AweSums

Marvels and Mysteries of Mathematics • LECTURE 3

Peter Lynch School of Mathematics & Statistics University College Dublin

Evening Course, UCD, Autumn 2021



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Outline

Introduction

- The Nippur Tablet
- **Cutting the Plane**
- Set Theory II
- **Greek Alphabet**
- **Counting Infinite Sets**
- **Distraction 2B: Books**



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Outline

Introduction

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- **Cutting the Plane**
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Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Meaning and Content of Mathematics

The word Mathematics comes from Greek $\mu\alpha\theta\eta\mu\alpha$ (máthéma), meaning "knowledge" or "lesson" or "learning".

It is the study of topics such as

- Quantity (numbers)
- Structure (patterns)
- Space (geometry)
- Change (analysis).



NipTab

Sets 2

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Greek

Outline

Introduction

The Nippur Tablet

Cutting the Plane

Set Theory II

Greek Alphabet

Counting Infinite Sets

Distraction 2B: Books



Intro

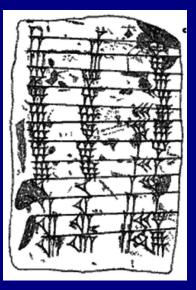
Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02



What is the last line?



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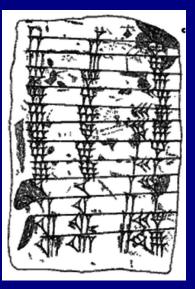
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Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets



What is the last line? The last line states that

 $13 \times 13 = 2 \times 60 + 49 = 169$



Intro

Cutting

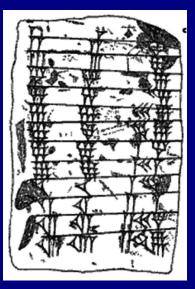
Sets 2

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Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02



What is the last line? The last line states that

 $13 \times 13 = 2 \times 60 + 49 = 169$

But it could be

 $13{\times}13=2{\times}60^2{+}40{\times}60{+}9$

which comes to 9609. Babylonian numeration is ambiguous.

There is no zero!



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

What purpose could the Nippur Tablet have had? What use could there be for a list of squares?



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST0

- What purpose could the Nippur Tablet have had?
- What use could there be for a list of squares?
- Perhaps it was used for multiplication!
- After a brief refresher on school maths, we show how this can be done.



NipTab

Sets 2

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Greek

How do we do multiplication of binomials

 $(a+b) \times (c+d)$?



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

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How do we do multiplication of binomials

 $(a+b) \times (c+d)$?

This can be evaluated by expanding twice:

 $a \cdot (c+d) + b \cdot (c+d) = a \cdot c + a \cdot d + b \cdot c + b \cdot d$



Intro

Sets 2

Gr

Greek

Inf Sets

How do we do multiplication of binomials

 $(a+b) \times (c+d)$?

This can be evaluated by expanding twice:

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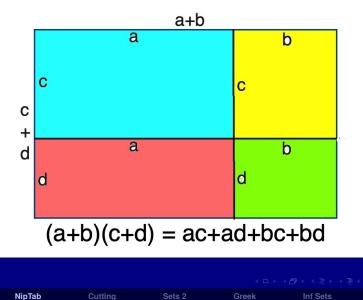
A special case where the two factors are equal:

 $(a+b) \cdot (a+b) = a \cdot a + a \cdot b + b \cdot a + b \cdot b$ so that $(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$



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Geometric Reasoning



Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Let *a* and *b* be any two numbers:

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

 $(a - b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Let *a* and *b* be any two numbers:

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

 $(a - b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$

Subtracting, we get

$$(a+b)^2 - (a-b)^2 = 4ab$$



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST

Let a and b be any two numbers:

$$(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

 $(a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$

Subtracting, we get

$$(a+b)^2 - (a-b)^2 = 4ab$$

Thus, we can find the product using squares:

$$ab = \frac{1}{4} \left[(a+b)^2 - (a-b)^2 \right]$$

Every product is the difference of two squares $(\div 4)$.



