

Sets

Sections 2.1 and 2.2 of Rosen

Spring 2018

CSCE 235H Introduction to Discrete Structures (Honors)

Course web-page: cse.unl.edu/~cse235h

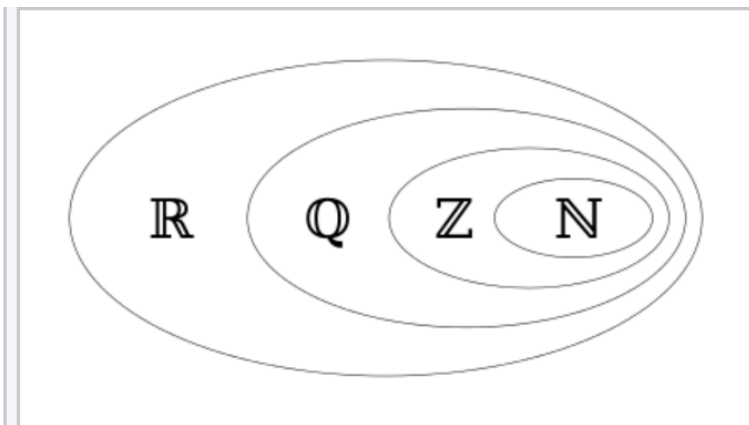
Questions: Piazza

Notation and LaTeX

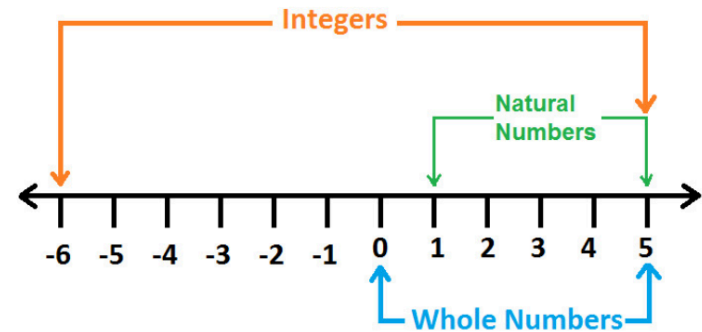
- A set is a collection of objects.
- For example:
 - $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n\}$ is a finite set of n elements
 - $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$ is a infinite set of elements.
- $s_1 \in S$ denotes that the object s_1 is an element of the set S
- $s_1 \notin S$ denotes that the object s_1 is not an element of the set S
- LaTeX
 - $\$S=\{s_1,s_2,s_3, \dots,s_n\}\$$
 - $\$s_i \in S\$$
 - $\$s_i \notin S\$$

Sets of Numbers

- Using the package: `\usepackage{amssymb}`
 - Set of natural numbers: \mathbb{N} : may or may not include 0 (by default, it does)
 - Set of integer numbers: \mathbb{Z}
 - Set of rational numbers: \mathbb{Q}
 - Set of real numbers: \mathbb{R}
 - Set of complex numbers: \mathbb{C}



Real numbers (\mathbb{R}) include the rational (\mathbb{Q}), which include the integers (\mathbb{Z}), which include the natural numbers (\mathbb{N})



Number Line representing Integers, Natural & Whole Numbers

Outline

- Definitions: set, element
- Terminology and notation
 - Set equal, multi-set, bag, set builder, intension, extension, Venn Diagram (representation), empty set, singleton set, subset, proper subset, finite/infinite set, cardinality
- Proving equivalences
- Power set
- Tuples (ordered pair)
- Cartesian Product (a.k.a. Cross product), relation
- Quantifiers
- Set Operations (union, intersection, complement, difference), Disjoint sets
- Set equivalences (cheat sheet or Table 1, page 130)
 - Inclusion in both directions
 - Using membership tables
- Generalized Unions and Intersection
- Computer Representation of Sets

Introduction (1)

- We have already implicitly dealt with sets
 - Integers (\mathbb{Z}), rationals (\mathbb{Q}), naturals (\mathbb{N}), reals (\mathbb{R}), etc.
- We will develop more fully
 - The definitions of sets
 - The properties of sets
 - The operations on sets
- **Definition:** A set is an unordered collection of (unique) objects
- Sets are fundamental discrete structures and for the basis of more complex discrete structures like graphs

Introduction (2)

- **Definition:** The objects in a set are called elements or members of a set. A set is said to contain its elements
- Notation, for a set A :
 - $x \in A$: x is an element of A \in
 - $x \notin A$: x is not an element of A \notin

