



Today's Topics

Introduction to set theory

- What is a set?
- Set notation
- Basic set operations



What is a set?

Definition: A **set** is an unordered collection of objects

Examples:

- $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- $B = \{\text{cow, pig, turkey}\}$
- $C = \{\text{motorcycle, } 3.14159, \text{Socrates}\}$
- $E = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{6, 7, 8\}, \{23, 42\}\}$

Sets can contain items of mixed types

Sets can contain other sets

Informally: Sets are really just a precise way of grouping a “bunch of stuff”



A set is made up of elements

Definition: The objects making up a set are called **elements** of that set.

Examples:

- 3 is an element of {1, 2, 3}
- Bob is an element of {Alice, Bob, Charlie, Daniel}

We can express the above examples in a more precise manner as follows:

- $3 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $\text{Bob} \in \{\text{Alice}, \text{Bob}, \text{Charlie}, \text{Daniel}\}$

Question: Is $5 \in \{1, 2, 3, \{4, 5\}\}$?



There are many different ways to describe a set

Explicit enumeration:

- $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

Using ellipses if the general pattern is obvious:

- $E = \{2, 4, 6, \dots, 98\}$

Set builder notation:

- $M = \{y \mid y = 3k \text{ for some integer } k\}$

The set M contains...

... all elements y...

... such that...

... $y = 3k$ for some integer k

There are a number of sets that are so important to mathematics that they get their own symbol



$$\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

$$\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

$$\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, \dots\}$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p, q \in \mathbf{Z}, q \neq 0\}$$

$$\mathbf{R}$$

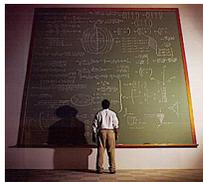
$$\emptyset = \{\}$$

Note: This notation differs from book to book

- Some authors do not include zero in the natural numbers

Be careful when reading other books or researching on the Web, as things may be slightly different!

You've actually been using sets **implicitly** all along!



Mathematics

$F(x,y) \equiv x$ and y are friends
Domain: "All people"

$$\forall x \exists y F(x,y)$$

Domains of propositional functions

```
Function min(int x, int y) :
int
  if x < y then
    return x
  else
    return y
  endif
```

end function
Programming language
data types



Set equality

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

Mathematically: $A = B$ iff $\forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$

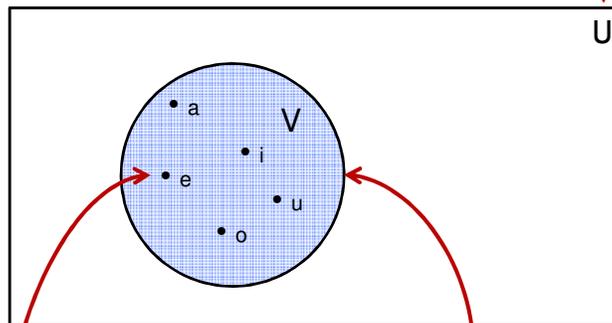
Example: Are the following sets equal?

- {1, 2, 3, 4} and {1, 2, 3, 4}
- {1, 2, 3, 4} and {4, 1, 3, 2}
- {a, b, c, d, e} and {a, a, c, b, e, d}
- {a, e, i, o} and {a, e, i, o, u}

We can use Venn diagrams to graphically represent sets



U is the “universe” of all elements



The set V of all vowels is contained within the universe of “all letters”

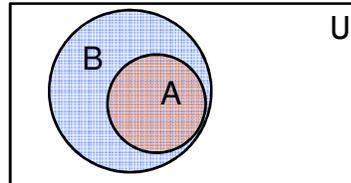
Sometimes, we add points for the elements of a set



Sets can be contained within one another

Definition: Some set A is a **subset** of another set B iff every element of A is contained in the set B . We denote this fact as $A \subseteq B$, and call B a **superset** of A .

Graphically:



Mathematically:

Definition: We say that A is a **proper subset** of B iff $A \subseteq B$, but $A \neq B$. We denote this by $A \subset B$. More precisely:

$$A \subset B \text{ iff } \forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \wedge \exists y (y \in B \wedge y \notin A)$$



Properties of subsets

Property 1: For all sets S , we have that $\emptyset \subseteq S$

Proof: The set \emptyset contains no elements. So, trivially, every element of the set \emptyset is contained in any other set S . \square

Property 2: For any set S , $S \subseteq S$.

Property 3: If $S_1 = S_2$, then $S_1 \subseteq S_2$ and $S_2 \subseteq S_1$.



Group work!

Problem 1: Come up with two ways to represent each of the following sets:

- The even integers
- Negative numbers between -1 and -10, inclusive
- The positive integers

Problem 2: Are the sets $\{a, b, c\}$ and $\{c, c, a, b, a, b\}$ equal? Why or why not?