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

$$\frac{1}{4}\left[(a+b)^2-(a-b)^2\right]=ab$$

Let us take a particular example: $37 \times 13 = ?$

a = 37 b = 13 a + b = 50 a - b = 24.



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST

$$\frac{1}{4}\bigg[(a+b)^2-(a-b)^2\bigg]=ab$$

Let us take a particular example: $37 \times 13 = ?$

$$a = 37$$
 $b = 13$ $a + b = 50$ $a - b = 24$.

$$\frac{1}{4}[50^2 - 24^2] = \frac{1}{4}[2500 - 576]$$

= $\frac{1}{4}[1924]$
= 481
= 37×13 .

Perhaps this was the function of the Nippur tablet.

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Cutting

NipTab



Practicalities in Babylon

$$ab=\frac{1}{4}\left[(a+b)^2-(a-b)^2\right]$$

Suppose it was important to be able to multiply numbers up to, say, 100.

A full multiplication table would have 10,000 entries. With 20 products on each tablet, this would mean 500 clay tablets!

A table of squares up to 200 would require only 10 clay tablets.



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

How do we calculate

 $a^2 - b^2$?



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

How do we calculate

$$a^2 - b^2$$
?

In school we may learn that

$$a^{2}-b^{2}=(a+b)*(a-b)$$

But can we make this understandable?

Yes: using pictures.

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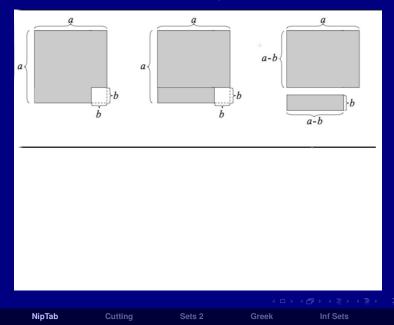
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Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

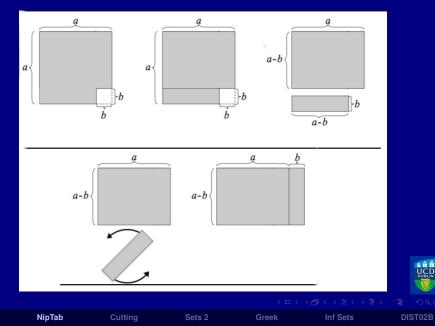
A Pictorial Proof (a > b)



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Intro

A Pictorial Proof



Intro

Outline

Introduction

- The Nippur Tablet
- **Cutting the Plane**
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Intro

NipTab

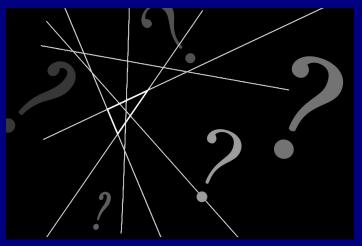
Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Digression: A Simple Puzzle



Six random lines. How many regions?



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02E

A Problem of Jakob Steiner



Jakob Steiner (1796-1863)

What is the <u>maximum</u> number of parts into which a plane can be divided by *n* straight lines?



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Solving a Simple Puzzle

George Pólya, a famous Hungarian mathematician, wrote a book called

How to Solve It.

He gave many helpful tips for solving problems.

One of the key rules was:

If you cannot solve a problem, Try to solve a simpler problem.

Let's do some Experimental Mathematics.



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST

Technical Restrictions

The lines must be in a generic configuration:

- All the lines are distinct.
- No two lines can be parallel.
- No point is on more than two lines.

If these restrictions are violated, a minute perturbation will be sufficient to remove the problem so that they are satisfied.



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

No Lines: 1 Region.



