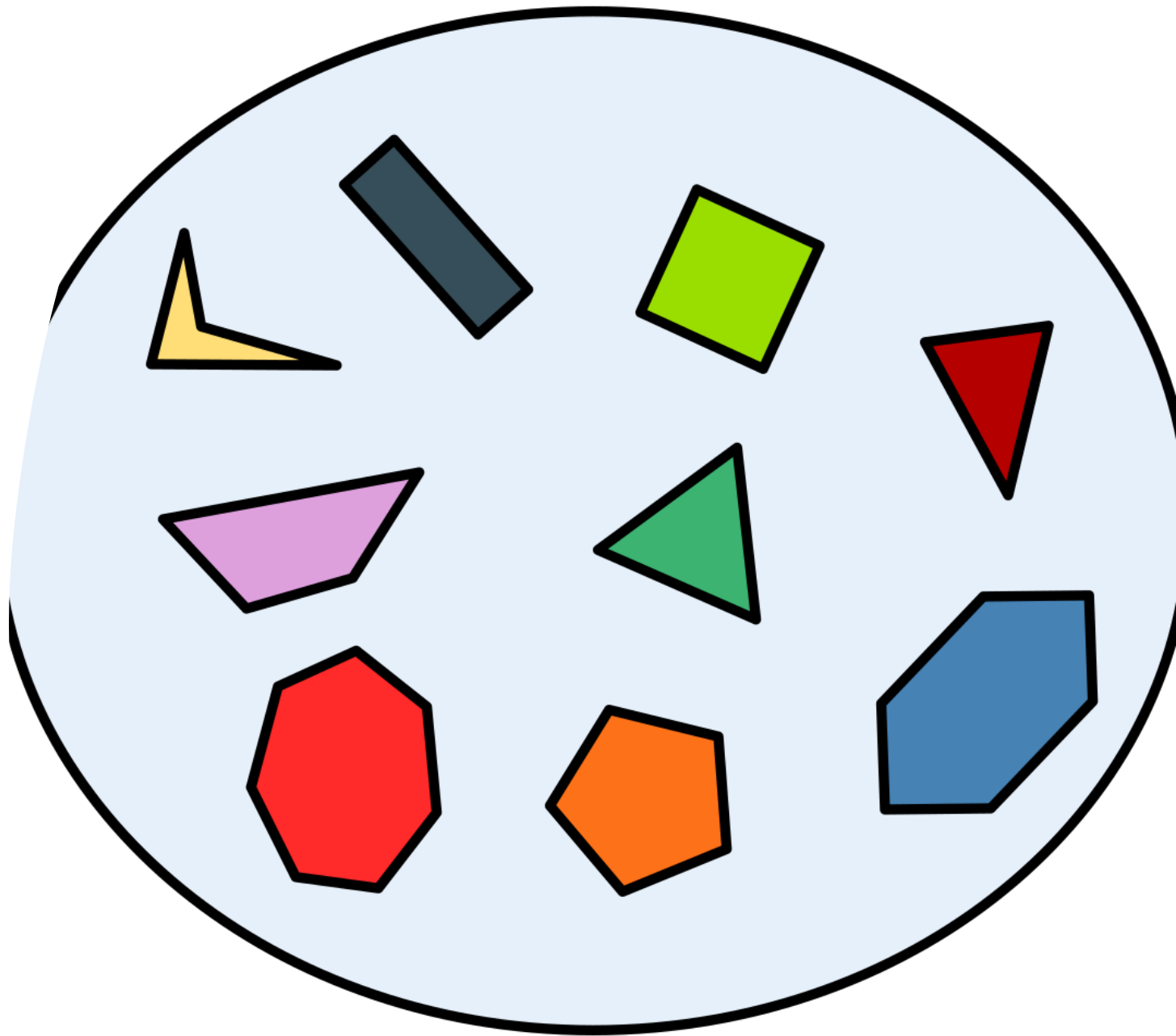


# Sets

The “Mathsy” Perspective



# SETS - MOTIVATION

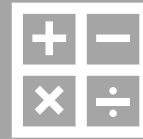
Study *collections* in an  
*organized fashion*



# Sets – Introduction



Set theory is a very important area of mathematics.



The set is considered *the most fundamental notion* in all of mathematics!



The notion of **functions** is built on top of sets:

A function assigns to each element of one set, exactly one element of another set

# Set: Definition

- A **set** is a collection of objects (called its *elements*/members) with a key property: **membership**
  - That is: *"is this element a member of this set or not"*?
- Hence a *set* is an unordered collection of (**unique**) objects.
  - so, no concept of first element,  $n^{th}$  element, neighbouring element, etc.
  - **repetition does not matter**
    - has no impact on whether or not an element is a member of a set
- A set is said to **contain** its elements.
- The notation  $a \in A$  denotes that  $a$  is an element of the set  $A$ .
  - If  $a$  is *not* a member of  $A$ , we write:  $a \notin A$

# Notations for Describing a Set

- Roster notation
- Set-builder notation

# Roster Notation

- $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$

- Order has no effect:

$$S = \{a, b, c, d\} = \{b, c, a, d\}$$

- Multiplicity is irrelevant:

$$S = \{a, b, c, d\} = \{a, b, c, b, c, d\}$$

- Ellipses (...) may be used to describe a set without listing all its members, when the pattern can be clearly derived from the context:

$$S = \{a, b, c, d, \dots, z\}$$

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

# Roster Notation — Limitations

- Using the roster method, try to describe:
    - All pair of natural numbers  $(x,y)$  that satisfy the equation  $x + y = 1000$
    - All positive rational number
- Either not possible, or very inconvenient...