Terminology (1)

- **Definition:** Two sets, A and B, are equal if they contain the same elements. We write $A=B$.
- Example:
 - $\{2,3,5,7\}=\{3,2,7,5\}$, because a set is unordered
 - Also, $\{2,3,5,7\}=\{2,2,3,5,3,7\}$ because a set contains unique elements
 - However, $\{2,3,5,7\} \neq \{2,3\}$ \neq

Terminology (2)

- A multi-set is a set where you specify the number of occurrences of each element: $\{m_1 \cdot a_1, m_2 \cdot a_2, \dots, m_r \cdot a_r\}$ is a set where
 - m_1 occurs a_1 times
 - m_2 occurs a_2 times
 - ...
 - m_r occurs a_r times
- In Databases, we distinguish
 - A set: elements cannot be repeated
 - A bag: elements can be repeated

Terminology (3)

- The **set-builder** notation

$$S = \{ x \mid (x \in \mathbb{Z}) \wedge (x = 2k) \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

reads: S is the set that contains all x such that x is an integer and x is even

- A set is defined in **intension** when you give its set-builder notation

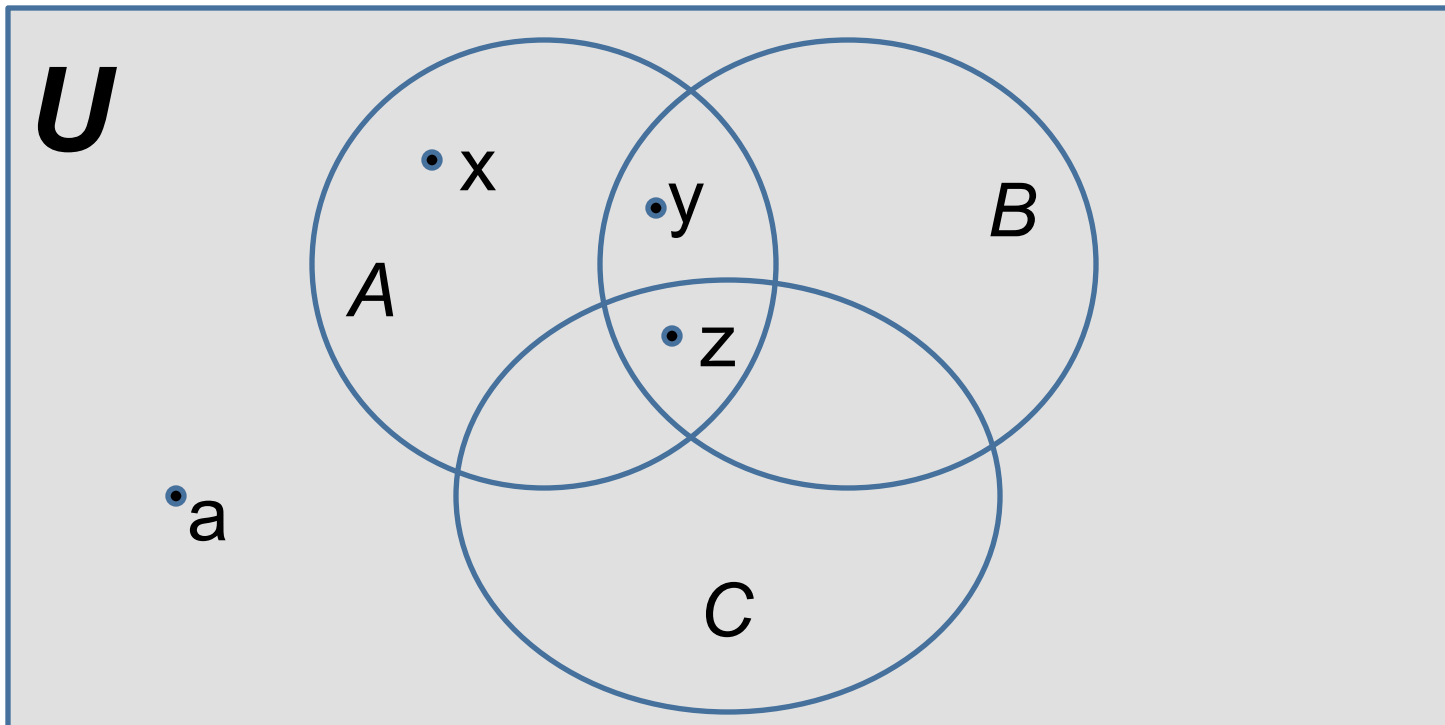
$$S = \{ x \mid (x \in \mathbb{Z}) \wedge (0 \leq x \leq 8) \wedge (x = 2k) \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

