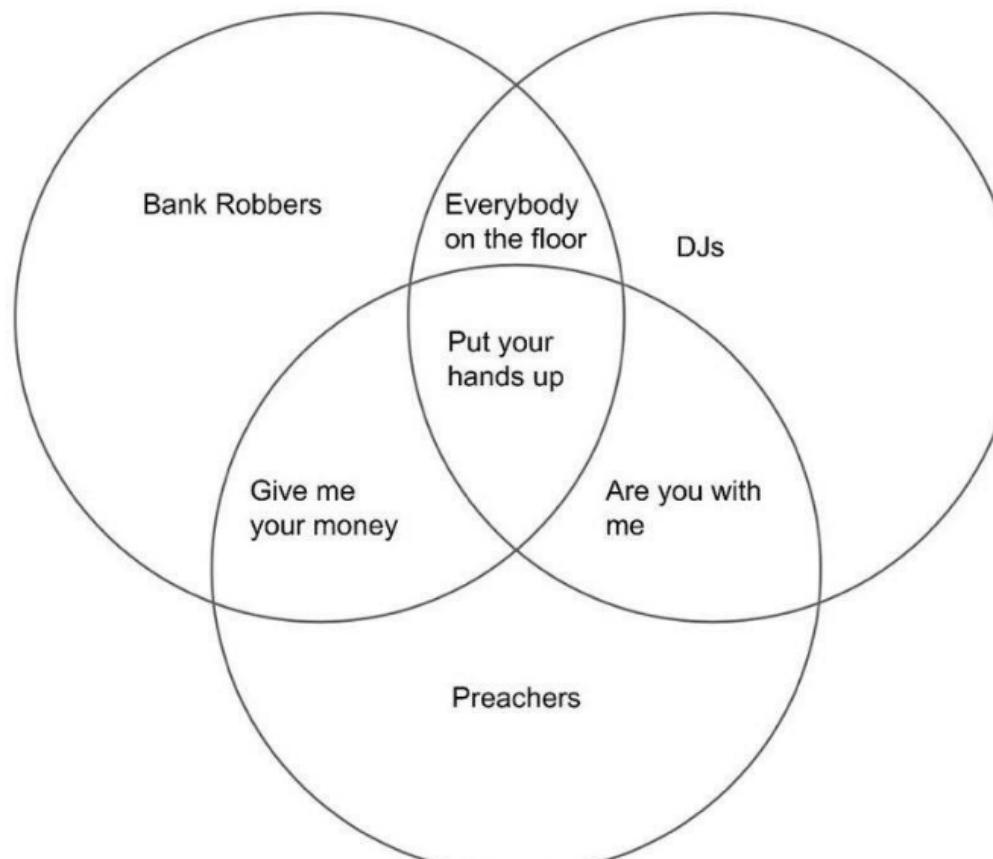
1 101100001000 101100001000 101100001000 101100001000 101100001000

CSCI 2824: Discrete Structures

Lecture 12: Set Theory and Set Operations

Rachel Cox

Department of
Computer Science



0 101100001000 101100001000 101100001000 101100001000 101100001000

Set Theory

\in

"is an element of"

A **set** is an unordered collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A . The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that a is not an element of the set A .

N $N = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$ the set of natural numbers

Z $Z = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ the set of integers

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

$Q = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p \in Z, q \in Z, \text{and } q \neq 0 \right\}$ the set of rational numbers

\emptyset aka {} empty set

$A = \{cat, dog, 1, 8, -7, circle\}$

$V = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$

- ❖ Typically sets are denoted with uppercase letters while elements of sets are denoted by lowercase letters.