# Set-Builder Notation

- Specify the property/properties that **characterize** its membership:

$$S = \{x \mid x \text{ is a positive integer less than } 100\}$$

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

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

- A predicate may be used for succinctness

(where a predicate is basically a logical statement that can be True or False, depending on some variable(s).)

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

| can be read as “such that”  
∈ can be read as “belongs to”  
**P(x)** here means *P* is a *predicate* that is True for *x*

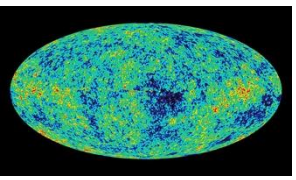
- Example:  $S = \{x \mid \text{Prime}(x)\}$
- Example: Set of positive rational numbers:

$$\mathbb{Q}_+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x = p/q, \text{ for some positive integers } p, q\}$$

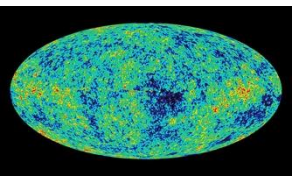


# Some Common Sets

- Natural numbers  $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- Integers  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots - 3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- Positive integers  $\mathbb{Z}_+ = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$
- Rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{\frac{p}{q} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0\right\}$
- Real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$



Universal Set and Empty Set

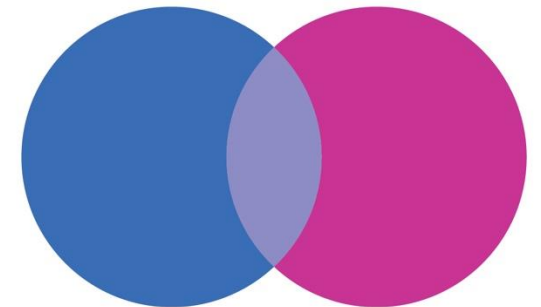


# Universal Set and Empty Set

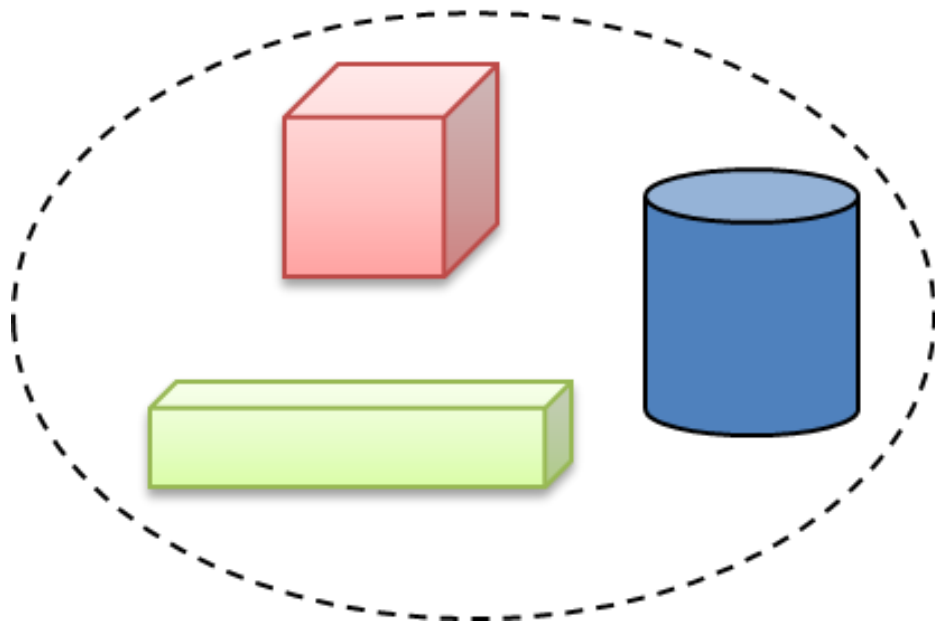
- The *universal set*  $U$  is the set containing *everything* currently under consideration.
  - Sometimes implicit
  - Sometimes explicitly stated.
  - Depends on **context**.

