

**CS 441 Discrete Mathematics for CS**  
**Lecture 7**

**Sets and set operations**

**Milos Hauskrecht**  
[milos@cs.pitt.edu](mailto:milos@cs.pitt.edu)  
5329 Sennott Square

**Basic discrete structures**

- **Discrete math =**
  - study of the discrete structures used to represent discrete objects
- Many discrete structures are built using [sets](#)
  - **Sets = collection of objects**

Examples of discrete structures built with the help of sets:

- **Combinations**
- **Relations**
- **Graphs**

## Set

- **Definition:** A **set** is a (unordered) collection of objects. These objects are sometimes called **elements** or **members** of the set. (Cantor's naive definition)
- **Examples:**
  - **Vowels in the English alphabet**  
 $V = \{ a, e, i, o, u \}$
  - **First seven prime numbers.**  
 $X = \{ 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17 \}$

## Representing sets

### Representing a set by:

- 1) Listing (enumerating) the members of the set.
- 2) Definition by property, using the set builder notation  
 $\{x \mid x \text{ has property } P\}$ .

### Example:

- Even integers between 50 and 63.
  - 1)  $E = \{50, 52, 54, 56, 58, 60, 62\}$
  - 2)  $E = \{x \mid 50 \leq x < 63, x \text{ is an even integer}\}$

If enumeration of the members is hard we often use ellipses.

**Example:** a set of integers between 1 and 100

- $A = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 100\}$

## Important sets in discrete math

- **Natural numbers:**
  - $\mathbf{N} = \{0,1,2,3, \dots\}$
- **Integers**
  - $\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2,-1,0,1,2, \dots\}$
- **Positive integers**
  - $\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1,2, 3, \dots\}$
- **Rational numbers**
  - $\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z}, q \neq 0\}$
- **Real numbers**
  - $\mathbf{R}$

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## Russell's paradox

Cantor's naive definition of sets leads to Russell's paradox:

- **Let  $S = \{ x \mid x \notin x \}$ ,**  
**is a set of sets that are not members of themselves.**
- **Question: Where does the set  $S$  belong to?**
  - Is  $S \in S$  or  $S \notin S$ ?
- **Cases**
  - **$S \in S$  ?:**  $S$  does not satisfy the condition so it must hold that  $S \notin S$  (or  $S \in S$  does not hold)
  - **$S \notin S$  ?:**  $S$  is included in the set  $S$  and hence  $S \notin S$  does not hold
- **A paradox: we cannot decide if  $S$  belongs to  $S$  or not**
- **Russell's answer: theory of types – used for sets of sets**

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## Equality

**Definition:** Two sets are equal if and only if they have the same elements.

**Example:**

- $\{1,2,3\} = \{3,1,2\} = \{1,2,1,3,2\}$

**Note:** Duplicates don't contribute anything new to a set, so remove them. The order of the elements in a set doesn't contribute anything new.

**Example:** Are  $\{1,2,3,4\}$  and  $\{1,2,2,4\}$  equal?

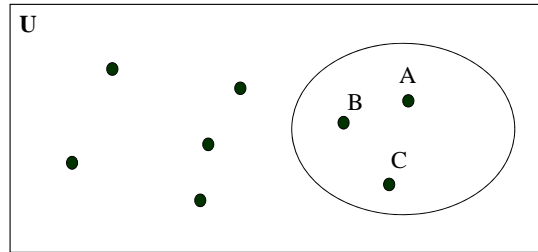
**No!**

## Special sets

- **Special sets:**
  - The **universal set** is denoted by  $U$ : the set of all objects under the consideration.
  - The **empty set** is denoted as  $\emptyset$  or  $\{ \}$ .

## Venn diagrams

- A set can be visualized using **Venn Diagrams**:
  - $V = \{ A, B, C \}$

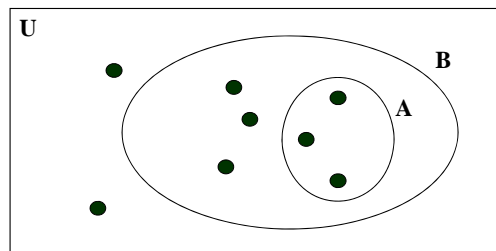


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## A Subset

- **Definition:** A set  $A$  is said to be a **subset** of  $B$  if and only if every element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$ . We use  $A \subseteq B$  to indicate  **$A$  is a subset of  $B$** .



- Alternate way to define  $A$  is a subset of  $B$ :  
 $\forall x (x \in A) \rightarrow (x \in B)$

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## Empty set/Subset properties

**Theorem**  $\emptyset \subseteq S$

- **Empty set is a subset of any set.**

**Proof:**

- Recall the definition of a subset: all elements of a set A must be also elements of B:  $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ .
- We must show the following implication holds for any S  
 $\forall x (x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S)$
- Since the empty set does not contain any element,  $x \in \emptyset$  is **always False**
- Then the implication is **always True**.