Set Theory

Roster Method: set notation where all members of the set are listed between braces.

e.g. $B = \{bison, mountain lion, deer, rabbit, coyote, prairie dog\}$

Set Builder Notation: members of a set are characterized by stating the property or properties they must have to be members.

e.g. $C = \{x \mid x > 3\}$



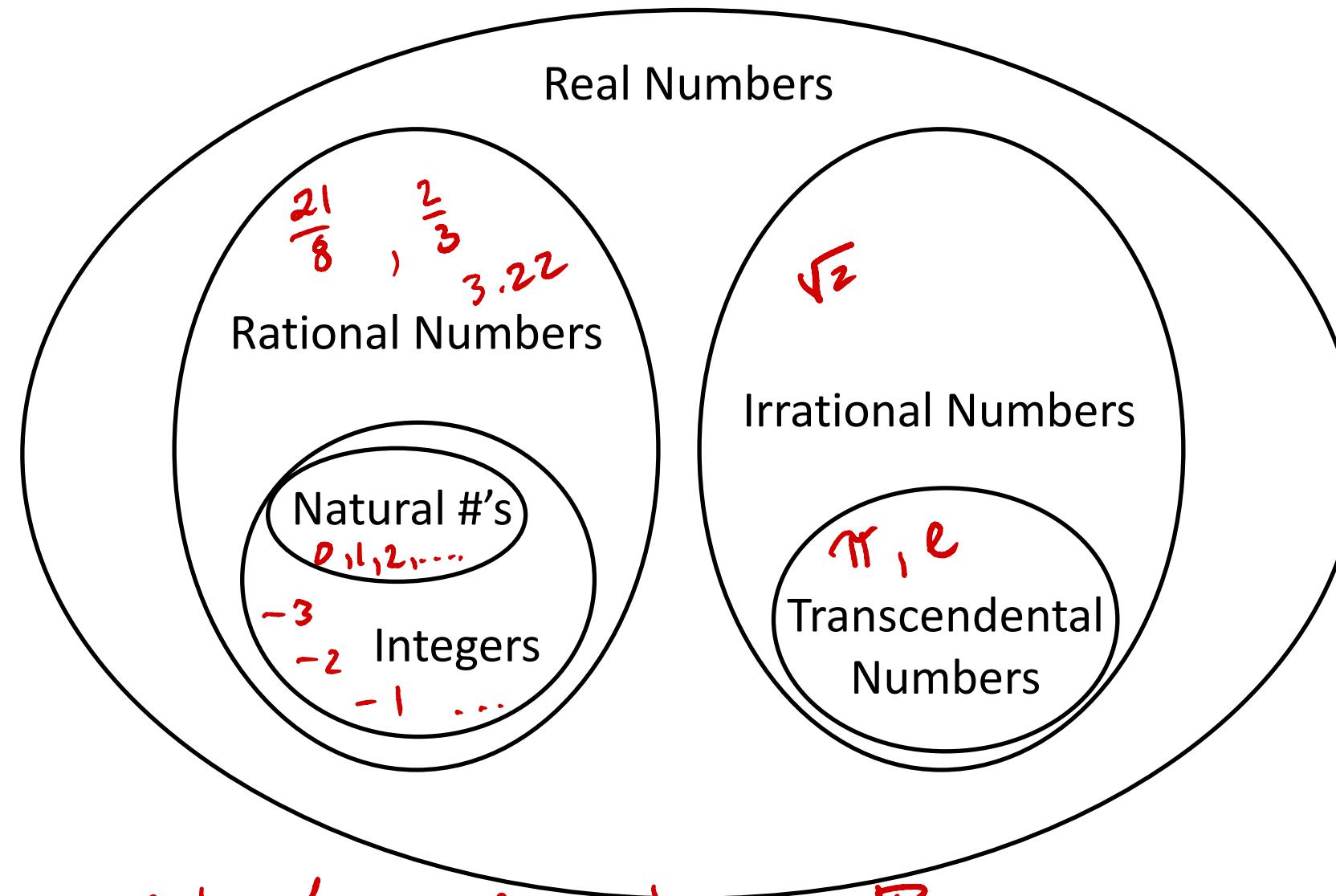
$$C = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x > 3\}$$

$$C = \{4, 5, 6, \dots\}$$

$$A = [1, 3]$$

set of real numbers

Set Theory



Set of Real numbers: \mathbb{R}

The set A is a subset of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B .