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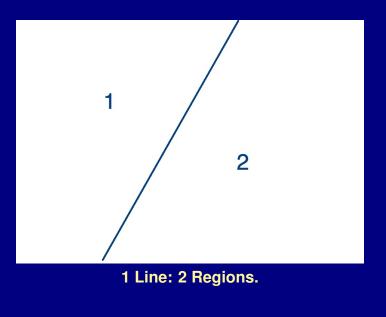
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Cutting

Set

Greek

Inf Sets





Intro

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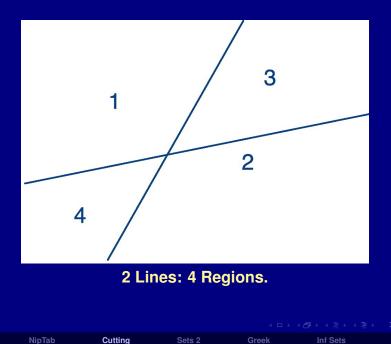
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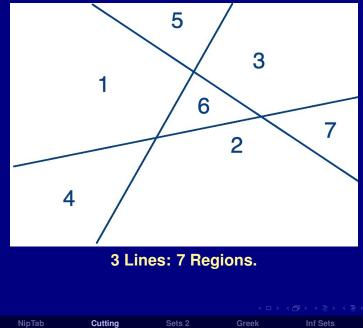
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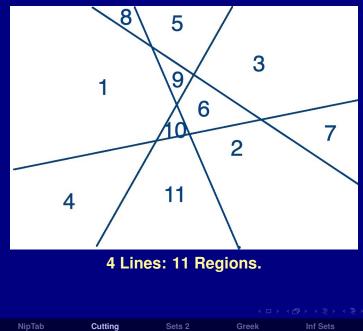


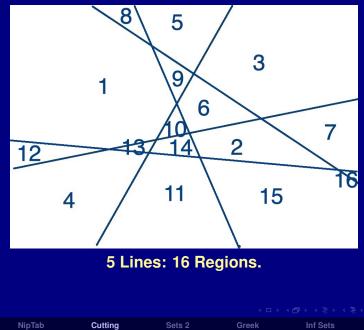
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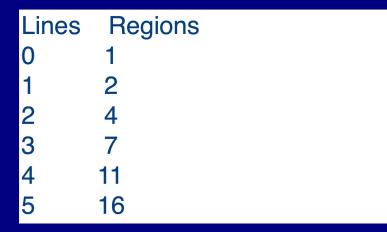


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Finding a Pattern





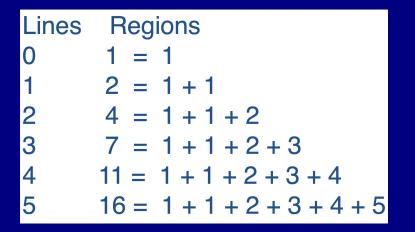
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Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Finding a Pattern





Intro

Sets 2

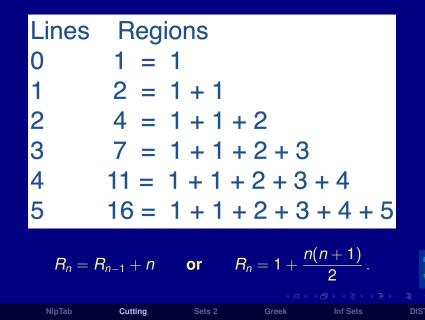
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Inf Sets

DIST0

Finding a Pattern

Intro



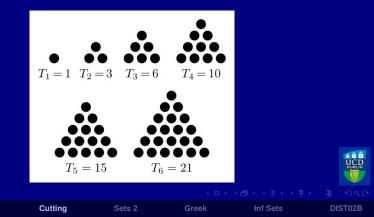
Triangular Numbers

Numbers of the form

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$$T_n = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n$$

are called triangular numbers:



Triangular Numbers

$$2T_4 = 4(4+1)$$
 (green+yellow) $T_4 = \frac{4(4+1)}{2} = 10$.

Triangular Numbers



 $T_4 + T_5 = 5 \times 5$ (yellow+green).

$$T_{n-1}+T_n=n^2$$



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST0

Proving the Pattern: Heuristic Argument We have found a pattern for the number of regions:

$$R_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + 1 = \left(\frac{n^2 + n + 2}{2}\right)$$

But we have not proved it mathematically. Perhaps it breaks down for larger *n*.

We will not give a formal proof, but just an argument that suggests the formula is correct.

Suppose we have n - 1 lines. The *n*-th line has to cross each one of the other lines. It also has to extend in both directions.





Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Consequences of the Pattern

We have found a pattern for the number of regions:

 $R_n=R_{n-1}+n.$

Is this of any practical importance?