- A set is defined in **extension** when you enumerate all the elements:

$$S = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$$

Venn Diagram: Example

- A set can be represented graphically using a Venn Diagram



More Terminology and Notation (1)

- A set that has no elements is called the **empty set** or **null set** and is denoted \emptyset `\emptyset`
- A set that has one element is called a **singleton set**.
 - For example: $\{a\}$, with brackets, is a singleton set
 - a , without brackets, is an element of the set $\{a\}$
- Note the subtlety in $\emptyset \neq \{\emptyset\}$
 - The left-hand side is the empty set
 - The right hand-side is a singleton set, and a set containing a set

More Terminology and Notation (2)

- **Definition:** A is said to be a **subset** of B, and we write $A \subseteq B$, if and only if every element of A is also an element of B `\subseteq`
- That is, we have the equivalence:

$$A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow \forall x (x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B)$$

More Terminology and Notation (3)

- **Theorem:** For any set S *Theorem 1, page 120*
 - $\emptyset \subseteq S$ and
 - $S \subseteq S$
- The proof is in the book, an excellent example of a vacuous proof

More Terminology and Notation (4)

- **Definition:** A set A that is a subset of a set B is called a **proper subset** if $A \neq B$.
- That is there is an element $x \in B$ such that $x \notin A$
- We write: $A \subset B$, $A \subsetneq B$
- In LaTeX: \setminus , \subsetneq

More Terminology and Notation (5)

- Sets can be elements of other sets
- Examples
 - $S_1 = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, c\}$
 - $S_2 = \{\{1\}, \{2, 4, 8\}, \{3\}, \{6\}, 4, 5, 6\}$

More Terminology and Notation (6)

- **Definition:** If there are exactly n distinct elements in a set S , with n a nonnegative integer, we say that:
 - S is a **finite set**, and
 - The **cardinality** of S is n . Notation: $|S| = n$.
- **Definition:** A set that is not finite is said to be **infinite**

More Terminology and Notation (7)

- Examples
 - Let $B = \{x \mid (x \leq 100) \wedge (x \text{ is prime})\}$, the cardinality of B is $|B| = 25$ because there are 25 primes less than or equal to 100.
 - The cardinality of the empty set is $|\emptyset| = 0$
 - The sets N, Z, Q, R are all infinite

Proving Equivalence (1)

- You may be asked to show that a set is
 - a subset of,
 - proper subset of, or
 - equal to another set.
- To prove that A is a **subset** of B, use the equivalence discussed earlier $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow \forall x(x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B)$
 - To prove that $A \subseteq B$ it is enough to show that for an arbitrary (nonspecific) element x , $x \in A$ implies that x is also in B.
 - Any proof method can be used.
- To prove that A is a **proper subset** of B, you must prove
 - A is a subset of B **and**
 - $\exists x (x \in B) \wedge (x \notin A)$

Proving Equivalence (2)

- Finally to show that two sets are **equal**, it is sufficient to show independently (much like a biconditional) that
 - $A \subseteq B$ and
 - $B \subseteq A$
- Logically speaking, you must show the following quantified statements:

$$(\forall x (x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B)) \wedge (\forall x (x \in B \Rightarrow x \in A))$$

we will see an example later..

Power Set (1)

- **Definition:** The power set of a set S , denoted $P(S)$, is the set of all subsets of S .
- Examples
 - Let $A=\{a,b,c\}$, $P(A)=\{\emptyset,\{a\},\{b\},\{c\},\{a,b\},\{b,c\},\{a,c\},\{a,b,c\}\}$
 - Let $A=\{\{a,b\},c\}$, $P(A)=\{\emptyset,\{\{a,b\}\},\{c\},\{\{a,b\},c\}\}$
- Note: the empty set \emptyset and the set itself are always elements of the power set. This fact follows from Theorem 1 (Rosen, page 120).

