# DCIT105 Mathematics for IT Professionals

Session 5 – Sets

By
Solomon Mensah (PhD)
Dept. of Computer Science
smensah03@ug.edu.gh



### UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

#### Session Overview

#### **OBJECTIVES**

Upon the completion of this session you should be able to

- understand the two forms of set representation
- differentiate between proper and improper subsets
- note how to write the elements in a power set
- understand the Venn diagram and its representation
- compute the Cartesian product of sets
- know how to represent the elements of a set in a computer

#### Session Outline

The key topics to be covered in the session are as follows:

- Forms of Set representation
- Number set
- Subsets
- Venn Diagram
- Cardinality of set
- Power set
- Ordered tuple
- Cartesian product
- Set operations
- Set Identities
- Computer Representation of set elements

Topic Five

### **SETS**

#### Reference

• Chapter 2,

Kenneth H. Rosen, "Discrete Mathematics and its Applications", Seventh edition, McGraw Hill, 2012

#### Introduction

- A **Set** is a group or collection of objects
- A set is a fundamental discrete structure in which many important discrete structures such as the following are built
  - Combinations: unordered collections of objects used in counting
  - Relations: sets of ordered pairs that represent relationships between objects
  - Graphs: sets of vertices and edges that connect vertices
  - Finite state machines: used to model computing machines

#### • Examples:

- The set of all students in B.Sc. Information Technology
- The set of villages in Ghana
- The set of integers less than 100 and so on...



#### **Definition and Notation**

- A set is an unordered collection of objects
- The objects *contained* by a set are called *elements* or *members* of the set.
- The sets are denoted using the uppercase letters A, B, C, ... etc.
- The elements of a set are denoted by the small case letters a, b, c,... etc.
- The notation  $a \in A$  (read as 'a belongs to A') denotes that, a is an element of the set A.
- The notation  $a \notin A$  (read as 'a does not belong to A') denotes that, a is not an element of the set A.

#### Representation of Sets

- A set can be represented in two ways:
  - 1) Roster Method: All the elements of a set are listed between braces

#### Examples:

- The set of all vowels in English,  $V = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$
- The set of odd positive integers less than 10,  $O = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$
- The set of positive integers less than  $100 P = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 99\}$

#### Representation of Sets

- The other way of representing sets is:
  - 2) Set builder Method: State the properties to be satisfied by the elements, to be the members of the set

#### Examples:

• The set V of all vowels in English can be represented as

$$V = \{ x \mid x \text{ is a vowel in English alphabet} \}$$

• The set O of all odd positive integers less than 10 is represented as

$$O = \{ x \mid x \text{ is an odd positive integer less than 10} \}$$

$$O = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid x \text{ is odd and } x < 10\}$$

• The set **Q** + of all positive rational numbers can be written as

$$\mathbf{Q}^+ = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x = \frac{\mathbf{p}}{\mathbf{q}}, \text{ for some positive integers } p \text{ and } q\}$$

#### **Number Sets**

• The following sets, each denoted using a boldface letter, play an important role in discrete mathematics:

 $N = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$ , the set of **natural numbers** (0 may not be)

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

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

 $\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z}, \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$ , the set of **rational numbers** 

R, the set of real numbers

R<sup>+</sup>, the set of **positive real numbers** 

**C**, the set of **complex numbers**.



#### **Natural Numbers**

We define the Natural Numbers to be:

$$N = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$$

Note that the Naturals are "closed" under addition and multiplication.

#### Integers

We define the Integers to be:

$$Z = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$$

Note that **Z** is "closed" under addition, subtraction, and multiplication.

#### **Rational Numbers**

We define the Rationals to be:

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

Note that **Q** is "closed" under addition, subtraction, multiplication, and non-zero division.

#### **Irrational Numbers**

I = {all infinite, non-terminating or non-repeating decimals} Obviously, irrational numbers are impossible to write down exactly.

