Basic Structures: Sets, Functions, Sequences, Sums, and Matrices Chapter 2

© Marc Moreno-Maza 2020

UWO - October 3, 2021

Basic Structures: Sets, Functions, Sequences, Sums, and Matrices Chapter 2

© Marc Moreno-Maza 2020

UWO - October 3, 2021

Sets are the basic building blocks for the types of objects considered in discrete mathematics and in mathematics, in general.

- Sets are the basic building blocks for the types of objects considered in discrete mathematics and in mathematics, in general.
- **2** Set theory is an important branch of mathematics:

- Sets are the basic building blocks for the types of objects considered in discrete mathematics and in mathematics, in general.
- 2 Set theory is an important branch of mathematics:
 - Many different systems of axioms have been used to develop set theory.

- Sets are the basic building blocks for the types of objects considered in discrete mathematics and in mathematics, in general.
- 2 Set theory is an important branch of mathematics:
 - Many different systems of axioms have been used to develop set theory.
 - Here, we are not concerned with a formal set of axioms for set theory.

- Sets are the basic building blocks for the types of objects considered in discrete mathematics and in mathematics, in general.
- 2 Set theory is an important branch of mathematics:
 - Many different systems of axioms have been used to develop set theory.
 - Here, we are not concerned with a formal set of axioms for set theory.
 - c Instead, we will use what is called naïve set theory.

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

1.1 Defining sets

- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections



A set is an unordered collection of "objects", e.g. intuitively described by some common property or properties (in naïve set theory):



A set is an unordered collection of "objects", e.g. intuitively described by some common property or properties (in naïve set theory):

(a) the students in this class,

- A set is an unordered collection of "objects", e.g. intuitively described by some common property or properties (in naïve set theory):
 - a the students in this class,
 - **b** the chairs in this room.

- A set is an unordered collection of "objects", e.g. intuitively described by some common property or properties (in naïve set theory):
 - a the students in this class,
 - **b** the chairs in this room.
- The objects in a set are called the *elements*, or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements.

- A set is an unordered collection of "objects", e.g. intuitively described by some common property or properties (in naïve set theory):
 - a the students in this class,
 - **b** the chairs in this room.
- On the objects in a set are called the *elements*, or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements.
- **3** The notation $a \in A$ denotes that a is an element of set A.

- A set is an unordered collection of "objects", e.g. intuitively described by some common property or properties (in naïve set theory):
 - a the students in this class,
 - **b** the chairs in this room.
- The objects in a set are called the *elements*, or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements.
- **3** The notation $a \in A$ denotes that a is an element of set A.
- 4 If a is not a member of A, write $a \notin A$

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

1 Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

- **1** Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- 2 The order of the elements in that list is not important.
 - **a** For instance, $\{a, b, c, d\} = \{b, c, a, d\}$

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

- **1** Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- Provide the elements in that list is not important.
 For instance, {a, b, c, d} = {b, c, a, d}
- **③** Each object in the universe is either a member or not.

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

- **1** Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- The order of the elements in that list is not important.

a For instance, $\{a, b, c, d\} = \{b, c, a, d\}$

- **8** Each object in the universe is either a member or not.
- 4 Listing a member more than once does not change the set.

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

- **1** Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- 2 The order of the elements in that list is not important.
 - **a** For instance, $\{a, b, c, d\} = \{b, c, a, d\}$
- **8** Each object in the universe is either a member or not.
- 4 Listing a member more than once does not change the set.
 - **a** For instance, $\{a, b, c, d\} = \{a, b, c, b, c, d\}$

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

- **1** Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- The order of the elements in that list is not important.
 For instance, {a, b, c, d} = {b, c, a, d}
- 8 Each object in the universe is either a member or not.
- 4 Listing a member more than once does not change the set.
 (a) For instance, {a, b, c, d} = {a, b, c, b, c, d}
- 6 Ellipses (...) may be used to describe a set without listing all of the members when the pattern is clear:

The roster method is defined as a way to show the members of a set by listing the members inside of brackets.

- **1** Example: $S = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- The order of the elements in that list is not important.

a For instance, $\{a, b, c, d\} = \{b, c, a, d\}$

- **8** Each object in the universe is either a member or not.
- 4 Listing a member more than once does not change the set.

a For instance, $\{a, b, c, d\} = \{a, b, c, b, c, d\}$

- 6 Ellipses (...) may be used to describe a set without listing all of the members when the pattern is clear:
 - **a** For instance, $S = \{a, b, c, d, \dots, z\}$.

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet:

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet: $V = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet:

 $V = \{\mathsf{a}, \mathsf{e}, \mathsf{i}, \mathsf{o}, \mathsf{u}\}$

2 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10:

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet:

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

2 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10:

 $O = \{1,3,5,7,9\}$

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet:

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

2 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10:

 $O = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$

3 The set of all positive integers less than 100:

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet:

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

2 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10:

$$O=\{1,3,5,7,9\}$$

3 The set of all positive integers less than 100:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 99\}$$

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet:

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

2 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10:

 $O=\{1,3,5,7,9\}$

3 The set of all positive integers less than 100:

 $S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 99\}$

4 The set of all integers less than 0:

1 The set of all vowels in the English alphabet:

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

2 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10:

 $O=\{1,3,5,7,9\}$

3 The set of all positive integers less than 100:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 99\}$$

4 The set of all integers less than 0:

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

 \mathbb{N} = natural numbers

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

- \mathbb{N} = natural numbers
- \mathbb{Z} = integers

 $\begin{array}{ll} = & \{0,1,2,3,\dots\} \\ \\ = & \{\dots,-3,-2,-1,0,1,2,3,\dots\} \end{array}$

- \mathbb{N} = natural numbers
- \mathbb{Z} = integers
- \mathbb{Z}^+ = positive integers

 $= \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ = {..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...} = {1, 2, 3, ...}

- \mathbb{N} = natural numbers
- \mathbb{Z} = integers
- \mathbb{Z}^+ = positive integers
- \mathbb{Q} = set of rational numbers

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

= {..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...}
= {1, 2, 3, ...}

- \mathbb{N} = natural numbers
- \mathbb{Z} = integers
- \mathbb{Z}^+ = positive integers
- \mathbb{Q} = set of *rational numbers*
- \mathbb{R} = set of *real numbers*

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

= {..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...}
= {1, 2, 3, ...}

Some important sets

- \mathbb{N} = natural numbers
- \mathbb{Z} = integers
- \mathbb{Z}^+ = positive integers
- \mathbb{Q} = set of *rational numbers*
- \mathbb{R} = set of *real numbers*
- \mathbb{R}^+ = set of *positive real numbers*

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

= {..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...}
= {1, 2, 3, ...}

Some important sets

- \mathbb{N} = natural numbers
- \mathbb{Z} = integers
- \mathbb{Z}^+ = positive integers
- \mathbb{Q} = set of *rational numbers*
- \mathbb{R} = set of *real numbers*
- \mathbb{R}^+ = set of *positive real numbers*
- \mathbb{C} = set of *complex numbers*.

