I. Sets

A. Formal Definition: No formal specification of the term *set*.

B. The definition that is used is a definition of the operations that can be performed on a set - anything that is amenable to having these operations performed on it is a set.

C. Informal Definition: A set is a collection into a whole of definite, distinct objects of our intuition perception, or our thought, which are called the

elements of the set. Georg Cantor

D. Text Definition: 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.

E. We will use, because your text does, capital letters to denote sets, and lower case letters to denote elements of a set.

F. Examples:

1. $E = \{x \mid x \text{ is an Englishman}\}.$

a. The set is designated by E.

b. An *element* of the set, i.e., an Englishman, is designated by x.

2. $X = \{x \mid x \text{ is an even integer}\}$

a. X is the set of all even integers

b. If x is an element of the set X, x is an even integer.

3. $Y = \{y \mid y \text{ is an odd integer where } y > 6 \text{ and } y < 122\}$

a. Y contains the odd integers greater than 6 and less than 122.

b. y is an odd integer, 6 < y < 122

4. $P = \{p \mid p \text{ is a point on a line } l\}$

a. P is the set of all of the points that make up the line l.

Note: This set could have an infinite number of elements.

b. l is an element of the set L of all lines on a plane.

5. $L = \{l \mid l \text{ is a line on a plane } X\}$

a. L is the set of all lines that compose a plane X.

b. P (defined above) is the set of all points that compose a line.

c. Hence, L is the set of all sets P that form a line on the plane X.

6. $S = \{x \mid a \le x \le b\}$ S is the set of all elements x contained in the **closed interval** $a \le x \le b$

7. $S = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$ S is the set of all elements x contained in the *open interval* a < x < b

G. All of the above examples use what is know as the *set builder* notation to define a set.

1. Choose a property *P* such that all elements of the set *X* to te defined possess that property.

2. Then the set definition is: $X \equiv \{x \mid P(x)\}$

H. Sometimes we don't want to, or can't, specify a general common property of all elements of the set that we wish to define, so we use the *roster method* to define the set by simply specifing the elements of the set directly, as follows:

 $Z \equiv \{1, 132, 56, A, 784, 0.0\}$

I. Axiom of Specification:

To every set A and to every logical predicate P(x) there corresponds a set B whose elements are exactly those elements of A for which P(x) is true.

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

- 1. The set A is referred to as the *universe of discourse*.
- 2. The universe of discourse holds, for any particular situation, all of the objects pertinent to that situation.
- 3. The existence of the universe of discourse is usually taken for granted.
- 4. You must be very careful that the universe of discourse actually exists for your problem.
- J. Finally:
 - 1. A set is defined by defining those things that are elements of the set.
 - 2. There are no duplicate set elements.
 - a. A set element is represented once and only once in the set.
 - b. If a = b then:
 - i. $\{a, b\} = \{a, a\} = \{a\}$
 - ii. $\{a, b\} = \{b, b\} = \{b\}$
 - iii. $\{a\} = \{b\}$
 - 3. Set elements are not arranged in any defined order.
- K. For completeness we also define the Null, or $Empty\ Set$ as that set that contains no elements. We normally designate the empty set by \emptyset or, less often, by $\{\}$.

II. Often Used Sets:

A. $N = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$ = the set of *natural numbers*. Note: Some texts/authors do not include 0 in the set of natural numbers.

B. $Z = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...\}$ = the set of *integers*.

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

D. $Q = \{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p \in Z, q \in Z, q \neq 0 \}$ = the set of *rational* numbers.

E. \Re = the set of *real numbers*.

F. \Re^+ = the set of *positive real numbers*.

G. C =the set of *complex numbers*.

H. U =the universal set.

I. \emptyset = the empty set.

III. Properties of Sets:

A. Equality: Two sets are equal if and only if they each contain the same elements.

1. A = B if $(\forall x)(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$

2. If $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $B = \{4, 2, 1, 3\}$ then A = B

3. If $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $B = \{4, 2, 1, 3\}$ then $A \neq B$

4. Note: $\emptyset \neq \{\emptyset\}$

a. \emptyset denotes the *empty set*, the set with no elements.

b. $\{\emptyset\}$ denotes a set that contains the empty set as its only element.

