Question 2: D is the set of all students

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E(s): "s is an engineering student."

"There is an engineering student who is a math major."

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$$\exists s, t \in D, (C(s) \land E(s)) \land (C(t) \land \neg E(t))$$

# MTH314: Discrete Mathematics for Engineers

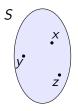
Lecture 3: Set Theory and Pigeonhole Principle

Dr Ewa Infeld

Ryerson Univesity

25 January 2017

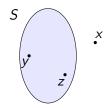
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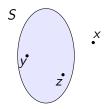
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A set is a collection of objects that obeys Axioms of Set Theory. It is determined by the elements that belong to it.



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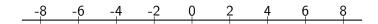
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A set is a collection of objects that obeys Axioms of Set Theory. It is determined by the elements that belong to it.

Axiom of Extensionality: We think of two sets that have the same elements as the same set.

#### Example:

The set of natural numbers that are multiples of 2, and the set of even numbers are the same set.



Why does it matter? If two different programs compute the same thing, are they the same program?



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 $x \in S$  reads as "x is an element of S." or "x belongs to S."  $x \notin S$  reads as "x is not an element of S." or "x does not belong to S."

If the set S is a set of breakfast options, and you can pick eggs, oatmeal or fruit, we use this notation:

$$S = \{ \text{eggs, oatmeal, fuit} \}$$

Sometimes we see ":=" as in,  $S := \{eggs, oatmeal, fuit\}$ . This usually happens when you define something. You can think of a parallel with programming - the first time you declare S to be something ( $S := \{eggs, oatmeal, fuit\}$ ), vs when you simply state a fact about S, ( $S = \{eggs, oatmeal, fuit\}$ .) You don't always need to "declare" it in math though.

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 $T \subseteq S$  reads as "T is a subset of S." It means that every element of T is also an element of S

$$T \subseteq S \leftrightarrow \forall t \in T, \ \exists s \in S, \ t = s$$

$$\forall t \in T, \ t \in S$$

 $T \not\subseteq S$  means T is not a subset of S, i.e. some element in T is not an element in S.

$$T \nsubseteq S \leftrightarrow \exists t \in T, \ \forall s \in S, \ t \neq s$$

$$\exists t \in T, \ t \notin S$$

If we write T = S, we say T and S are equal, so

$$T = S \leftrightarrow (T \subseteq S) \land (S \subseteq T).$$



If we write  $T \subset S$ , we say T is a subset of S AND it is not equal to S. Notice that,  $T \subset S \leftrightarrow (T \subseteq S) \land (S \not\subseteq T)$ . Then T is a strict or proper subset of S.

If T is a subset of S, then S is a superset of T.

#### Example:

$$T = \{ t \in \mathbb{Z} \mid s = 12n + 6 \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$
  
$$S = \{ s \in \mathbb{Z} \mid s = 6m \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

Then  $T \subseteq S$ , but  $S \not\subseteq T$ .

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Proof outline: If t = 12n + 6, then t = 6(2n + 1). So  $m = 2n + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$  exists, and  $t \in S$ . On the other hand,  $12 \in S$  is not of the form 12n + 6 for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

#### Some Useful Sets

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

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

Every natural number is an integer:

$$\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$$

But there exist integers that are not natural numbers, like -1:

$$\mathbb{N}\subset\mathbb{Z}$$

```
■ \{0, 1, 314\}

■ \emptyset = \{\} (the empty set)

■ \{0\}

■ \{\{\}, \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, \{0\}\}

■ \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \text{ is a multiple of } 314\}

■ \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \exists p, \ (p \text{ is prime } \land (x = p + p^2))

■ \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}
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The size of a set is the number of elements in the set.

	size
<b>(</b> 0,1,314)	3
$lack \emptyset = \{\}$ (the empty set)	0
<b>•</b> {0}	1
<b>\ </b> \{\{\},\{0,1,2,3\},\{0\}\}	3
	$\infty$
	$\infty$
$ \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1 \} $	$\infty$

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The size of a set is the number of elements in the set. Sets with a finite number of elements are called finite. Sets with an infinite number of elements are called infinite.

	size
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<b>•</b> {0}	FINITE 1
<b>\ </b> \{\{\},\{0,1,2,3\},\{0\}\}	FINITE 3
$\blacksquare \ \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \text{ is a multiple of 314}\}$	$INFINITE \; \infty$
	$INFINITE \; \infty$
$  ((x,y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1 ) $	$INFINITE \; \infty$

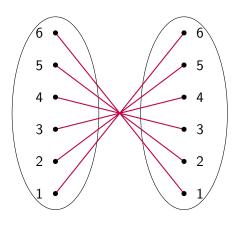
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A relation is the truth set of a predicate that takes two inputs.

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	( <mark>6,1</mark> )	$S = T = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
2	(1,2)	( <mark>2,2</mark> )	( <mark>3,2</mark> )	( <mark>4,2</mark> )	( <mark>5,2</mark> )	( <mark>6,2</mark> )	
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	( <mark>4,3</mark> )	( <mark>5,3</mark> )	( <mark>6,3</mark> )	$(x,y) \in S \times T$
4	(1,4)	( <mark>2,4</mark> )	(3,4)	( <mark>4,4</mark> )	(5, <mark>4</mark> )	( <mark>6,4</mark> )	
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4, <u>5</u> )	( <mark>5,5</mark> )	( <mark>6,5</mark> )	P(x,y): x+y=7
6	( <mark>1,6</mark> )	(2,6)	( <mark>3,6</mark> )	( <mark>4,6</mark> )	( <mark>5,6</mark> )	( <mark>6,6</mark> )	

A relation is the truth set of a predicate that takes two inputs.

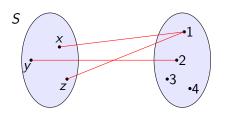


$$S = T = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$(x,y) \in S \times T$$

$$P(x, y): x + y = 7$$

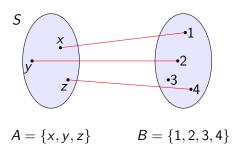
A relation is the truth set of a predicate that takes two inputs. A relation could be a function or a map from A to B as long as every element in set A "goes" to exactly one element in the set B.



$$A = \{x, y, z\} \qquad B =$$

$$B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

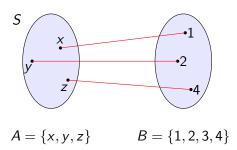
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A function/map from A to B that only assigns at most one element of A to each element of B is called one-to-one (1-1).

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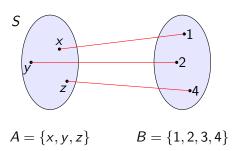
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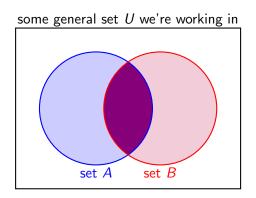
A function/map from A to B that is both one-to-one (1-1) and onto is called a bijection.

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# Venn Diagrams

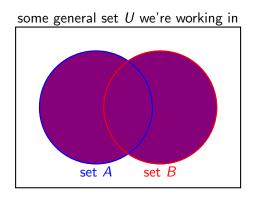
some general set U we're working in  $\underbrace{ \text{set } A \text{ set } B}$ 

# Venn Diagrams



The intersection of A and B  $A \cap B$  is the set of elements that belong to both sets.

### Venn Diagrams



The intersection of A and B

 $A \cap B$ 

is the set of elements that belong to both sets.

The union of A and B

 $A \cup B$ 

is the set of elements that belong to at least one of the two sets.

Intersection:

$$A \cap B$$

The set of elements  $x \in U$  such that  $x \in A$  and  $x \in B$ .

Union:

$$A \cup B$$

The set of elements  $x \in U$  such that  $x \in A$  or  $x \in B$ .

Complement:

$$A^{C}$$

The set of elements  $x \in U$  such that  $x \notin A$ .

Set difference:

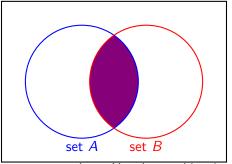
$$A - B$$

The set of elements  $x \in U$  such that  $x \in A$  and  $x \notin B$ .

Intersection:

 $A \cap B$ 

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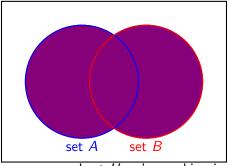


some general set *U* we're working in

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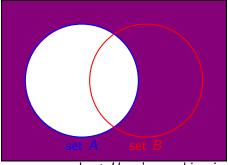


some general set U we're working in