- denoted: $A \subseteq B$

means: $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$

↑
is in

$$\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

$$\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$$

Set Theory

\subseteq vs. \subset

analogous $x \leq 3$

vs. $x < 3$

To show that $A \subseteq B$ you have to show that every element of A is also in B .

To show that $A \not\subseteq B$ you have to find just one element in A that is not in B .

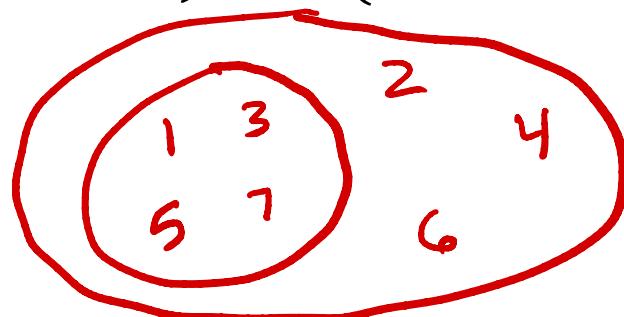
Proper Subset: In order for A to be a proper subset of B we must have that A is a subset of B but that $A \neq B$.

➤ denoted: $\underline{A \subset B}$

$\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z}$

$\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$

➤ means: $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \wedge \exists x(x \in B \wedge x \notin A)$ •



Set Theory

Two sets are **equal** if and only if they have the same elements. Therefore, if A and B are sets, then A and B are equal if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$. We write $A = B$ if A and B are equal sets.

Example: Consider the sets $A = \{ black, gold, ralphie, 2018 \}$ and $B = \{ gold, black, 2018, 2018, ralphie, black \}$.
Are these sets equal?

yes!

Set Theory

- ❖ Sets can have pretty much anything in them, including other sets.
e.g. $S = \{0, 1, \{0, 1, 2\}, \mathbf{Z}, \text{lamp}\}$

- ❖ Sets have no ordering. e.g. $\{1, 2, 3, 4\} = \{4, 3, 2, 1\}$

- ❖ Repeated elements don't matter. e.g. $\{\text{cat}, \text{dog}\} = \{\text{cat}, \text{cat}, \text{dog}\}$

Theorem: For every set S , $\emptyset \subseteq S$ and $S \subseteq S$

Set Theory

Three Special Sets

The Empty Set: The set that has no elements \emptyset or $\{\}$

The Singleton Set: A set with only one element

The Power Set: set of all subsets of a set S $P(S)$

$P(S)$

Example: $P(\{0, 1, 2\}) =$

$\{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{0, 1, 2\}\}$

► If S has n elements then $P(S)$ has 2^n elements.

Set Theory

The number of elements in a set is called the sets cardinality. If a set's cardinality is a finite number, then we say the set is finite.

Example: What is the cardinality of the english alphabet?

26

A
 $|A|$ cardinality
of
 A

Example: What is the cardinality of \mathbb{Z} ?

infinite ← will discuss
size of infinity
next week.

Set Theory

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

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A \wedge b \in B\}$$

The Cartesian product of the sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n , denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$, is the set of ordered n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) , where a_i belongs to A_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) | a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\} \quad \blacksquare$$

Example: Think about ordered pairs of integers representing points in the xy-plane. $(3, 5)$ is very different from $(5, 3)$

Set Theory

Example: What is the Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$ where $A = \{a, b\}$, $B = \{x, y\}$, and $C = \{m, n\}$

$$A = \{a, b\}$$

$$B = \{x, y\}$$

$$C = \{m, n\}$$

$$A \times B \times C = \{(a, x, m), (a, x, n), (a, y, m), (a, y, n), (b, x, m), (b, x, n), (b, y, m), (b, y, n)\}$$

