CS30 (Discrete Math in CS), Summer 2021 : Lecture 1

Topic: Jargon I : Sets

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1 Basics

- **Definition.** A set is an *unordered* collection of *distinct* objects. These objects are called *elements* of the set. These elements could be *anything*, for instance, the element of a set could be a number, could be a string, could be tuples of numbers, and in fact can be other sets!
- Roster Notation. A set can be described by explicitly writing down the elements, such as

 $S = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ or $T = \{apple, banana, volcano, 100\}$ or $W = \{S, T\}$

This is called the *roster notation*. Note that the *elements* of the set W are the sets S and T.

- The ∈ and ∉ notation. We use the notation "element" ∈ "set" to indicate that the "element" is in the "set". We use ∉ to denote that the element is not in the set. In the above example, 3 ∈ S and apple ∈ T and S ∈ W. But be wary : 3 ∉ W. When figuring out if an element is in a set, we don't "keep opening" the sets inside.
- Set Builder Notation. A set can also be described *implicitly* by stating some rule which the elements follow. For example,

 $S = \{n : n \text{ is a positive odd integer less than } 10\}$ or $V = \{x^2 : x \text{ is an integer and } 1 \le x \le 5\}$

This is called the *set-builder notation*.

The sets S described in the above two examples correspond to the same set. The set V, written explicitly in the roster notation, is $V = \{1, 4, 9, 16, 25\}$.

Remark: Caution: Unless otherwise explicitly mentioned, duplicate items are removed from a set. For example, consider the set $A = \{x^2 : -2 \le x \le 2\}$ in the set-builder notation. In the roster notation, this set is $\{0, 1, 4\}$ and **not** $\{4, 1, 0, 1, 4\}$.

• Cardinality of a set. The *cardinality* of a set S is denoted as |S| is the number of elements in the set. For example if $A = \{apple, banana, avocado\}$, then |A| = 3.

Exercise: What is |A| when $A = \{x^2 : -3 \le x \le 3, x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$?

If the set S has only finitely many elements, then |S| is a finite number, and S is called a *finite* set. |S| could be ∞ in which case the set is called an infinite set.

• Famous examples of Infinite Sets. \mathbb{N} , the set of all natural numbers; \mathbb{Z} , the set of all integers; \mathbb{Q} , the set of all rational numbers, \mathbb{R} , the set of all real numbers; and \mathbb{P} , the set of all computer programs written in Python. This course will mostly talk about finite sets. We will visit infinite sets (perhaps) in the very end of this course.

- Empty Set. There is only one set which contains no elements and that set is called the *empty set* or sometimes the *null set*. It is denoted as Ø or {}.
- Subsets and Supersets. A subset P of a set S is another set such that every element of P is an element of S. In that case, the notation used is $P \subset S$ or $P \subseteq S$. Note that $S \subseteq S$ as well, that is, a set is always a subset of itself. In case P is a subset and not equal to S, it is called a *proper subset*. It is denoted as $P \not\subseteq S$.

For example, if $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{1, 2\}$, then $B \not\subseteq A$.

Remark: The empty set \emptyset is a subset of all sets. This is a convention.

If $A \subset B$, then B is called a *superset* of A. This is denoted as $B \supset A$.

Power Set. Given any set S, the power set P(S) is the set of all subsets of the set S. It is a set of sets. Note by the above convention, for any set S, the empty set Ø ⊆ S and therefore, Ø ∈ P(S).

Exercise: Write down all subsets of the sets $S = \{1, 2\}$, $T = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Do you see a pattern in the number of subsets?

2 Set Operations.

• Union. Given two sets A and B, the *union* A ∪ B is the set containing all elements which are either in A, or in B, or both. For example, if

 $A = \{1, 3, 4, 7, 10\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 7, 9, 10\}$, then $A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10\}$

• Intersection. Given two sets A and B, the *intersection* $A \cap B$ is the set containing all elements which are in *both* in A and in B. For example, if

 $A = \{1, 3, 4, 7, 10\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 7, 9, 10\}$, then $A \cap B = \{4, 7, 10\}$

Two sets A and B are called *disjoint* if $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

• Distributive Property

Theorem 1. For any three sets A, B, C, we have

- (a) $(A \cup B) \cap C = (A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C)$.
- (b) $(A \cap B) \cup C = (A \cup C) \cap (B \cup C)$.

Proof. We prove (a) and leave (b) as an exercise.

To show equality of two sets, we need to show two things. For every x in the LHS set, we need to show it lies in the RHS set. And vice-versa.

Pick any $x \in (A \cup B) \cap C$. Therefore, $x \in C$ and $x \in A$ or $x \in B$. If $x \in A$, then since $x \in C$, we have $x \in A \cap C$, and therefore x is in the RHS set. If $x \in B$, then a similar argument shows $x \in B \cap C$ and therefore x is in the RHS set.

Now the vice-versa. Pick any $x \in (A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C)$. x is either in $A \cap C$ or in $B \cap C$. Suppose $x \in A \cap C$. Then, $x \in A$ which implies $x \in A \cup B$, and therefore, since $x \in C$, we have $x \in (A \cup B) \cap C$. The other possibility, that is if $x \in B \cap C$ also symmetrically implies $x \in (A \cup B) \cap C$. \Box

Exercise: True or False: If A and B are disjoint sets, and $C \subset A$, then are C and B disjoint?