Power Set (2)

- The power set is a fundamental combinatorial object useful when considering all possible combinations of elements of a set
- **Fact:** Let S be a set such that $|S|=n$, then

$$|P(S)| = 2^n$$

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- Proving equivalences
- Power set
- **Tuples (ordered pair)**
- **Cartesian Product (a.k.a. Cross product), relation**
- **Quantifiers**
- Set Operations (union, intersection, complement, difference), Disjoint sets
- Set equivalences (cheat sheet or Table 1, page 130)
 - Inclusion in both directions
 - Using membership tables
- Generalized Unions and Intersection
- Computer Representation of Sets

Tuples (1)

- Sometimes we need to consider **ordered** collections of objects
- **Definition:** The ordered n -tuple (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) is the ordered collection with the element a_i being the i -th element for $i=1, 2, \dots, n$
- Two ordered n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) and (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) are equal iff for every $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ we have $a_i = b_i$
- A 2-tuple ($n=2$) is called an **ordered pair**

Cartesian Product (1)

- **Definition:** Let A and B be two sets. The **Cartesian product** of A and B , denoted $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a,b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$

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

- The Cartesian product is also known as the **cross product**
- **Definition:** A subset of a Cartesian product, $R \subseteq A \times B$ is called a **relation**. We will talk more about relations in the next set of slides
- Note: $A \times B \neq B \times A$ unless $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$ or $A = B$. Find a counter example to prove this.

Cartesian Product (2)

- Cartesian Products can be generalized for any n-tuple
- **Definition:** The Cartesian product of n sets, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n , denoted $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$, is
$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{ (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i=1, 2, \dots, n \}$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$$

Notation with Quantifiers

- Whenever we wrote $\exists xP(x)$ or $\forall xP(x)$, we specified the universe of discourse using explicit English language
- Now we can simplify things using set notation!
- Example
 - $\forall x \in R (x^2 \geq 0)$
 - $\exists x \in Z (x^2 = 1)$
 - Also mixing quantifiers:

$$\forall a, b, c \in R \exists x \in C (ax^2 + bx + c = 0)$$

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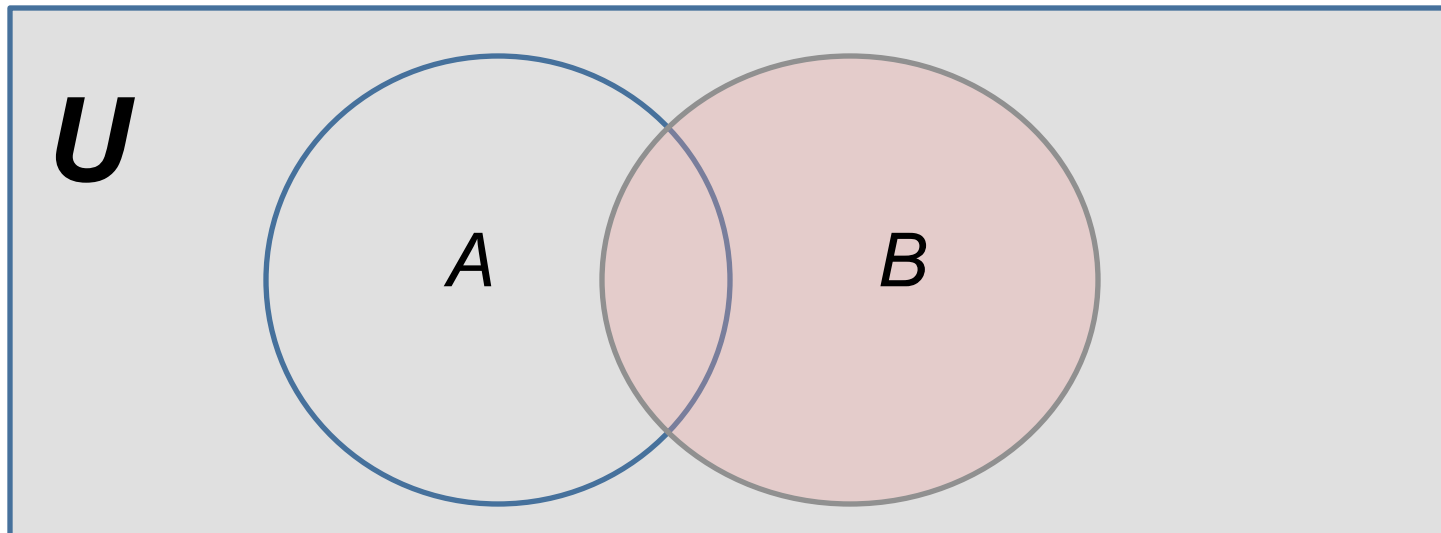
Set Operations

