

Discrete Mathematics I.

Sets

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Discrete mathematics

The subfields of Discrete mathematics include:

- Logic
- Set theory
- Combinatorics
- Graph theory
- Number theory
- Algebra
- Cryptography
- Algorithm theory
- Theory of computation
- Information theory
- Game theory
- Discrete geometry
- Operations research
- Probability theory

What do we study in this Course?

Four main topics:

1. **Basics:** logic, sets, relations



2. **Complex numbers**

$$(\cos t + i \sin t)^n = \cos n^*t + i \sin n^*t$$

3. **Combinatorics**



4. **Graphs**



A little bit of Logic ...

Logical operations

Statements (or propositions) in logic can be connected by **logical operations**:

Logical operations

- **Negation**, notation: $\neg A$.
- **And** (or **conjunction**), notation: $A \wedge B$.
- **Or** (**inclusive or** or **disjunction**), notation: $A \vee B$.
- **If ... then ...** (or **implication**), notation: $A \Rightarrow B$.
- **... if and only if ...** (or **equivalence**), notation: $A \Leftrightarrow B$.

The logical operations can be defined by their truth tables:

Truth tables

A	B	$\neg A$	$A \wedge B$	$A \vee B$	$A \Rightarrow B$	$A \Leftrightarrow B$
T	T	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T	F
F	F	T	F	F	T	T

Logical operations: different kinds of 'or'

Just like in everyday language, in logic, different types of **or** are used:

Different types of 'or'

- **Inclusive or:** $A \vee B$ is true if and only if *at least either of* A and B is true.
e. g.: „If you like jazz or rock, join our music club.”
- **Exclusive or:** $A \oplus B$ is true if and only if *exactly one of* A and B is true.
e. g.: „Here we need to turn left or right.”
- **Conflicting or:** $A || B$ is true if and only if *at most one of* A and B is true.
e.g.: „Drink or drive!”

A	B	$A \vee B$	$A \oplus B$	$A B$
T	T	T	F	F
T	F	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	F	F	T

Logical operations: implication

In logic, implication ($A \Rightarrow B$) does *not mean causality*: the truth value of $A \Rightarrow B$ depends only on the truth values of A and B .

A	B	$A \Rightarrow B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

Examples

- $2 \cdot 2 = 4 \Rightarrow i^2 = -1$.
- $2 \cdot 2 = 5 \Rightarrow i^2 = -2$
- $2 \cdot 2 = -3 \Rightarrow$ Dogs are mammals.

A logical operator can be expressed in more than one ways:

$$(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \vee B)$$

Properties of logical operations

Proposition (Properties of logical operations)

For every proposition A, B and C the following hold:

- 1 $A \vee A \Leftrightarrow A, \quad A \wedge A \Leftrightarrow A$ (idempotence)
- 2 $A \vee (B \vee C) \Leftrightarrow (A \vee B) \vee C, \quad A \wedge (B \wedge C) \Leftrightarrow (A \wedge B) \wedge C$ (associativity)
- 3 $(A \vee B) \Leftrightarrow (B \vee A), \quad (A \wedge B) \Leftrightarrow (B \wedge A)$ (commutativity)
- 4 $A \wedge (B \vee C) \Leftrightarrow (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C), \quad A \vee (B \wedge C) \Leftrightarrow (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$ (distributivity)
- 5 $(A \vee B) \wedge A \Leftrightarrow A, \quad (A \wedge B) \vee A \Leftrightarrow A$ (absorption laws)
- 6 $\neg(A \vee B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \wedge \neg B, \quad \neg(A \wedge B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \vee \neg B$ (De Morgan's laws)
- 7 $(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A)$ (law of contrapositive)
- 8 $((A \Rightarrow B) \wedge A) \Rightarrow B$ (modus ponens)
- 9 $((A \Rightarrow B) \wedge (B \Rightarrow C)) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow C)$ (syllogism)
- 10 $((A \Rightarrow B) \wedge (B \Rightarrow A)) \Leftrightarrow (A \Leftrightarrow B)$

Proof (Example: associativity of \vee)

3 $A \vee (B \vee C) \Leftrightarrow (A \vee B) \vee C$

A	B	C	$B \vee C$	$A \vee (B \vee C)$	$A \vee B$	$(A \vee B) \vee C$	$A \vee (B \vee C) \Leftrightarrow (A \vee B) \vee C$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	T	T	T	T
T	F	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	T	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	T

Quantifiers

Quantifiers

- \exists (existential quantifier): 'there exist(s)', 'there is/are'.
- \forall (universal quantifier): '(for) every', '(for) all'.