Thus, cannot be expressed as a ratio between two numbers and it cannot be written as a simple fraction

We use symbols to represent special values such as e and  $\sqrt{2}$ .

The Irrationals are closed under + or  $\times$ .

Irrational numbers cannot be written in a fraction.



#### **Real Numbers**

**R** = {all decimal expansions}

The Real Numbers are created by adjoining the Rationals with the Irrationals.

The Reals are closed under all operations.

The Reals form a *continuum*: we use the Real Number Line to represent this.

Real numbers are not imaginary numbers.



### **Complex Numbers**

A combination of a real and an imaginary number in the form a + bi where 'a' and 'b' are real numbers, and 'i' is a solution of the equation  $x^2 = -1$ .

The Reals fall short when solving simple polynomial equations like  $x^2 + 1 = 0$ .

The Complex Numbers patch this hole.

$$C = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } i = \sqrt{(-1)}\}$$

Use the Complex Plane to represent these numbers.

The Complex Numbers are also a field.



### **Important Number Sets**

Notation for intervals of real numbers:

Let a and b denote real numbers with a < b, the sets representing the real numbers from a to b can be written as follows.

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[a, b] = \{x \mid a \le x \le b\} --- closed interval

[a, b] = \{x \mid a \le x \le b\} --- right-open interval

(a, b] = \{x \mid a < x \le b\} --- left-open interval

(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x \le b\} --- open interval
```

• Note: Sets can have other sets as members

Examples :  $\{N, Z, Q, R\}, \{a, e, i, \{0, 1\}\}$ 



### **Equality of Sets**

- Two sets are equal if and only if they have the same elements If A and B are sets, then A and B are equal if and only if  $\forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$  The equality of two sets A, B is denoted as A = B
- Examples:

$$\{1, 3, 5\} = \{3, 5, 1\}$$
  
 $\{1, 3, 5\} = \{1, 3, 3, 3, 5, 5, 5, 5\}$ 

#### Empty set

- An empty set is a set with no elements
- An empty set is also called as null set
- An empty set is denoted by either Ø or { }
- Example:
  - The set of all positive integers that are greater than their squares

$$S = \{x \in \mathbf{Z}^+ | \ x > x^2 \}$$
 that means, 
$$S = \{ \ \} = \emptyset$$

• Note:  $\emptyset \neq \{\emptyset\}$  Analogy: A computer folder with exactly one empty folder inside

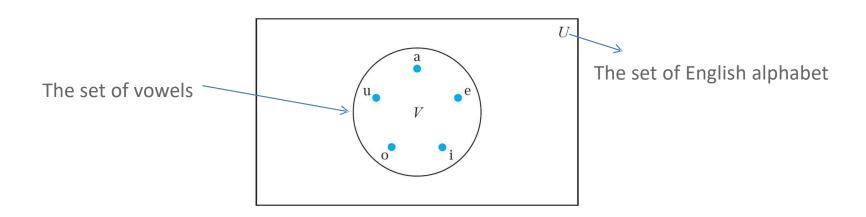
Empty set

A **singleton set** having **e**mpty set as member



#### Venn Diagrams

- Venn diagrams are used to represent the sets graphically and to indicate the relationship between two or more sets
- In Venn diagrams, the **universal set** *U*, which contains all the objects under consideration, *is represented by a rectangle*.
- Circles or other geometrical figures are used to represent sets

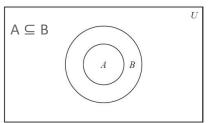


#### Subsets

- The set A is a subset of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B. This is denoted by  $A \subseteq B$
- $A \subseteq B$  if and only if the quantification  $\forall x \ (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$  is true
- The notation  $A \nsubseteq B$  means, A is Not a Subset of B
- Examples:
  - $-\{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9\} \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, 5, 5, 7, 9\}$
  - $-\{0, 1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} \nsubseteq \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$



- Every set is a subset of itself. That means, a set  $A \subseteq A$
- *Empty set* is a subset of every set. That means, for a set  $A,\emptyset \subseteq A$



#### **Proper Subsets**

- $A \subset B$  denotes that, A is a subset of B but,  $A \neq B$ . In such case A is said to be a **proper subset** of B.
- $A \subset B$  if and only if  $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land \exists x (x \in B \land x \notin A)$
- if A and B are sets such that  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ , then A = B

