

VCU, Department of Computer Science

CMSC 302

Sets

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Introduction to Set Theory (§2.1)

- A *set* is a new type of structure, representing an *unordered* collection (group, plurality) of zero or more *distinct* (different) objects.
- Set theory deals with operations between, relations among, and statements about sets.
- Sets are ubiquitous (universal) in computer software systems.
- *All of mathematics can be defined in terms of some form of set theory (using predicate logic).*

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Basic notations for sets

- For sets, we'll use variables S, T, U, \dots
- We can denote a set S in writing by *listing* all of its elements in curly braces:
 - $\{a, b, c\}$ is the set of whatever 3 objects are denoted by a, b, c .
- *Set builder notation*: For any proposition $P(x)$ over any universe of discourse, $\{x|P(x)\}$ is **the set** of *all x such that $P(x)$* .

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Basic properties of sets

- Sets are inherently *unordered*:
 - No matter what objects a, b , and c denote,
 $\{a, b, c\} = \{a, c, b\} = \{b, a, c\} =$
 $\{b, c, a\} = \{c, a, b\} = \{c, b, a\}$.
- All elements are *distinct* (unequal); multiple listings make no difference!
 - If $a=b$, then $\{a, b, c\} = \{a, c\} = \{b, c\} =$
 $\{a, a, b, a, b, c, c, c, c\}$.
 - This set contains (at most) 2 elements!

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Definition of Set Equality

- Two sets are declared to be *equal* if and only if they contain exactly the same elements.
- In particular, it does not matter *how the set is defined or denoted*.
- **For example:**
 The set $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
 $= \{x \mid x \text{ is an integer where } x > 0 \text{ and } x < 5\} =$
 $\{x \mid x \text{ is a positive integer whose square is } > 0 \text{ and } < 25\}$

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Infinite Sets

- Conceptually, sets may be *infinite* (i.e., not finite, without end, unending).
- Symbols for some special infinite sets:
 $\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ The **Natural** numbers.
 $\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ The **Zntegers**.
 $\mathbf{R} =$ The “**R**eal” numbers, such as 374.1828471929498181917281943125...
- “Blackboard Bold” or double-struck font ($\mathbf{N}, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{R}$) is also often used for these special number sets.
- Infinite sets come in different sizes!

More on this after module #4 (functions).

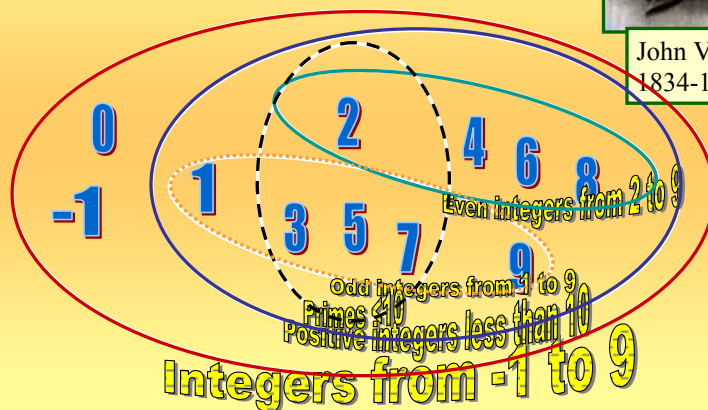
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Venn Diagrams



John Venn
1834-1923



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Basic Set Relations: Member of

- **Def.** $x \in S$ (“x is in S”) is the proposition that object x is an *element* or *member* of set S.
 – e.g. $3 \in \mathbf{N}$, “a” $\in \{x \mid x \text{ is a letter of the alphabet}\}$
 – Can define set equality in terms of \in relation:
 $\forall S, T: S = T \leftrightarrow (\forall x: x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)$
 “Two sets are equal iff they have all the same members.”
- $x \notin S \equiv \neg(x \in S)$ “x is not in S”

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The Empty Set

- **Def.** \emptyset (“null”, “the **empty set**”) is the unique set that contains no elements whatsoever.
- $\emptyset = \{\} = \{x/\mathbf{False}\}$
- No matter the domain of discourse, we have:
- **Axiom.** $\neg\exists x: x \in \emptyset$.