**End of proof**

## Subset properties

**Theorem:**  $S \subseteq S$

- **Any set S is a subset of itself**

**Proof:**

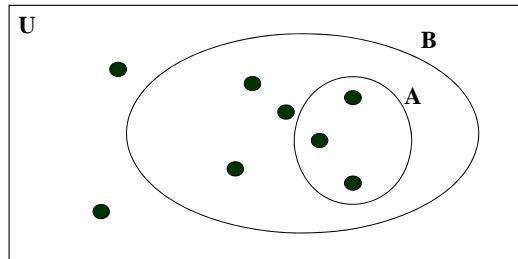
- the definition of a subset says: all elements of a set A must be also elements of B:  $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ .
- Applying this to S we get:
- $\forall x (x \in S \rightarrow x \in S)$  which is trivially **True**
- End of proof

**Note on equivalence:**

- Two sets are equal if each is a subset of the other set.

## A proper subset

**Definition:** A set  $A$  is said to be a **proper subset** of  $B$  if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A \neq B$ . We denote that  $A$  is a proper subset of  $B$  with the notation  $A \subset B$ .

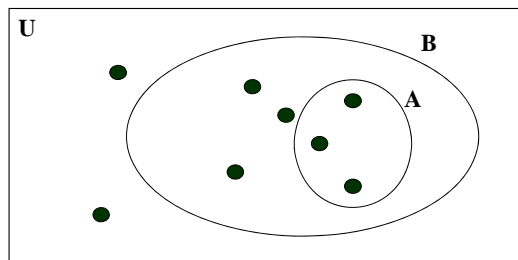


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## A proper subset

**Definition:** A set  $A$  is said to be a **proper subset** of  $B$  if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A \neq B$ . We denote that  $A$  is a proper subset of  $B$  with the notation  $A \subset B$ .



**Example:**  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$   $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

Is:  $A \subset B$  ? Yes.

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## Cardinality

**Definition:** Let  $S$  be a set. If there are exactly  $n$  distinct elements in  $S$ , where  $n$  is a nonnegative integer, we say  $S$  is a finite set and that  $n$  is the **cardinality of  $S$** . The cardinality of  $S$  is denoted by  $|S|$ .

### Examples:

- $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$   
 $|V| = 5$
- $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, 20\}$   
 $|A| = 20$
- $|\emptyset| = 0$

## Infinite set

**Definition:** A set is **infinite** if it is not finite.

### Examples:

- The set of natural numbers is an infinite set.
- $N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- The set of reals is an infinite set.



## Power set

**Definition:** Given a set  $S$ , the **power set** of  $S$  is the set of all subsets of  $S$ . The power set is denoted by  $P(S)$ .

### Examples:

- Assume an empty set  $\emptyset$
- What is the power set of  $\emptyset$ ?  $P(\emptyset) = \{ \emptyset \}$
- What is the cardinality of  $P(\emptyset)$ ?  $|P(\emptyset)| = 1$ .
  
- Assume set  $\{1\}$
- $P(\{1\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\} \}$
- $|P(\{1\})| = 2$

## Power set

- $P(\{1\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\} \}$
- $|P(\{1\})| = 2$
  
- Assume  $\{1,2\}$
- $P(\{1,2\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1,2\} \}$
- $|P(\{1,2\})| = 4$
  
- Assume  $\{1,2,3\}$
- $P(\{1,2,3\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\}, \{1,2,3\} \}$
- $|P(\{1,2,3\})| = 8$
  
- **If  $S$  is a set with  $|S| = n$  then  $|P(S)| = ?$**

## Power set

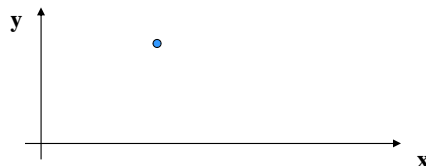
- $P(\{1\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\} \}$
- $|P(\{1\})| = 2$
  
- Assume  $\{1,2\}$
- $P(\{1,2\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1,2\} \}$
- $|P(\{1,2\})| = 4$
  
- Assume  $\{1,2,3\}$
- $P(\{1,2,3\}) = \{ \emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\}, \{1,2,3\} \}$
- $|P(\{1,2,3\})| = 8$
  
- **If  $S$  is a set with  $|S| = n$  then  $|P(S)| = 2^n$**

## N-tuple

- Sets are used to represent unordered collections.
- **Ordered-n tuples** are used to represent an ordered collection.

**Definition:** An **ordered n-tuple**  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$  is the ordered collection that has  $x_1$  as its first element,  $x_2$  as its second element, ..., and  $x_N$  as its  $N$ -th element,  $N \geq 2$ .

**Example:**



- Coordinates of a point in the 2-D plane  $(12, 16)$

## Cartesian product

**Definition:** Let  $S$  and  $T$  be sets. The **Cartesian product of  $S$  and  $T$** , denoted by  $S \times T$ , is the set of all ordered pairs  $(s,t)$ , where  $s \in S$  and  $t \in T$ . Hence,

- $S \times T = \{ (s,t) \mid s \in S \wedge t \in T \}$ .