or A = B if and only if  $\forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$ 

• Example:

 $A = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$  and  $B = \{x \mid x \text{ is a subset of the set } \{a, b\}\}$  are equal sets



#### Size of a Set

- The size of a set is simply the number of distinct elements in it.
- The size of a set is also called the cardinality
- The size or cardinality of a set S is denoted by |S|
- If the number of elements in a set are finite and hence the cardinality of it can be determined, it is called as a *finite set* otherwise as an *infinite set*
- Examples:
  - Let A be the set of odd positive integers less than 10. Then |A| = 5.
  - Let S be the set of letters in the English alphabet. Then |S| = 26.
  - $\bullet \mid \emptyset \mid = 0$
  - The set of positive integers is **infinite**.



#### Power Set

- The power set of a set S is the set of all subsets of the set S.
- It is denoted by P(S)
- Examples:
  - $-P({0, 1, 2}) = {\emptyset, {0}, {1}, {2}, {0, 1}, {0, 2}, {1, 2}, {0, 1, 2}}$
  - $-P(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$
  - $-P(\{\emptyset\}) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\$

*Note*: If a set has n elements, then its power set has  $2^n$  elements



### Ordered tuple

- The **ordered n-tuple**  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$  is the ordered collection that has  $a_1$  as its first element,  $a_2$  as its second element,  $\ldots$ , and  $a_n$  as its  $n^{th}$  element
- Ordered 2-tuples are called ordered pairs.
- The ordered pairs (a, b) and (c, d) are equal if and only if a = c and b = d.
- $(a, b) \neq (b, a)$  unless a = b
- For example the ordered pair <1, 2> is not equal to the ordered pair <2, 1>

#### Cartesian product

- The Cartesian product of two sets A and B, denoted by  $A \times B$ , is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . That is,  $A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \land b \in B\}$
- Examples:
  - The Cartesian product of  $A = \{1, 2\}$  and  $B = \{a, b, c\}$  is  $A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$
  - Let A represent the set of all students at a university, and let B represent the set of all courses offered at the university. What is the Cartesian product of  $A \times B$  and how can it be used?

Answer:  $A \times B$  represents all possible enrolments of students in courses at the university

Note: A × B ≠ B × A



#### Cartesian product

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

- Let 
$$A = \{0, 1\}$$
,  $B = \{1, 2\}$ , and  $C = \{0, 1, 2\}$  then 
$$A \times B \times C = \{(0, 1, 0), (0, 1, 1), (0, 1, 2), (0, 2, 0), (0, 2, 1), (0, 2, 2), (1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 0), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2)\}$$

- Note:  $(A \times B) \times C$  is not the same as  $A \times B \times C$
- $A^2 = A \times A$ , and  $A^3 = A \times A \times A$  and so on More generally,  $A^n = \{(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) | a_i \in A \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$



#### Cartesian product

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

```
- Let A = \{0, 1\}, B = \{1, 2\}, and C = \{0, 1, 2\} then A \times B \times C = \{(0, 1, 0), (0, 1, 1), (0, 1, 2), (0, 2, 0), (0, 2, 1), (0, 2, 2), (1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 0), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2)\}
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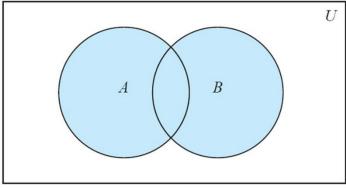
• Note:  $(A \times B) \times C$  is not the same as  $A \times B \times C$ First get  $A \times B = \{(0,1), (0,2), (1,1), (1,2)\}$  $(AxB) \times C = \{([0,1],0), ([0,1],1), ([0,1],2), ([0,2],0), ([0,2],1), ([0,2],2), ([1,1],0), ([1,1],1), ([1,1],2), ([1,2],0), ([1,2],1), ([1,2],2)\}$ 



• The *union* of two sets A and B, denoted by  $A \cup B$ , is the set that contains the elements that are **either in** A or in B, or in both.