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

= {..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...}
= {1, 2, 3, ...}

It is used to specify the property or properties that all members must satisfy. *Examples*:

It is used to specify the property or properties that all members must satisfy. *Examples*:

a $S = \{x \mid x \text{ is a positive integer less than 100} \}$

It is used to specify the property or properties that all members must satisfy. Examples:

S = {x | x is a positive integer less than 100}
O = {x | x is an odd positive integer less than 10}

It is used to specify the property or properties that all members must satisfy. *Examples*:

S = {x | x is a positive integer less than 100}
O = {x | x is an odd positive integer less than 10}
O = {x ∈ Z⁺ | x is odd and x < 10}

- It is used to specify the property or properties that all members must satisfy. Examples:
 - S = {x | x is a positive integer less than 100}
 O = {x | x is an odd positive integer less than 10}
 O = {x ∈ Z⁺ | x is odd and x < 10}
 d the set of positive rational numbers:

 $\mathbb{Q}^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x = \frac{p}{q}, \text{ for some positive integers } p, q\}$

- It is used to specify the property or properties that all members must satisfy. Examples:
 - S = {x | x is a positive integer less than 100}
 O = {x | x is an odd positive integer less than 10}
 O = {x ∈ Z⁺ | x is odd and x < 10}
 the set of positive rational numbers: Q⁺ = {x ∈ ℝ | x = p/a, for some positive integers p, q}
- **2** A predicate may be used, as in $S = \{x \mid P(x)\}$

- It is used to specify the property or properties that all members must satisfy. Examples:
 - S = {x | x is a positive integer less than 100}
 O = {x | x is an odd positive integer less than 10}
 O = {x ∈ Z⁺ | x is odd and x < 10}
 the set of positive rational numbers:

 $\mathbb{Q}^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x = \frac{p}{q}, \text{ for some positive integers } p, q\}$

2 A predicate may be used, as in $S = \{x \mid P(x)\}$

a Example: $S = \{x \mid Prime(x)\}$

1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.

- 1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.
- **2** Consider two real numbers a, b with $a \le b$. The following notations are commonly used:

- 1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.
- **2** Consider two real numbers a, b with $a \le b$. The following notations are commonly used:

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

- 1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.
- **2** Consider two real numbers a, b with $a \le b$. The following notations are commonly used:

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

•
$$[a,b) = \{x \mid a \le x < b\}$$

- 1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.
- **2** Consider two real numbers a, b with $a \le b$. The following notations are commonly used:

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

•
$$[a,b) = \{x \mid a \le x < b\}$$

• $(a,b] = \{x \mid a < x \le b\}$

- 1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.
- **2** Consider two real numbers a, b with $a \le b$. The following notations are commonly used:

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

•
$$[a,b) = \{x \mid a \le x < b\}$$

•
$$(a,b] = \{x \mid a < x \le b\}$$

•
$$(a,b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

- 1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.
- **2** Consider two real numbers a, b with $a \le b$. The following notations are commonly used:

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

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

•
$$(a,b] = \{x \mid a < x \le b\}$$

•
$$(a,b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

closed interval [a,b]

- 1 It is used to specify a range of real numbers.
- **2** Consider two real numbers a, b with $a \le b$. The following notations are commonly used:

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

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

•
$$(a,b] = \{x \mid a < x \le b\}$$

•
$$(a,b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

- closed interval [a,b]
- open interval (a,b)

Truth sets of quantifiers

• Given a predicate P and a domain D, we define the *truth set* of P to be the set of the elements in D for which P(x) is true.

Truth sets of quantifiers

- Given a predicate P and a domain D, we define the truth set of P to be the set of the elements in D for which P(x) is true.
- **2** The truth set of P(x) is denoted by:

 $\{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$

Truth sets of quantifiers

- Given a predicate P and a domain D, we define the *truth set* of P to be the set of the elements in D for which P(x) is true.
- **2** The truth set of P(x) is denoted by:

 $\{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$

Section 2.1.3 Section 2.1.4 Section 2.1.4

Sets can be elements of sets

Examples:

Sets can be elements of sets

Examples:

Sets can be elements of sets

Examples:

- 1 $\{\{1,2,3\},a, \{b,c\}\}$
- ${\color{black} 2} \ \{\mathbb{N},\mathbb{Z},\mathbb{Q},\mathbb{R}\}$

1 Let S be the set of all sets which are not members of themselves.

- Let S be the set of all sets which are not members of themselves.
- A paradox results from trying to answer the question "Is S a member of itself?"

- Let S be the set of all sets which are not members of themselves.
- A paradox results from trying to answer the question "Is S a member of itself?"

Related simple example:

Henry is a barber who shaves all people who do not shave themselves. A paradox results from trying to answer the question "Does Henry shave himself?"



Bertrand Russell

(1872 - 1970)

Nobel Prize

Winner,

Cambridge, UK

- Let S be the set of all sets which are not members of themselves.
- A paradox results from trying to answer the question "Is S a member of itself?"

Related simple example:

Henry is a barber who shaves all people who do not shave themselves. A paradox results from trying to answer the question "Does Henry shave himself?"



Bertrand Russell

(1872 - 1970)

Nobel Prize

Winner,

Cambridge, UK

- To avoid this and other paradoxes, sets can be (formally) defined via appropriate axioms more carefully than just an unordered collection of "objects"
- Where objects are intuitively described by any given property in naïve set theory

- Let S be the set of all sets which are not members of themselves.
- A paradox results from trying to answer the question "Is S a member of itself?"

Related simple example:

Henry is a barber who shaves all people who do not shave themselves. A paradox results from trying to answer the question "Does Henry shave himself?"



Bertrand Russell

(1872 - 1970)

Nobel Prize

Winner,

Cambridge, UK

- To avoid this and other paradoxes, sets can be (formally) defined via appropriate axioms more carefully than just an unordered collection of "objects"
- Where objects are intuitively described by any given property in naïve set theory

The universal set U and the empty set \varnothing

The universal set is the set containing all the "objects" currently under consideration:

(a) often symbolized by U,

- (a) often symbolized by U,
- **b** sometimes implicitly stated,

- (a) often symbolized by U,
- **b** sometimes implicitly stated,
- sometimes explicitly stated,

- (a) often symbolized by U,
- b sometimes implicitly stated,
- sometimes explicitly stated,
- d its contents depend on the context.

- (a) often symbolized by U,
- **b** sometimes implicitly stated,
- sometimes explicitly stated,
- d its contents depend on the context.
- **2** The *empty set* is the set with no elements.

The universal set U and the empty set \varnothing

- (a) often symbolized by U,
- **b** sometimes implicitly stated,
- sometimes explicitly stated,
- d its contents depend on the context.
- **2** The *empty set* is the set with no elements.
 - (a) symbolized by \emptyset , but $\{\}$ is also used.