5. Axiom of Extension: Two sets are equal if and only if they contain the same elements.

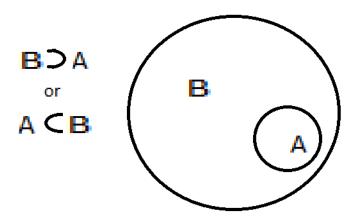
B. Subsets

1. A set A is called a *subset* of a set B if every element of A is also and element of the set B. B is then called a *super set* of A.

2. A is a *subset* of a set
$$B \equiv A \subset B$$

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

3. Venn Diagram:



4.
$$A = B$$
 $\equiv (\forall x)(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$

In this case, A is an *improper subset* of B.

- 5. If B contains one or more elements b such that $b \notin A$ then:
 - a. $A \neq B$
 - b. A is a **proper** subst of B.
 - c. Therefore every set is an improper subset of itself.
- 6. Note: The empty set \emptyset is a subset of every other set.
- 7. Note: Inclusion and belonging are very different concepts:
 - 1. $A \subset A$ is always true Every set is a subset of itself.
 - 2. $A \in A$ has not been found to be true in any case.

C. Size

- 1. The size of a set S is defined as the number of elements contained in S.
 - a. If the set S has N elements then the size of S is N.
 - b. Normally written as: N = |S|
 - c. N is often referred to as the *cardinality* of S.
- 2. Identical elements are counted only once.

Example: $a \in S, b \in S, a = b$

 \boldsymbol{a} and \boldsymbol{b} are counted as one when computing cardinality.

3. If N is finite then S is a *finite set*.

Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$ then |S| = 4S is a finite set.

4. If N is infinite then S is an *infinite set*.

Example: $S = \{x \mid x \text{ is a real number}\}\ \text{and}\ |S| = \infty$ S is an infinite set.

IV. The Power Set

- A. Definition: The **power set** of the set S, denoted by $\mathcal{P}(S)$, is the set of all subsets of S.
- B. Examples:

1. If $S = \{a, b, c\}$ then $\mathcal{P}(S) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$

- 2. If $S = \emptyset$ then $\mathcal{P}(S) = \{\emptyset\}$
- 3. $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(S)) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$
- C. When we cover Mathematical Induction we will prove that:

If
$$|S| = N$$
 then $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = 2^N$

V. Ordered Pairs:

A. Preliminary Definitions:

1. Ordered Pair: An *ordered pair* (x, y) has x as its first element and y as its second.

 $(x, y) \neq (y, x)$

- 2. An *un-ordered* pair is a set, denoted by $\{x, y\} = \{y, x\}$
- 3. Ordered *n*-tuple: An *ordered sequence* $(a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_n)$ in which a_1 is the first element, a_2 is the second element, ..., and a_n is the *n*th element.
- B. Addition and multiplication are unordered operations (commutative)

1. x + y = y + x and $x \times y = y \times x$

- 2. These operations can use the concept of an *unordered pair* of set elements.
- C. Subtraction and division require *ordered pairs* since:

$$x \div y \neq y \div x$$

and

$$x - y \neq y - x$$

- D. Example: $(2 \times x y, x + y) = (7, -1)$
 - 1. This is an equality of ordered pairs.
 - 2. Therefore, we must have: $2 \times x y = 7$ and x + y = -1
 - 3. With an unordered pair you could not get unique solutions.

V. Cartesian Product: An Operation Performed on Sets:

A. Definition: If A and B are sets then the *cartesian product* (or cross product) of A and B, denoted $A \times B$, is the set defined by

 $A \times B = \{(x, y) \mid x \in A \land y \in B\}$ where (x, y) denotes an *ordered pair*.