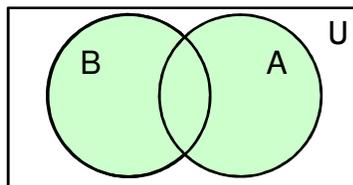
Problem 3: Draw a Venn diagram representing the sets $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\{3, 4, 5\}$.



We can create a new set by combining two or more existing sets

Definition: The **union** of two sets A and B contains every element that is either in A or in B. We denote the union of the sets A and B as $A \cup B$.

Graphically:



Mathematically:

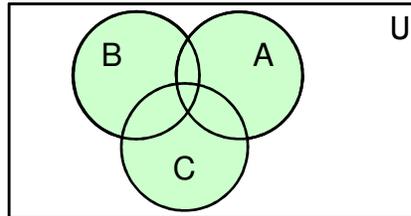
Example: $\{1, 2, 3\} \cup \{6, 7, 8\} = \{1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8\}$

We can take the union of any number of sets



Example: $A \cup B \cup C$

Graphically:



In general, we can express the union $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_n$ using the following notation:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n S_i$$

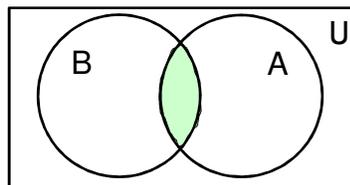
This is just like summation notation!

Sometimes we're interested in the elements that are in more than one set



Definition: The **intersection** of two sets A and B contains every element that is in A and also in B. We denote the intersection of the sets A and B as $A \cap B$.

Graphically:



Mathematically:

Examples:

- $\{1, 2, 3, 7, 8\} \cap \{6, 7, 8\} = \{7, 8\}$
- $\{1, 2, 3\} \cap \{6, 7, 8\} = \emptyset$

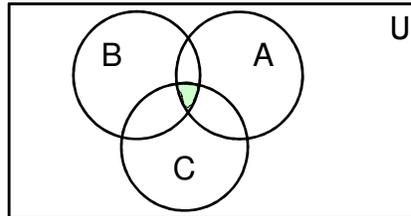
We say that two sets A and B are disjoint if $A \cap B = \emptyset$

We can take the intersection of any number of sets



Example: $A \cap B \cap C$

Graphically:



As with the union operation, we can express the intersection $S_1 \cap S_2 \cap \dots \cap S_n$ as:

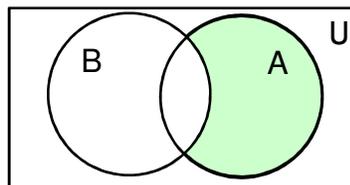
$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n S_n$$

Set differences



Definition: The **difference** of two sets A and B, denoted by $A - B$, contains every element that is in A, but not in B.

Graphically:



Mathematically:

Example: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} - \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$

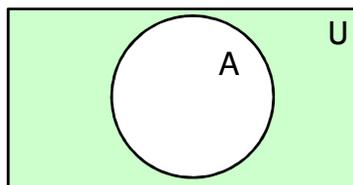
Be careful: Some authors use the notation $A \setminus B$ to denote the set difference $A - B$.

If we have specified a universe U , we can determine the complement of a set



Definition: The **complement** of a set A , denoted by \overline{A} , contains every element that is in U , but not in A .

Graphically:



Mathematically:

Examples: Assume that $U = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$

- $\overline{\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}} =$
- $\overline{\{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}} =$

Cardinality is the measure of a set's size



Definition: Let S be a set. If there are exactly n elements in S , where n is a nonnegative integer, then S is a finite set whose **cardinality** is n . The cardinality of S is denoted by $|S|$.

Example: If $S = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$, then $|S| =$

Useful facts: If A and B are finite sets, then

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

Aside: We'll talk about the cardinality of infinite sets later in the course.



Power set

Definition: Given a set S , its **power set** is the set containing all subsets of S . We denote the power set of S as $P(S)$.

Examples:

- $P(\{1\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$
- $P(\{1, 2, 3\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

Note:

- The set \emptyset is always in the power set of any set S
- The set S is always in its own power set
- $|P(S)| = 2^{|S|}$
- Some authors use the notation 2^S to represent the power set of S



How do we represent **ordered** collections?

Definition: The **ordered n-tuple** (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, ..., and a_n as its n^{th} element.

Note: $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$ iff $a_i = b_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Special case: Ordered pairs of the form $(x \in \mathbf{Z}, y \in \mathbf{Z})$ are the basis of the Cartesian plane!

- $(a, b) = (c, d)$ iff $a = c$ and $b = d$
- $(a, b) = (b, a)$ iff $a = b$

How can we construct and describe ordered n-tuples?