Cardinality $|A \times B \times C| = |A| \times |B| \times |C| = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 = 8$

Set Theory

Example: Suppose that $A = \{1, 2\}$. Find $A \times A$ (aka A^2) and find $A \times A \times A$ (aka A^3)

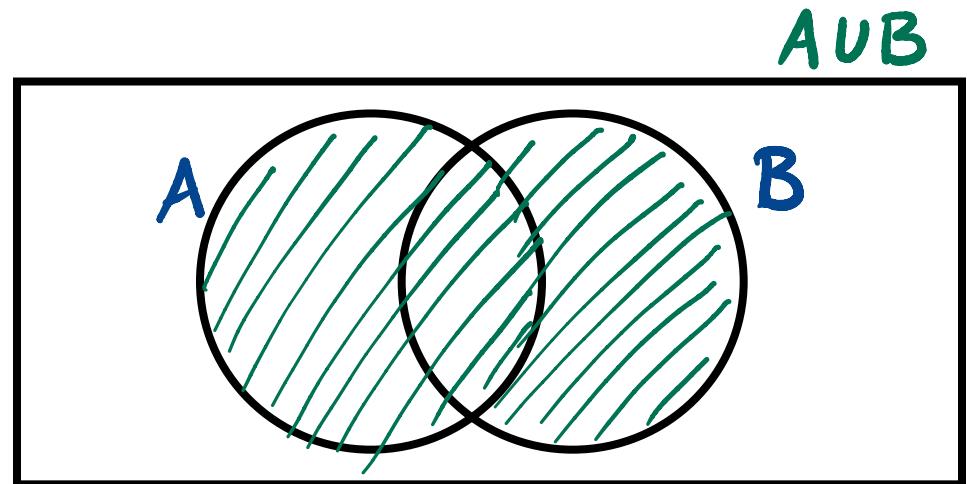
$$A \times A = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 2)\}$$

Exercise on own $A \times A \times A$

Set Operations

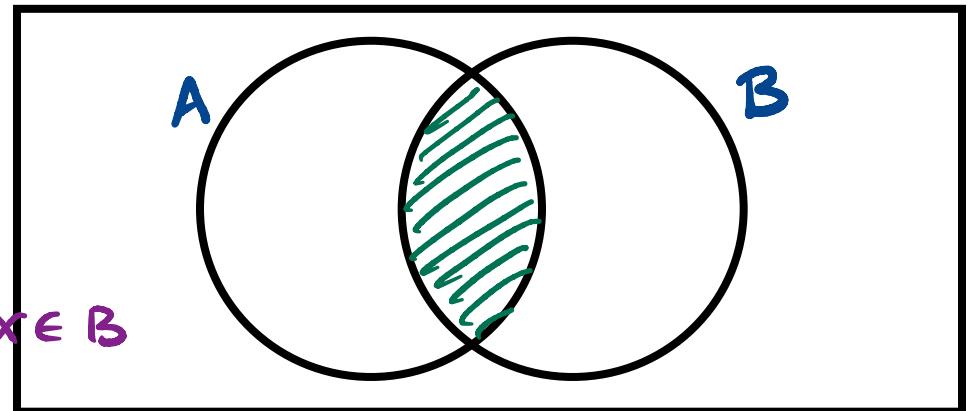
Venn diagrams can be useful when trying to understand and represent set operations.

Let A and B be sets. The union of the sets A and B , denoted $A \cup B$, is the set that contains those elements that are either in A or in B , or in both.



Let A and B be sets. The intersection of the sets A and B , denoted $A \cap B$, is the set that contains those elements that are in both A and B .

$$x \in A \cap B \Rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \in B$$



* $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$

Set Operations

Example: Consider the sets: $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Find the union and the intersection of these two sets.

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$$

$$A \cap B = \{1, 3\}$$

Example: Consider the sets: $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 6\}$. Find the union and the intersection of these two sets.