Perhaps not. But you might consider the following problem to be of interest:

How many pieces of cake can you get by making *n* straight slices?

This leads us to the Lazy Caterer's Sequence.



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

The Lazy Caterer's Sequence

Also known as the central polygonal numbers.

The maximum number of pieces of a disk (cake, pancake or pizza) that can be made with a given number of straight cuts.

Three cuts produce six pieces if the cuts all meet at a common point, but up to seven if they don't.

 $1, 2, 4, 7, 11, 16, 22, 29, 37, 46, 56, 67, 79, 92, 106, \dots$ See oeis.org



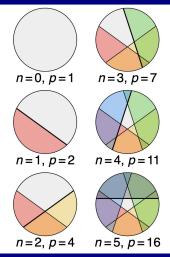
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Greek

Inf Sets

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The Pitfalls of Generalizing





Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

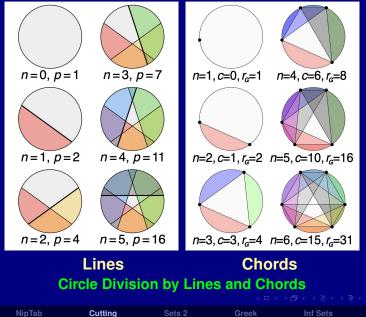
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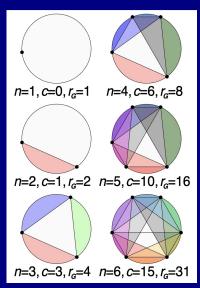
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The Pitfalls of Generalizing



The Pitfalls of Generalizing



Circle Division by Chords.

The sequence begins

 $1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \ldots$

It is tempting to assume the number of regions is

 $R_n = n^2$

for all values of n.

But this formula breaks down for n = 6.



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST

Outline

Introduction

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- **Distraction 2B: Books**



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

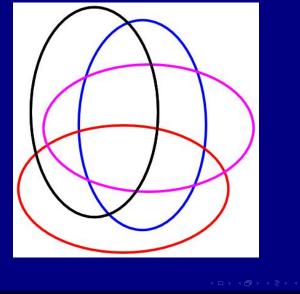
Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

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Venn Diagram for 4 Sets





Intro

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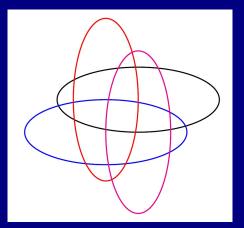
Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

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Venn-4 Diagram: Symmetric





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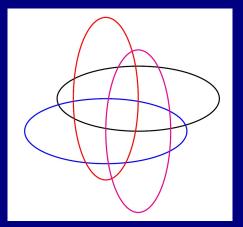
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Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Venn-4 Diagram: Symmetric



Challenge: Construct a symmetric Venn-4 diagram.



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

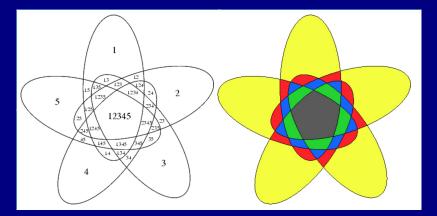
Sets 2

Greek

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Inf Sets

Venn Diagram for 5 Sets





Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

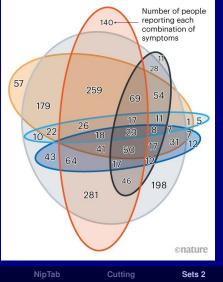
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Inf Sets

TRACKING SYMPTOMS

On 7 April, around 60% of app users who tested positive for COVID-19 and reported symptoms had lost their sense of smell.

- Anosmia (loss of smell) Cough Fatigue
- Diarrhoea Shortness of breath Fever



From Science journal *Nature.*

A diagram that is very poorly designed and difficult to understand.

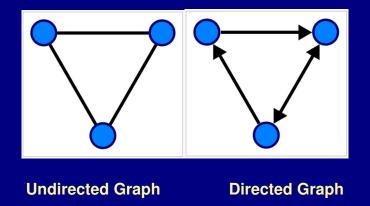
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Greek



Mathematial Graphs: Joining the Dots

A graph is a set of vertices joined by edges.