We use the Cartesian product operator to construct ordered n-tuples



Definition: If A and B are sets, the **Cartesian product** of A and B, which is denoted $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b) such that $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

Mathematically:

Examples: Let $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{y, z\}$

- What is $A \times B$?
- $B \times A$?
- Are $A \times B$ and $B \times A$ equivalent?

Cartesian products can be made from more than two sets



Example: Let

- $S = \{x \mid x \text{ is enrolled in CS 441}\}$
- $G = \{x \mid x \in \mathbf{R} \wedge 0 \leq x \leq 100\}$
- $Y = \{\text{freshman, sophomore, junior, senior}\}$

The set $S \times Y \times G$ consists of **all possible** (CS441 student, year, grade) combinations.

Note: My grades database is a **subset** of $S \times Y \times G$ that defines a **relation** between students in the class, their year at Pitt, and their grade!

We will study the properties of relations towards the end of this course.

Sets and Cartesian products can be used to represent trees and graphs

Let:

- $N = \text{All names}$
- $F = N \times N$

A social network can be represented as a **graph** $(V, E) \in N \times F$ in which the set V denotes the people in the network and the set E denotes the set of “friendship” links.

In the above network:

- $V = \{\text{Alice, Bob, ..., Tommy}\} \subseteq N$
- $E = \{(\text{Alice, Bob}), (\text{Alice, Dave}), \dots, (\text{Sarah, Tommy})\} \subseteq N \times N$

Set notation allows us to make quantified statements more precise

We can use set notation to make the domain of a quantified statement explicit.

Example: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} (x^2 \geq 0)$

- The square of any real number is a least zero

Example: $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \exists j, k \in \mathbb{Z} [(3n+2 = 2j+1) \rightarrow (n = 2k+1)]$

- If n is an integer and $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.

Note: This notation is far less ambiguous than simply stating the domains of propositional functions. In the remainder of the course, we will use this notation whenever possible.

Truth sets describe when a predicate is true



Definition: Given a predicate P and its corresponding domain D the **truth set** of P enumerates all elements in D that make the predicate P **true**.

Examples: What are the truth sets of the following predicates, given that their domain is the set \mathbb{Z} ?

- $P(x) \equiv |x| = 1$
- $Q(x) \equiv x^2 > 0$
- $R(x) \equiv x^5 = 1049$

Note:

- $\forall x P(x)$ is **true** iff the truth set of P is the entire domain D
- $\exists x P(x)$ is **true** iff the truth set of P is non-empty

How do computers represent and manipulate finite sets?



Observation: Representing sets as unordered collections of elements (e.g., arrays of Java Object data types) is very inefficient.

As a result, sets are usually represented using either hash maps or bitmaps.

You'll learn about these in a data structures class, so today we'll focus on bitmap representations.

This is probably best explained through an example...



Playing with the set $S = \{x \mid x \in \mathbb{N}, x < 10\}$

To represent a set as a bitmap, we must first agree on an **ordering** for the set. In the case of S , let's use the natural ordering of the numbers.

Now, any subset of S can be represented using $|S|=10$ bits. For example:

- $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} = 0101\ 0101\ 01$
- $\{1, 1, 1, 4, 5\} = 0100\ 1100\ 00$

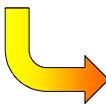
What subsets of S do the following bitmaps represent?

- 0101 1010 11
- 1111 0000 10



Set operations can be carried out very efficiently as bitwise operations

Example: $\{1, 3, 7\} \cup \{2, 3, 8\}$

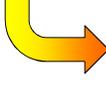


 _____ \vee _____

 _____ 10

 = $\{1, 2, 3, 7, 8\}$

Example: $\{1, 3, 7\} \cap \{2, 3, 8\}$



 _____ 10

 _____ 00

 = $\{3\}$

Note: These operations are much faster than searching through

Set operations can be carried out very efficiently as bitwise operations

 **Example:** $\overline{\{1, 3, 7\}}$


-0101 0001 00
1010 1110 11

= {0, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9}

Since the set difference $A - B$ can be written as $A \cap (A \cap B)$, we can calculate it as $A \wedge \neg(A \wedge B)$.

Although set difference is more complicated than the basic operations, it is still much faster to calculate set differences using a bitmap approach as opposed to an unordered search.

Group work!

 **Problem 1:** Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $B = \{3, 5, 7, 9\}$, and $C = \{7, 8, 9, 10\}$. Calculate the following:

- $A \cap B$
- $A \cup B \cup C$
- $B \cap C$
- $A \cap B \cap C$

Problem 2: Come up with a bitmap representation of the sets $A = \{a, c, d, f\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$. Use this to calculate the following:

- $A \cup B$
- $A \cap B$



Final thoughts

- Sets are one of the most basic data structures used in computer science

- Today, we looked at:
 - How to define sets
 - Basic set operations
 - How computers represent sets

- Next time:
 - Set identities (Section 2.2)
 - Functions (Section 2.3)