# MATH 248 METHODS OF PROOF IN MATHEMATICS

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## THE FOLLOWING IS JUST A PREVIEW

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### Set Theory

A set is a collection of objects together with a rule for deciding whether a given object is a member of one set or not.

Sets are usually denoted by capital letters  $A, B, C, \dots$ 

If an object x is a member of the set A we write  $x \in A$  "x is an element of A."

If x is not a member of A we write  $x \notin A$  "x is not a member of A."

Sets are typically described using curly brackets {(elements go here)}.

#### Example 1.1.

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$B = \{2, 4, 6, \dots, 20\}$$

$$C = \{5, 6, 7, \dots\}$$

$$D = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

In most cases we will need to be more specific when defining our sets: {elements | rule}. This set notation is standard. The middle line "|" reads as "such that".

#### **Standard Sets**

Natural Numbers 
$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$$
  
Integers  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ 

Rational Numbers  $\mathbb{Q} = \{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0 \}$ 

Real Numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ 

Complex Numbers  $\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, i = \sqrt{-1}\}\$ 

Empty Set  $\emptyset = \{\}$ 

Example 1.2.  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \ge 5\} = \{5, 6, 7, \dots\}.$ 

**Example 1.3.**  $B = \{2x \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\dots -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\}.$  (Even integers).

**Example 1.4.**  $C = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x > 3 \text{ and } x < 0\} = \emptyset.$ 

**Example 1.5.** From the previous examples (1.2-1.4)  $3 \notin A$   $3 \notin B$   $3 \notin C$   $6 \in A$   $6 \in B$   $6 \notin C$ .

If A has a finite number of elements, we use |A| to denote the number of elements in A.

**Example 1.6.** If  $A = \{2, 5, 7\}$ , then |A| = 3.

**Example 1.7.**  $|\emptyset| = 0$ .

**Example 1.8.** If  $B = \{3, \{2, 3\}, \emptyset, 4, \{1, 5\}\}, \text{ then } |B| = 5.$ 

Example 1.9.  $|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$ .

**Example 1.10.** If  $C = \{1, 3, 7, 3\} = \{1, 3, 7\}$ , then |C| = 3.

**Definition 1.11.** Let A, B be sets. If every element of A is an element of B, then we say that A is a *subset* of B. Notation:  $A \subseteq B$  "A is a subset of B".

Example 1.12.  $\{1, 2, 3\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ .

Example 1.13.  $\{-1,1\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ .

Example 1.14.  $\{-1,1\}\mathbb{N}$ 

Example 1.15.  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .

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Example 1.16. \{1\} \subseteq \{1, \{1\}\}. \{1\} \in \{1, \{1\}\}. Example 1.17. \{1, \{2\}\} \nsubseteq \{\{1\}, 2\}. \{1, \{2\}\} \nsupseteq \{\{1\}, 2\}.
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\*Note: If there exists some  $x \in A$  such that  $x \notin B$ , then  $A \nsubseteq B$ . As a consequence, if A is any set,  $\emptyset \subseteq A$ .

Reason: If  $\emptyset \not\subseteq A$ , there would be some  $x \in \emptyset$  such that  $x \notin A$ . Also if A is any set, then  $A \subseteq A$ .

When discussing sets, we will often restrict our attention to subsets of a given set  $\mathcal{U}$ , called the universe of discourse.  $\mathcal{U}$  may be spelled out explicitly, in other cases the universe will be clear from context.

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Intervals (U = \mathbb{R})

[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \le x \le b\}

[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \le x < b\}

(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x \le b\}

(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x < b\}

(a, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x > a\}

(-\infty, a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x < a\}

[a, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \ge a\}

(-\infty, a] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \le a\}

(-\infty, \infty) = \mathbb{R}
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**Definition 1.18.** Sets A and B are equal if they have exactly the same members.

\*Note: A = B if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ .

**Definition 1.19.** If  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A \neq B$ , then A is a *proper subset* of B.

Notation:  $A \subset B$  or  $A \subsetneq B$ .

**Example 1.20.**  $\{1, 2\}$  is a proper subset of  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  but  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is not a proper subset of  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ .

**Definition 1.21.** Let A be a set. The *power set* of A is the set  $\wp(A)$  consisting of all subsets of A.

#### Example 1.22.

$$\begin{split} A &= \{x,y\} \\ \wp(A) &= \{\emptyset,\{x\},\{y\},\{x,y\}\}. \end{split}$$

#### Example 1.23.

$$B = \{2, \{2, 5\}, 7\}$$

$$\wp(B) = \{\emptyset, \{2\}, \{\{2, 5\}\}, \{7\}, \{2, \{2, 5\}\}, \{2, 7\}, \{\{2, 5\}, 7\}, B\}.$$

Example 1.24.  $\wp(\emptyset) = {\emptyset}.$ 

Example 1.25.  $\wp(x) = {\emptyset, {x}}.$ 

We will see that if |A| = n then  $|\wp(A)| = 2^n$ .

