# Discrete Mathematics in Computer Science 

 B1. Sets: FoundationsMalte Helmert, Gabriele Röger

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October 2, 2023

## Sets

## Important Building Blocks of Discrete Mathematics

- sets
- relations
- functions


## Sets

## Definition

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■ unorderd: no notion of a "first" or "second" object, e. g. $\{$ Alice, Bob, Charly $\}=\{$ Charly, Bob, Alice $\}$

- distinct: each object contained at most once, e. g. $\{$ Alice, Bob, Charly $\}=\{$ Alice, Charly, Bob, Alice $\}$


## Notation

- Specification of sets

■ explicit, listing all elements, e.g. $A=\{1,2,3\}$

- implicit with set-builder notation, specifying a property characterizing all elements,

$$
\text { e.g. } \begin{aligned}
A & =\left\{x \mid x \in \mathbb{N}_{0} \text { and } 1 \leq x \leq 3\right\}, \\
B & =\left\{n^{2} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}\right\}
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Question: Is it true that $1 \in\{\{1,2\}, 3\}$ ?

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- Real numbers $\mathbb{R}=(-\infty, \infty)$

Why do we use interval notation?
Why didn't we introduce it before?

Questions


Questions?

Russell's Paradox

## Excursus: Barber Paradox

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We can exploit the self-reference to derive a contradiction.

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Bertrand Russell

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Is $S=\{M \mid M$ is a set and $M \notin M\}$ a set?

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Assume that $S$ is a set. If $S \notin S$ then $S \in S \rightsquigarrow$ Contradiction
If $S \in S$ then $S \notin S \rightsquigarrow$ Contradiction
Hence, there is no such set $S$.

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If $S \notin S$ then $S \in S \rightsquigarrow$ Contradiction
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Hence, there is no such set $S$.
$\rightarrow$ Not every property used in set-builder notation defines a set.

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## Relations on Sets

## Equality

## Definition (Axiom of Extensionality)

Two sets $A$ and $B$ are equal (written $A=B$ )
if every element of $A$ is an element of $B$ and vice versa.

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We write $A \neq B$ to indicate that $A$ and $B$ are not equal.

## Subsets and Supersets

- $A \subseteq B: A$ is a subset of $B$,
i. e., every element of $A$ is an element of $B$
- $A \subset B: A$ is a strict subset of $B$,
i. e., $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$.

■ $A \supseteq B: A$ is a superset of $B$ if $B \subseteq A$.

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We write $A \nsubseteq B$ to indicate that $A$ is not a subset of $B$.
Analogously: $\not \subset, \nsupseteq, \not \supset$

## Power Set

Definition (Power Set)
The power set $\mathcal{P}(S)$ of a set $S$ is the set of all subsets of $S$. That is,

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

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

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## Set Operations

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A \bigcirc B
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- set difference $A \backslash B=\{x \mid x \in A$ and $x \notin B\}$

- complement $\bar{A}=B \backslash A$, where $A \subseteq B$ and
$B$ is the set of all considered objects (in a given context)


## Properties of Set Operations: Commutativity

Theorem (Commutativity of $\cup$ and $\cap$ )
For all sets $A$ and $B$ it holds that

- $A \cup B=B \cup A$ and
- $A \cap B=B \cap A$.


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Question: Is the set difference also commutative, i. e. is $A \backslash B=B \backslash A$ for all sets $A$ and $B$ ?

## Properties of Set Operations: Associativity

Theorem (Associativity of $\cup$ and $\cap$ )
For all sets $A, B$ and $C$ it holds that
$\square(A \cup B) \cup C=A \cup(B \cup C)$ and

- $(A \cap B) \cap C=A \cap(B \cap C)$.


## Properties of Set Operations: Distributivity

Theorem (Union distributes over intersection and vice versa)
For all sets $A, B$ and $C$ it holds that

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


## Properties of Set Operations: De Morgan's Law



Augustus De Morgan

British mathematician (1806-1871)

Theorem (De Morgan's Law)
For all sets $A$ and $B$ it holds that

- $\overline{A \cup B}=\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$ and
- $\overline{A \cap B}=\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$.