- Arithmetic operators (+, -, \times , \div) can be used on pairs of numbers to give us new numbers
- Similarly, set operators exist and act on two sets to give us new sets
 - Union \cup
 - Intersection \cap
 - Set difference \setminus
 - Set complement \overline{S}
 - Generalized union \bigcup
 - Generalized intersection \bigcap

Set Operators: Union

- **Definition:** The **union** of two sets A and B is the set that contains all elements in A , B , or both. We write:

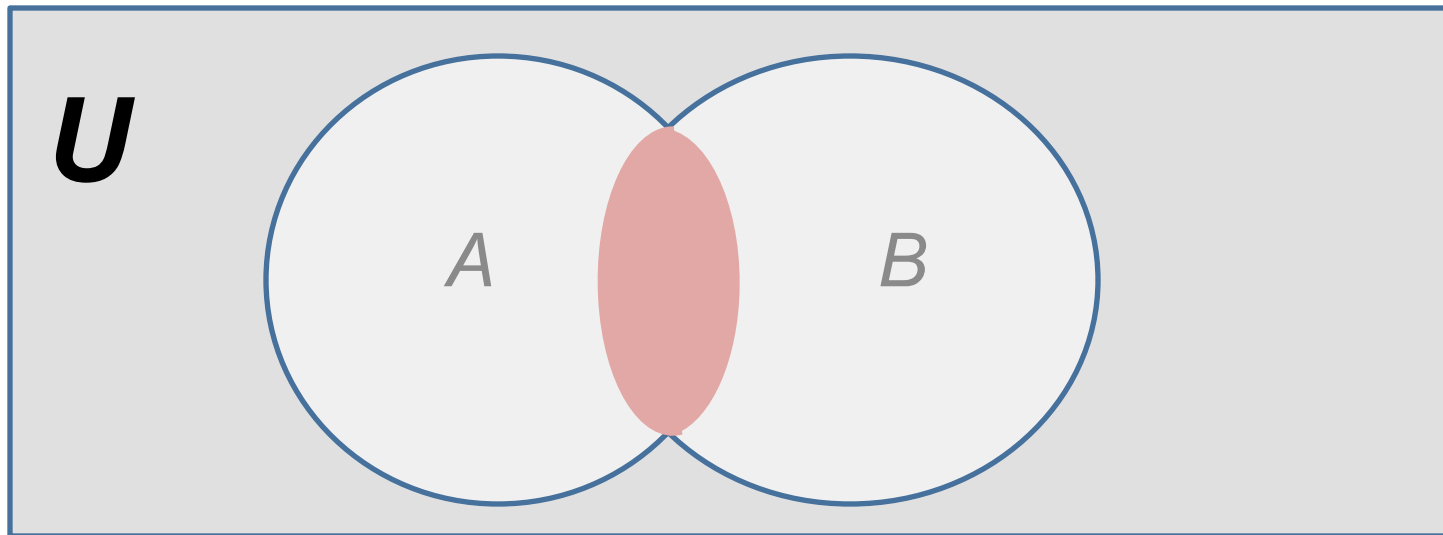
$$A \cup B = \{ x \mid (x \in A) \vee (x \in B) \}$$



Set Operators: Intersection

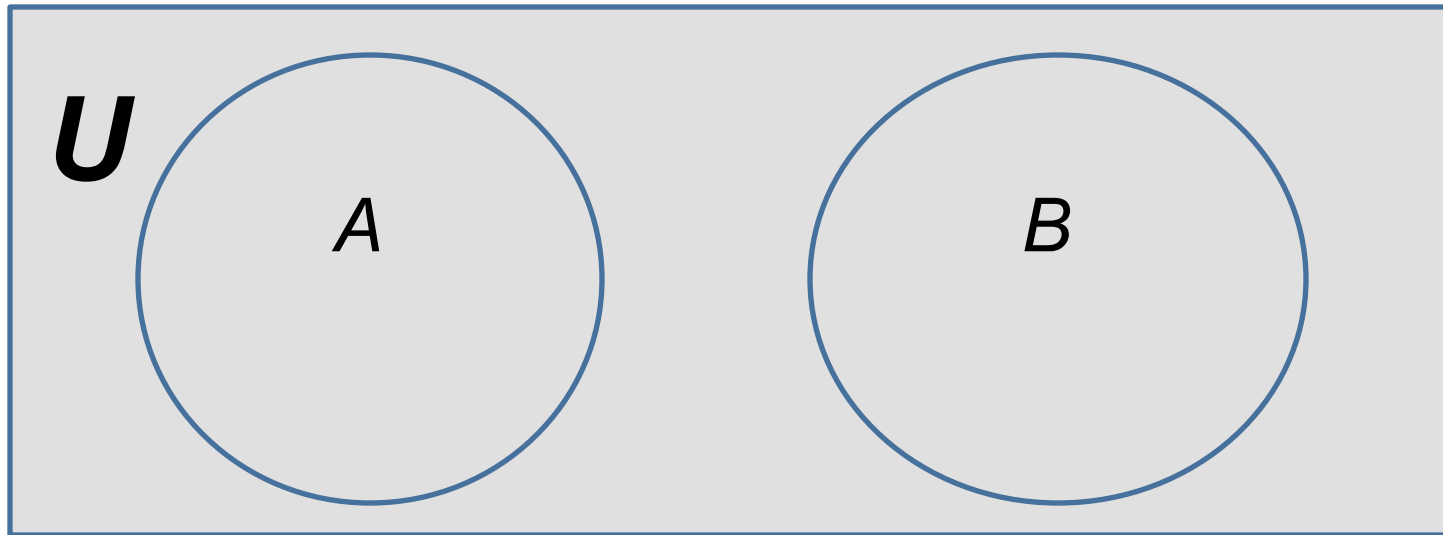
- **Definition:** The **intersection** of two sets A and B is the set that contains all elements that are element of both A and B . We write:

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



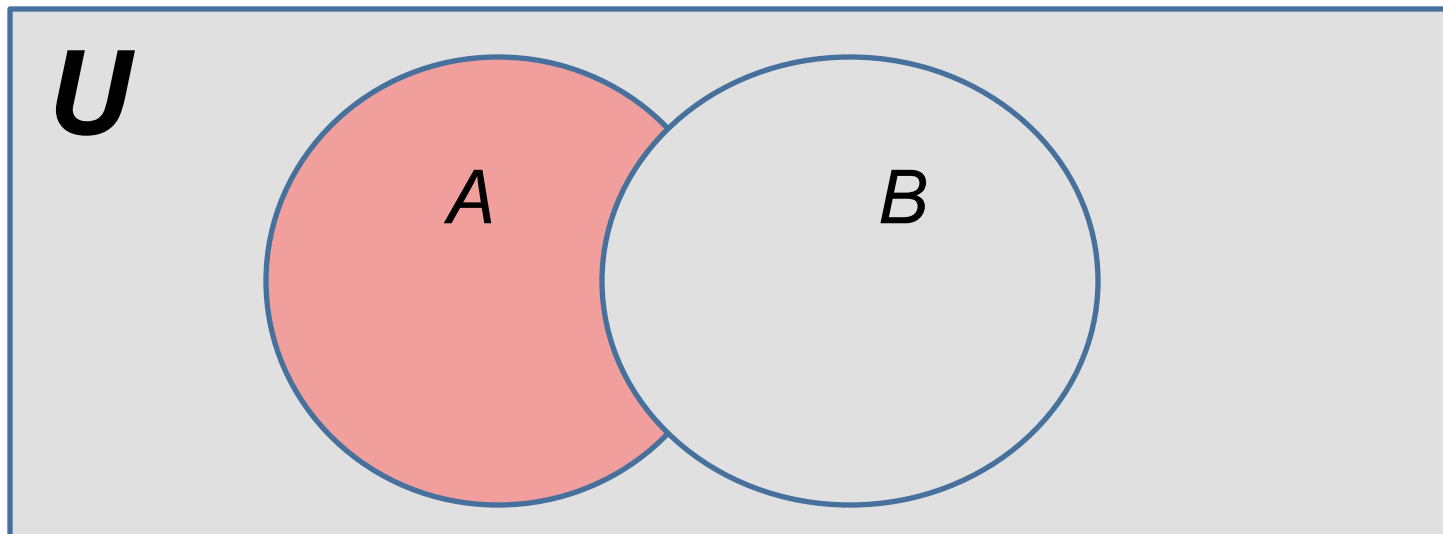
Disjoint Sets

- **Definition:** Two sets are said to be **disjoint** if their intersection is the empty set: $A \cap B = \emptyset$