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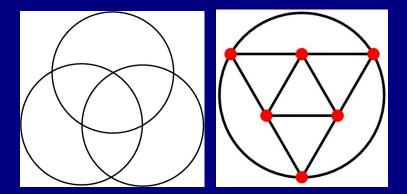
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Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Venn Diagram as a Graph



Graph is equivalent to an octahedron



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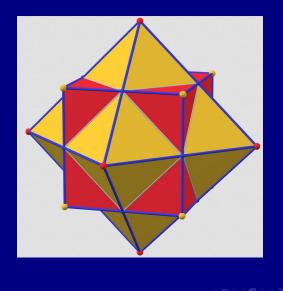
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Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Cube and Octahedron are Duals





Intro

Cutting

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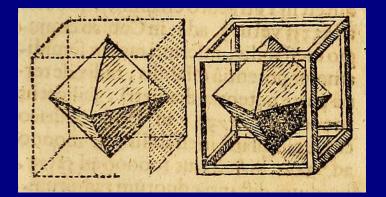
Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

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From Kepler's Harmonices Mundi





Intro

Cutting

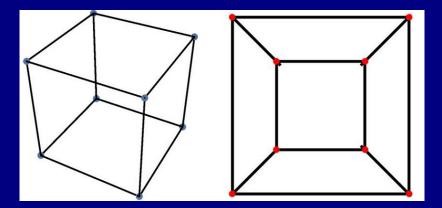
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Greek

Inf Sets

Venn3 Dual as a Cube





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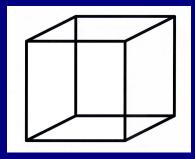
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Greek

Inf Sets

The Necker Cube





Intro

NipTab

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Sets 2

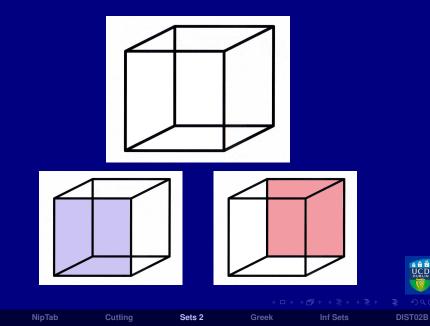
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Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02E

The Necker Cube



Intro

See blog post

Venn Again's Awake

on my mathematical blog thatsmaths.com



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02

Outline

Introduction

- The Nippur Tablet
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- Set Theory II
- **Greek Alphabet**
- **Counting Infinite Sets**

Distraction 2B: Books



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

The Greek Alphabet

Ελληνικό αλφάβητο



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

The Greek Alphabet

Ελληνικό αλφάβητο

Some Motivation

- Greek letters are used extensively in maths.
- Greek alphabet is the basis of the Roman one.
- Also the basis of the Cyrillic and others.



NipTab

Sets 2

Gr

Greek

Inf Sets

The Greek Alphabet

Ελληνικό αλφάβητο

Some Motivation

- Greek letters are used extensively in maths.
- Greek alphabet is the basis of the Roman one.
- Also the basis of the Cyrillic and others.
- A great advantage for touring in Greece.
- You already know several of the letters.
- It is simple to learn in small sections.



Cutting

NipTab

Greek

Inf Sets

Ursa Major



Figure: The Great Bear: Dubhe is α -Ursae Majoris.