- B. Example: $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{a, b\}$ a. $A \times B = \{1, 2, 3\} \times \{a, b\}$ $= \{(1, a), (1, b), (2, a), (2, b), (3, a), (3, b)\}$
 - b. $B \times A = \{a, b\} \times \{1, 2, 3\}$ = $\{(a, 1), (a, 2), (a, 3), (b, 1), (b, 2), (b, 3)\}$
 - c. Note: $A \times B \neq B \times A$
- C. Definition: If $A_1, A_2, A_3, ...,$ and A_N are sets then the *cartesian product* of $A_1, A_2, A_3, ...,$ and A_N is the set of ordered n-tuples defined by

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times A_3 \times ... \times A_N = \{(a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_N) \mid a_i \in A_i, i = 1, 2, ...N\}$$

VI. Union: An Operation Performed on Sets

- A. Definition: The *union* of two subsets A and B of some universe, designated by $A \cup B$, is the set of all elements x where $x \in A$ and all elements y where $y \in B$.
- B. The union of two sets is, therefore, the set of all the elements of both of the sets.
- C. Examples:
 - 1. If: $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$

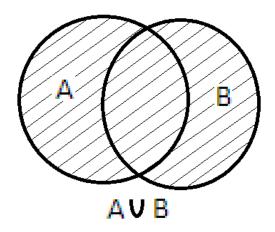
then: $A \cup B = \{a, b, c, d, 1, 2, 3\}$

2. If: $A = \{x \mid x \text{ is an Engineering student at Case}\}$ and $B = \{y \mid y \text{ is a Mathematics student at Case}\}$

then: $A \cup B = \{z \mid z \text{ is either an Engineering or a }$

Mathematics student at Case}

D. Venn Diagram for $A \cup B$:



VII. Intersection: An Operation Performed on Sets

- A. Definition: The *intersection* of two subsets A and B of some universe designated by $A \cap B$, is the set of all elements x where $x \in A$ and $x \in B$.
- B. The intersection of two sets is, therefore, the set of all the elements of either set which is also an element of the other set.
- C. Examples:

1. If: $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$ then: $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Since A and B have no elements in common the intersection of A and B is the empty set.

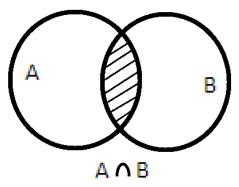
In this case A and B are said to be **disjoint**.

2. If: $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $B = \{d, f, g\}$ then: $A \cap B = \{d\}$

3. If: $A = \{x \mid x \text{ is a Case student majoring in Engineering}\}$ and $B = \{y \mid y \text{ is a Case student majoring in Mathematics}\}$

then: $A \cap B = \{z \mid z \text{ is majoring in both Engineering and} \}$ Mathematics student at Case

D. Venn Diagram for $A \cap B$:



IX. Cardinality of $A \cup B$

A. Recall the definition of *set*:

Given a set A an object x can either be an element of A or not, i.e., $x \in A$ is either true or false.

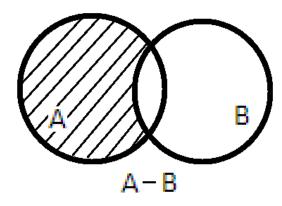
- 1. Therefore, all we know about x is whether $x \in A$ or $x \notin A$
- 2. We have no knowledge of the number of occurrences of $x \in A$.
- 3. When computing |A|, if $x, y \in A$ and x = y, x and y are counted once and only once.
- B. Therefore, when computing $|A \cup B|$ for the case of $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ we adjust $|A \cup B|$ to account for the elements $x \in A \cap B$ as in:

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

XI. Difference: An Operation Performed on Sets

- A. Definition: The *difference* of two subsets A and B of some universe, designated by A-B, is the set of all elements x where $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$.
- B. Then: $A B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \notin B\}$

- C. Example: If: $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $B = \{d, f, g\}$ then: $A B = \{a, b, c\}$
- E. A B is also referred to as the *complement of* **B** with respect to **A**.
- F. Venn Diagram for A B:



XII. Universal Set (Again) and Complements of a Set

- A. The universal set U contains *everything*.
- B. Generally assumed to exist.
- C. The complement of a set X, written \overline{X} , are all elements y such that $y \in U$ and $y \notin X$.
- D. Therefore: $\overline{X} = \{y \mid y \in U \land y \notin X\} = U X$