Set Difference

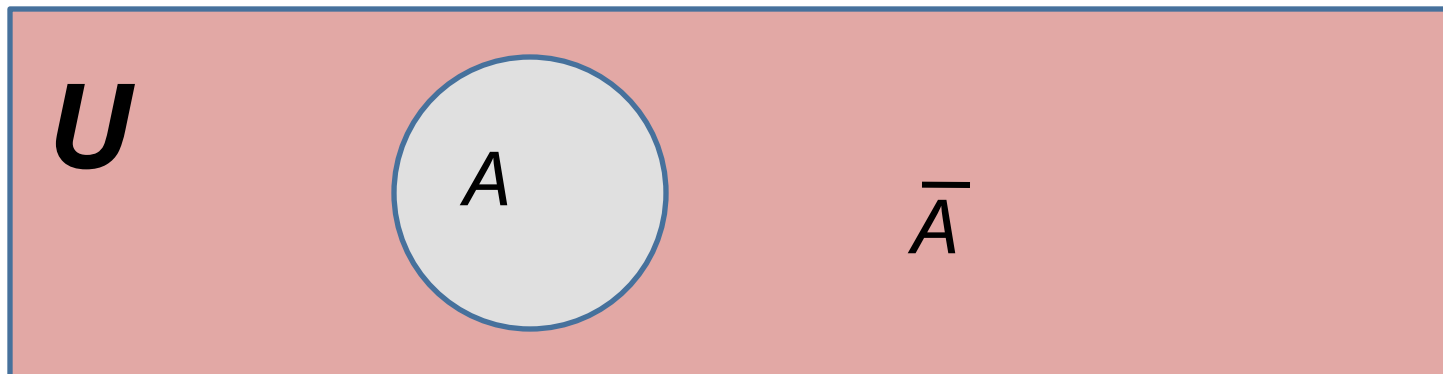
- **Definition:** The **difference** of two sets A and B , denoted $A \setminus B$ (\setminus setminus) or $A - B$, is the set containing those elements that are in A but not in B



Set Complement

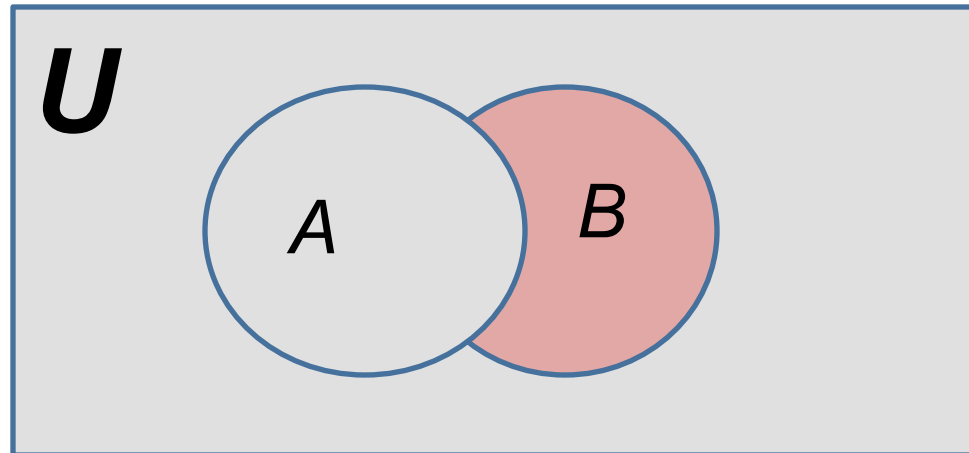
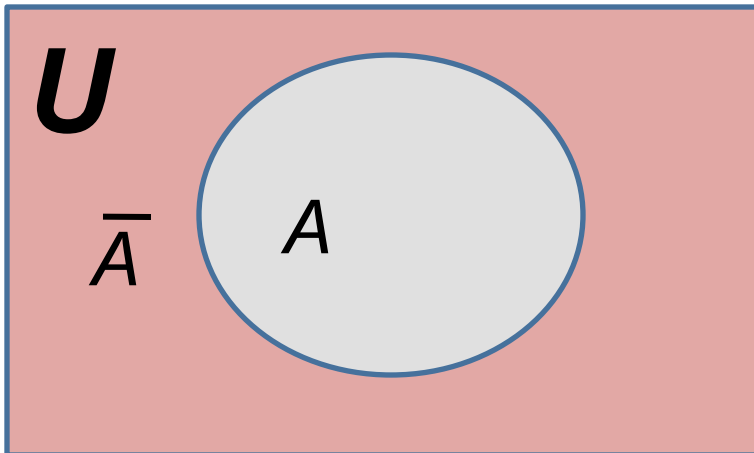
- **Definition:** The **complement** of a set A , denoted \bar{A} ($\bar{}$), consists of all elements not in A . That is the difference of the universal set and U : $U \setminus A$