Examples

- 1 $\exists x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 = 5$
'There is a real number x such that $x^2 = 5$ '.
- 2 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 \geq 0$
'For every real number x we have $x^2 \geq 0$ '.
- 3 $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \exists x \in \mathbb{R} : x > n$
'For every integer n there exists a real number x such that $x > n$ '.

Sets

A famous paradox in naive set theory

Russell's paradox (Bertrand Russell, 1872 - 1970)

Call every set **good** which is not an element of itself;
call every set **bad** which is an element of itself. Define
set **A** as the set of all **good** sets.

Is **A** a **good** or a **bad** set?



- **A** is a **good** set. \Rightarrow (by the definition of **A**) **A** is an element of itself.
 \Rightarrow **A** is a **bad** set.
- **A** is **bad** set. \Rightarrow (by the definition of **A**) **A** is not an element of itself. \Rightarrow **A** is a **good** set.

The possible ways in which sets can be defined need to be restricted and clearly determined. \Rightarrow **Axiomatic set theory**: Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory axioms.

Sets: basics

Basic, undefined concepts (so called predicates) in Set theory:

- **Set** (Informally we can think of a set as a mental shell around the objects it contains.)
- $x \in A$: x is an **element of** set A (or x **belongs to** A).

Note: The elements of a set can be any kinds of 'objects', even sets. A set in which all the elements are also sets is sometimes also called a **system of sets**.

The **axioms** of Set theory define some basic properties of sets which do not need to be proved, but are accepted as true.

Example

Axiom of extensionality

Two sets are equal if and only if they contain exactly the same elements.

Note: An element of a set does not have a 'multiplicity': an object is either an element of a set or not, it cannot be an element twice...

Sets

Defining a (finite) set by listing its elements:

A finite set can be defined by listing its elements between a pair of curly brackets $\{\}$. For example:

- $\{a\}$ denotes the set which contains only a single element a and
- $\{a, b\}$ is the set containing exactly the elements a and b (in particular, if $a = b$, then $\{a\} = \{a, b\} = \{b\}$).
- ...

Definition (empty set)

The set which contains no elements is called the **empty set** and it is denoted by \emptyset or $\{\}$.

Note

- Please note that $\emptyset \neq \{\emptyset\}$!
- By the Axiom of extensionality the empty set is unique.

Subsets of a set

Definition (subset)

A set A is called a **subset** of set B , in notation: $A \subseteq B$, if every element of A is also an element of B , that is if

$$\forall x : x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B.$$

If $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$, then A is a **proper subset** of B , in notation: $A \subsetneq B$.

Note:

- The empty set is a subset of every set.
- Every set is a subset (but not a proper subset) of itself.

Proposition (Properties of the subset relation; proof is hw)

For every set A, B and C :

- 1 $A \subseteq A$ (reflexivity).
- 2 $(A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq C) \Rightarrow A \subseteq C$ (transitivity).
- 3 $(A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq A) \Rightarrow A = B$ (anti-symmetry).

Subset defined by a 'property' (formula)

Definition (Subset defined by a formula)

Let A be a set and $\mathcal{F}(x)$ be a formula (i.e. \mathcal{F} is a 'property' that can be described by precise mathematical terms). Then the collection of all those elements x of A for which $\mathcal{F}(x)$ is true (i.e. which satisfy property \mathcal{F}) is a set, denoted by $\{x \in A : \mathcal{F}(x)\} = \{x \in A \mid \mathcal{F}(x)\}$.