### Examples:

- $S = \{1,2\}$  and  $T = \{a,b,c\}$
- $S \times T = \{ (1,a), (1,b), (1,c), (2,a), (2,b), (2,c) \}$
- $T \times S = \{ (a,1), (a,2), (b,1), (b,2), (c,1), (c,2) \}$
- Note:  $S \times T \neq T \times S$  !!!!

## Cardinality of the Cartesian product

- $|S \times T| = |S| * |T|$ .

### Example:

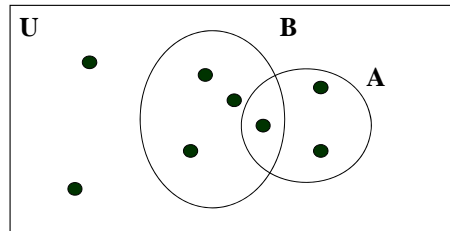
- $A = \{John, Peter, Mike\}$
- $B = \{Jane, Ann, Laura\}$
- $A \times B = \{(John, Jane), (John, Ann), (John, Laura), (Peter, Jane), (Peter, Ann), (Peter, Laura), (Mike, Jane), (Mike, Ann), (Mike, Laura)\}$
- $|A \times B| = 9$
- $|A|=3, |B|=3 \rightarrow |A| |B|= 9$

**Definition:** A subset of the Cartesian product  $A \times B$  is called a relation from the set  $A$  to the set  $B$ .

## Set operations

**Definition:** Let A and B be sets. The **union of A and B**, denoted by  $A \cup B$ , is the set that contains those elements that are either in A or in B, or in both.

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



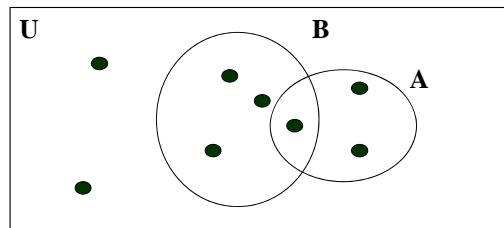
- **Example:**

- $A = \{1,2,3,6\}$        $B = \{2,4,6,9\}$
- $A \cup B = \{1,2,3,4,6,9\}$

## Set operations

**Definition:** Let A and B be sets. The **intersection of A and B**, denoted by  $A \cap B$ , is the set that contains those elements that are in both A and B.

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



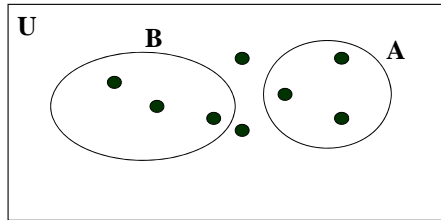
Example:

- $A = \{1,2,3,6\}$        $B = \{2,4,6,9\}$
- $A \cap B = \{2,6\}$

## Disjoint sets

**Definition:** Two sets are called **disjoint** if their intersection is empty.

- Alternate: A and B are disjoint **if and only if**  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .



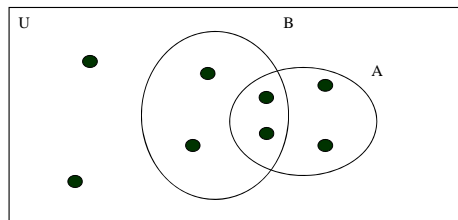
**Example:**

- $A = \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$   $B = \{4, 7, 8\}$  Are these disjoint?
- Yes.
- $A \cap B = \emptyset$

## Cardinality of the set union

**Cardinality of the set union.**

- $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$

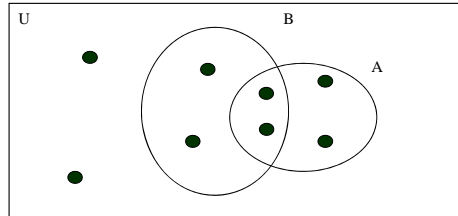


- Why this formula?

## Cardinality of the set union

### Cardinality of the set union.

- $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$

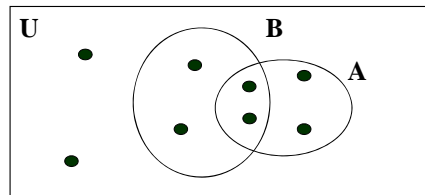


- Why this formula? Correct for an over-count.
- More general rule:
  - **The principle of inclusion and exclusion.**

## Set difference

**Definition:** Let A and B be sets. The **difference of A and B**, denoted by **A - B**, is the set containing those elements that are in A but not in B. The difference of A and B is also called the complement of B with respect to A.

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



**Example:**  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 7\}$   $B = \{1, 5, 6, 8\}$

- $A - B = \{2, 3, 7\}$