Questions


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## Finite Sets

## Cardinality of Sets

The cardinality $|S|$ measures the size of set $S$.
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- $|\emptyset|=$
- $\mid\left\{x \mid x \in \mathbb{N}_{0}\right.$ and $\left.2 \leq x<5\right\} \mid=$
- $|\{3,0,\{1,3\}\}|=$
- $|\mathcal{P}(\{1,2\})|=$


## Cardinality of the Union of Sets

Theorem
For finite sets $A$ and $B$ it holds that $|A \cup B|=|A|+|B|-|A \cap B|$.

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For finite sets $A$ and $B$ it holds that $|A \cup B|=|A|+|B|-|A \cap B|$.

## Corollary

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

## Cardinality of the Power Set

## Theorem

Let $S$ be a finite set. Then $|\mathcal{P}(S)|=2^{|S|}$.

## Proof sketch.

We can construct a subset $S^{\prime}$ by iterating over all elements $e$ of $S$ and deciding whether e becomes a member of $S^{\prime}$ or not.

We make $|S|$ independent decisions, each between two options. Hence, there are $2^{|S|}$ possible outcomes.

Every subset of $S$ can be constructed this way and different choices lead to different sets. Thus, $|\mathcal{P}(S)|=2^{|S|}$.

## Alternative Proof by Induction

## Proof.

By induction over $|S|$.
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IH : For all sets $S$ with $|S|=n$, it holds that $|\mathcal{P}(S)|=2^{|S|}$.

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IH : For all sets $S$ with $|S|=n$, it holds that $|\mathcal{P}(S)|=2^{|S|}$. Inductive Step ( $n \rightarrow n+1$ ):
Let $S^{\prime}$ be an arbitrary set with $\left|S^{\prime}\right|=n+1$ and let $e$ be an arbitrary member of $S^{\prime}$.
Let further $S=S^{\prime} \backslash\{e\}$ and $X=\left\{S^{\prime \prime} \cup\{e\} \mid S^{\prime \prime} \in \mathcal{P}(S)\right\}$.
Then $\mathcal{P}\left(S^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{P}(S) \cup X$. As $\mathcal{P}(S)$ and $X$ are disjoint and $|X|=|\mathcal{P}(S)|$, it holds that $\left|\mathcal{P}\left(S^{\prime}\right)\right|=2|\mathcal{P}(S)|$.
Since $|S|=n$, we can use the IH and get

$$
\left|\mathcal{P}\left(S^{\prime}\right)\right|=2 \cdot 2^{|S|}=2 \cdot 2^{n}=2^{n+1}=2^{\left|S^{\prime}\right|}
$$

## Enumerating all Subsets

Determine a one-to-one mapping between numbers $0, \ldots, 2^{|S|}-1$ and all subsets of finite set $S$ :

$$
S=\{a, b, c\}
$$

- Consider the binary representation of numbers $0, \ldots, 2^{|S|}-1$.
- Associate every bit with a different element of $S$.
- Every number is mapped to the set that contains exactly the elements associated with the 1 -bits.

| decimal | binary <br> abc | set |
| :---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0 | 000 | $\}$ |
| 1 | 001 | $\{c\}$ |
| 2 | 010 | $\{b\}$ |
| 3 | 011 | $\{b, c\}$ |
| 4 | 100 | $\{a\}$ |
| 5 | 101 | $\{a, c\}$ |
| 6 | 110 | $\{a, b\}$ |
| 7 | 111 | $\{a, b, c\}$ |

## Computer Representation as Bit String

Same representation as in enumeration of all subsets:
■ Required: Fixed universe $U$ of possible elements

- Represent sets as bitstrings of length $|U|$

■ Associate every bit with one object from the universe
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Example:
■ $U=\left\{o_{0}, \ldots, o_{9}\right\}$

- Associate the $i$-th bit ( 0 -indexed, from left to right) with $o_{i}$
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How can the set operations be implemented?

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## Summary

- Sets are unordered collections of distinct objects.
- Important set relations: equality ( $=$ ), subset ( $\subseteq$ ), superset $(\supseteq)$ and strict variants ( $\subset$ and $\supset$ )
- The power set of a set $S$ is the set of all subsets of $S$.

■ Important set operations are intersection, union, set difference and complement.

■ Union and intersection are commutative and associative.

- Union distributes over intersection and vice versa.
- De Morgan's law for complement of union or intersection.
- The number of elements in a finite set is called its cardinality.
- Sets over a finite universe can be represented as bit strings.
$\rightarrow$ also useful for enumerating all subsets