Note: For $\{x \in A : \mathcal{F}(x)\}$ the notations $\{x : x \in A \wedge \mathcal{F}(x)\}$ and $\{x : x \in A, \mathcal{F}(x)\}$ are also commonly used.

Examples

- $\{n \in \mathbb{Z} : \exists m (m \in \mathbb{Z} \wedge n = m^2)\}$: the set of square numbers.
- $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 = 3\}$: the set of (real) solutions to the equation $x^2 = 3$, i.e. $\{\sqrt{3}, -\sqrt{3}\}$.

Set operations: set union

Definition (set union)

The **union** of two sets A and B , denoted by $A \cup B$ is the set consisting of those elements which belong to *at least either of* A and B , that is:

$$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}.$$

In general: Let \mathcal{A} be a **system of sets** (i.e. a set in which the elements are also sets). Then $\bigcup \mathcal{A} = \bigcup \{A : A \in \mathcal{A}\} = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$ is the set of those elements which belong to at least one set in \mathcal{A} , that is:

$$\bigcup \mathcal{A} = \{x \mid \exists A \in \mathcal{A} : x \in A\}.$$

In particular: $A \cup B = \bigcup \{A, B\}$.

Examples

- $\{a, b, c\} \cup \{b, c, d\} = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 < x\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < 0\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \neq 0\}$

Set operations: the properties of set union

Proposition (Properties of set union)

For any sets A , B and C :

- ① $A \cup \emptyset = A$
- ② $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ (associativity)
- ③ $A \cup B = B \cup A$ (commutativity)
- ④ $A \cup A = A$ (idempotence)
- ⑤ $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow A \cup B = B$

Proof

- ① $x \in A \cup \emptyset \Leftrightarrow (x \in A) \vee (x \in \emptyset) \Leftrightarrow x \in A.$
- ② $x \in (A \cup (B \cup C)) \Leftrightarrow (x \in A) \vee (x \in (B \cup C)) \Leftrightarrow (x \in A) \vee ((x \in B) \vee (x \in C)) \Leftrightarrow ((x \in A) \vee (x \in B)) \vee (x \in C) \Leftrightarrow (x \in (A \cup B)) \vee (x \in C) \Leftrightarrow x \in ((A \cup B) \cup C)$
- ③ *Similar.*
- ④ *Similar.*
- ⑤ $\Rightarrow: A \subseteq B \Rightarrow A \cup B \subseteq B$, but $B \subseteq A \cup B$ is always true, hence $A \cup B = B.$
 $\Leftarrow: \text{If } A \cup B = B$, then all elements of A are also elements of $B.$

Set operations: set intersection

Definition (set intersection)

The intersection of two sets A and B , denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set containing exactly those elements which are elements of *both* A and B :

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}.$$

In general: Let \mathcal{A} be a system of sets (i.e. a set in which the elements are also sets). Then $\cap \mathcal{A} = \cap \{A : A \in \mathcal{A}\} = \cap_{A \in \mathcal{A}} A$ is defined as:

$$\cap \mathcal{A} = \{x \mid \forall A \in \mathcal{A} : x \in A\}.$$

In particular: $A \cap B = \cap \{A, B\}$.

Examples

- $\{a, b, c\} \cap \{b, c, d\} = \{b, c\}$.
- Let $I_n = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : n \leq x \leq n+1\}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{I_n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Then
 - $I_2 \cap I_3 = \{3\}$
 - $I_8 \cap I_{11} = \emptyset$
 - $I_n \cap I_{n+1} = \{n+1\}$
 - $\cap \mathcal{I} = \emptyset$

Disjoint and pairwise disjoint systems of sets

Definition ((pairwise) disjoint system of sets)

If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then A and B are said to be **disjoint**.

In general: If \mathcal{A} is a system of sets and $\bigcap \mathcal{A} = \emptyset$, then \mathcal{A} **disjoint**, or in other words, the **elements of \mathcal{A}** are **disjoint**.

If in a system of sets \mathcal{A} , any two elements of \mathcal{A} are disjoint, then we say that \mathcal{A} is a **pairwise disjoint** system of sets, or in other words, the elements of \mathcal{A} are **pairwise disjoint**.