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Letter	Name	Sound		Letter	News	Sound	
		Ancient ^[5]	Modern ^[6]	Letter	Name	Ancient ^[5]	Modern ^[6]
Aα	alpha, άλφα	[a] [a:]	[a]	Nv	nu, vu	[n]	[n]
Ββ	beta, βήτα	[b]	[٧]	Ξξ	xi, ξι	[ks]	[ks]
Γγ	gamma, γάμμα	[g], [ŋ] ^[7]	[ɣ] ~ [j], [ŋ] ^[8] ~ [ŋ] ^[9]	0 0	omicron, όμικρον	[0]	[0]
Δδ	delta, δέλτα	[a]		Пπ	pi, πι	[p]	[p]
		[d]	[ð]	Ρρ	<mark>rho</mark> , ρώ	[r]	[r]
Eε	epsilon, έψιλον	[e]	[e]	$\Sigma \sigma/c^{[13]}$	sigma, σίγμα	[s]	[s]
Zζ	zeta, ζήτα	[zd] ^A	[z]	,			
Ηŋ	eta, ήτα	[ɛ:]	[1]	Тт	tau, ταυ	[t]	[t]
Θθ	theta, θήτα	[t ^h]	[0]	Υυ	upsilon, ύψιλον	[y] [y:]	[1]
				Φφ	<mark>phi</mark> , φι	[p ^h]	[f]
11	iota, ιώτα	[i] [iː]	[i], [j], ^[10] [ɲ] ^[11]	Хx	chi, xı	[k ^h]	[x] ~ [ç]
Kκ	kappa, κάππα	[k]	[k] ~ [c]	~			
Λλ	lambda, λάμδα	[1]	[1]	Ψψ	psi, ψι	[ps]	[ps]
Μµ	mu, μυ	[m]	[m]	Ωω	omega, ωμέγα	[]:[]	[0]

Figure: The Greek Alphabet (from Wikipedia)



Intro

Cuttin

Set

Greek

Inf Sets

O C Alpha	ß	Gamma	B Delta	Epsilon	۲ _{Zeta}
Ŋ	H Theta	L	Kappa	λ Lambda	μ
ν	z	0	π	9	σ
Nu Tau	Xi U Upsilon	Omicron Phi	Pi X Chi	Rho W Psi	Sigma Omega

Figure: 24 beautiful letters

Intro

Sets

Greek

Inf Sets

The First Six Letters

The first group of six letters.





Cutting

NipTab

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

The Next Six Letters

The second group of six letters.





Intro

Sets 2

Cutting

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02

The Next Six Letters

The third group of six letters.





Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST

The Last Six Letters

The final group of six letters.





Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets





Cutting

Sets 2

Greek





Intro

NipTab

Cutting

S

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

κλιμαξ δραμα νεκταρ κωλ**ο**ν

κοσμος μαθημα βιβλιο ιδεα



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

κλιμαξ δραμα νεκταρ κωλ**ο**ν

κ**ο**σμ**ο**ς μαθημα βιβλι**ο** ιδεα Climax: κλιμαξDrama: δραμαNectar: νεκταρColon: κωλον

Cosmos: κoσμoςMaths: μαθημαBook: βιβλιoIdea: ιδεα



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

(

Greek

Inf Sets

κωμα ψυκη κρισις

αναθεμα αμβρ**ο**σια καταστρ**ο**φη



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02E

κωμα ψυκη κρισις

αναθεμα αμβρ**ο**σια καταστρ**ο**φη Coma: κωμα Psyche: ψυκη Crisis: κρισις

Anathema: αναθεμα **Ambrosia:** αμβροσια **Catastrophe:** καταστροφη



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Outline

Introduction

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Distraction 2B: Books



Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

There is no Largest Number

Children often express bemusement at the idea that there is no largest number.

Given any number, 1 can be added to it to give a larger number.

But the implication that there is no limit to this process is perplexing.

The concept of infinity has exercised the greatest minds throughout the history of human thought.



Intro

Cutting

NipTab

Sets 2

Greek

Degrees of Infinity

In the late 19th century, Georg Cantor showed that there are different degrees of infinity.

In fact, there is an infinite hierarchy of infinities.

Cantor brought into prominence several paradoxical results that had a profound impact on the development of logic and of mathematics.



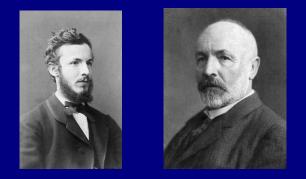
Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Georg Cantor (1845–1918)



Cantor discovered many remarkable properties of infinite sets.



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NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Cardinality

Finite Sets have a finite number of elements.
Example: The Counties of Ireland form a finite set.
Counties = {Antrim, Armagh, ..., Wexford, Wicklow}



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Cardinality

Finite Sets have a finite number of elements.
Example: The Counties of Ireland form a finite set.
Counties = {Antrim, Armagh, ..., Wexford, Wicklow}

For a finite set A, the cardinality of A is: The number of elements in A



Intro

NipTab

Sets 2

Greek

One-to-one Correspondence

A particular number, say 5, is associated with all the sets having five elements.

