### Section 2.2 Set Operations

Propositional calculus and set theory are both instances of an algebraic system called a

Boolean Algebra.

The operators in set theory are defined in terms of the corresponding operator in propositional calculus

As always there must be a universe U. All sets are assumed to be subsets of U

**Definition:** Two sets A and B are *equal*, denoted A = B, iff

x[x A x B].

Note: By a previous logical equivalence we have

 $A = B \text{ iff } x[(x \ A \ x \ B) \ (x \ B \ x \ A)]$ 

or

 $A = B \text{ iff } A \quad B \text{ and } B \quad A$ 

## **Definitions:**

• The *union* of A and B, denoted A B, is the set

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

• The *intersection* of A and B, denoted A B, is the set  $\{x \mid x A x B\}$ 

Note: If the intersection is void, A and B are said to be *disjoint*.

• The *complement* of A, denoted  $\overline{A}$ , is the set

$$\{x \mid \neg (x \ A)\}$$

Note: Alternative notation is  $A^c$ , and  $\{x | x | A\}$ .

• The *difference* of A and B, or the *complement* of B *relative to* A, denoted A - B, is the set

### $A \overline{B}$

Note: The (absolute) complement of A is U - A.

• The *symmetric difference* of A and B, denoted *A B*, is the set

$$(A-B) \quad (B-A)$$

Examples: U = 
$$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$
  
A=  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , B =  $\{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ . Then  
• A B =  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$   
• A B =  $\{4, 5\}$   
•  $\overline{A} = \{0, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$   
•  $\overline{B} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 9, 10\}$   
• A - B =  $\{1, 2, 3\}$   
• B - A =  $\{6, 7, 8\}$   
• A B =  $\{1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8\}$ 

# Venn Diagrams

A useful geometric visualization tool (for 3 or less sets)

- The Universe U is the rectangular box
- Each set is represented by a circle and its interior

• All possible combinations of the sets must be represented









Shade the appropriate region to represent the given set operation.

# Set Identities

Set identities correspond to the logical equivalences.

Example:

The complement of the union is the intersection of the complements:

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

Proof: To show:

$$x[x \quad \overline{A \quad B} \quad x \quad \overline{A} \quad \overline{B}]$$

To show two sets are equal we show for all x that x is a member of one set if and only if it is a member of the other.

We now apply an important *rule of inference* (defined later) called

#### Universal Instantiation

In a proof we can eliminate the universal quantifier which binds a variable if we do not assume anything about the variable other than it is an arbitrary member of the Universe. We can then treat the resulting predicate as a proposition.

We say

'Let x be arbitrary.'

<u>Then</u> we can treat the predicates as propositions:

	Assertion	Reason
x	$\overline{A \ B}  x  [A \ B]$	Def. of complement
x	$A  B  \neg [x  A  B]$	Def. of
	$\neg [x \ A \ x \ B]$	Def. of union
	$\neg x  A  \neg x  B$	DeMorgan's Laws
	x A x B	Def. of
	$x \overline{A} x \overline{B}$	Def. of complement
	$x \overline{A} \overline{B}$	Def. of intersection

Hence

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

is a tautology.

Since

• x was arbitrary

• we have used only logically equivalent assertions and definitions

we can apply another rule of inference called

### Universal Generalization

We can apply a universal quantifier to bind a variable if we have shown the predicate to be true for all values of the variable in the Universe.

and claim the assertion is true for all x, i.e.,

 $x[x \quad \overline{A \quad B} \quad x \quad \overline{A} \quad \overline{B}]$ 

Q. E. D. (an abbreviation for the Latin phrase "Quod Erat Demonstrandum" - "which was to be demonstrated" used to signal the end of a proof)

Note: As an alternative which might be easier in some cases, use the identity

A = B [A B and B A]

Example:

Show  $A \quad (B-A) =$ 

The void set is a subset of every set. Hence,

$$A \quad (B-A)$$

Therefore, it suffices to show

$$A \quad (B-A)$$

or

$$x[x \quad A \quad (B-A) \quad x \quad ]$$

So as before we say 'let x be arbitrary'.

Show

is a tautology.

But the consequent is always false.

Therefore, the antecedent better always be false also.

Apply the definitions:

AssertionReason $x \ A \ (B-A) \ x \ A \ x \ (B-A)$ Def. of $x \ A \ (x \ B \ x \ A)$ Def. of $(x \ A \ x \ A) \ x \ B$ Props of 'and' $0 \ x \ B$ Table 6 $0 \ x \ B$ Domination

Hence, because  $P \neg P$  is always false, the implication is a tautology.

The result follows by Universal Generalization.

Q. E. D.

Prepared by: David F. McAllister

#### **Union and Intersection of Indexed Collections**

Let  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$  be an indexed collection of sets.

Union and intersection are associative (because 'and' and 'or' are) we have:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = A_1 \qquad A_2 \qquad \dots \qquad A_n$$

and

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \qquad A_2 \qquad \dots \qquad A_n$$

Examples:

Let

$$A_{i} = [i, \ ), 1 \quad i <$$
$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i} = [1, \ )$$
$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_{i} = [n, \ )$$