Subset (... recall)

Theorem 1. For any set, we have

- $\varnothing \subseteq A$ for any set A
- $A \subseteq A$ for any set A

Proper subset: A \subset B "A is a proper subset of B"

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

or

 $\mathsf{A} \subset \mathsf{B} \Leftrightarrow \forall x \ (x \in \mathsf{A} \rightarrow x \in \mathsf{B}) \land \neg \forall x \ (x \in \mathsf{B} \rightarrow x \in \mathsf{A})$

Finite set and cardinality

- **Definition**. For a set S. If there are exactly *n* different elements inside S, with *n* nonnegative integer, then S is a finite set and *n* is the cardinality of S.
- Cardinality of S is expressed as |S|.

Infinite set

• **Definisi.** A set is an infinite set if the set is not a finite set

Cardinality of a Set

Example: A = {Mercedes, BMW, Porsche}, |A| = 3

 $B = \{1, \{2, 3\}, \{4, 5\}, 6\}$ |B| = 4 $C = \emptyset$ |C| = 0 $D = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid x \le 7000\}$ |D| = 7001 $E = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid x \ge 7000\}$ E infinite!

Power Set

 Definition. For a set S, power set of S is a set consisting of all subsets of S. Power set of S is written as P(S) or 2^S.

Power Set

 2^A or P(A)"power set of A" (consists of all $2^A = \{B \mid B \subseteq A\}$ subsets of A)

Example:

A = {x, y, z}

$$2^{A} = \{\emptyset, \{x\}, \{y\}, \{z\}, \{x, y\}, \{x, z\}, \{y, z\}, \{x, y, z\}\}$$

A = \emptyset
 $2^{A} = \{\emptyset\}$
Note: $|A| = 0$, $|2^{A}| = 1$

Power Set

Cardinality of power set:

 $|2^{A}| = 2^{|A|}$

- Imagine every element of A has 2 possibilities "ON/OFF"
- Every possible configuration of A corresponds to one element in the power set 2^A

А	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х
у	у	у	у	у	у	у	у	у
Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z

• For A with 3 elements, there are $2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$ elements in 2^A

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Ordered n-tupel

Definisi. An ordered n-tuple $(a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_n)$ is an ordered collection with a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, ..., and a_n as its n^{th} element.

Two ordered n-tupels $(a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_n)$ and $(b_1, b_2, b_3, ..., b_n)$ are equal if and only if both have exactly the same elements and with the same order, i.e., $a_i = b_i$ for $1 \le i \le n$.

For n=2, this n-tupel is called as ordered pair.

Cartesian Multiplication

Definition. Suppose that A and B are sets. Cartesian multiplication of A and B, written as A×B, is all ordered pairs (a,b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Therefore,

 $A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \land b \in B\}$

Example

 $\label{eq:A} \begin{array}{l} \mathsf{A} = \{ \mathsf{x}, \, \mathsf{y} \} \\ \mathsf{B} = \{ \mathsf{a}, \, \mathsf{b}, \, \mathsf{c} \} \\ \mathsf{Hence} \\ \mathsf{A} \times \mathsf{B} = \{ (\mathsf{x}, \, \mathsf{a}), \, (\mathsf{x}, \, \mathsf{b}), \, (\mathsf{x}, \, \mathsf{c}), \, (\mathsf{y}, \, \mathsf{a}), \\ (\mathsf{y}, \, \mathsf{b}), \, (\mathsf{y}, \, \mathsf{c}) \} \end{array}$

Cartesian Multiplication

Note that:

- $A \times \emptyset = \emptyset$
- Ø×A = Ø
- For nonempty sets A and B : $A \neq B \Leftrightarrow A \times B \neq B \times A$
- $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$

Cartesian multiplication of two sets or more is defined as:

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

Union and Intersection Sets

- **Definition.** Suppose A and B are sets. The union of sets A and B, written as A∪B, is the set containing elements of A, elements of B, or both.
- Definition. Suppose A and B are sets. The intersection of sets A and B, written as A∩B, is a set containing elements that are both in A and B.

Union: $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$

Example: A = {a, b}, B = {b, c, d}
$$A \cup B = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

Intersection:
$$A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

Example:
$$A = \{a, b\}, B = \{b, c, d\}$$

 $A \cap B = \{b\}$

Disjoint Sets and Set Difference

•**Definition.** Two sets, A and B, is said disjoint if their intersection is an empty set, that is $A \cap B = \emptyset$

•**Definition.** Consider two sets A and B. The set difference between A and B, written as A-B, is the set of elements that are in A but not in B. Hence, $A-B = \{x \mid x \in A \land x \notin B\}$. This is also called complement of B w.r.t. A.