Examples

- The sets $\{1, 2\}$ and $\{3, 4\}$ are disjoint.
- The sets $\{1, 2\}$, $\{2, 3\}$ and $\{1, 3\}$ are disjoint, but **not** pairwise disjoint.
- The sets $\{1, 2\}$, $\{3, 4\}$ $\{5, 6\}$ are pairwise disjoint.
- Let $I_n = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : n \leq x \leq n+1\}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathcal{I} = \{I_n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Then \mathcal{I} is a disjoint system of sets, but it is **not** a pairwise disjoint system.

Set operations: the properties of set intersection

Proposition (Properties of set intersection; proof hw)

For any sets A , B and C :

- ① $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- ② $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$ (associativity)
- ③ $A \cap B = B \cap A$ (commutativity)
- ④ $A \cap A = A$ (idempotence)
- ⑤ $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow A \cap B = A$

Proof

Proof is hw: similar to the proof of the properties of union.

Distributivity of set union and set intersection

Proposition (Distributivity of set union and set intersection)

For any sets A , B and C :

- ① $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
- ② $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$

Proof

- ① $x \in A \cap (B \cup C) \Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge x \in B \cup C \Leftrightarrow$
 $\Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge (x \in B \vee x \in C) \Leftrightarrow (x \in A \wedge x \in B) \vee (x \in A \wedge x \in C) \Leftrightarrow$
 $(x \in A \cap B) \vee (x \in A \cap C) \Leftrightarrow x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
- ② HW. (Similar to 1.)

Set difference and set complement

Definition (set difference)

The **difference** of two sets A and B is denoted by $A \setminus B$ and is defined as $A \setminus B = \{x \in A : x \notin B\}$.

Definition (complement of a set)

For a given universal set U and $A \subseteq U$, the **complement** of A is denoted by $\bar{A} = A'$ and is defined as $\bar{A} = A' = U \setminus A$.

Proposition (Expressing set difference using set complement)

For any sets A and B : $A \setminus B = A \cap \bar{B}$.

Proof

$$x \in A \setminus B \Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge x \notin B \Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge x \in \bar{B} \Leftrightarrow x \in A \cap \bar{B}$$

Properties of set complement

Proposition (Properties of set complement; proof hw)

Denote by U the universal set. Then for every $A, B \subseteq U$ the following hold:

- 1 $\overline{\overline{A}} = A;$
- 2 $\overline{\emptyset} = U;$
- 3 $\overline{U} = \emptyset;$
- 4 $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset;$
- 5 $A \cup \overline{A} = U;$
- 6 $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A};$
- 7 $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B};$
- 8 $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}.$

Properties 7. and 8. are called **De Morgan's laws**.

Properties of set complement

Proof

(Example)

⋮

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \quad x \in \overline{A \cap B} &\Leftrightarrow \neg(x \in A \cap B) \Leftrightarrow \neg(x \in A \wedge x \in B) \Leftrightarrow \\ &\Leftrightarrow \neg(x \in A) \vee \neg(x \in B) \Leftrightarrow (x \in \overline{A}) \vee (x \in \overline{B}) \Leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \end{aligned}$$

⋮

Symmetric difference of sets

Definition (symmetric difference)

The **symmetric difference** of two sets A and B is denoted by $A \triangle B$ and is defined as

$$A \triangle B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A)$$

.

Proposition (Alternative expression of the symmetric difference; proof HW)

For any sets A and B : $A \triangle B = (A \cup B) \setminus (B \cap A)$.

Power set of a set

Definition (power set)

Let A be a set. The set of all subsets of A is called the **power set of A** and it is denoted by 2^A or by $\mathcal{P}(A)$.

- $A = \emptyset, 2^\emptyset = \{\emptyset\}$
- $A = \{a\}, 2^{\{a\}} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$
- $A = \{a, b\}, 2^{\{a,b\}} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$

Notation: For a finite set A , the number of elements in A is denoted by $|A|$.

Proposition (Size of the power set of a finite set; proof later)

For any finite set A we have $|2^A| = 2^{|A|}$.