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Subset and Superset Relations

- **Def.** $S \subseteq T$ (“S is a **subset** of T”, also pronounced **S is contained in T**) means that every element of S is also an element of T.
- $S \subseteq T \Leftrightarrow \forall x (x \in S \rightarrow x \in T)$
- $\emptyset \subseteq S, S \subseteq S$.
- **Def.** $S \supseteq T$ (“S is a **superset** of T”, also pronounced **S includes T**) means $T \subseteq S$.
- Note $S = T \Leftrightarrow S \subseteq T \wedge S \supseteq T$.
- $S \not\subseteq T$ means $\neg(S \subseteq T)$, i.e. $\exists x (x \in S \wedge x \notin T)$

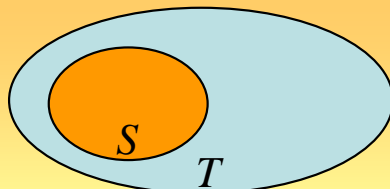
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Proper (Strict) Subsets & Supersets

- **Def.** $S \subset T$ (“S is a **proper subset** of T”) means that $S \subseteq T$ but $T \not\subseteq S$.

i.e. there exists at least one element of T not contained in S



Example:
 $\{1, 2\} \subset \{1, 2, 3\}$

Venn Diagram equivalent of $S \subset T$

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Proper (Strict) Subsets & Supersets

Example:

Consider a set $\{a, b, c, d, e\}$.

Then sets $\{d, b, a\}$, $\{c, e\}$, $\{e\}$ and \emptyset are proper subsets

but, $\{a, b, f\}$, $\{k\}$ and $\{e, b, a, d, c\}$ **are not!**

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Sets Are Objects, Too!

- The objects that are elements of a set may *themselves* be sets.
- E.g. let $S = \{x \mid x \subseteq \{1,2,3\}\}$
then $S = \{\emptyset,$
 $\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\},$
 $\{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\},$
 $\{1,2,3\}$
 $\}$
- Note that $1 \neq \{1\} \neq \{\{1\}\}$!!!!

Very
Important!

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Cardinality and Finiteness

- Def. $|S|$ (read “the *cardinality* of S ”) is a measure of **how many different elements** S has.
- E.g., $|\emptyset|=0$, $|\{1,2,3\}| = 3$, $|\{a,b\}| = 2$,
 $|\{\{1,2,3\},\{4,5\}\}| = \underline{2}$
- If $|S| \in \mathbb{N}$, then we say S is *finite*.
Otherwise, we say S is *infinite*.
- What are some infinite sets we’ve seen?
- $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}$

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The Power Set Operation

- Def. The *power set* $P(S)$ of a set S is **the set of all subsets of S** . $P(S) := \{x \mid x \subseteq S\}$.
- E.g. $P(\{a,b\}) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$.
- Sometimes $P(S)$ is written 2^S .
- Remark. For finite S , $|P(S)| = 2^{|S|}$.
- It turns out $\forall S: |P(S)| > |S|$, e.g. $|P(\mathbb{N})| > |\mathbb{N}|$.
- **There are different sizes of infinite sets!**

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Ordered n -tuples

- These are like sets, except that duplicates matter, and the order makes a difference.
- Def. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, an *ordered n -tuple* or a *sequence* or *list of length n* is written (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) . Its *first* element is a_1 , etc.
- Note that $(1, 2) \neq (2, 1) \neq (2, 1, 1)$.
- Empty sequence, **singlets**, **pairs**, **triples**, **quadruples**, **quintuples**, ..., **n -tuples**.

Contrast with
sets' $\{\}$

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Cartesian Products

- **Def.** For sets A, B , their *Cartesian product* $A \times B \equiv \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge b \in B\}$.
- *E.g.* $\{a, b\} \times \{1, 2\} = \{(a, 1), (a, 2), (b, 1), (b, 2)\}$
- **Remarks** ($A \times B$ is a set of **ORDERED n -tuples**)
- For finite A, B , $|A \times B| = |A| |B|$.
- The Cartesian product is *not* commutative: *i.e.*, $\neg \forall A, B: A \times B = B \times A$.
- Extends to $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n \dots$



René Descartes
(1596-1650)

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Review: Set Notations So Far

- Variable objects x, y, z ; sets S, T, U .
- Literal set $\{a, b, c\}$ and set-builder $\{x \mid P(x)\}$.
- \in relational operator, and the empty set \emptyset .
- Set relations $=, \subseteq, \supseteq, \subset, \supset, \not\subset$, etc.
- Venn diagrams.
- Cardinality $|S|$ and infinite sets $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}$.
- Power sets $P(S)$.