Example: $A = \{a, b\}, B = \{b, c, d\}, A-B = \{a\}$

Definition. Complement of the set A, written as <u>A</u>, is the set containing all elements in the domain U that are not in A:

Example: U = N, B = {250, 251, 252, ...}

$$\underline{B} = \{0, 1, 2, ..., 248, 249\}$$

How to prove $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$?

Alternative I:

 $\begin{array}{l} x \in A \cup (B \cap C) \\ \Leftrightarrow x \in A \lor x \in (B \cap C) \\ \Leftrightarrow x \in A \lor (x \in B \land x \in C) \\ \Leftrightarrow (x \in A \lor x \in B) \land (x \in A \lor x \in C) \\ \quad (distributive \ law \ for \ mathematical \ logic) \\ \Leftrightarrow x \in (A \cup B) \land x \in (A \cup C) \\ \Leftrightarrow x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) \end{array}$

Alternative II: Use members table 1 means "*x* is a member of this set" 0 berarti "*x* is not an elements of this set"

Α	В	С	B∩C	A∪(B∩C)	A∪B	A∪C	(A∪B) ∩(A∪C)
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

From the examples given, we conclude that:

Every logic expression can be transformed into an equivalent expression in set theory, vice versa.

Problem

- Given two finite sets: A={1,2} and B={2,3,4}.
 Calculate:
 - a) |A| and |B|
 - b) P(A) and P(B)
 - c) |P(A)| and |P(B)|
 - d) A×B
 - e) |A×B|
 - f) $A \cap B$, A-B, and $A \cup B$

Definition. A function *f* from set A to set B assigns exactly one element of **B to each element of A**. We write

$$f(a) = b$$

where for every element in A, there exists a unique element in B.

If f is a function from A to B, we write f: $A \rightarrow B$

(Note, notation " \rightarrow " is not related to the implication logical operator : if.... then...)

Given f:A \rightarrow B, we say A as the *domain* of f and B as the *codomain* of f.

If f(a) = b, we say b as the *image* of a and a as the *pre-image* of b.

Range of $f:A \rightarrow B$ is a set containing all images of the elements of A.

We say $f:A \rightarrow B$ maps A to B.

Note the function f: $P \rightarrow C$ where

- P = {Linda, Max, Kathy, Peter}
- C = {Boston, New York, Hong Kong, Moscow}
- f(Linda) = Moscow
- f(Max) = Boston
- f(Kathy) = Hong Kong
- f(Peter) = New York

Here, the range of f is C.

Suppose *f* is given as:

f(Linda) = Moscow f(Max) = Boston f(Kathy) = Hong Kong f(Peter) = Boston

Is *f* still a funciton? yes

What is the *range*? {Moscow, Boston, Hong Kong}

Other representation of f:

Х	f(x)	Linda Boston
Linda	Moscow	Max New York
Max	Boston	
Kathy	Hong Kong	Kathy Hong Kong
Peter	Boston	Peter Moscow

If the domain of a function is very large, it is better to define *f* by a formula, example:

 $f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ $f(\mathbf{x}) = 2\mathbf{x}$

which results in

$$f(1) = 2$$

 $f(3) = 6$
 $f(-3) = -6$

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. . .

Kuliah-3

Suppose f_1 and f_2 are functions from A to **R**.

Then the summation and multiplication of f_1 and f_2 are also functions from A to **R** defined as:

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x)$$

 $(f_1f_2)(x) = f_1(x) f_2(x)$

Example:

$$f_1(x) = 3x, f_2(x) = x + 5$$

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) = 3x + x + 5 = 4x + 5$$

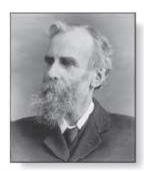
$$(f_1f_2)(x) = f_1(x) f_2(x) = 3x (x + 5) = 3x^2 + 15x$$

We know that *range* of a function $f:A \rightarrow B$ is the set of all images from the elements $a \in A$.

If we only consider the subset $S \subseteq A$, the set of all images from the elements $s \in S$ is the image of S.

Image of S is denoted as f(S): $f(S) = \{f(s) \mid s \in S\}$

Mathematician of the day



JOHN VENN (1834–1923) John Venn was born into a London suburban family noted for its philanthropy. He attended London schools and got his mathematics degree from Caius College, Cambridge, in 1857. He was elected a fellow of this college and held his fellowship there until his death. He took holy orders in 1859 and, after a brief stint of religious work, returned to Cambridge, where he developed programs in the moral sciences. Besides his mathematical work, Venn had an interest in history and wrote extensively about his college and family.

Venn's book *Symbolic Logic* clarifies ideas originally presented by Boole. In this book, Venn presents a systematic development of a method that uses geometric figures, known now as *Venn diagrams*. Today these diagrams are primarily used to analyze logical arguments and to illustrate relationships between sets. In addition

to his work on symbolic logic, Venn made contributions to probability theory described in his widely used textbook on that subject.