The universal set U and the empty set \emptyset

The universal set is the set containing all the "objects" currently under consideration:

- (a) often symbolized by U,
- **b** sometimes implicitly stated,
- sometimes explicitly stated,
- d its contents depend on the context.
- **2** The *empty set* is the set with no elements.
 - **a** symbolized by \emptyset , but $\{\}$ is also used.
 - Important: the empty set is different from a set containing the empty set:

$$\varnothing \neq \left\{ \ \varnothing \ \right\}$$

Plan for Part I

1.1 Defining se

1.2 Venn Diagram

- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

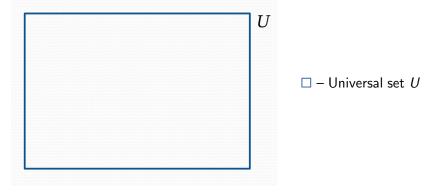




1923) Cambridge, UK

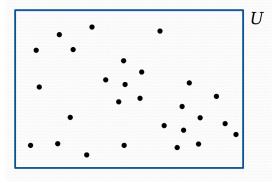


1923) Cambridge, UK





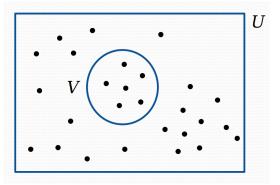
1923) Cambridge, UK



- \Box Universal set U
 - elements



1923) Cambridge, UK

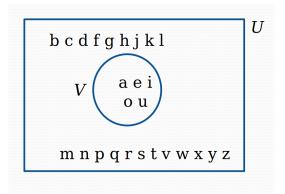


- \Box Universal set U
- \bullet elements
- \bigcirc Some set V



John Venn (1834 -

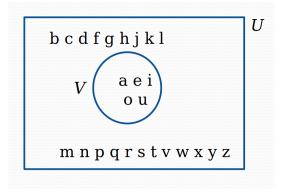
1923) Cambridge, UK





John Venn (1834 -

1923) Cambridge, UK

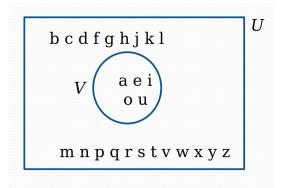


 \Box – Universal set U: all letters in the Latin alphabet



John Venn (1834 -

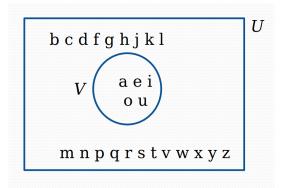
1923) Cambridge, UK



□ – Universal set U: all letters in the Latin alphabet **letters** – elements



1923) Cambridge, UK



□ - Universal set U: all letters in the Latin alphabet letters - elements ○ - Set V: all vowels



John Venn (1834 -

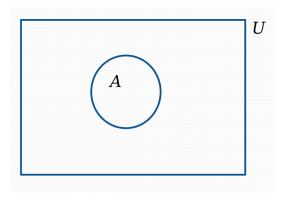
1923) Cambridge, UK



1923) Cambridge, UK



\Box – Universal set U

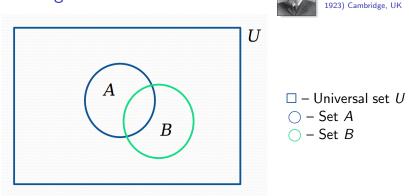




John Venn (1834 -

1923) Cambridge, UK

$\Box - \text{Universal set } U$ $\bigcirc - \text{Set } A$

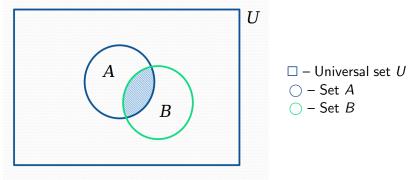


John Venn (1834 -

 Venn diagrams are often drawn to abstractly illustrate relations between multiple sets. Elements are implicit/omitted (shown as dots only when an explicit element is needed)



1923) Cambridge, UK



- Venn diagrams are often drawn to abstractly illustrate relations between multiple sets. Elements are implicit/omitted (shown as dots only when an explicit element is needed)
- *Example*: shaded area illustrates a set of elements that are in both sets A and B (i.e. *intersection* of two sets, see later).
 E.g consider A={a,b,c,f,z} and B={c,d,e,f,x,y}.

Plan for Part I 1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram

1.3 Set Equality

- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

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

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

1 If A and B are sets, then A and B are equal iff:

 $\forall x \ (x \in A \iff x \in B)$

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

1 If A and B are sets, then A and B are equal iff:

$$\forall x \ (x \in A \iff x \in B)$$

2 We write A = B if A and B are equal sets.

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

1 If A and B are sets, then A and B are equal iff:

$$\forall x \ (x \in A \iff x \in B)$$

2 We write A = B if A and B are equal sets.

$$\{1,3,5\} = \{3,5,1\}$$

$$\{1,5,5,5,3,3,1\} = \{1,3,5\}$$

Plan for Part I 1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality

1.4 Subsets

- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Definition: The set A is a *subset* of B, if and only if every element of A is also an element of B.

Definition: The set A is a *subset* of B, if and only if every element of A is also an element of B.

 The notation A ⊆ B is used to indicate that A is a subset of the set B

Definition: The set A is a *subset* of B, if and only if every element of A is also an element of B.

- The notation A ⊆ B is used to indicate that A is a subset of the set B
- ② $A \subseteq B$ holds if and only if $\forall x \ (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ is true.

Definition: The set A is a *subset* of B, if and only if every element of A is also an element of B.

- The notation A ⊆ B is used to indicate that A is a subset of the set B
- ② $A \subseteq B$ holds if and only if $\forall x \ (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ is true.
- Observe that:
 - **a** Because $a \in \emptyset$ is always false, for every set S we have:

 $\emptyset \subseteq S.$

Definition: The set A is a *subset* of B, if and only if every element of A is also an element of B.

- The notation A ⊆ B is used to indicate that A is a subset of the set B
- ② $A \subseteq B$ holds if and only if $\forall x \ (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ is true.

1 Showing that A is a Subset of B: To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A, then x also belongs to B.

- **1** Showing that A is a Subset of B: To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A, then x also belongs to B.
- Showing that A is not a Subset of B: To show that A is not a subset of B, that is A ⊈ B, find an element x ∈ A with x ∉ B.

- **1** Showing that A is a Subset of B: To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A, then x also belongs to B.
- Showing that A is not a Subset of B: To show that A is not a subset of B, that is A ∉ B, find an element x ∈ A with x ∉ B. (Such an x is a counterexample to the claim that x ∈ A implies x ∈ B.)

- **1** Showing that A is a Subset of B: To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A, then x also belongs to B.
- Showing that A is not a Subset of B: To show that A is not a subset of B, that is A ∉ B, find an element x ∈ A with x ∉ B. (Such an x is a counterexample to the claim that x ∈ A implies x ∈ B.)
- 8 Examples:

- **1** Showing that A is a Subset of B: To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A, then x also belongs to B.
- Showing that A is not a Subset of B: To show that A is not a subset of B, that is A ∉ B, find an element x ∈ A with x ∉ B. (Such an x is a counterexample to the claim that x ∈ A implies x ∈ B.)

8 Examples:

 The set of all computer science majors at your school is a subset of all students at your school.

- **1** Showing that A is a Subset of B: To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A, then x also belongs to B.
- Showing that A is not a Subset of B: To show that A is not a subset of B, that is A ∉ B, find an element x ∈ A with x ∉ B. (Such an x is a counterexample to the claim that x ∈ A implies x ∈ B.)

8 Examples:

- The set of all computer science majors at your school is a subset of all students at your school.
- The set of integers with squares less than 100 is not a subset of the set of all non-negative integers.