It can be useful to represent a set diagrammatically by a Venn diagram.

- Elements are represented by points.
- $\bullet \ D \subseteq B, D \not\subseteq A, x \in A, x \not\in B.$
- Box represents  $\mathcal{U}$ .
- $\bullet$  Subsets of  $\mathcal U$  are represented by circles.

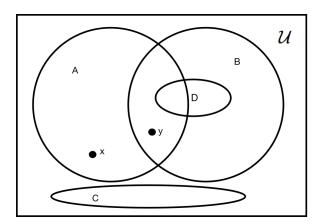


Figure 1.1: The diagram.

#### **Set Operations**

**Definition 1.26.** Let A and B be sets. The union of A and B is noted as  $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}.$ 

The union lies in A or B or both.

\*Note: In math, "or" is used **inclusively**.

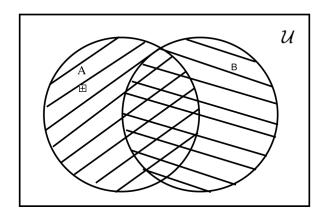


Figure 1.2: The union of two sets A and B.

#### Example 1.27.

$$A = \{-1, 0, 1\}$$
 and  $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$ .  
 $A \cup B = \{-1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$ .

#### Example 1.28.

$$A = \{1, 2\}$$
 and  $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ .  
 $A \cup B = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ .

**Example 1.29.** For any set  $A, A \cup \emptyset = A$  and  $A \cup A = A$ .

#### Example 1.30.

$$A = [1, 2]$$
 and  $B = [2, 3]$ .  
 $A \cup B = [1, 3)$ .

**Definition 1.31.** Let A and B be sets. The *intersection* of A and B is the set  $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$ 

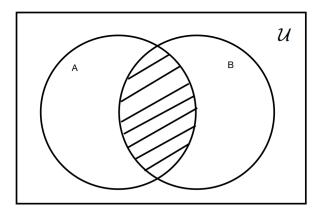


Figure 1.3: The intersection of two sets A and B.

#### Example 1.32.

$$A = \{-1, 0, 1\}$$
 and  $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$ .  
 $A \cap B = \{1\}$ .

#### Example 1.33.

$$A = \{1, 2\}$$
 and  $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ .  
 $A \cap B = \{1, 2\}$ .

**Example 1.34.** For any set A,  $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$  and  $A \cap A = A$ .

#### Example 1.35.

$$A = [1, 2]$$
 and  $B = [2, 3]$ .  
 $A \cap B = \{2\}$ .

**Definition 1.36.** Let A and B be sets. The difference of A with B is  $A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$ .

#### Example 1.37.

$$A = \{-1, 0, 1\} \text{ and } B = \{1, 2, 3\}.$$
 
$$A - B = \{-1, 0\} \text{ and } B - A = \{2, 3\}.$$

#### Example 1.38.

$$A = \{1, 2\}$$
 and  $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ .  
 $A - B = \emptyset$  and  $B - A = \{0, 3\}$ .

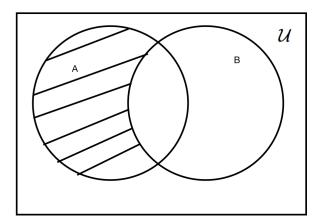


Figure 1.4: The difference of A with B.

**Example 1.39.** If A is any set, then  $A - \emptyset = A, \ \emptyset - A = \emptyset$  and  $A - A = \emptyset$ .

#### Example 1.40.

$$[1,2] - [2,3) = [1,2).$$
  
 $[2,3) - [1,2] = (2,3).$ 

**Definition 1.41.** Let A be a set in the universe  $\mathcal{U}$ . The *compliment* of A is  $\overline{A} = \mathcal{U} - A$ .

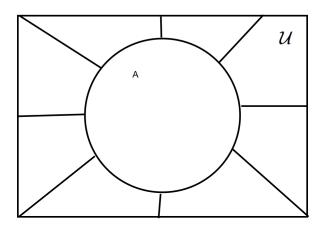


Figure 1.5: The compliment of A.

#### Example 1.42.

$$\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } A = \mathbb{N}.$$
 $\overline{A} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0\}.$ 

#### Example 1.43.

$$\underline{\mathcal{U}} = \mathbb{R} \text{ and } A = [-1, 1].$$
  
 $\overline{A} = (-\infty, -1) \cup (1, \infty).$ 

#### Example 1.44.

$$\underline{\mathcal{U}} = \mathbb{R} \text{ and } A = \mathbb{Q}.$$
  
 $\overline{A} = \mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q} \text{ (irrational numbers)}.$ 

Example 1.45.  $\overline{\mathcal{U}} = \emptyset$ .

Example 1.46.  $\overline{\emptyset} = \mathcal{U}$ .

Logic

. . .

### **Methods of Proof**

### Mathematical Induction

### Relations

### **Functions**

### Cardinality