For any two of these sets, we can find a 1-to-1 correspondence between the elements of the two sets.

The number 5 is called the cardinality of these sets.

Generalizing this:

Any two sets are the same size (or cardinality) if there is a 1-to-1 correspondence between them.



Intro

Cutting

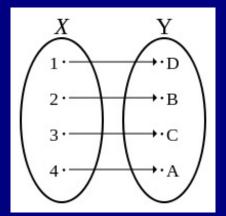
Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02E

One-to-one Correspondence





Intro

NipTab

Cutting

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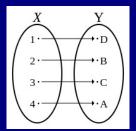
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Equality of Set Size: 1-1 Correspondence

How do we show that two sets are the same size?

For finite sets, this is straightforward counting.



For infinite sets, we must find a 1-1 correspondence.



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

Cardinality

The number of elements in a set is called the cardinality of the set.

Cutting

Cardinality of a set A is written in various ways:

 $|\mathbf{A}| \|\mathbf{A}\| \operatorname{card}(\mathbf{A}) \#(\mathbf{A})$

For example

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#{Irish Counties} = 32

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets



Intro

The Empty Set

We call the set with no elements the empty set. It is denoted by a special symbol

 $\varnothing = \{ \ \}$

Clearly

 $\#\{ \ \} = 0 \, .$



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

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The Empty Set

We call the set with no elements the empty set. It is denoted by a special symbol

 $\varnothing = \{ \ \}$

Clearly

$$\#\{ \} = 0.$$

We could have a philosophical discussion about the empty set. Is it related to a perfect vacuum?

The Greeks regarded the vacuum as an impossibility.



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02

The Natural Numbers N

The counting numbers (positive whole numbers) are

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

They are also called the Natural Numbers.



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

The Natural Numbers ℕ

The counting numbers (positive whole numbers) are

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The set of natural numbers is denoted \mathbb{N} .



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

The Natural Numbers N

The counting numbers (positive whole numbers) are 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

They are also called the Natural Numbers.

The set of natural numbers is denoted \mathbb{N} .

This is our first infinite set.

We use a special symbol to denote its cardinality:

 $\#(\mathbb{N}) = \aleph_0$

Intro

NipTab

Sets 2

Greek







Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

The Power Set

For any set, we can form a new one, the Power Set.

The Power Set is the set of all subsets of A.



Sets 2

Greek

The Power Set

For any set, we can form a new one, the Power Set. The Power Set is the set of all subsets of A. Suppose the set A has just two elements:

 $\textbf{A}=\{\textbf{3},\textbf{7}\}$

Here are the subsets of A:

 $\{ \} \{3\} \{7\} \{3,7\}$



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02

The Power Set

For any set, we can form a new one, the Power Set. The Power Set is the set of all subsets of A. Suppose the set A has just two elements:

 $\textbf{A}=\{\textbf{3},\textbf{7}\}$

Here are the subsets of A: { } {3} {7} {3,7} The power set is

$$\mathcal{P}[\mathsf{A}] = \left\{\{\ \}, \{\mathsf{3}\}, \{\mathsf{7}\}, \{\mathsf{3},\mathsf{7}\}
ight\}$$



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Cantor's Theorem

Cantor's theorem states that, for any set A, the power set of A has a strictly greater cardinality than A itself:

 $\#[\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{A})] > \#[\mathbf{A}]$

This holds for both finite and infinite sets.



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

Cantor's Theorem

Cantor's theorem states that, for any set A, the power set of A has a strictly greater cardinality than A itself:

 $\#[\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{A})] > \#[\mathbf{A}]$

This holds for both finite and infinite sets.

This means that, for every cardinal number, there is a greater cardinal number.



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

G

Greek

Inf Sets

One-to-one Correspondence

Take all the natural numbers,

 $\mathbb{N}=\{1,2,3,...\}$

as one set and all the even numbers

$$\mathbb{E} = \{2,4,6,...\}$$

as the other.



