

Ch 1: Elementary Logic

Note Title

٢١/٠٦/٢٣

1.1 Statements and Their Connectives

عَدْدَةُ عَبَارَاتٍ مُعَيَّنةٍ هُوَ دِرْجَةٌ وَلَا يَكُونُ مُمْكِنًا لِمُعَادَلَتِهِ بِعَبَارَاتٍ دُوَافِعٍ (statements) إِلَّا بِعِصْرٍ مُعَيَّنٍ (time) وَلَا يَكُونُ مُمْكِنًا لِمُعَادَلَتِهِ بِعَبَارَاتٍ دُوَافِعٍ (statements) إِلَّا بِعِصْرٍ مُعَيَّنٍ (time) .

Def: By a statement, we mean a sentence that is either true or false, but not both simultaneously.

Remark: It is not necessary that we know whether the statement is true or false

Illustration: (a) Each of the following is a statement:

1) Gaza is a city in Palestine.

[عَبَارَةٌ صَادِقَةٌ وَمُعَيَّنةٌ]

2) $5 + 2 = 7$

[عَبَارَةٌ صَادِقَةٌ وَمُعَيَّنةٌ]

3) $2 \times 3 - 4$ is negative

[عَبَارَةٌ صَادِقَةٌ وَمُعَيَّنةٌ]

4) The Islamic University is in Gaza.

[عَبَارَةٌ صَادِقَةٌ وَمُعَيَّنةٌ]

5) In 2170, Palestine will be a greatest country.

[عَبَارَةٌ مُسْمِيةٌ صَادِقَةٌ وَمُعَيَّنةٌ]

6) The digit in the 105th decimal place in the decimal expansion of $\sqrt{3}$ is 7.

[عَبَارَةٌ صَادِقَةٌ وَمُعَيَّنةٌ]

7) The moon is made of blue cheese.

[عَبَارَةٌ خَاطِئَةٌ]

8) There is no intelligent life on Mars.

[عَبَارَةٌ مُسْمِيةٌ]

9) It is raining.

[*(CiS), جملة معلنة*]

(b) None of the following is a statement, because it makes no sense to ask if any of them is true or false:

1) What did you say?

2) $x^2 = 36$. \longrightarrow (*x معلوم*)

3) He is a good man. \longrightarrow (*غير معلوم*)

4) This sentence is false. \longrightarrow (*Paradox*)

5) Come to our Party!

Def: The statements consisting of one sentence are **Simple statements**. A combination of two or more simple statements using logical connectives is called a **Compound statement**.

Illustration: 1) The statements in previous example part (a) are simple statements.

2) "5 + 2 is 7" and "The moon is made of blue cheese" is a Compound statement.

نحو ①: *نحو* p, q, r, \dots *هي* *جملات* (*أي* *معلوم* (*غير معلوم*)) *أو* *جمل* (*أي* *معلوم* (*غير معلوم*)). *أي* *جمل* (*أي* *معلوم* (*غير معلوم*)) *أو* *جمل* (*أي* *معلوم* (*غير معلوم*)).

نحو ②: *نحو* *ـ* (*not*) *أو* *ـ* (*and*) *أو* *ـ* (*or*) *أو* *ـ* (*if ... , then ...*) *أو* *ـ* (*--- if and only if ---*).

(a) "not" symbolized by \sim ,

(b) "and" symbolized by \wedge ,

(c) "or" symbolized by \vee ,

(d) "if ..., then ..." symbolized by \rightarrow ,

(e) "... if and only if ..." symbolized by \leftrightarrow .

Defs: 1) Let p be a statement. Then the statement $\sim p$, read "not p " or "the negation of p " is true whenever the statement p is false and is false if p is true.

2) Let p and q be two statements. The conjunction of p and q (or p and q), symbolized by " $p \wedge q$ " is a statement which is true exactly when both p and q are true.

Illustration: Suppose that:

p is the statement " $1 \neq 3$ " which is true (T),
 q is the statement " 7 is odd" which is true (T), and
 r is the statement " $Palestine$ is a city" (F).

Then:

1) $p \wedge q$ is the statement: " $1 \neq 3$ and 7 is odd"
which is true. [Since both p and q are true]

2) $q \wedge r$ is the statement: " $Palestine$ is a city and
 7 is odd" which is false. [Since q is false]

3) $\sim r$ is the statement: "It is not the case that,
 $Palestine$ is a city", in English, we say " $Palestine$
is not a city" which is true statement.