Another look at equality of sets

• Recall that two sets A and B are equal (denoted by A = B) iff:

 $\forall x \ (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$

Another look at equality of sets

• Recall that two sets A and B are equal (denoted by A = B) iff:

$$\forall x \ (x \in A \iff x \in B)$$

2 That is, using logical equivalences we have that A = B iff:

$$\forall x \quad ((x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land (x \in B \rightarrow x \in A))$$

Another look at equality of sets

• Recall that two sets A and B are equal (denoted by A = B) iff:

$$\forall x \ (x \in A \iff x \in B)$$

2 That is, using logical equivalences we have that A = B iff:

$$\forall x \quad ((x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land (x \in B \rightarrow x \in A))$$

It is also equivalent to:

$$A \subseteq B$$
 and $B \subseteq A$

Proper subsets

Definition: If $A \subseteq B$, but $A \neq B$, then we say A is a *proper subset* of B, denoted by $A \subset B$. If $A \subset B$, then the following is true:

 $\forall x \quad (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land \exists x \ (x \in B \land x \notin A)$

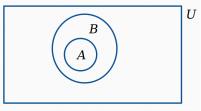
Proper subsets

Definition: If $A \subseteq B$, but $A \neq B$, then we say A is a *proper subset* of B, denoted by $A \subset B$. If $A \subset B$, then the following is true:

$$\forall x \quad (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land \exists x \ (x \in B \land x \notin A)$$

Venn Diagram for a proper subset $A \subset B$

Example: $A = \{c, f, z\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, t, x, z\}.$



Plan for Part I 1. Sets

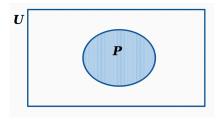
- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets

1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets

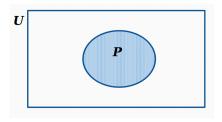
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$.

Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$.



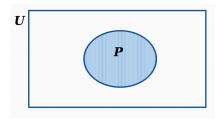
Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$.



$$- \text{ truth set of} P = \{ x \mid P(x) \}$$

that is, all elements x where P(x) is true

Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$.



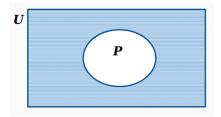
$$- \text{ truth set of} P = \{ x \mid P(x) \}$$

that is, all elements x where P(x) is true

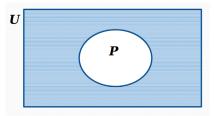
Note that: $x \in P \equiv P(x)$

Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}.$

Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}.$



Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}.$

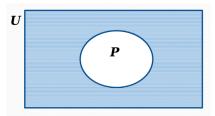


- truth set of
$$\{x \mid \neg P(x)\}$$

all elements x where $\neg P(x)$ is true, i.e. where P(x) is false

Same as *complement* of set *P* (see section 2.4)

Consider any predicate P(x) for elements x in U and its truth set $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}.$



- truth set of
$$\{x \mid \neg P(x)\}$$

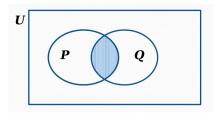
all elements x where $\neg P(x)$ is true, i.e. where P(x) is false

Same as *complement* of set *P* (see section 2.4)

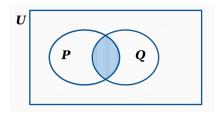
Note that: $x \notin P \equiv \neg P(x)$

Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$

Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$

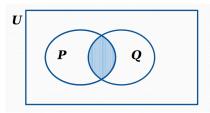


Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$



- truth set of $\{x \mid P(x) \land Q(x)\}$ that is, all elements x where both P(x)and Q(x) is true

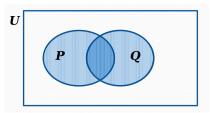
Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$



- truth set of $\{x \mid P(x) \land Q(x)\}$ that is, all elements x where both P(x)and Q(x) is true

Same as *intersection* of sets P and Q (see section 2.3)

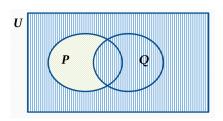
Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$



- truth set $\{x \mid P(x) \lor Q(x)\}$ that is, all elements x where P(x) or Q(x) is true

Same as *union* of sets P and Q (see section 2.2)

Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$



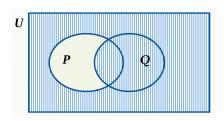
 $- \text{ truth set } \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\}$

(all x where implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true)

 $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is false:

$$\{x \mid \neg(\neg P(x) \lor Q(x))\} = \{x \mid P(x) \land \neg Q(x)\}\$$
$$= \{x \mid x \in P \land x \notin Q\}$$

Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$



 $- \text{ truth set } \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\}$

(all x where implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true)

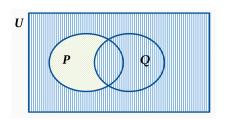
 $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is false:

$$\{x \mid \neg(\neg P(x) \lor Q(x))\} = \{x \mid P(x) \land \neg Q(x)\}$$
$$= \{x \mid x \in P \land x \notin Q\}$$

Remember:

$$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \lor q$$

Consider two arbitrary predicates P(x) and Q(x) defined for elements x in U together with their corresponding truth sets $P = \{x \mid P(x)\}$ and $Q = \{x \mid Q(x)\}.$



$$- \text{ truth set } \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\}$$

(all x where implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true)

 $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is false:

$$\{x \mid \neg(\neg P(x) \lor Q(x))\} = \{x \mid P(x) \land \neg Q(x)\}$$
$$= \{x \mid x \in P \land x \notin Q\}$$

Remember:

$$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \lor q$$

2 Thus, we have: $\{x \mid P(x) \to Q(x)\} = \{x \mid \neg P(x) \lor Q(x)\} = \{x \mid x \notin P \lor x \in Q\}$

1 Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.

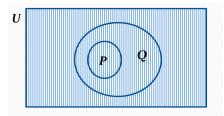
- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- **2** That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- 2 That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- **③** Note that, from the definition of subsets:

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- **2** That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- **③** Note that, from the definition of subsets:

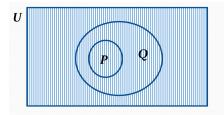
 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$



Venn diagram for $P \subseteq Q$ often shows P as a proper subset of Q, thus assuming $P \neq Q$

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- **2** That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- 8 Note that, from the definition of subsets:

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$



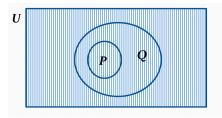
 $\begin{array}{c|c} & - & \text{truth} & \text{set} \\ \{x & | & P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \end{array}$

(all x where implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true)

Venn diagram for $P \subseteq Q$ often shows P as a proper subset of Q, thus assuming $P \neq Q$

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- 2 That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- **③** Note that, from the definition of subsets:

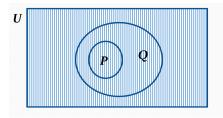
 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$



 $\begin{array}{c|c} - & \text{truth} & \text{set} \\ \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \\ \text{(all x where implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true)} \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ - & \text{set} \\ \text{where} & \text{implication} \\ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is false:} \end{array}$

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- **2** That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- Solution of subsets:

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$

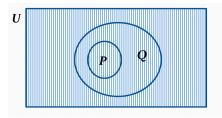


 $\begin{array}{c|c} - & \text{truth} & \text{set} \\ \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \\ \text{(all x where implication } P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is true}) \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ & \hline \\ & & - & \text{set} \\ \\ & \text{where} & \text{implication} \\ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is false:} \end{array}$

$$\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (\neg P(x) \lor Q(x))$$

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- **2** That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- Solution of subsets:

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$

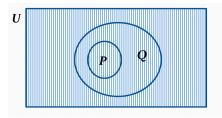


 $\begin{array}{c|c} - & \text{truth} & \text{set} \\ \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \\ \text{(all x where implication } P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is true}) \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ & \hline \\ & - & \text{set} \\ \text{where} & \text{implication} \\ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is false:} \end{array}$

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) &\equiv \forall x (\neg P(x) \lor Q(x)) \\ &\equiv \neg \exists x (P(x) \land \neg Q(x)) \end{aligned}$$

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- **2** That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- Solution of subsets:

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$



 $\begin{array}{c|c} - & \text{truth} & \text{set} \\ \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \\ \text{(all x where implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true)} \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ - & \text{set} \\ \text{where} & \text{implication} \\ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is false:} \end{array}$

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) &\equiv & \forall x (\neg P(x) \lor Q(x)) \\ &\equiv & \neg \exists x (P(x) \land \neg Q(x)) \\ &\equiv & \neg \exists x (x \in P \land x \notin Q) \end{aligned}$$

1 Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.