“Venn Diagram” is useful for illustrating relationships between sets

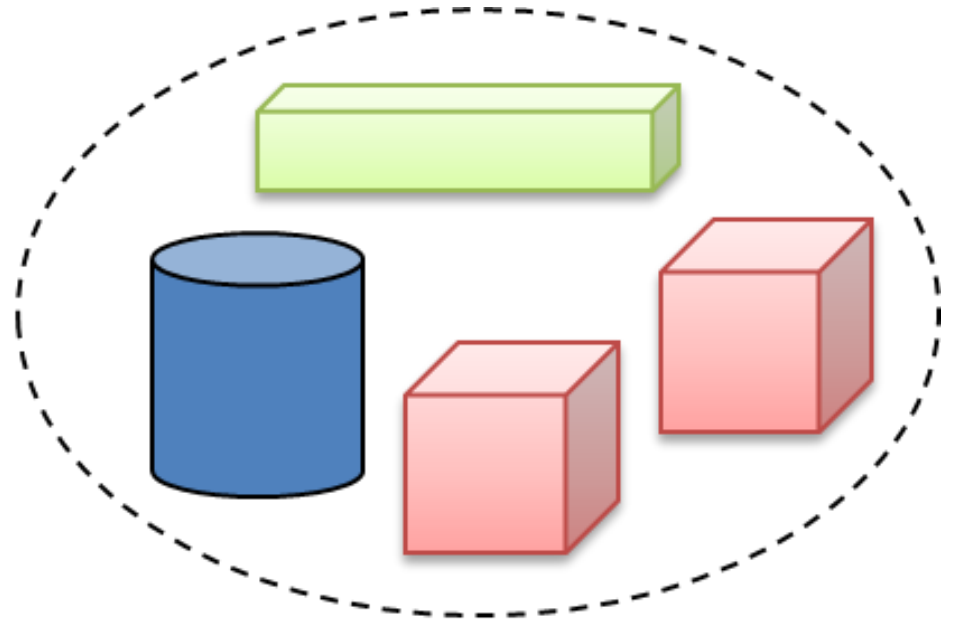
- The empty set  $\emptyset = \{\}$  is the set with no elements.



# Set Equality



=



# Some pre-requisite symbols

$\forall$       *For all*

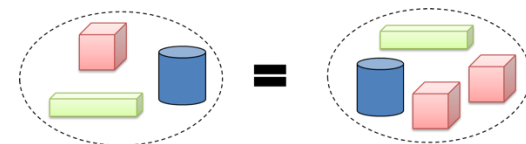
$A \rightarrow B$       ***If** A is true, **then** B is true*

$A \leftrightarrow B$       *A is true **if and only if** B is true*

$\wedge$       *Logical **AND***

$\vee$       *Logical **OR***

# Set Equality



# Set Equality

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

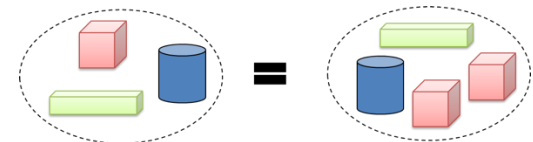
$$\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$$

- We write  $A = B$  if  $A$  and  $B$  are equal sets.
- Examples:

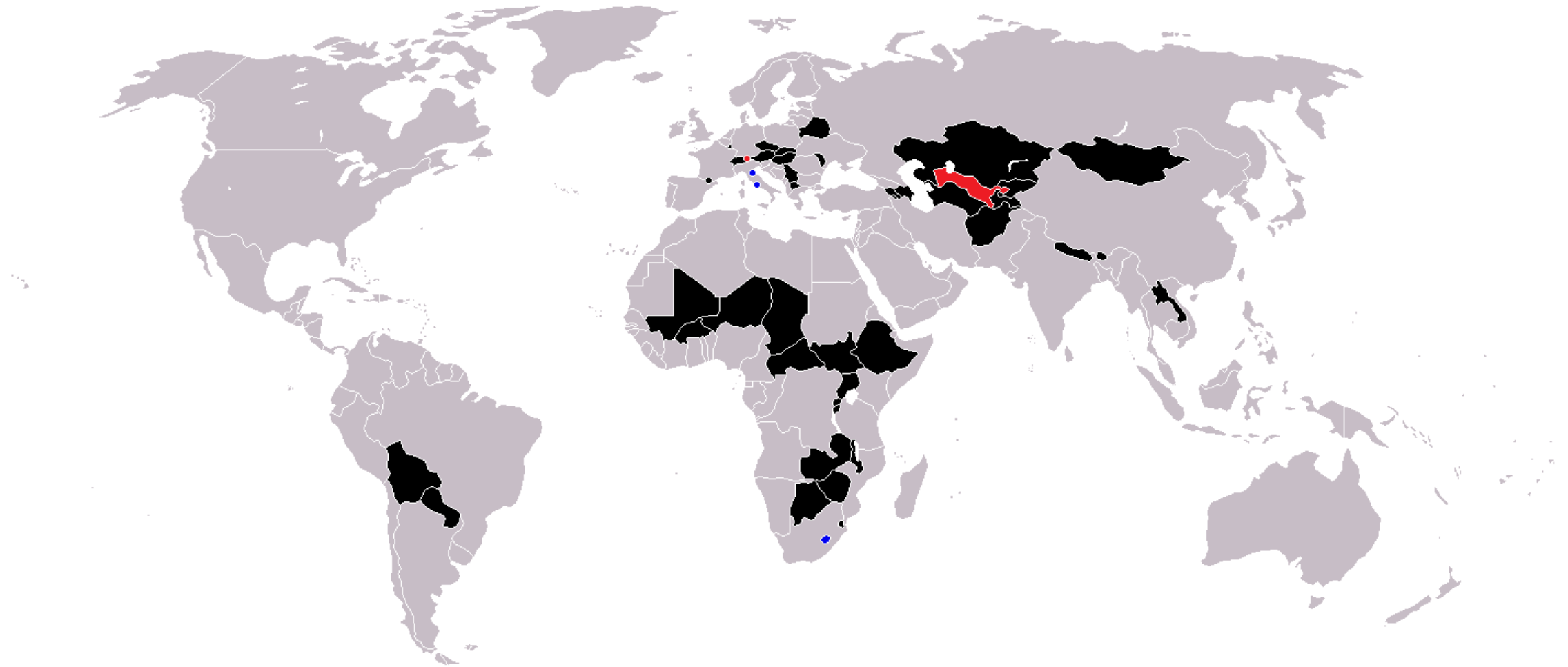
$$\{1, 3, 5\} = \{3, 5, 1\}$$

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

$$\{1, 3, 7\} \neq \{1, 3\}$$



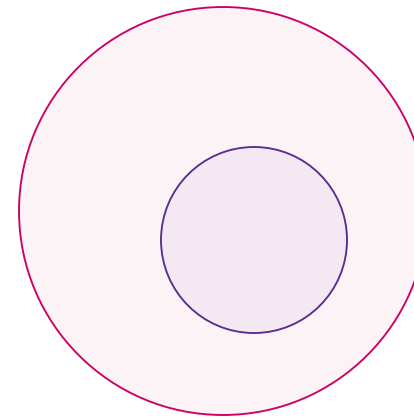
# Subsets





# Subsets — Definition

- The set  $A$  is a *subset* of  $B$ , denoted by  $A \subseteq B$ , if and only if: every element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$ .
- Formally:  $A \subseteq B$  if and only if  $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$
- Note that:
  - $\emptyset \subseteq S$  for every set  $S$ .
  - $S \subseteq S$  for every set  $S$ .

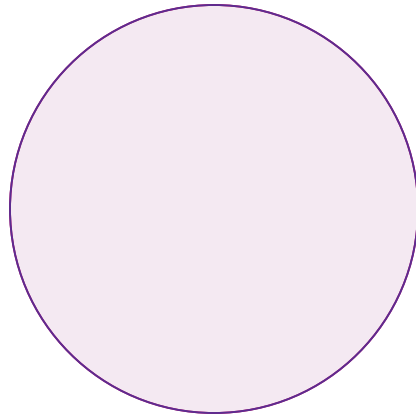


Venn diagram

# Subsets and Equality

- Two set are **equal** if and only if they are **subsets of each other**

$$A = B \text{ if and only if } A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq A$$

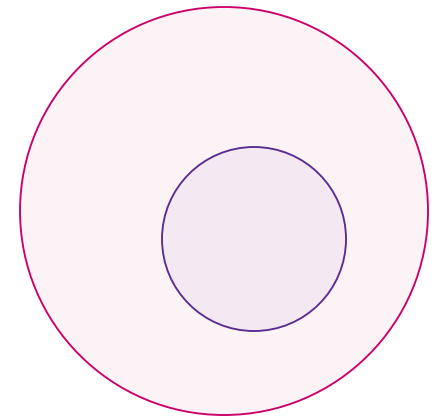


# “Proper” Subset

- We say that  $A$  is a *proper* subset of  $B$ , if and only if:
  - $A$  is a subset of  $B$ , but  $A$  is *not* equal to  $B$ :

$$A \subseteq B \wedge A \neq B$$

- In other words:
  - Every element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$
  - **But** there are some elements of  $B$  that are *not* in  $A$





# Set Cardinality



# Set Cardinality

The *cardinality* of a *finite* set  $A$ , denoted by  $|A|$ , is the number of (*distinct*) elements of  $A$ .

## Examples:

- $|\emptyset| = 0$
- Let  $S$  be the set of all letters of the English alphabet. Then  $|S| = 26$
- $|\{1, 2, 3\}| = 3$
- $|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$
- Set of integers?