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



Set Complement: Absolute & Relative

- Given the Universe U , and $A, B \subset U$.
- The (absolute) complement of A is $A^c = U \setminus A$
- The (relative) complement of A in B is $B \setminus A$



Set Identities

Let's take a quick look at this Cheat Sheet or at Table 1 on page 130 in your textbook

Table 3: Set Identities

$A \cup \emptyset = A$ $A \cap U = A$	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
$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap C$ $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup C$	Associative laws
$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$	Distributive laws
$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$	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

Proving Set Equivalences

- Recall that to prove such identity, we must show that:
 1. The left-hand side is a subset of the right-hand side
 2. The right-hand side is a subset of the left-hand side
 3. Then conclude that the two sides are thus equal
- The book proves several of the standard set identities
- We will give a couple of different examples here

Proving Set Equivalences: Example A (1)

- Let
 - $A = \{x \mid x \text{ is even}\}$
 - $B = \{x \mid x \text{ is a multiple of } 3\}$
 - $C = \{x \mid x \text{ is a multiple of } 6\}$
- Show that $A \cap B = C$

Proving Set Equivalences: Example A (2)

- **$A \cap B \subseteq C$: $\forall x \in A \cap B$**
 - $\Rightarrow x$ is a multiple of 2 and x is a multiple of 3
 - \Rightarrow we can write $x=2 \cdot 3 \cdot k$ for some integer k
 - $\Rightarrow x=6k$ for some integer $k \Rightarrow x$ is a multiple of 6
 - $\Rightarrow x \in C$
- **$C \subseteq A \cap B$: $\forall x \in C$**
 - $\Rightarrow x$ is a multiple of 6 $\Rightarrow x=6k$ for some integer k
 - $\Rightarrow x=2(3k)=3(2k) \Rightarrow x$ is a multiple of 2 and of 3
 - $\Rightarrow x \in A \cap B$

Proving Set Equivalences: Example B (1)

- An alternative prove is to use **membership tables** where an entry is
 - 1 if a chosen (but fixed) element is in the set
 - 0 otherwise
- Example: Show that

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

Proving Set Equivalences: Example B (2)

A	B	C	$A \cap B \cap C$	$\overline{A \cap B \cap C}$	\overline{A}	\overline{B}	\overline{C}	$\overline{A \cup B \cup C}$
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0

- 1 under a set indicates that “an element is in the set”
- If the columns are equivalent, we can conclude that indeed the two sets are equal

Generalizing Set Operations: Union and Intersection

- In the previous example, we showed De Morgan's Law generalized to unions involving 3 sets
- In fact, De Morgan's Laws hold for any finite set of sets
- Moreover, we can generalize set operations union and intersection in a straightforward manner to any finite number of sets

Generalized Union

- **Definition:** The **union of a collection of sets** is the set that contains those elements that are members of at least one set in the collection

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

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

Generalized Intersection

- **Definition:** The **intersection of a collection of sets** is the set that contains those elements that are members of every set in the collection

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

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

Computer Representation of Sets (1)

- There really aren't ways to represent infinite sets by a computer since a computer has a finite amount of memory
- If we assume that the universal set U is finite, then we can easily and effectively represent sets by bit vectors
- Specifically, we force an ordering on the objects, say:

$$U = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$$

- For a set $A \subseteq U$, a bit vector can be defined as, for $i=1, 2, \dots, n$
 - $b_i=0$ if $a_i \notin A$
 - $b_i=1$ if $a_i \in A$

Computer Representation of Sets (2)

- Examples
 - Let $U=\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7\}$ and $A=\{0,1,6,7\}$
 - The bit vector representing A is: 1100 0011
 - How is the empty set represented?
 - How is U represented?
- Set operations become trivial when sets are represented by bit vectors
 - Union is obtained by making the bit-wise OR
 - Intersection is obtained by making the bit-wise AND

Computer Representation of Sets (3)

- Let $U=\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7\}$, $A=\{0,1,6,7\}$, $B=\{0,4,5\}$
- What is the bit-vector representation of B?
- Compute, bit-wise, the bit-vector representation of $A \cap B$
- Compute, bit-wise, the bit-vector representation of $A \cup B$

Programming Question

- Using bit vector, we can represent sets of cardinality equal to the size of the vector
- What if we want to represent an arbitrary sized set in a computer (i.e., that we do not know a priori the size of the set)?
- What data structure could we use?