③ Note that, from the definition of subsets:

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$

 $\begin{array}{c|c} - & \text{truth} & \text{set} \\ \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \\ \text{(all x where implication } P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is true}) \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ - & \text{set} \\ \text{where} & \text{implication} \\ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is false:} \end{array}$

Venn diagram for $P \subseteq Q$ often shows P as a ^{empty in this case: $\{x \mid x \in P \land x \notin Q\} = \emptyset$ proper subset of Q, thus assuming $P \neq Q$}

U P Q

1 Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.

③ Note that, from the definition of subsets:

Q

U

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$

– truth

 $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\}$

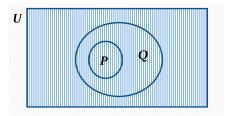
(all x where implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true)

set

 $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is false:}$ Venn diagram for $P \subseteq Q$ often shows P as a empty in this case: $\{x \mid x \in P \land x \notin Q\} = \emptyset$ proper subset of Q, thus assuming $P \neq Q$ This gives intuitive interpretation for logical "implications":

- **1** Assume that implication $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ is true for all x.
- **2** That is, assume $\{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \equiv U$ is true.
- **③** Note that, from the definition of subsets:

 $\forall x (P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \forall x (x \in P \to x \in Q) \equiv P \subseteq Q$

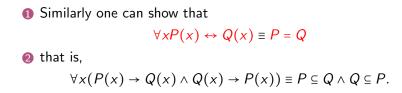


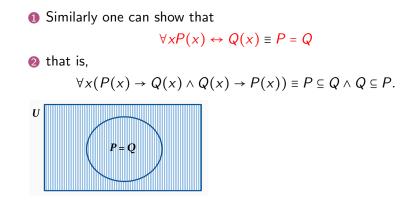
 $\begin{array}{c|c} - & \text{truth} & \text{set} \\ \{x \mid P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)\} \\ \text{(all x where implication } P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \text{ is true)} \\ \hline & & & \\ \hline & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & &$

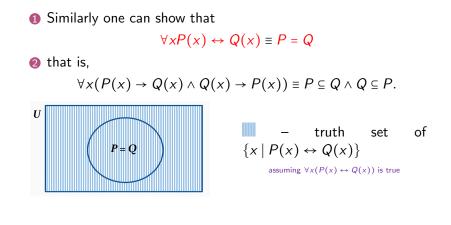
- 1 This gives intuitive interpretation for logical "implications":
- Proving theorems of the form ∀x(P(x) → Q(x)) is equivalent to proving the subset relationship for the truth sets P ⊆ Q.

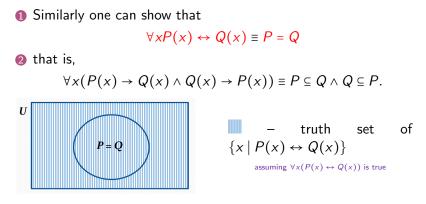
1 Similarly one can show that

 $\forall x P(x) \leftrightarrow Q(x) \equiv P = Q$



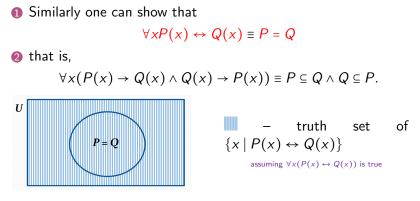






1 This gives intuitive interpretation for "biconditional":

Venn diagram and logical connectives: biconditional



- 1 This gives intuitive interpretation for "biconditional":
- Proving theorems of the form ∀x(P(x) ↔ Q(x)) is equivalent to proving the subset relationship for the truth sets P = Q.

Plan for Part I 1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets

1.6 Set Cardinality

- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Definition: If there are exactly n (distinct) elements in S where n is a non-negative integer, we say that S is *finite*. Otherwise, the set S is said *infinite*.

Definition: If there are exactly n (distinct) elements in S where n is a non-negative integer, we say that S is *finite*. Otherwise, the set S is said *infinite*.

Definition: The *cardinality* of a finite set A, denoted by |A|, is the number of (distinct) elements of A.

Examples:

Definition: If there are exactly n (distinct) elements in S where n is a non-negative integer, we say that S is *finite*. Otherwise, the set S is said *infinite*.

Definition: The *cardinality* of a finite set A, denoted by |A|, is the number of (distinct) elements of A.

Examples:

 $\mathbf{0} \mid \varnothing \mid = \mathbf{0}$

Definition: If there are exactly n (distinct) elements in S where n is a non-negative integer, we say that S is *finite*. Otherwise, the set S is said *infinite*.

Definition: The *cardinality* of a finite set A, denoted by |A|, is the number of (distinct) elements of A.

Examples:

 $\mathbf{0} \mid \varnothing \mid = \mathbf{0}$

2 Let S be the letters of the English alphabet. Then |S| = 26

Definition: If there are exactly n (distinct) elements in S where n is a non-negative integer, we say that S is *finite*. Otherwise, the set S is said *infinite*.

Definition: The *cardinality* of a finite set A, denoted by |A|, is the number of (distinct) elements of A.

Examples:

- $\mathbf{0} \mid \varnothing \mid = \mathbf{0}$
- **2** Let S be the letters of the English alphabet. Then |S| = 26

Definition: If there are exactly n (distinct) elements in S where n is a non-negative integer, we say that S is *finite*. Otherwise, the set S is said *infinite*.

Definition: The *cardinality* of a finite set A, denoted by |A|, is the number of (distinct) elements of A.

Examples:

- $\mathbf{0} \mid \varnothing \mid = \mathbf{0}$
- **2** Let S be the letters of the English alphabet. Then |S| = 26

 ${\bf 4} \mid \{ \varnothing \} \mid = 1$

Definition: If there are exactly n (distinct) elements in S where n is a non-negative integer, we say that S is *finite*. Otherwise, the set S is said *infinite*.

Definition: The *cardinality* of a finite set A, denoted by |A|, is the number of (distinct) elements of A.

Examples:

- $\mathbf{0} \mid \varnothing \mid = \mathbf{0}$
- **2** Let S be the letters of the English alphabet. Then |S| = 26
- $|\{1,2,3\}| = 3$
- $(4) | \{ \emptyset \} | = 1$
- **5** The set of integers is infinite.

Plan for Part I 1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality

1.7 Power Sets

- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Definition: The set of all subsets of a set A, denoted $\mathcal{P}(A)$, is called the *power set* of A.

Definition: The set of all subsets of a set A, denoted $\mathcal{P}(A)$, is called the *power set* of A.

Example: If $A = \{a,b\}$ then:

 $\mathcal{P}(A) = \{ \varnothing, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\} \}$

Definition: The set of all subsets of a set A, denoted $\mathcal{P}(A)$, is called the *power set* of A.