# Set Cardinality

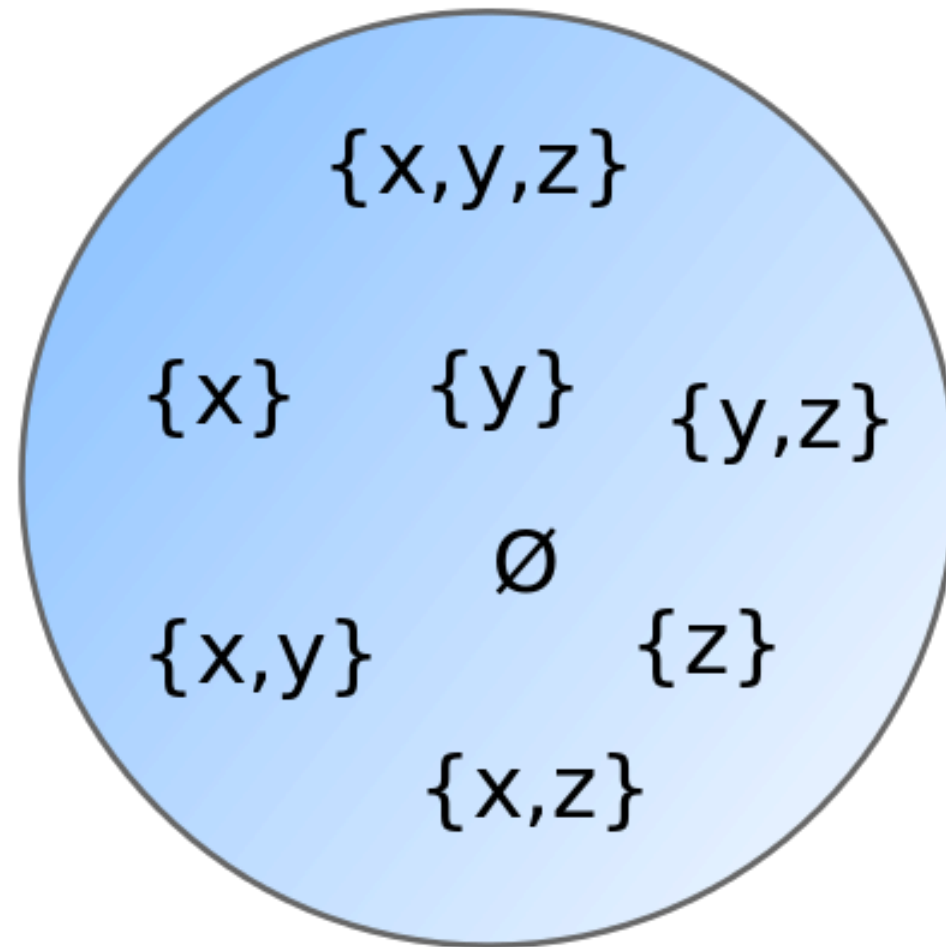
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- Let  $S$  be the set of all letters of the English alphabet. Then  $|S| = 26$
- $|\{1, 2, 3\}| = 3$
- $|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$
- The set of integers is infinite! ( $\infty$ )
  - The “cardinality” of infinite sets is a somewhat trickier topic.
  - Not all “infinities” are equal!



# Power Sets



$$\mathcal{P}(\{x, y, z\})$$

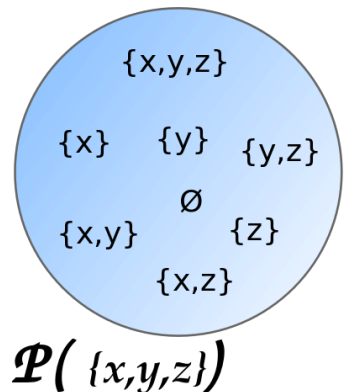
# Power Sets

The *power set* of a given set  $A$ , denoted  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ , is the set of all subsets of  $A$ .

- Example: If  $S = \{a, b, c\}$  then

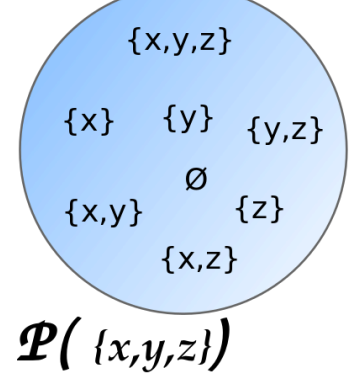
$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$$

- If a set has  $n$  elements, then the cardinality (i.e. size) of the power set is  $2^n$ . That is,
  - $|A| = n \rightarrow |\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^n$