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Start §2.2: The Union Operator

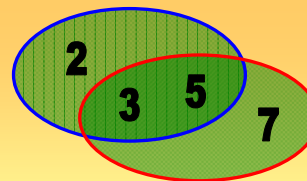
- **Def.** For sets A, B , their *union* $A \cup B$ is the **SET** containing all elements that are either in A , **or** (" \vee ") in B (or, of course, in both).
- Formally, $\forall A, B: A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}$.
- **Remark.** $A \cup B$ is a **superset** of both A and B
(in fact, it is the smallest such superset):
 $\forall A, B: (A \cup B \supseteq A) \wedge (A \cup B \supseteq B)$

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Union Examples

- $\{a, b, c\} \cup \{2, 3\} = \{a, b, c, 2, 3\}$ **Required Form**
- $\{2, 3, 5\} \cup \{3, 5, 7\} = \{2, 3, 5, 3, 5, 7\} = \{2, 3, 5, 7\}$



Think "The **United** States of America includes every person who worked in any U.S. state last year."
(This is how the IRS sees it...)

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The Intersection Operator

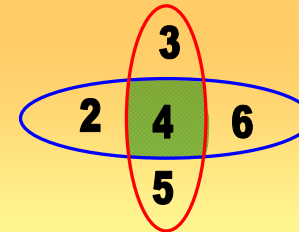
- **Def.** For sets A, B , their *intersection* $A \cap B$ is the set containing all elements that are simultaneously in A and (“ \wedge ”) in B .
- Formally, $\forall A, B: A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}$.
- **Remark.** $A \cap B$ is a **subset** of both A and B (in fact it is the largest such subset):
 $\forall A, B: (A \cap B \subseteq A) \wedge (A \cap B \subseteq B)$

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Intersection Examples

- $\{a,b,c\} \cap \{2,3\} = \underline{\emptyset}$
- $\{2,4,6\} \cap \{3,4,5\} = \underline{\{4\}}$



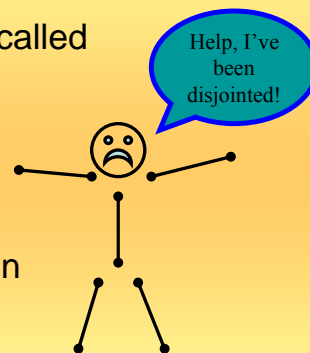
Think “The **intersection** of W Franklin St. and Jefferson St. is just that part of the road surface that lies on **both** streets.”

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Disjointedness

- **Def.** Two sets A, B are called *disjoint* (i.e., unjoined) iff their intersection is empty. ($A \cap B = \emptyset$)
- Example: the set of even integers is disjoint with the set of odd integers.



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Inclusion-Exclusion Principle

- How many elements are in $A \cup B$?
 $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$
- Example: How many students are on our class email list? Consider set $E = I \cup M$,
 $I = \{s \mid s \text{ turned in an information sheet}\}$
 $M = \{s \mid s \text{ sent the TAs their email address}\}$
- Some students did both!
 $|E| = |I \cup M| = |I| + |M| - |I \cap M|$

Subtract out items in intersection, to compensate for double-counting them!

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Set Difference

- **Def.** For sets A , B , the *difference* of A and B , written $A - B$, is the set of all elements that are in A but not B .
- Formally:

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

$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)\}$$
- Also called:
The *complement* of B with respect to A .

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Set Difference Examples

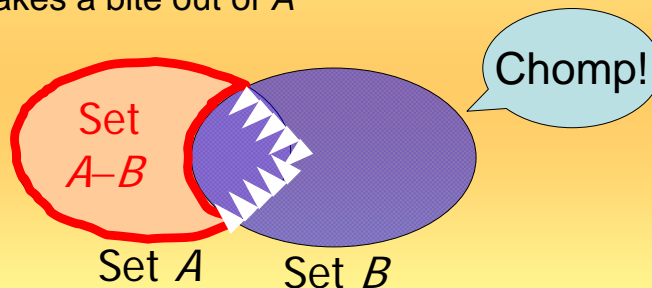
- $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} - \{2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11\} = \{1, 4, 6\}$
- $\mathbb{Z} - \mathbb{N} = \{\dots, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\} - \{0, 1, \dots\}$
 $= \{x \mid x \text{ is an integer but not a nat. \#}\}$
 $= \{x \mid x \text{ is a negative integer}\}$
 $= \{\dots, -3, -2, -1\}$

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Set Difference - Venn Diagram

- $A - B$ is what's left after B "takes a bite out of A "



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Set Complements

- **Def.** The *universe of discourse* can itself be considered a set, call it U .
- When the context clearly defines U , we say that for any set $A \subseteq U$, the *complement* of A , written \bar{A} , is the complement of A w.r.t. U , i.e., it is $U - A$.
- E.g., If $U = \mathbb{N}$, $\overline{\{3, 5\}} = \{0, 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, \dots\}$