Example: If $A = \{a,b\}$ then:

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{ \varnothing, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\} \}$$

• If a set has *n* elements, then the cardinality of the power set is 2^n .

Definition: The set of all subsets of a set A, denoted $\mathcal{P}(A)$, is called the *power set* of A.

Example: If $A = \{a,b\}$ then:

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{ \varnothing, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\} \}$$

- **1** If a set has *n* elements, then the cardinality of the power set is 2^n .
- In Chapters 5 and 6, we will discuss different ways to show this.

Plan for Part I 1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets

1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

• The ordered n-tuple (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element and a_2 as its second element and so on until a_n as its last element.

- **1** The ordered n-tuple (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element and a_2 as its second element and so on until a_n as its last element.
- 2 Two n-tuples are equal if and only if their corresponding elements are equal.

- **1** The ordered n-tuple (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element and a_2 as its second element and so on until a_n as its last element.
- 2 Two n-tuples are equal if and only if their corresponding elements are equal.
- **③** 2-tuples are called *ordered pairs*, e.g. (a_1, a_2)

- **1** The ordered n-tuple (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element and a_2 as its second element and so on until a_n as its last element.
- Two n-tuples are equal if and only if their corresponding elements are equal.
- **③** 2-tuples are called *ordered pairs*, e.g. (a_1, a_2)
- The ordered pairs (a,b) and (c,d) are equal if and only if a = c and b = d.

Cartesian Product



Definition: The *Cartesian Product* of two sets *A* and *B*, denoted by $A \times B$ is the set of ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.



Definition: The *Cartesian Product* of two sets A and B, denoted by $A \times B$ is the set of ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

Example:

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



Definition: The *Cartesian Product* of two sets A and B, denoted by $A \times B$ is the set of ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

Example:

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

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



Definition: The *Cartesian Product* of two sets A and B, denoted by $A \times B$ is the set of ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

Example:

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

Definition: A subset *R* of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is called a *relation* from the set A to the set B. Relations will be covered in depth in Chapter 9.

Cartesian product

?

Definition: The Cartesian products of the sets $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$ is the set of ordered n-tuples $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ where a_i belongs to A_i for i = 1, 2, ..., n.

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

Cartesian product

Definition: The Cartesian products of the sets $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$ is the set of ordered n-tuples $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ where a_i belongs to A_i for i = 1, 2, ..., n.

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

Question: What is $A \times B \times C$ where $A = \{0,1\}$, $B = \{1,2\}$ and $C = \{0,1,2\}$?

Cartesian product

Definition: The Cartesian products of the sets $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$ is the set of ordered n-tuples $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ where a_i belongs to A_i for i = 1, 2, ..., n.

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

Question: What is $A \times B \times C$ where $A = \{0,1\}$, $B = \{1,2\}$ and $C = \{0,1,2\}$?

Solution: $A \times B \times C = \{(0,1,0), (0,1,1), (0,1,2), (0,2,0), (0,2,1), (0,2,2), (1,1,0), (1,1,1), (1,1,2), (1,2,0), (1,2,1), (1,2,2)\}$

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products
- 2. Set Operations
- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

2.1 Boolean Algebra

- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Propositional calculus and set theory are both instances of an algebraic system called a *Boolean Algebra*. This is discussed in CS2209.

- Propositional calculus and set theory are both instances of an algebraic system called a *Boolean Algebra*. This is discussed in CS2209.
- Provide the operators in set theory are analogous to corresponding operators in propositional calculus.

- Propositional calculus and set theory are both instances of an algebraic system called a *Boolean Algebra*. This is discussed in CS2209.
- Provide the operators in set theory are analogous to corresponding operators in propositional calculus.
- \bigcirc As always there must be a universal set U.

- Propositional calculus and set theory are both instances of an algebraic system called a *Boolean Algebra*. This is discussed in CS2209.
- Provide the operators in set theory are analogous to corresponding operators in propositional calculus.
- \bigcirc As always there must be a universal set U.
- All sets A, B, ... shown in the next slides are assumed to be subsets of U.

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

2.1 Boolean Algebra

2.2 Union

- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Union

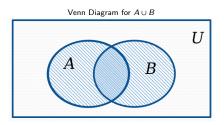
1 Definition: Let A and B be sets. The *union* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set:

 $\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$

Union

Definition: Let A and B be sets. The union of the sets A and B, denoted by A ∪ B, is the set:

$$\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$$

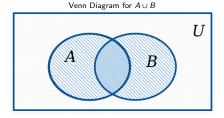


Union

Definition: Let A and B be sets. The union of the sets A and B, denoted by A ∪ B, is the set:

 $\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$

2 Example: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cup \{3, 4, 5\}$?

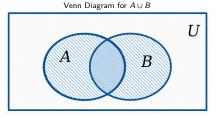


Union

Definition: Let A and B be sets. The union of the sets A and B, denoted by A ∪ B, is the set:

 $\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$

2 Example: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cup \{3, 4, 5\}$?



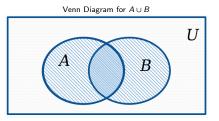
Solution: $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$

Union

1 Definition: Let A and B be sets. The *union* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set:

 $\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$

2 Example: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cup \{3, 4, 5\}$?



Solution: $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$

Union is analogous to disjunction, see earlier slides.

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union

2.3 Intersection

- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Definition: The *intersection* of sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is:

 $\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$

Definition: The *intersection* of sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is:

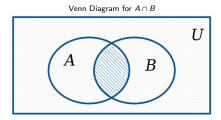
$$\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

If the intersection is empty, then A and B are said to be disjoint.

Definition: The *intersection* of sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is:

$$\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

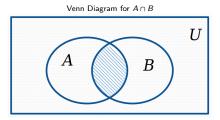
If the intersection is empty, then A and B are said to be disjoint.



Definition: The *intersection* of sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is:

$$\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

- If the intersection is empty, then A and B are said to be disjoint.
- **1 Example**: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cap \{3,4,5\}$?

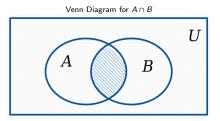


Definition: The *intersection* of sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is:

$$\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

- If the intersection is empty, then A and B are said to be disjoint.
- **Example**: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cap \{3,4,5\}$?

Solution: $\{3\}$



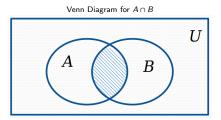
Definition: The *intersection* of sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is:

$$\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

- If the intersection is empty, then A and B are said to be disjoint.
- **Example**: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cap \{3,4,5\}$?

Solution: $\{3\}$

1 Example: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cap \{4,5,6\}$?



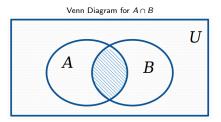
Definition: The *intersection* of sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is:

$$\{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

- If the intersection is empty, then A and B are said to be disjoint.
- **Example**: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cap \{3,4,5\}$?

Solution: $\{3\}$

1 Example: What is $\{1,2,3\} \cap \{4,5,6\}$?



Solution: \emptyset

Intersection is analogous to conjunction, see earlier slides.

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection

2.4 Complement

- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Definition: If A is a set, then the complement of the A (with respect to U), denoted by \overline{A} is the set:

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

(The complement of A is sometimes denoted by A^c .)