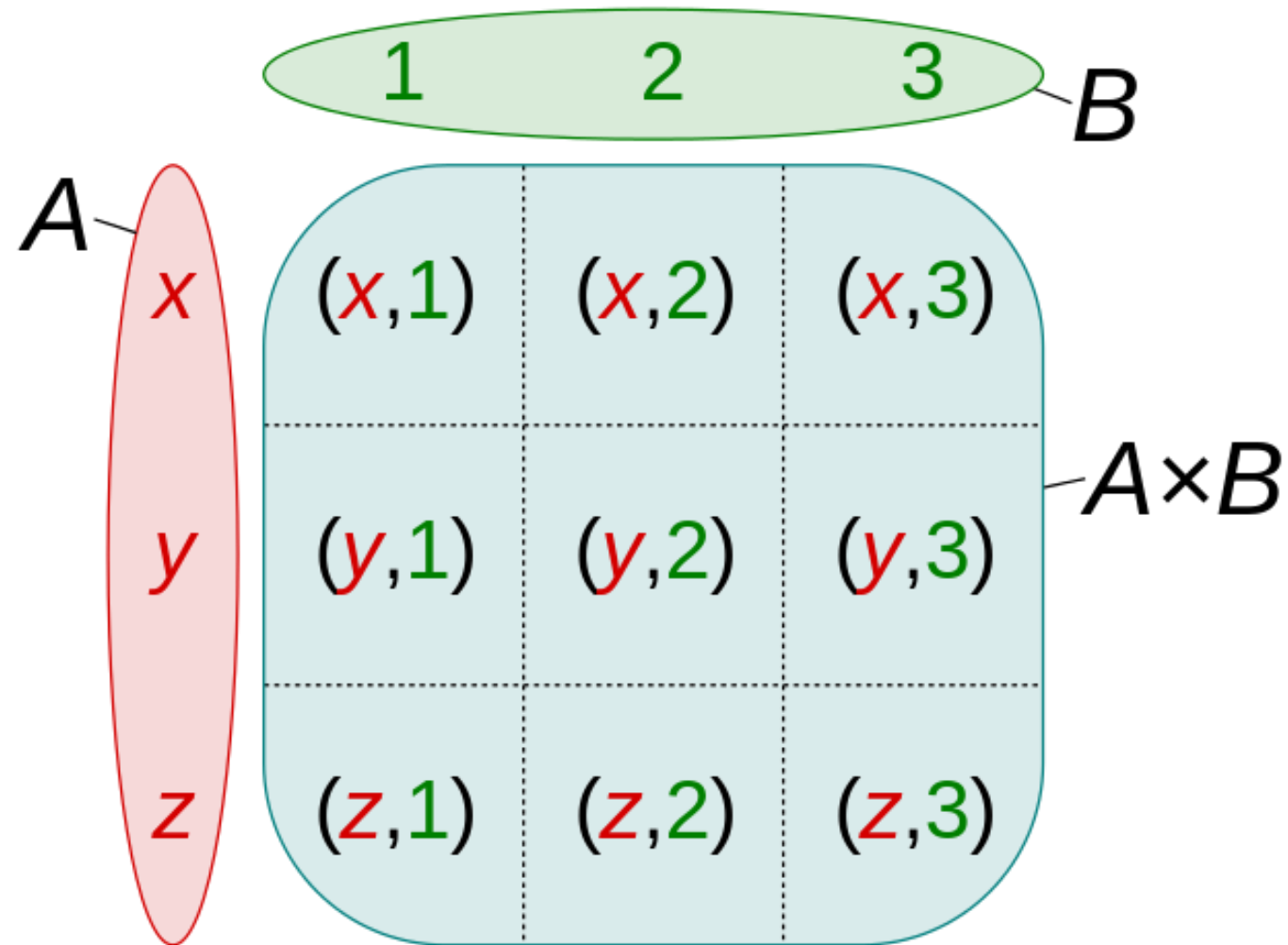
# Cardinality of Power Sets



- Let  $S = \{a, b, c\}$ . Each *subset* of  $S$  can be represented as a **bit string** of length  $|S| = 3$ , where each component is:
  - **1** if corresponding element is a member of  $S$
  - **0** if not a member
- Therefore, the size of  $\mathcal{P}(S)$  is  $2^n$ :
  - the number of bit strings of length  $n$   
(we will see at a later unit exactly why...)

a	b	c	
0	0	0	$\emptyset$
0	0	1	$\{c\}$
0	1	0	$\{b\}$
0	1	1	$\{b, c\}$
1	0	0	$\{a\}$
1	0	<u>1</u>	<u><math>\{a, c\}</math></u>
1	1	0	$\{a, b\}$
1	1	1	$\{a, b, c\}$

# Cartesian Product



René Descartes  
(1596-1650)

# Cartesian Product: Two Sets

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

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

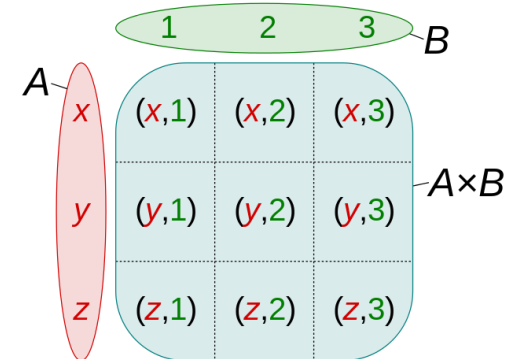
Example:

$$A = \{a,b\} \quad B = \{1,2,3\}$$

$$A \times B = \{(a,1), (a,2), (a,3), (b,1), (b,2), (b,3)\}$$

Note:  $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$   
 $6 = 2 \cdot 3$

Can be generalized to *any* number of sets...



# Cartesian Product Example: Cluedo!

If

$S$  = set of all suspects

$W$  = set of all weapons

$L$  = set of all locations

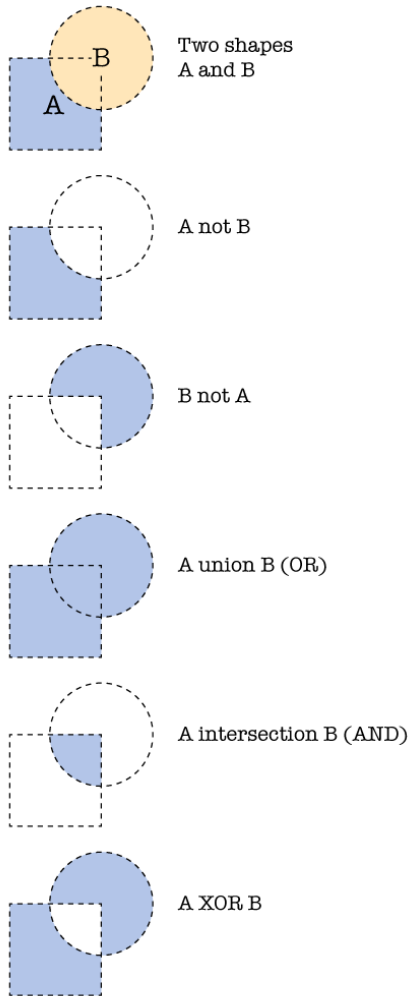
Then the cartesian product

$$S \times W \times L$$

will describe exactly all possible “murder scenarios”, i.e., all possible “configurations” of the game.