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$



- Two sets are called disjoint if their intersection is the empty set.

Set Operations

$$I - I = \{ \}$$

$$\emptyset \subseteq I$$

Let A and B be sets. The **difference of A and B** , denoted $A - B$, (or $A \setminus B$), is the set containing those elements that are in A but not in B . The difference of A and B is also called the complement of B with respect to A .

$$A - B = \{x \mid (x \in A \wedge x \notin B)\} \quad *$$

Example: What is the difference of the set of positive integers less than 10 and the set of prime numbers?

$$I = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$$

$$P = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, \dots\}$$

$$I - P = \{1, 4, 6, 8, 9\}$$

} we are left
with composite
#'s less than 10

Set Operations

$$S = \{ 1, \mathbb{N}, \text{'cat'}, \{ 1, \text{'cat'} \} \}$$

Definition: The universal set, denoted typically by U , is the set containing all elements within the domain of discourse.

- You can think about the universal set as the set containing all elements under consideration.

Example: if the domain of discourse is all CU students, then U is the set of all CU students.

Definition: Let U be the universal set. The complement of the set A , denoted \bar{A} , is the set $U - A$.

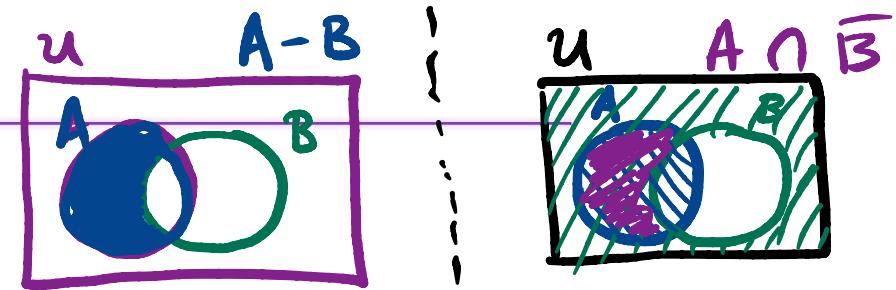
An element belongs to \bar{A} if and only if $x \notin A$, so $\bar{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$, or just $\{x \mid x \notin A\}$

Complement notation: \bar{A} or A^c

Set Operations

Example: Show that $A - B = A \cap \bar{B}$

intuitive
Picture



➤ In general: To show that two sets R and S are equal, we will show that $\underline{R \subseteq S}$ and $\underline{S \subseteq R}$

Proof: First we want to show that $A - B \subseteq A \cap \bar{B}$

Let $x \in A - B$ be arbitrary.

$\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \notin B$ by definition of difference of sets

Since $x \notin B \Rightarrow x \in \bar{B}$ by definition of complement

$\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \in \bar{B}$

$\Rightarrow x \in A \cap \bar{B}$ by definition of intersection.

$\Rightarrow A - B \subseteq A \cap \bar{B}$ by definition of subset.

Now we want to show
that $A \cap \bar{B} \subseteq A - B$.

Let $x \in A \cap \bar{B}$ be arbitrary.

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \in \bar{B} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{def. of} \\ \text{intersect.} \end{matrix}$$

$$x \in \bar{B} \Rightarrow x \notin B \quad \begin{matrix} \text{def. of} \\ \text{complement} \end{matrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \notin B$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A - B \quad \begin{matrix} \text{def. of} \\ \text{difference} \end{matrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow A \cap \bar{B} \subseteq A - B$$