Definition: If A is a set, then the complement of the A (with respect to U), denoted by \overline{A} is the set:

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

(The complement of A is sometimes denoted by A^c .)

Definition: If A is a set, then the complement of the A (with respect to U), denoted by \overline{A} is the set:

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

(The complement of A is sometimes denoted by A^c .)

Example: If *U* is the positive integers less than 100, what is the complement of $\{x \mid x > 70\}$?

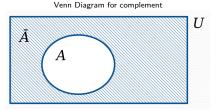
Definition: If A is a set, then the complement of the A (with respect to U), denoted by \overline{A} is the set:

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

(The complement of A is sometimes denoted by A^c .)

Example: If *U* is the positive integers less than 100, what is the complement of $\{x \mid x > 70\}$?

Solution: $\{x \mid x \le 70\}$



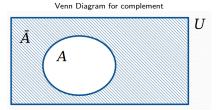
Definition: If A is a set, then the complement of the A (with respect to U), denoted by \overline{A} is the set:

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$$

(The complement of A is sometimes denoted by A^c .)

Example: If *U* is the positive integers less than 100, what is the complement of $\{x \mid x > 70\}$?

Solution: $\{x \mid x \le 70\}$



Complement is analogous to negation, see earlier.

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement

2.5 Difference

- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Difference

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

$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \notin B\} = A \cap \overline{B}$$

Difference

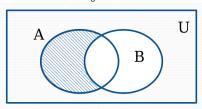
Definition: Let A and B be sets. The *difference* of A and B, denoted by A - B, is the set containing the elements of A that are not in B. The difference of A and B is also called the complement of B with respect to A.

$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \notin B\} = A \cap \overline{B}$$

Difference

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

$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \notin B\} = A \cap \overline{B}$$



Venn Diagram for A – B

Note: $\overline{A} = U - A$

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

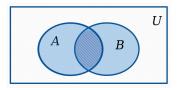
- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

Inclusion-Exclusion:

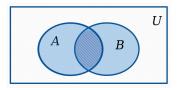
$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$$



Venn Diagram for $A, B, A \cap B, A \cup B$

Inclusion-Exclusion:

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

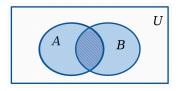


Venn Diagram for $A, B, A \cap B, A \cup B$

Example:

Inclusion-Exclusion:

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



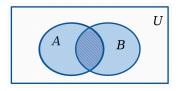
Venn Diagram for $A, B, A \cap B, A \cup B$

Example:

Let A be the math majors in your class and B be the CS majors in your class.

Inclusion-Exclusion:

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



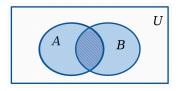
Venn Diagram for $A, B, A \cap B, A \cup B$

Example:

- Let A be the math majors in your class and B be the CS majors in your class.
- To count the number of students in your class who are either math majors or CS majors, add the number of math majors and the number of CS majors, and subtract the number of joint CS/math majors.

Inclusion-Exclusion:

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



Venn Diagram for $A, B, A \cap B, A \cup B$

Example:

- Let A be the math majors in your class and B be the CS majors in your class.
- To count the number of students in your class who are either math majors or CS majors, add the number of math majors and the number of CS majors, and subtract the number of joint CS/math majors.
- We will return to this principle in Chapter 6 and Chapter 8, where we will derive a formula for the cardinality of the union of *n* sets, where *n* is a positive integer.

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following: $A \cup B$

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following: (1) $A \cup B$ Solution: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following: (1) $A \cup B$ Solution: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ (2) $A \cap B$

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following: 1 $A \cup B$ Solution: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ 2 $A \cap B$ Solution: $\{4, 5\}$

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following: (1) $A \cup B$ Solution: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ (2) $A \cap B$ Solution: $\{4, 5\}$ (3) \overline{A}

```
Example: Given U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\},
A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\} solve the following:
  A \cup B
        Solution:
     \{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8\}
  A \cap B
        Solution: {4,5}
  \mathbf{B} \overline{A}
        Solution:
     \{0,6,7,8,9,10\}
```

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\},\$ $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following: $A \cup B$ $\mathbf{A} \overline{B}$ Solution: $\{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8\}$ $A \cap B$ **Solution:** {4,5} $\mathbf{B} \overline{A}$ Solution: $\{0,6,7,8,9,10\}$

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following:

 A ∪ B
 Solution: {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}

 A ∩ B
 Solution: {4,5}

 A
 Solution: {0,6,7,8,9,10}

4 B

Solution: $\{0,1,2,3,9,10\}$

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following:

 A ∪ B
 Solution: {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}

 A ∩ B
 Solution: {4,5}

 A
 Solution: {0,6,7,8,9,10}

4 *B*

Solution: {0,1,2,3,9,10} **5** *A* - *B*

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following:

 A ∪ B
 Solution: {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}
 A ∩ B
 Solution: {4,5}
 Ā
 Solution: {0,6,7,8,9,10}

4 *B*

Solution: {0,1,2,3,9,10} **5** *A* - *B* **Solution:** {1,2,3}

Review questions

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following:

 A ∪ B
 Solution: {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}
 A ∩ B
 Solution: {4,5}
 A
 Solution: {0,6,7,8,9,10}

4 *B*

Solution: {0,1,2,3,9,10} **3** A - B **Solution:** {1,2,3} **3** B - A

Review questions

Example: Given $U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ solve the following:

 A ∪ B
 Solution: {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}
 A ∩ B
 Solution: {4,5}
 A
 Solution:

 $\{0,6,7,8,9,10\}$

4 B

Solution: {0,1,2,3,9,10} **6** A - B **Solution:** {1,2,3} **6** B - A

Solution: {6,7,8}

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

1 Identity laws

$$A \cup \emptyset = A$$
 $A \cap U = A$

Identity laws

$$A \cup \emptyset = A$$
 $A \cap U = A$

Ø Domination laws

$$A \cup U = U \qquad \qquad A \cap \varnothing = \varnothing$$

1 Identity laws

$$A \cup \emptyset = A$$
 $A \cap U = A$

2 Domination laws

$$A \cup U = U$$
 $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$

Idempotent laws

$$A \cup A = A$$
 $A \cap A = A$

1 Identity laws

$$A \cup \emptyset = A$$
 $A \cap U = A$

2 Domination laws

$$A \cup U = U$$
 $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$

Idempotent laws

$$A \cup A = A$$
 $A \cap A = A$

4 Complementation law

$$(\overline{A}) = A$$

Continued on next slide \hookrightarrow

Commutative laws

$$A \cup B = B \cup A \qquad \qquad A \cap B = B \cap A$$

Commutative laws

$$A \cup B = B \cup A \qquad \qquad A \cap B = B \cap A$$

Associative laws

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C \quad A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$$

Commutative laws

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$
 $A \cap B = B \cap A$

Associative laws

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C \quad A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$$

Oistributive laws

 $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \quad A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$

Continued on next slide \hookrightarrow

De Morgan's laws

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B} \qquad \qquad \overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

• De Morgan's laws $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B} \qquad \overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Ø Absorption laws

$$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$$
 $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$

• De Morgan's laws $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B} \qquad \overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Ø Absorption laws

$$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$$
 $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$

Omplement laws

$$A \cup \overline{A} = U \qquad \qquad A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$$

Different ways to prove set identities:

1 Different ways to prove set identities:

 Prove that each set (i.e. each side of the identity) is a subset of the other.