#### Complement:

 $A^{C}$ 

The set of elements  $x \in U$  such that  $x \notin A$ .



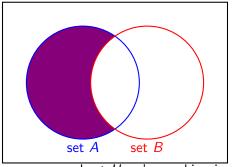
some general set U we're working in

### Operations on Sets

Set difference:

$$A - B$$

The set of elements  $x \in U$  such that  $x \in A$  and  $x \notin B$ .



some general set *U* we're working in

### Observations

For all sets A, B over a universal set U we have:

$$A \cup B = B \cup A \text{ and } A \cap B = B \cap A$$

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

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

$$A \cap B \subseteq B$$

$$(A \subseteq B) \land (B \subseteq C) \rightarrow (A \subseteq C)$$

### Observations

For a universal set U, and sets A and B in U:

- a)  $A \cup U = U$
- b)  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- c)  $(A^{C})^{C} = A$
- d)  $(A \cup B)^C = A^C \cap B^C \leftarrow \text{DeMorgan's Laws!}$
- e)  $(A \cap B)^C = A^C \cup B^C \leftarrow DeMorgan's Laws!$
- f)  $U^C = \emptyset$
- g)  $\emptyset^C = U$
- h)  $A \cup A^C = U$
- i)  $A \cap A^C = \emptyset$

Notice that these work very similarly to relations in propositional logic. Can you explain why?



Proving that two sets are equal, or one is a subset of the other.

To prove that two sets A and B are equal we need both  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ . So we need to show that

- Every element of A is also in B.
- $\blacksquare$  Every element of B is also in A.

There are two types of such problems you might see.

- **1** A set identity, for example  $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ .
- 2 You may be given definitions of two sets, for example:

$$A = \{ m \in \mathbb{N} \mid \exists t \in \mathbb{N}, \ m = 6t \}$$
  
$$B = \{ n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \exists r, s \in \mathbb{N}, \ n = 2r = 3s \}$$

We will now see proofs in these two cases.

### Proving a set identity

Let A, B be subsets of some unversal set U. Show that

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

Proof: First we need to show that if  $x \in A \cup (A \cap B)$ , then  $x \in A$ . Set union acts like an "or" statement, so we know that at least one of  $x \in A$  or  $x \in (A \cap B)$  has to be true. If it's the former, we're done. If the latter, we have  $(A \cap B) \subseteq A$  and we're also done.

Now we need to show that if  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in A \cup (A \cap B)$ . As in an "or" statement, it's enough if one of  $x \in A$  or  $x \in (A \cap B)$  is true, so we're done!

# Proving a set identity (using contradiction)

Let A, B be subsets of some unversal set U. Show that

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

Proof: First we need to show that if  $x \in A \cup (A \cap B)$ , then  $x \in A$ . Suppose for contradiction that  $x \notin A$ .  $x \in A \cup (A \cap B)$  means "either  $x \in A$  or  $x \in (A \cap B)$ . We assumed that  $x \notin A$ , so we're left with the  $x \in (A \cap B)$  option. But since  $A \cap B \subseteq A$  by definition, that is also imposssible! We arrive at a contradiction and conclude that  $A \cup (A \cap B) \subseteq A$ .

Now we need to show that if  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in A \cup (A \cap B)$ . As in an "or" statement, it's enough if one of  $x \in A$  or  $x \in (A \cap B)$  is true, so we're done!

# Proving inclusion (from set definitions)

#### Let:

$$A = \{ m \in \mathbb{N} \mid \exists t \in \mathbb{N}, \ m = 6t \}$$

$$B = \{ n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \exists r, s \in \mathbb{N}, \ n = 2r = 3s \}$$
We want to show that  $A \subseteq B$ .

Proof: We want to show that for any  $m \in A$ , we have  $m \in B$ . So take any  $m \in A$ . There exists  $t \in \mathbb{N}$  such that m = 6t. Then m = 2(3t), so 3t can serve as r and m = 3(2t), so 2t can serve as s. Therefore  $m \in B$  for any  $m \in B$ , and so  $A \subseteq B$ .

How would you show that  $B \subseteq A$ ?

# Proving inclusion (from set definitions)

#### Let:

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s. Therefore  $m \in B$  for any  $m \in B$ , and so  $A \subseteq B$ .

How would you show that  $B \subseteq A$ ? We'll get to that when we do number theory. (Or induction.)

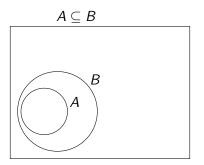
Let A, B, C be any sets in a universal set U.

$$A \subseteq B \land B \subseteq C^C \to A \cap C = \emptyset$$

What does this say?

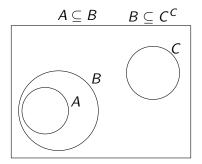