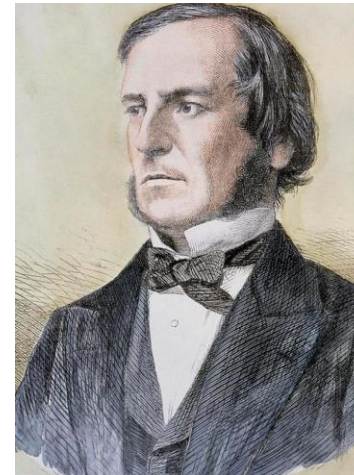


# Set Operations

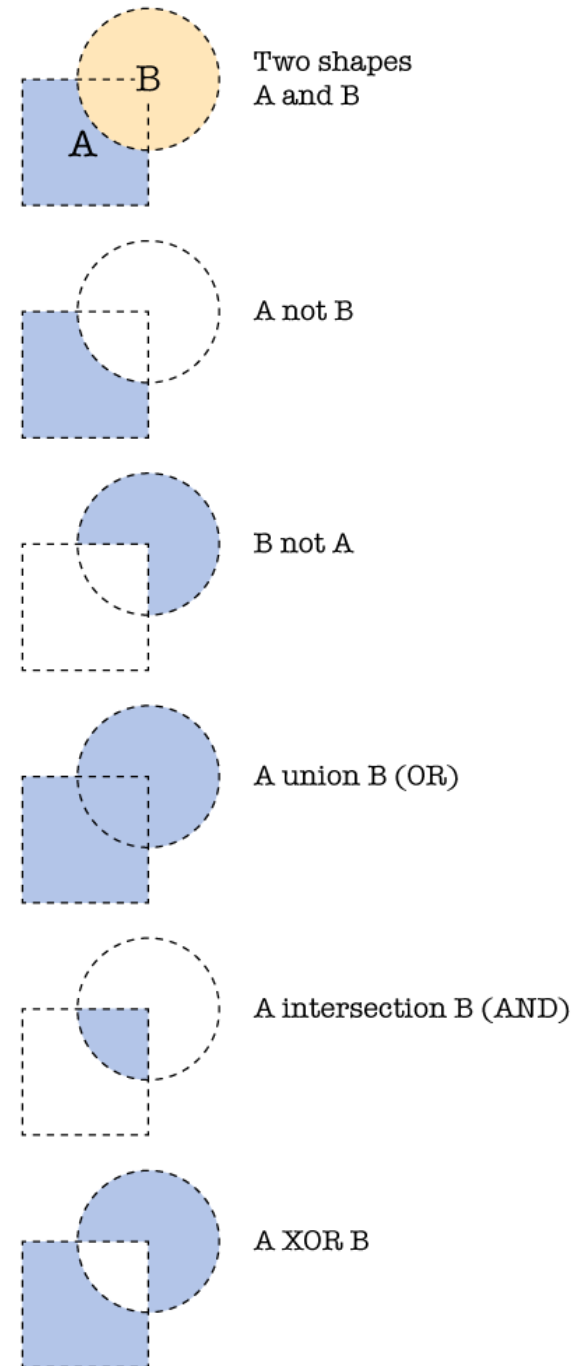


# Boolean Algebra!

- Set theory can be interpreted as an instance of an **algebraic system** called a *Boolean Algebra*.
  - We will look at another Boolean algebra later called “propositional calculus”
- The **operators in set theory** are **analogous** to the corresponding Boolean **operators we have already seen**
- Recall the definition of universal set  $U$ 
  - All sets are assumed to be subsets of  $U$



George Boole (1815–1864)



# Union

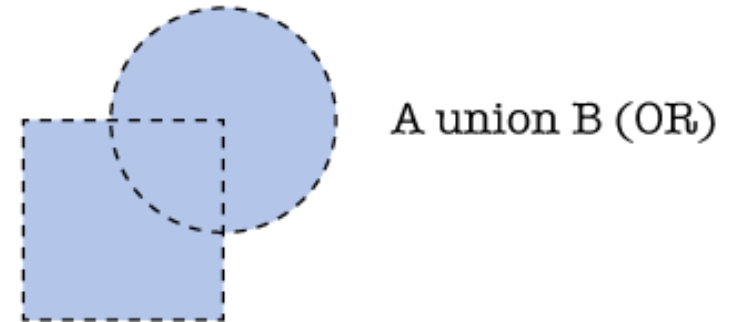
- **Definition:** The *union* of the sets  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted by  $A \cup B$ , is the set:

$$\{x | x \in A \vee x \in B\}$$

Analogous to the logical OR

- **Example:** What is  $\{1, 2, 3\} \cup \{3, 4, 5\}$  ?

