

# Sets<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Slides mainly borrowed from Richard Mayr

# Sets

- A set is a well-defined finite or infinite collection of objects
  - ▷ The proper mathematical definition of set is much more complicated
  - ▷ We will not formally study Set Theory here so we do not need to know what well-defined means
  - ▷ We will be naively looking at ubiquitous structures that are available within it
- The objects in the set are called the elements or members of the set
- If  $s$  is a member of the set  $\mathcal{S}$ , then we write  $s \in \mathcal{S}$
- If  $s$  is not a member of the set  $\mathcal{S}$ , then we write  $s \notin \mathcal{S}$

# Describing a set: Roster method

- Roster method: list all the elements of the set between braces  
Example The set of vowels in the English alphabet can be described by  $\mathcal{V} = \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$

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<sup>2</sup>Do not abuse of this. Patterns are not always as clear as the writer thinks

# Describing a set: Roster method

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Example The set of vowels in the English alphabet can be described by  $\mathcal{V} = \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$
- Dots “...” may be used to describe a set without listing all of the members when the pattern is clear<sup>2</sup>  
Example The set of letters in the English alphabet can be described by  $\mathcal{L} = \{a, b, c, \dots, z\}$   
Example The set of natural numbers can be described by  $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

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# Some important sets

$\mathbb{B} = \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$ : Boolean values

$\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ : Natural numbers

$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ : Integers

$\mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ : Positive integers

$\mathbb{R}$ : Real numbers

$\mathbb{R}^+$ : Positive real numbers

$\mathbb{Q}$ : Rational numbers

$\mathbb{C}$ : Complex numbers

# Describing a set: set builder notation

- Characterize the elements of the set by the property (or properties) they must satisfy to be members
- A predicate can be used

Example  $\mathcal{S} = \{x \mid x \text{ is a positive integer less than } 100\}$   
 $\mathcal{S} = \{x \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \wedge x < 100\}$   
 $\mathcal{S} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid x < 100\}$

Example  $\mathcal{P} = \{x \mid P(x)\}$  where  $P(x) = \text{true}$  iff  $x$  is a prime number

Example  $\mathbb{Q}^+ = \{q \mid \exists n, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+. q = n/m\}$

# Describing a set: interval notation

Used to describe subsets of sets upon which an order is defined,  
e.g. numbers

$$[a, b] = \{x \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$$

$$[a, b) = \{x \mid a \leq x < b\}$$

$$(a, b] = \{x \mid a < x \leq b\}$$

$$(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

- closed interval:  $[a, b]$
- open interval:  $(a, b)$
- half-open intervals:  $[a, b)$  and  $(a, b]$

# Universal set and Empty set

- The universal set  $\mathcal{U}$  is the set containing everything currently under consideration
  - ▷ Content depends on the context
  - ▷ Sometimes explicitly stated, sometimes implicit
- The empty set is the set with no elements. Symbolized by  $\emptyset$  or  $\{\}$  and defined by

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{U}. x \notin \emptyset$$



# Truth Sets and Characteristic Predicates

We fix a domain  $\mathcal{U}$

- Let  $P(x)$  be a predicate on  $\mathcal{U}$ . The truth set of  $P$  is the subset of  $\mathcal{U}$  where  $P$  is true, *i.e.* the set

$$\{x \in \mathcal{U} \mid P(x)\}$$

- Let  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$  be a subset of  $\mathcal{U}$ . The characteristic predicate of  $\mathcal{S}$  is the predicate  $P$  that is true exactly on  $\mathcal{S}$ , *i.e.*

$$P(x) \leftrightarrow x \in \mathcal{S}$$

# Some remarks

- Sets can be elements of other sets,  
Example  $\mathcal{S} = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, a, \{u\}, \{b, c\}\}$
- The empty set is different from the set containing the

$$\emptyset \neq \{\emptyset\}$$

# Russell's Paradox

(After Bertrand Russell (1872-1970); Logician, mathematician and philosopher. Nobel Prize in Literature 1950)

- Naive set theory contains contradictions

Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be the set of all sets which are not members of themselves

$$\mathcal{S} = \{S' \mid S' \notin S'\}$$

“Is  $\mathcal{S}$  a member of itself?”, i.e.  $\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}$ ?

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- Modern formulations (such as Zermelo-Fraenkel) avoid such obvious problems by stricter axioms about set construction<sup>3</sup>. However, it is impossible to prove in ZF that ZF is consistent (unless ZF is inconsistent)

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# Set equality

## Definition

Two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are equal, denoted  $A = B$ , iff they have the same elements

$$\forall A, B. (A = B \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B))$$

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Example The order is not important

$$\{a, e, i, o, u, y\} = \{y, u, o, i, e, a\}$$

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$$\{a, e, i, o, u, y\} = \{y, u, o, i, e, a\}$$

Example Repetitions are not important

$$\{a, e, i, o, u, y\} = \{a, a, e, e, i, i, o, o, u, u, y, y\}$$

# Subsets and supersets

## Definition

A set  $A$  is a subset of a set  $B$  (and  $B$  is a superset of  $A$ ), denoted  $A \subseteq B$ , iff all elements of  $A$  are elements of  $B$