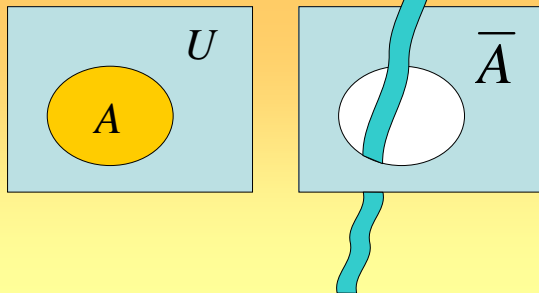
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More on Set Complements

- An equivalent definition, when U is clear:

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



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Set Identities

- Identity: $A \cup \emptyset = A = A \cap U$
- Domination: $A \cup U = U$, $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- Idempotent: $A \cup A = A = A \cap A$
- Double complement: $\overline{\bar{A}} = A$
- Commutative: $A \cup B = B \cup A$, $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- Associative: $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap C$,
 $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup C$

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DeMorgan's Law for Sets

- Exactly analogous to (and provable from) DeMorgan's Law for propositions.

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

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

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Proving Set Identities

- To prove statements about sets, of the form $E_1 = E_2$ (where the E s are set expressions), here are three useful techniques:
 1. Prove $E_1 \subseteq E_2$ and $E_2 \subseteq E_1$ separately.
 2. Use set builder notation & logical equivalences.
 3. Use a *membership table*.

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Method 1: Mutual subsets

- Example:
- Show $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
- **Part 1:** Show $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Assume $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$, & show $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - We know that $x \in A$, and either $x \in B$ or $x \in C$.
 - Case 1: $x \in B$. Then $x \in A \cap B$, so $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Case 2: $x \in C$. Then $x \in A \cap C$, so $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Therefore, $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
 - Therefore, $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.
- **Part 2:** Show $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subseteq A \cap (B \cup C)$

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Method 2: Use set builder notation & logical equivalences

- Show $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

See Ex.11, page 125 in edition 6 of our textbook

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Method 3: Membership Tables

- Just like truth tables for propositional logic.
- Columns for different set expressions.
- Rows for all combinations of memberships in constituent sets.
- Use “1” to indicate membership in the **derived set**, “0” for non-membership. (trick is, use **MAX** for \cup , and **min** for \cap)
- Prove equivalence with identical columns.

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Membership Table Example

- Prove $(A \cup B) - B = A - B$.

Hint: think about an element x which does or doesn't belong to A and/or B

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

A	B	$A \cup B$	$(A \cup B) - B$	$A - B$
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0

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Membership Table Exercise

- Prove $(A \cup B) - C = (A - C) \cup (B - C)$.

A	B	C	$A \cup B$	$(A \cup B) - C$	$A - C$	$B - C$	$(A - C) \cup (B - C)$
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0

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Generalized Unions & Intersections

- Since **union & intersection** are **commutative and associative**, we can extend them from operating on *ordered pairs* of sets (A, B) to operating on sequences of sets (A_1, \dots, A_n) , or even on unordered sets of sets,

$$X = \{A \mid P(A)\}.$$

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Generalized Union

- Binary union operator:
- $A \cup B$
- n -ary union:
 $A \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n \equiv ((\dots((A_1 \cup A_2) \cup \dots) \cup A_n)$
 (grouping & order is irrelevant)

- “Big U” notation: $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$

- or for infinite sets of sets: $\bigcup_{A \in X} A$

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Generalized Intersection

- Binary intersection operator:
- $A \cap B$
- n -ary intersection:
 $A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n \equiv ((\dots((A_1 \cap A_2) \cap \dots) \cap A_n)$
 (grouping & order is irrelevant)

- “Big Arch” notation: $\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i$

- or for infinite sets of sets: $\bigcap_{A \in X} A$

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Representations

- A frequent theme of this course will be methods of *representing* one discrete structure using another discrete structure of a different type.
- *E.g.*, one can represent natural numbers as
 - Sets: $0 := \emptyset$, $1 := \{0\}$, $2 := \{0, 1\}$, $3 := \{0, 1, 2\}$, ...
 - Bit strings:
 $0 := 0$, $1 := 1$, $2 := 10$, $3 := 11$, $4 := 100$, ...

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Representing Sets with Bit Strings

- For an enumerable u.d. U with ordering x_1, x_2, \dots , represent a finite set $S \subseteq U$ as the finite bit string $B = b_1 b_2 \dots b_n$ where
 $\forall i: x_i \in S \leftrightarrow (i \leq n \wedge b_i = 1)$.
- *E.g.* $U = \mathbb{N}$, $S = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11\}$,
 $B = 01101010001$.

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Review: Set Operations § 2.2

- Union
- Intersection
- Set difference
- Set complements
- Set identities
- Set equality proof techniques:
 - Mutual subsets.
 - Derivation using logical equivalences.
- Set representations

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References

- Rosen
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