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

One-to-one Correspondence

Take all the natural numbers,

 $\mathbb{N}=\{1,2,3,...\}$

as one set and all the even numbers

 $\mathbb{E} = \{2, 4, 6, \ldots\}$

as the other.

By associating each number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $2n \in \mathbb{E}$, we have a perfect 1-to-1 correspondence.

By Cantor's argument, the two sets are the same size:

$$\#[\mathbb{N}] = \#[\mathbb{E}]$$



Intro

Greek

Again,

$\#[\mathbb{N}]=\#[\mathbb{E}]$

But this is paradoxical: The set of natural numbers contains all the even numbers:

 $\mathbb{E} \subset \mathbb{N}$

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

and also all the odd ones.

In an intuitive sense, \mathbb{N} is larger than \mathbb{E} .

Cutting



Intro

NipTab

Again,

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But this is paradoxical: The set of natural numbers contains all the even numbers:

 $\mathbb{E}\subset\mathbb{N}$

and also all the odd ones.

In an intuitive sense, \mathbb{N} is larger than \mathbb{E} .

The same paradoxical result had been deduced by Galileo some 250 years earlier.



Intro

Sets 2

G

Greek

Inf Sets

Cantor carried these ideas much further:

The set of all the real numbers has a degree of infinity, or cardinality, greater than the counting numbers:

 $\#[\mathbb{R}] > \#[\mathbb{N}]$

Cantor showed this using an ingenious approach called the diagonal argument.

This is a fascinating technique, but we will not give details here.

Cutting



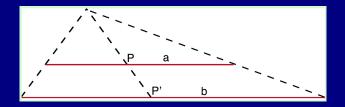
Intro

Sets 2

Greek



How Many Points on a Line?





Intro

NipTab

Cutting

Sets 2

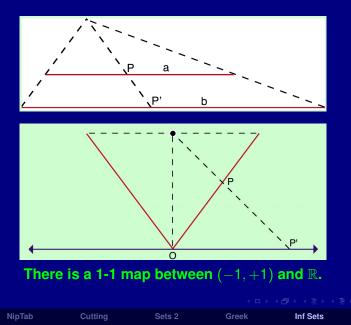
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Inf Sets

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How Many Points on a Line?





Intro

Review: Infinities Without Limit

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

Cantor proved $\mathcal{P}(A)$ has cardinality greater than A.

For finite sets, this is obvious; for infinite ones, it was startling.

The result is now known as Cantor's Theorem, and Cantor used his diagonal argument in proving it.

He thus developed an entire hierarchy of transfinite cardinal numbers.



Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek

Inf Sets

DIST02

Outline

Introduction

- The Nippur Tablet
- **Cutting the Plane**
- **Set Theory II**
- **Greek Alphabet**
- **Counting Infinite Sets**

Distraction 2B: Books





Greek





Six books are arranged on a shelf. They include an Almanac (A) and a Bible (B). Suppose A must be to the left of B (not necssarily beside it). How many possible arrangements are there?



DIST02B

Intro

Sets 2

Greek



Six books are arranged on a shelf. They include an Almanac (A) and a Bible (B). Suppose A must be to the left of B (not necssarily beside it). How many possible arrangements are there? Hint: Use the idea of symmetry. ANSWER NEXT WEEK



Intro

Sets 2

Greek

DIST02B



Six books are arranged on a shelf. They include an Almanac (A) and a Bible (B).

BIG IDEA: SYMMETRY.

Every SOLUTION correponds to a NON-SOLUTION: Just switch the positions of A and B!

Intro

Cutting

Sets 2

Greek





Six books are arranged on a shelf. They include an Almanac (A) and a Bible (B).

BIG IDEA: SYMMETRY.

NipTab

Every SOLUTION correponds to a NON-SOLUTION: Just switch the positions of A and B!

The total number of arrangements is 6!. For half of these, A is to the left of B.

So, answer is $\frac{1}{2}(6 \times 5 \times \cdots \times 1) = \frac{1}{2} \times 6! = 360$ Q.E.D

Thank you



Intro

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