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

- Examples:
  - $\{a, e, o\} \cup \{i, u, 3\} = \{a, e, i, o, u, 3\}$
  - $-\{1, 3, 5\} \cup \{1, 2, 3, 5\} = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$



 $A \cup B$  is shaded.

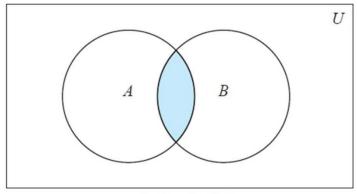
• The *intersection* of two sets A and B, denoted by  $A \cap B$ , is the set that contains the elements **both** in A and in B

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

Examples:

$$-\{a, e, o\} \cap \{i, u, 3\} = \{ \} = \emptyset$$

$$-\{1, 3, 5\} \cap \{1, 2, 5\} = \{1, 5\}$$



 $A \cap B$  is shaded.

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

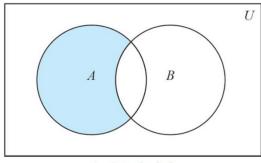
• The **difference** of two sets A and B, denoted by A - B (or  $A \setminus B$ ) is the set that contains the elements that are **in A but not in B.** 

$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in x \ A \land x \notin B\}$$

- Difference is also called the complement of B with respect to A
- Examples:

$$- \{a, e, o\} - \{i, u, 3\} = \{a, e, o\}$$

$$-\{1, 3, 5\} - \{1, 2, 5\} = \{3\} \neq \{2\} = \{1, 2, 5\} - \{1, 3, 5\}$$



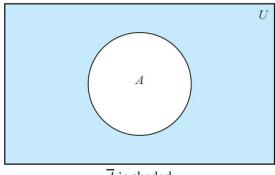
A - B is shaded.

• The **complement** of set A denoted by  $\bar{A}$  (or A') is the complement of A with respect to U. That is, U - A

$$\bar{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

- Example:
  - Let A be the set of positive integers greater than 10, with universal set as the set of all positive integers.

Then 
$$\bar{A} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$



 $\overline{A}$  is shaded.

### Set Identities

Identity	Name
$A \cap U = A$ $A \cup \emptyset = A$	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

### Set Identities

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

#### **Computer Representation**

- The elements of a set can be represented in the computer memory using an arbitrary ordering of the elements of the *finite* universal set *U*.
- Let  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  represent the elements of the universal set in some chosen order
- A subset A of U can be represented as a bit string of length n, where the i<sup>th</sup> bit in it will be 1 if  $a_i$  belongs to A and 0 otherwise

#### **Computer Representation**

#### Examples:

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

Answer: 10 1010 1010, 01 0101 0101, and 11 1110 0000

2) What is the bit string for the complement of the set of all odd integers in *U* above?

Answer: 01 0101 0101



#### **Computer Representation**

- To obtain the bit string for the **union and intersection** of two sets, we perform bitwise Boolean operations on the bit strings representing the two sets.
- Bit string for the union is the bitwise OR of the bit strings for the two sets
- The bit string for the intersection is the bitwise *AND* of the bit strings for the two sets
- Example:
  - Find the Union and intersection of  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  and  $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ , where  $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$ Answer: Union:- 11 1110 0000 ∨ 10 1010 1010 = 11 1110 1010

    Intersection:- 11 1110 0000 ∧10 1010 1010 = 10 1010 0000



## Thank you