**Answer:**  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$



$A \cup B$

# Intersection

- **Definition:** The *intersection* of sets  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted by  $A \cap B$ , is

$$\{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}$$

Analogous to the logical AND

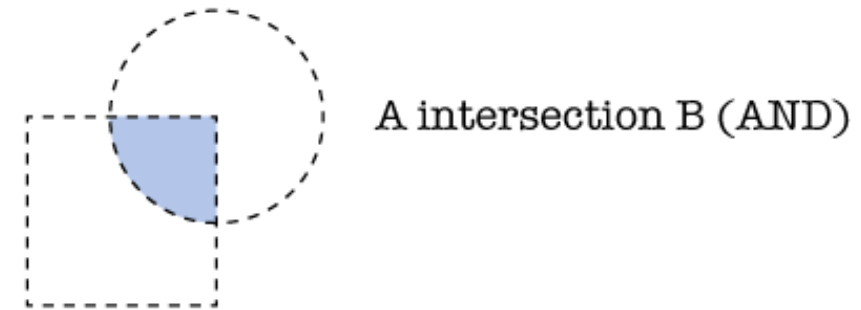
- Note: if the intersection  $A \cap B$  is *empty*, then sets  $A$  and  $B$  are said to be *disjoint*.

- **Example:** What is  $\{1, 2, 3\} \cap \{3, 4, 5\}$  ?

Answer:  $\{3\}$

- **Example:** What is  $\{1, 2, 3\} \cap \{4, 5, 6\}$  ?

Answer:  $\emptyset$



$A \cap B$



# Multiple sets

Notation for unions and intersections over sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$

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

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

# Complement

**Definition:** the *complement* of  $A$  (with respect to a given universal set  $U$ ), denoted by  $\bar{A}$  (or  $A^c$ ) is the set:

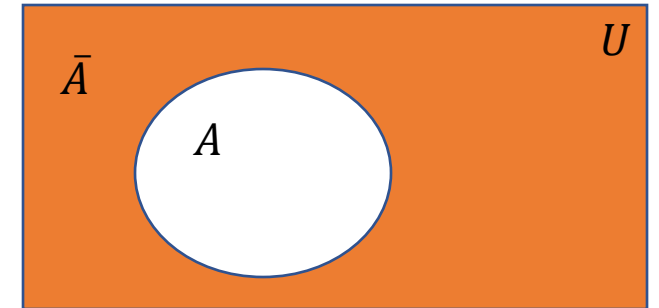
$$\bar{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

Analogous to the logical NOT

**Example:** If  $U$  is the positive integers less than 100, what is the complement of  $\{x \mid x > 70\}$ ?

*negation:  $x \leq 70$*

**Answer:**  $\{1, 2, \dots, 70\}$



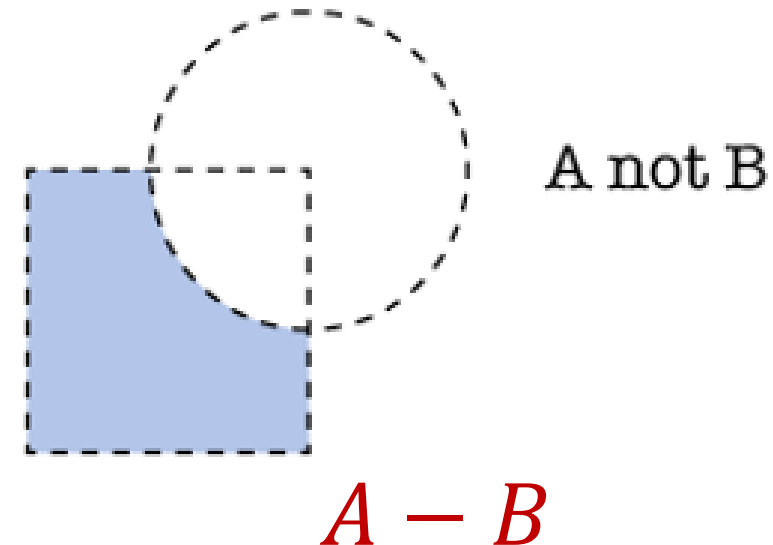
*Venn Diagram for Complement*

# Difference

**Definition:** The *difference* of  $A$  from  $B$ , denoted by  $A - B$  (or  $A \setminus B$ ), is the set containing the *all elements of  $A$  that are not in  $B$* .

$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \notin B\} = A \cap \bar{B}$$

- $A - B$  is also called the complement of  $B$  with respect to  $A$



# Set Identities & Equivalences

- Identity laws  $A \cup \emptyset = A$   $A \cap U = A$
- Domination laws  $A \cup U = U$   $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- Idempotent laws  $A \cup A = A$   $A \cap A = A$
- Double Complement law  $\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$

# Set Identities & Equivalences

- Commutative laws

$$A \cup B = B \cup A \quad A \cap B = B \cap A$$

- Associative laws

$$\underbrace{A \cup B \cup C}_{A \cup B \cup C} = \underbrace{(A \cup B) \cup C}_{A \cup B \cup C}$$

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

- Distributive laws

$$\underbrace{x \cdot (y + z)}_{x \cdot (y + z)} = \underbrace{x \cdot y + x \cdot z}_{x \cdot y + x \cdot z}$$
$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

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

# Set Identities & Equivalences

- De Morgan's laws

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

- Absorption laws  
↳ more generally:  
if  $A \subseteq B$  then:

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

$$A \cup B = B$$

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

$$A \cap B = A$$

- Complement laws

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

$$A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$$

- Complement conversion to difference

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