Since $A - B \subseteq A \cap \bar{B}$ and

$A \cap \bar{B} \subseteq A - B$, it must

be that $A - B = A \cap \bar{B}$



Set Operations

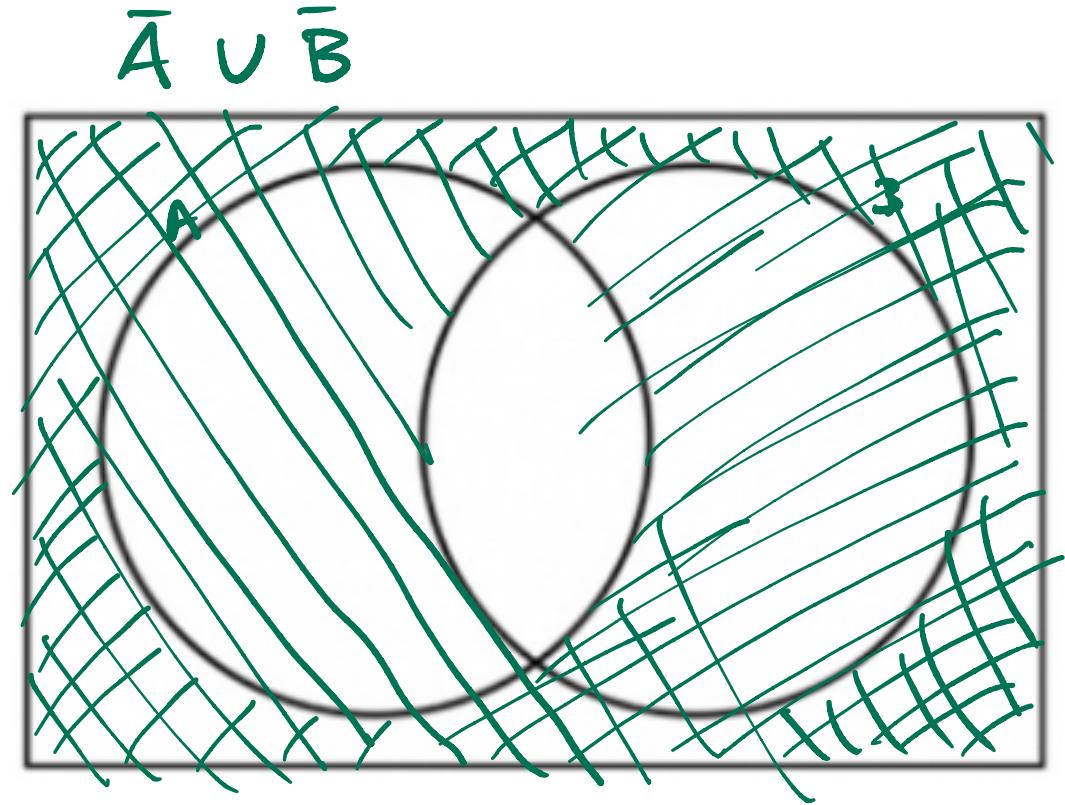
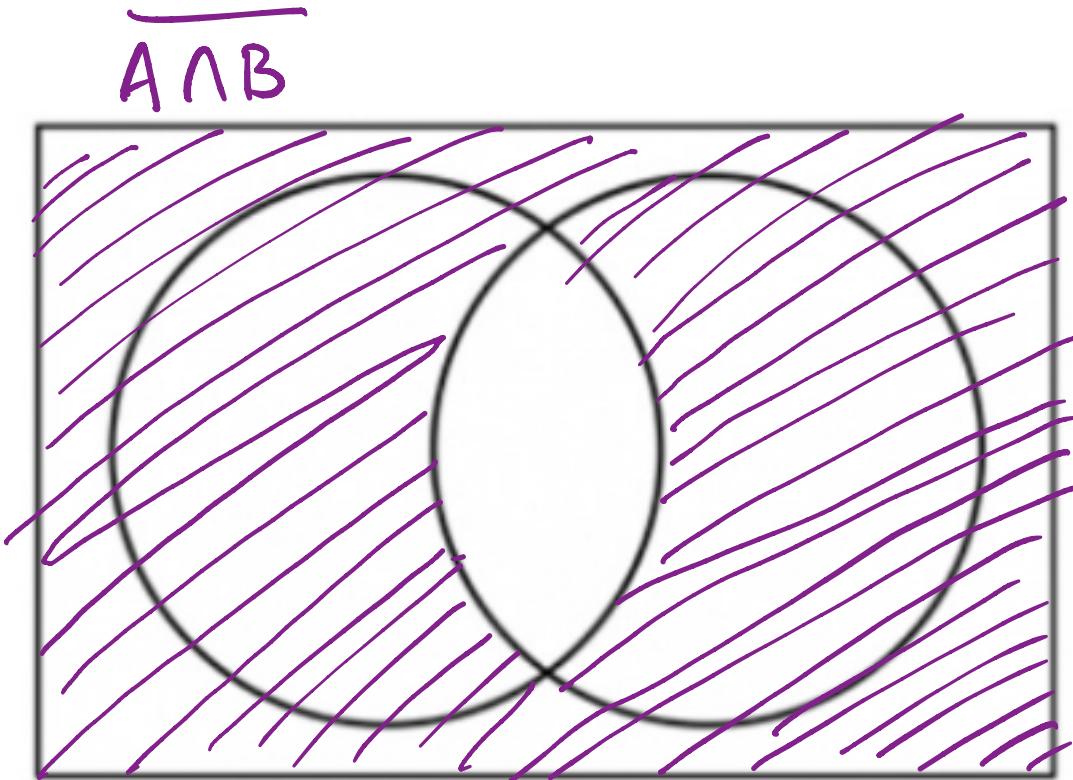
When sets are combined using only \cup, \cap , and complements, there is a set of **Set Identities** that completely mirrors the logical equivalences from last chapter.