1 Different ways to prove set identities:

- Prove that each set (i.e. each side of the identity) is a subset of the other.
- **b** Use set builder notation and propositional logic.

1 Different ways to prove set identities:

- Prove that each set (i.e. each side of the identity) is a subset of the other.
- **b** Use set builder notation and propositional logic.
- O Membership tables

(to be explained)

Example: Prove that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Example: Prove that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Solution: We prove this identity by showing that:

 $\bullet \overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Example: Prove that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

Solution: We prove this identity by showing that:

$$\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

$$\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$$

Continued on next slide \hookrightarrow

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

 $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$ by assumption

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

 $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$ $x \notin A \cap B$

by assumption definition of complement

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

$$x \in \overline{A \cap B}$$

$$x \notin A \cap B$$

$$\neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$$

by assumption definition of complement definition of intersection

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

 $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$ $x \notin A \cap B$ $\neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$ $\neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)$ by assumption definition of complement definition of intersection De Morgan's 1st Law

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

$$x \in \overline{A \cap B}$$

$$x \notin A \cap B$$

$$\neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$$

$$\neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)$$

$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$

by assumption definition of complement definition of intersection De Morgan's 1st Law definition of negation

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

$$x \in \overline{A \cap B}$$

$$x \notin A \cap B$$

$$\neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$$

$$\neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)$$

$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$

$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$

by assumption definition of complement definition of intersection De Morgan's 1st Law definition of negation definition of complement

These steps show that: $\overline{A \cap B} \subseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$

$$x \in \overline{A \cap B}$$

$$x \notin A \cap B$$

$$\neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$$

$$\neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)$$

$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$

$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$

$$x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

by assumption definition of complement definition of intersection De Morgan's 1st Law definition of negation definition of complement definition of union

Continued on next slide \hookrightarrow

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

 $x\in\overline{A}\cup\overline{B}$

by assumption

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

$$x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$

by assumption definition of union

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

$$x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$
$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$

by assumption definition of union definition of complement

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

$$x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$
$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$
$$\neg (x \in A) \lor \neg (x \in B)$$

by assumption definition of union definition of complement definition of negation

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

$$x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$

$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$

$$\neg (x \in A) \lor \neg (x \in B)$$

$$\neg ((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$$

by assumption definition of union definition of complement definition of negation De Morgan's 1st Law

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

$$x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$
$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$
$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$
$$\neg (x \in A) \lor \neg (x \in B)$$
$$\neg ((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$$
$$\neg x \in (A \cap B)$$

by assumption definition of union definition of complement definition of negation De Morgan's 1st Law definition of intersection

These steps show that: $\overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \subseteq \overline{A \cap B}$

$$x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

$$(x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})$$

$$(x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)$$

$$\neg (x \in A) \lor \neg (x \in B)$$

$$\neg ((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$$

$$\neg x \in (A \cap B)$$

$$x \in \overline{A \cap B}$$

by assumption definition of union definition of complement definition of negation De Morgan's 1st Law definition of intersection definition of complement

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$

by definition of complement

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg x \in (A \cap B)\}$$

by definition of complement by definition of 'not in'

$$\overline{A \cap B}$$
= { $x \mid x \notin A \cap B$ }by definition of complement= { $x \mid \neg x \in (A \cap B)$ }by definition of 'not in'= { $x \mid \neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))$ }by definition of intersection

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg x \in (A \cap B)\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg((x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B))\}$$

by definition of complement by definition of 'not in' by definition of intersection by De Morgan's 1st Law

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg x \in (A \cap B)\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg((x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B))\}$$
$$= \{x \mid (x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)\}$$

by definition of complement by definition of 'not in' by definition of intersection by De Morgan's 1st Law by definition of 'not'

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg x \in (A \cap B)\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg ((x \in A) \land (x \in B))\}$$
$$= \{x \mid \neg (x \in A) \lor \neg (x \in B)\}$$
$$= \{x \mid (x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)\}$$
$$= \{x \mid (x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})\}$$

by definition of complement by definition of 'not in' by definition of intersection by De Morgan's 1st Law by definition of 'not' by definition of complement

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg x \in (A \cap B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg ((x \in A) \land (x \in B))\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg (x \in A) \lor \neg (x \in B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid (x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid (x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})\}$$

$$= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}\}$$

by definition of complement by definition of 'not in' by definition of intersection by De Morgan's 1st Law by definition of 'not' by definition of complement by definition of union

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg x \in (A \cap B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg((x \in A) \land (x \in B))\}$$

$$= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A) \lor \neg(x \in B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid (x \notin A) \lor (x \notin B)\}$$

$$= \{x \mid (x \in \overline{A}) \lor (x \in \overline{B})\}$$

$$= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}\}$$

$$= \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

by definition of complement by definition of 'not in' by definition of intersection by De Morgan's 1st Law by definition of 'not' by definition of complement by definition of union by definition of notation

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1					
1	1	0					
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1				
1	1	0					
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1			
1	1	0					
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1		
1	1	0					
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
1	1	0					
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0					
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0				
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1			
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1		
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1					
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0				
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1			
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1		
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0					
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0				
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1			
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1		
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1					
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1				
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1			
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1		
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0					
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0				
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0			
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1		
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1					
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0				
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	B	C	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0			
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	B	C	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0		
0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

/	4	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
-	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
-	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
(0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
(0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
(0	0	1	0	0	0	1	
(0	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

ŀ	4	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	L	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	L	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
()	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
()	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
()	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
()	0	0					

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

,	A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
(0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
(0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
(0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
(0	0	0	0				

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0			

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0		

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

A	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

ŀ	4	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
()	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
()	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
()	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
()	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Example: Construct a membership table to show that the distributive law holds:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Α	В	С	$B \cap C$	$A \cup (B \cap C)$	$A \cup B$	$A \cup C$	$(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Plan for Part I

1. Sets

- 1.1 Defining sets
- 1.2 Venn Diagram
- 1.3 Set Equality
- 1.4 Subsets
- 1.5 Venn Diagrams and Truth Sets
- 1.6 Set Cardinality
- 1.7 Power Sets
- 1.8 Cartesian Products

2. Set Operations

- 2.1 Boolean Algebra
- 2.2 Union
- 2.3 Intersection
- 2.4 Complement
- 2.5 Difference
- 2.6 The Cardinality of the Union of Two Sets
- 2.7 Set Identities
- 2.8 Generalized Unions and Intersections

1 Let A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n be an indexed collection of sets.

Let A₁, A₂,..., A_n be an indexed collection of sets.
 We define:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$$
$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n$$

These are well defined, since union and intersection are associative.

Let A₁, A₂,..., A_n be an indexed collection of sets.
 We define:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$$
$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n$$

These are well defined, since union and intersection are associative.

2 *Example*: for (i = 1, 2, ...) let $A_i = \{i, i + 1, i + 2, ...\}$. Then,

Let A₁, A₂,..., A_n be an indexed collection of sets.
 We define:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$$
$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n$$

These are well defined, since union and intersection are associative.

2 *Example*: for (i = 1, 2, ...) let $A_i = \{i, i + 1, i + 2, ...\}$. Then,

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{i, i+1, i+2, \dots\} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_{i} = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \{i, i+1, i+2, \dots\} = \{n, n+1, n+2, \dots\} = A_{n}$$