XIII. Illustrative Example:

- A. Consider: A B and $A \cap \overline{B}$
- B. $A B = \{a \mid a \in A \land a \notin B\}$
 - 1. $x \in A B \equiv x \in A \land x \notin B$
 - 2. $x \notin B \equiv x \in \overline{B}$
 - 3. Therefore: $x \in A B \equiv x \in A \land x \in \overline{B} \equiv x \in A \cap \overline{B}$
- C. $A \cap \overline{B} = \{a \mid a \in A \land a \notin B\}$
 - 1. $x \in A \cap \overline{B} \equiv x \in A \land x \notin B \equiv x \in A B$
 - 2. Therefore: $x \in A \cap \overline{B} \equiv x \in A \land x \notin B \equiv x \in A B$
- D. Therefore: $A B = A \cap \overline{B}$

XIV. Commonly Used Set Identities

Identity	Name
$A \cap U = A$	Identity Laws
$A \cup \emptyset = A$	
$A \cup U = U$	Domination Laws
$A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$	
$A \cup A = A$	Idempotent Laws
$A \cap A = A$	
$\overline{\overline{(A)}} = A$	Complementation Law
$A \cup B = B \cup A$	Commutative Laws
$A \cap B = B \cap A$	
$(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$	Associative Laws
$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$	
$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$	Distributive Laws
$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$	
$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	De Morgan's Laws
$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	
$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$	Absorption Laws
$A \cap (A \cup B) = A$	
$A \cup \overline{A} = U$	Complement Laws
$A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$	

XV. Example: Proof of $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$:

- 1. Identity: $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$
- 2. $(A \cap B) \cap C = \{x \mid (x \in A \cap B) \land (x \in C)\}$ Definition of intersection
- 3. $A \cap B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \land (x \in B)\}$ Definition of intersection
- 4. Hence: $(A \cap B) \cap C = \{x \mid (x \in A) \land (x \cap B) \land (x \in C)\}$ from statements 2. and 3.
- 5. Therefore: $(A \cap B) \cap C = \{x \mid (x \in A) \land (x \in B \cap C)\}$ Definition of intersection and meaning of set builder notation.
- 6. Therefore: $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$ by meaning of set builder notation.

XVI. Membership Tables

- 1. Definition: A table displaying sets and combinations of sets and all combinations of membership possibilities (i.e., either True/1 or False/0)
- 2. Example 1: $A \cap B$

Row	A	B	$A \cap B$
1	1	1	1
2	1	0	0
3	0	1	0
4	0	0	0

- a. Row 1: An element x is a member of A, a member of B, and a member of $A \cap B$
- b. Row 2: An element x is a member of A, is not a member of B, **and** is not a member of $A \cap B$
- c. Row 3: An element x is not a member of A, is a member of B, **and** is not a member of $A \cap B$
- d. Row 4: An element x is not a member of A, is not a member of B, **and** is not a member of $A \cap B$

3. Example 2: $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Row	A	B	$A \cap B$	$\overline{A \cap B}$	\overline{A}	\overline{B}	$\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$	
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
2	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	
3	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	
4	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	

- a. Row 1: An element x is a member of A, a member of B, a member of $\overline{A} \cap B$, not a member of $\overline{A} \cap B$, not a member of \overline{B} , and, hence, not a member of $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
- b. Row 2: An element x is a member of A, is not a member of B, and is not a member of $A \cap B$, is a member of $\overline{A} \cap B$, is not a member of \overline{A} , is a member of \overline{B} , and is a member of $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
- c. Row 3: An element x is not a member of A, is a member of B, **and** is not a member of $A \cap B$, is a member of $\overline{A} \cap B$, is a member of \overline{A} , is not a member of \overline{B} , and is a member of $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
- d. Row 4: An element x is not a member of A, is not a member of B, and is not a member of $A \cap B$, is a member of $\overline{A} \cap B$, is a member of \overline{A} , is a member of \overline{B} , and is a member of $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
- e. Since the membership values in the colum for $\overline{A \cap B}$ are identical to those for $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ we have proven the identity $A \cap B = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

XVII. Generalized Unions and Intersections

A. The union of a collection of sets is denoted by:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots \cup A_n$$

- 1. $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i$ denotes the set that contains those elements that are members of at least one of the sets A_i .
- 2. If $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $A_2 = \{2, 3, 4\}$ and $A_3 = \{5, 6, 7, 8\}$ then