TABLE 1 Set Identities.

<i>Identity</i>	<i>Name</i>
$A \cap U = A$ $A \cup \emptyset = A$	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

Set Operations

Example: Prove DeMorgan's Law for Sets: $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$



Set Operations

Example: Prove DeMorgan's Law for Sets: $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{A \cap B} &= \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\} && \text{Def. of Complement} \\ &= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \cap B)\} && \text{Def. of "Not In"} \\ &= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \wedge x \in B)\} && \text{Def. of Intersection} \\ &= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A) \vee \neg(x \in B)\} && \text{DeMorgan's Law} \\ &= \{x \mid x \notin A \vee x \notin B\} && \text{"Not In"} \\ &= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \vee x \in \overline{B}\} && \text{Def. of complement.} \\ &= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}\} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}\end{aligned}$$

End of Sets and Set Operations!

Next Up: More Set Examples!

Extra Practice

Example 1: Show that if a , b , and c are real numbers with $a \neq 0$ then there **exists a unique** solution x to the equation $ax + b = c$

Example 2: Prove this identity using set builder notation $\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$

Solutions

Example 1: Show that if a , b , and c are real numbers with $a \neq 0$ then there **exists a unique** solution x to the equation $ax + b = c$

Existence: Solve for x

$$ax + b = c \Rightarrow x = \frac{b - c}{a} \text{ (where here we know that } a \neq 0\text{)}$$

Uniqueness: Assume x and y are both solutions to the system, then

$$ax + b = c = ay + b \Rightarrow ax + b = ay + b \Rightarrow ax = ay \Rightarrow x = y$$

Since x and y are necessarily the same number, it follows that our solution x is unique

Example 2: Prove this identity using set builder notation $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{A \cup B} &= \{x \mid x \notin A \cup B\} && \text{(def. complement)} \\&= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \cup B)\} && \text{(def. not in)} \\&= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \vee x \in B)\} && \text{(def. intersection)} \\&= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A) \wedge \neg(x \in B)\} && \text{(DeMorgan's)} \\&= \{x \mid x \notin A \wedge x \notin B\} && \text{(def. not in)} \\&= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \wedge x \in \overline{B}\} && \text{(def. complement)} \\&= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}\} && \text{(def. union)} \\&= \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}\end{aligned}$$