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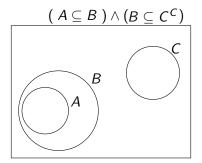
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$$A\subseteq B\wedge B\subseteq C^C\to A\cap C=\emptyset$$

Proof: Assumptions:

$$A \subseteq B$$
,  $B \subseteq C^C$ 

Want:

$$\neg \exists x \in U, (x \in A) \land (x \in C)$$

Suppose that  $x \in A$ . Then since  $A \subseteq B$  is true,  $x \in B$ . But then by  $B \subseteq C^C$ , we have  $x \in C^C$  and therefore,  $x \notin C$ . We get that if  $x \in A$ , then  $\neg(x \in C)$  and therefore  $(x \in A) \land (x \in C)$  is false.  $\square$ 

## Disjoint Sets

Two sets A and B are disjoint if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

Which of these are pairs of disjoint sets?

- Odd and even integers.
- Odd integers and the empty set.
- Even integers and prime numbers.
- Positive numbers and negative numbers.
- Odd numbers and perfect squares.
- Socks and trees.

For every set A, the power set  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  of A is the set of subsets of A.

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For every set A, the power set  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  of A is the set of subsets of A.

Example: Let  $A = \{0, 1\}$ . The possible subsets of A are:



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- **(0)**
- **1**
- **(**0,1)

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Example: Let  $A = \{0, 1\}$ . The possible subsets of A are:

- **(0)**
- **1**
- **(0,1)**

Suppose you have a set B with  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  elements. How many elements does  $\mathcal{P}(B)$  have?

For every set A, the power set  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  of A is the set of subsets of A.

Example: Let  $A = \{0, 1\}$ . The possible subsets of A are:

- **Ø**
- **(0)**
- **1**
- **(**0,1)

Suppose you have a set B with  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  elements. How many elements does  $\mathcal{P}(B)$  have?

 $2^k$ 

Every element can either be in a subset or not. You can encode the subset in a string of k bits. There are  $2^k$  different strings of k bits.

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<b>(</b> 0)	10
<b>1</b>	01
<b>(</b> 0,1)	11

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### Set Partition

Example: 
$$U = \{1,2,...,10\}$$
  
 $A = \{2,4,6,8,10\}, B = \{1\}, C = \{3,5,7,9\}$ 

#### **Definition:**

Sets  $A_1, A_2, ...$  (possibly infinite) are a **partition** of a set A, if

- (a) they are mutually disjoint
- (b) their union is equal U.



#### **Example:** Universal set $\mathbb{Z}$ . Sets

$$A_0 = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}: \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, x = 3k\}$$

$$A_1 = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}: \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, x = 3k + 1\}$$

$$A_2 = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}: \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, x = 3k + 2\}$$

form a partition of  $\mathbb{Z}$ .



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MTH314: Discrete Mathematics for Engineers

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Pigeonhole Principle: If we partition a set of  $n+1 \in \mathbb{N}$  elements into n parts, at least one part will have at least two elements.

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Pigeonhole Principle: If we partition a set of  $n+1 \in \mathbb{N}$  elements into n parts, at least one part will have at least two elements.

If you have a drawer full of unpaired socks, and they come in 4 different colors, how many at least do you need to pull out to be sure you have a matching pair?

In Show that if seven distinct numbers are selected from  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11\}$ , then some two of these numbers sum up to 12.

- I Show that if seven distinct numbers are selected from  $\{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11\}$ , then some two of these numbers sum up to 12.
- Show that any collection of eight distinct integers contains distinct integers x and y such that x y is a multiple of 7.

4 D > 4 A > 4 B > 4 B > B 9 Q Q

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- Show that any collection of eight distinct integers contains distinct integers x and y such that x-y is a multiple of 7.

What if the "distinct" condition wasn't there?