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{3} A_i = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$$

B. The intersection of a collection of sets is denoted by:

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \cap \dots \cap A_n$$

- 1. $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$ denotes the set that contains those elements that are members of all of the A_i .
- 2. If $A_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $A_2 = \{2, 3, 4\}$

and
$$A_3 = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$$
 then $\bigcup_{i=1}^3 A_i = \{4\}$

XIX. Computer Representation of Sets

- A. Singly Dimensioned Array
 - 1. Store the elements of each set of interest as a separate set A as a list (singly-dimensioned array) of dimension $|A| = N_A$.
 - 2. Create separate arrays for the sets $B,\,C,\,D,\,C\cup D,\,C\cap D,$ etc..
 - 3. If the sets being used are relatively small subsets of the universal set, or the domain of discourse, this method is probably the most memory efficient.

B. Text Book Solution

- 1. Store universal set U as a list (singly-dimensioned array) of dimension |U| = N.
- 2. Represent each subsets as a bit-string.
 - a. String element is '1'B (True) if corresponding element in U-array is an element of the set.
 - b. String element is ${}'0'B$ (False) if corresponding element in U-array is not an element of the set.

C. Text Example:

1.
$$U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$

2.
$$A = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} = \{x \mid x \text{ is an odd integer, } 1 \le x \le 10\}$$

3.
$$B = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\} = \{x \mid x \text{ is an even integer, } 1 \le x \le 10\}$$

4. Bit-String Representation

U	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Bits for U	'1'B									
Bits for A	'1'B	'0'B								
Bits for B	'0'B	'1'B								

D. Bit-String Representations of Union and Intersection

1.
$$U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$

2.
$$C = \{1, 4, 7\}$$
 and $D = \{3, 7, 8, 9\}$

3.
$$C \cup D = \{1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9\}$$
 and $C \cap D = \{7\}$

U	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Bits for U	′1′B	'1'B								
Bits for C	'1'B	'0'B								
Bits for D	'0'B	'1'B								
Bits for $C \cup D$	′1′B	'0'B	′1′B	′1′B	′0′B	′0′B	′1′B	′1′B	′1′B	'0'B
Bits for $C \cap D$	′0′B	′0′B	′0′B	′0′B	′0′B	′0′B	′1′B	′0′B	′0′B	′0′B

XX. A Warning Regarding the Set Builder Technique and the Axiom of Specification

A. Using the set builder technique a set S is defined as:

$$S = \{X \mid P(X)\}$$

where P(X) is some logical condition.

- B. The Axiom of Specification is: To every set A and to every logical condition P(x) there corresponds a set S whose elements are exactly those elements x of A for which P(x) holds.
- C. Define P(X) to be: $P(X) \equiv (X \in A) \land (X \notin X)$

so:
$$S = \{X \mid P(X)\} \equiv \{X \mid (X \in A) \land (X \notin X)\}$$

D. The set S is composed of all sets X in the set A that are not elements of themselves.

Note: S is a set of sets, such as the **power set** of the set S, or $\mathcal{P}(S)$, the set of all subsets of S.

- E. Using the defintion of S, i.e.: $S = \{X \mid (X \in A) \land (X \notin X)\}$ we note that:
 - 1. If $S \in S$ then the assumption that $S \in A$ leads to the conclusion that $S \notin S$.
 - 2. If $S \notin S$ then the assumption that $S \in A$ leads to the conclusion that $S \in S$.
- F. In both cases, the assumption that $S \in A$ leads to a contradiction so the assumption must be false.
- G. Since we have placed no restriction on the set A, A could be the universe of discourse U and we have proven that there cannot be a universe of discourse!!!!

H. The moral of this exercise is that it is not sufficient to arbitrarily compose a condition P(X) and define a set $S = \{X \mid P(X)\}$. It is also necessary to have a set to which P(X) applies.

Ignoring this caution can lead to some very misleading conclusions.

I. A situation described in English that corresponds to S(X) is that of the village barber, described below:

In a certain isolated village all men of the village who do not shave themselves are shaved by the barber, who is a man of the village.

Question: Who shaves the barber?