• **Difference.** Given two sets A and B, the *set difference* $A \setminus B$ are all the elements in A which are *not in* B and $B \setminus A$ are the elements in B which are not in A. For example, if

 $A = \{1, 3, 4, 7, 10\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 7, 9, 10\}$, then $A \setminus B = \{1, 3\}$ and $B \setminus A = \{2, 9\}$

Exercise: Can $A \setminus B = B \setminus A$ for any two sets A and B?

Remark: Some useful observations:

- 1. A and $B \setminus A$ are disjoint since $B \setminus A$ doesn't contain elements of A.
- 2. In particular, this implies $(A \cap B)$ and $B \setminus A$ are disjoint since $A \cap B \subseteq A$.
- 3. $A \cup (B \setminus A) = A \cup B$. This is because every element of $A \cup B$ is either in A, and if not in A, must be in $B \setminus A$.
- 4. $(A \cap B) \cup (B \setminus A) = B$. This is because every element of B is either in A (in which case it is in $A \cap B$) or in $B \setminus A$.

• Cartesian Product.

Given any two sets A and B, the *Cartesian product* $A \times B$ is another set whose elements are *tuples* (that is, <u>ordered</u> pairs) whose first entry comes from A and the second entry comes from B. Therefore, in the set-builder notation

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

For example, if $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{a, b\}$, then

$$A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (2, a), (2, b), (3, a), (3, b)\}$$

Remark: Note that $A \times B$ is in general not equal to $B \times A$. In particular, in the above example, the elements of $B \times A$ are $\{(a,1), (b,1), (a,2), (b,2), (a,3), (b,3)\}$. The element (a,1) is not the same as (1,a) for the order matters. A tuple is **not** a set.

Exercise: Can you figure out the cardinality of $|A \times B|$ in terms of |A| and |B|?

3 Baby Inclusion-Exclusion

- We now meet the first non-trivial (but simple) statement in the course. It is the "baby" inclusionexclusion identity/equation/formula. It is "baby" because we will meet the grown-up version later in the course. But the baby is strong enough for many things.
- Before we go to the inclusion-exclusion, we start with a simpler but key claim.

Claim 1. If A and B are two disjoint finite sets, then $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$.

Proof. Since A and B are finite, they have well-defined cardinalities which are non-negative integers. Let |A| = k and let |B| = l; note that these can be 0.

We are now going to *name* the elements of our sets. This will be very helpful in our reasoning. Indeed naming objects is a key thing to learn in this course. There is fantastic power in this simple sounding step. And so, to this end, let $A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k\}$ and let $B = \{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_\ell\}$. Note that if either k or ℓ or both are 0, then the corresponding set would be $\{\}$ that is, the empty set \emptyset . So this notation is well defined.

Now for the key observation : since A and B are disjoint, we know that $a_i \neq b_j$ for any indices i and j. Therefore, $A \cup B = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_\ell\}$ since it must contain all items of A and B. Thus, by inspection now, $|A \cup B| = k + \ell = |A| + |B|$.

• Now we are ready for stating and proving the baby inclusion-exclusion theorem.

Theorem 2 (Baby Inclusion-Exclusion). For any two finite sets A and B, we have

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

Proof. Since $A \cup B = A \cup (B \setminus A)$ and since A and $B \setminus A$ are disjoint, we get

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B \setminus A| \tag{1}$$

Since $B = (A \cap B) \cup (B \setminus A)$ and since $(A \cap B)$ and $B \setminus A$ are disjoint, we get

$$|B| = |A \cap B| + |B \setminus A| \tag{2}$$

Subtracting (2) from (1), we get

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

The theorem follows by taking |B| to the other side.

Answers to exercises

- Note that $A = \{9, 4, 1, 0\}$, and thus the answer is 4. Although -3 and +3 are distinct, their squares are not, and in the set A they are counted only once.
- The set of subsets of S are $\{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1,2\}\}$, and there are **four** of them. The set of subsets of T are

 $\{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\}, \{1,2,3\}\}$

and there are **eight** of them. I will let you write all the subsets of U. Do you see the pattern now?

• True. If A and B are disjoint, then no element of A is present in B. Since C is a subset of A, no element of C is present in B either. Conversely, no element of B is present in A (since they are disjoint), and thus no element of B can be present in C either.

In general, $C \subseteq A$ implies $C \cap B \subseteq A \cap B$. If the second set is \emptyset , then $C \cap B$ has to be \emptyset since that is the **only** subset of an empty set. Thus, C and B are disjoint too.

- It can! If A = B, then both $A \setminus B$ and $B \setminus A$ are \emptyset . Is that the only possibility?
- It is simply $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$, the product of the two cardinalities. In the "combinatorics" module, this will be called the "product principle". Do you see why this is true? For each of the |A| choices of the "first entry" in the tuple of $A \times B$, there are precisely |B| choices for the "second entry".