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Example  $\{a, e, i\} \subseteq \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$

Example  $\forall S. \emptyset \subseteq S$

Example  $\forall S. S \subseteq S$

## Definition

$A$  is a proper subset of  $B$  iff  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A \neq B$ . This is denoted by  $A \subset B$ . Equivalently,

$$\forall A, B. (A \subset B \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \wedge \exists x. (x \in B \wedge x \notin A))$$

# Set cardinality

## Definition

If there are exactly  $n$  distinct elements in a set  $\mathcal{S}$ , where  $n$  is a non-negative integer, we say that  $\mathcal{S}$  is finite. Otherwise it is infinite

## Definition

The cardinality of a finite set  $\mathcal{S}$ , denoted by  $|\mathcal{S}|$ , is the number of (distinct) elements of  $\mathcal{S}$

Examples

- $|\emptyset| = 0$
- $|\{1, 2, 3\}| = 3$
- $|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$
- $\mathbb{Z}$  is infinite

# Powerset

## Definition

The set of all subsets of a set  $\mathcal{S}$  is called the power set of  $\mathcal{S}$ . It is denoted by  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{S})$  or  $2^{\mathcal{S}}$ . Formally

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{S}) = \{\mathcal{S}' \mid \mathcal{S}' \subseteq \mathcal{S}\}$$

In particular,

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \bullet \mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{S}) \\ \bullet \emptyset \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{S}) \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \forall \mathcal{S}. \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{S}) \neq \emptyset$$

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

Example  $\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\emptyset)) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$$

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\emptyset))) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\{\emptyset\}\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\}$$

If  $|\mathcal{S}| = n$  then  $|\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{S})| = 2^n$ . Proof by induction on  $n$ ; see later

# Tuples

- The ordered  $n$ -tuple  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  is the ordered collection of  $n$  elements, where  $a_1$  is the first,  $a_2$  the second, *etc.*, and  $a_n$  the  $n^{th}$  (*i.e.* the last)

- Two  $n$ -tuples are equal iff their corresponding elements are equal:

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) \leftrightarrow a_1 = b_1 \wedge a_2 = b_2 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n = b_n$$

- 2-tuples are called ordered pairs

# Cartesian Product

## Definition

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  $b \in B$

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

## Definition

The Cartesian product of  $n$  sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ , denoted by  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$ , is the set of all tuples  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  where  $a_i \in A_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n\}$$

Example For  $A = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $B = \{1, 2\}$  and  $C = \{0, 1, 2\}$

$$A \times B \times C = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (0, 1, 0), (0, 1, 1), (0, 1, 2), (0, 2, 0), (0, 2, 1), (0, 2, 2), \\ (1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 0), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2) \end{array} \right\}$$



# The powerset Boolean algebra

$$(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}), \emptyset, \mathcal{U}, \cup, \cap, \bar{\cdot})$$

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

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

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in \mathcal{U} \mid \neg(x \in A)\}$$

- $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$   
In particular,  $|A \cup B| \leq |A| + |B|$
- $|A \cap B| \leq |A|$   
 $|A \cap B| \leq |B|$

# Set difference

## Definition

The difference between sets  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted  $A - B$  is the set containing the elements of  $A$  that are not in  $B$ :

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

Example  $\{1, 2, 3\} - \{2, 4, 6\} = \{1, 3\}$

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- $|A - B| = |A| - |A \cap B| \leq |A|$
- $A - B = A \cap \overline{B}$

# Set Identities

(proofs on the board)

Identity laws:  $A \cup \emptyset = A$ ,  $A \cap \mathcal{U} = A$

Domination laws:  $A \cup \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U}$ ,  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$

Idempotent laws:  $A \cup A = A$ ,  $A \cap A = A$

Complementation law:  $\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$

Complement laws:  $A \cup \overline{A} = \mathcal{U}$ ,  $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$

Commutative laws:  $A \cup B = B \cup A$ ,  $A \cap B = B \cap A$

Associative laws:  $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ ,  
 $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$

Distributive laws:  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$   
 $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$

Absorption laws:  $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ ,  $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$

De Morgan's laws:  $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ ,  $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

# A theorem

## Theorem

Let

$$\mathcal{F} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid (0 \in \mathcal{S}) \wedge \forall x \in \mathbb{R}. (x \in \mathcal{S} \rightarrow (x+1) \in \mathcal{S})\}$$

Then

1.  $\mathbb{N} \in \mathcal{F}$
2.  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{F}^a$

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$^a \bigcap \mathcal{F}$  denotes the intersection of all the sets in  $\mathcal{F}$ , i.e.  $\bigcap \mathcal{F} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcap_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{S}$

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Then

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$\bigcap \mathcal{F}$  denotes the intersection of all the sets in  $\mathcal{F}$ , i.e.  $\bigcap \mathcal{F} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcap_{S \in \mathcal{F}} S$

## Corollary

$$\bigcap \mathcal{F} = \mathbb{N}$$