Truth Table

عندما نريد إثبات صحة أو خطأ دعوى مركبة نكتب لها جدول الحقيقة (Truth Table) حيث يوضح الجدول جميع الحالات الممكنة لبيانات الدعوى. في هذا الجدول يكتب كل بيان على عمود منفصل، وتحت كل عمود يكتب جميع الحالات الممكنة لبياناته، أي 2^n حالات حيث n هو عدد البيانات المكونة للدعوى.

Truth Table for $\sim P$

P	$\sim P$
T	F
F	T

في هذا الجدول نوضح أن $\sim P$ ص حاصل في كل حالات P معاً، أما $\sim \sim P$ تكون صحيحة معاً في $\sim P$ تكون خطأ (النفي ينفي) وكلما P تكون خطأ $\sim P$ تكون صحيحة (النفي ينفي) وهذه هي $\sim P$ هنا (جدول / جدول لحساب للعبارة $\sim P$)، وهذه هي $\sim P$ بمعنى / (جدول لبيان معنى جدول للعبارات $\sim P$).

Truth Table for $P \wedge Q$

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

نلاحظ أن $n=2$
 نلاحظ أن $n=2$
 نلاحظ أن $n=2$

واضح من الجدول أن $P \wedge Q$ صحيح في كل الحالات التي كانت P و Q صحيحة معاً، $\sim(P \wedge Q)$ خطأ في كل الحالات التي كانت P و Q خطأ معاً.

$\sim(P \wedge Q)$ جدول لحساب لـ \neg (نفي) و \wedge (و) من خلال P و Q .

Example: (a) Determine the truth of the following statements:

- 1) "It is not the case, $5 > 3$ " (**F**)
 [negation of " $5 > 3$ "]
- 2) "Venus is smaller than Earth and $1+4 = 5$ " (**T**)
- 3) " $6 < 7$ and $2^4 = 8$ " (**F**)

(b) Construct the truth table for the compound statement

$$\sim [(\sim p) \wedge (\sim q)]$$

s.t: في (بداية) نلاحظ أننا نحتاج للأدوات التالية (لذك يجب أن نحسب):
 علينا تطبيقه أولاً من أدوات (الربط المنطقية) ونعلم من (طريق العقل) أننا
 نستخدم لذك أدوات بأخذ كل ذكر (المتغيرات) على حمله \sim (أو على من ليس به)
 وبذلك نطبقه أولاً (لذا يمكننا تطبيقه أولاً) لذا يمكننا تطبيقه أولاً \wedge \sim
 $r = \sim(p \wedge \sim q)$ إذن $\sim(p \wedge \sim q) \equiv \sim(p \wedge \sim q)$

p	q	$\sim p$	$\sim q$	$\sim p \wedge \sim q$	r
T	T	F	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	F	F	T
F	F	T	T	T	F

1.2 Three More Connectives

Note Title

٢٠٢١/٢/٢٣

Def: Let p and q be two statements. The disjunction of p and q denoted by " $p \vee q$ " and read "p or q" in a compound statement. The truth values of $p \vee q$ are defined by that:

$p \vee q$ is true exactly when at least one of p or q is true.

Truth Table of $P \vee q$

P	q	$P \vee q$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

الخطوة الثالثة هي إثبات قانون دي مورغان: $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$.
نحوه، $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg(\neg\neg p \wedge \neg\neg q)$ من قانون دي مورغان.
لذلك $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$.

Def: Two statements p and q are logically equivalent if they have the same truth table. In this case, we write $p \equiv q$.

Example: For any two statements, $p \vee q \equiv \neg(\neg p \wedge \neg q)$. Since, we say in previous examples that, they have the same truth table. In fact, we can deduce that $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$, and latter, this law is called De Morgan's Law.

Def: Let p and q be two statements. The connective \rightarrow is called **the conditional** and may placed between p and q to form the compound statement $p \rightarrow q$, and read "if p , then q ". By def, the statement $p \rightarrow q$ is equivalent to the statement $\sim(p \wedge \sim q)$.

Truth Table of $p \rightarrow q$

p	q	$\sim q$	$p \wedge \sim q$	$p \rightarrow q$ [$\equiv \sim(p \wedge \sim q)$]
T	T	F	F	T
T	F	T	T	F
F	T	F	F	T
F	F	T	F	T

Illustration: Suppose that:

p is the statement "it is raining" and q is the statement "I will give you a dollar". Thus, the compound statement $p \rightarrow q$ represents "if it is raining, then I will give you a dollar"

لماحة ① (بيان المبرهنة) $p \rightarrow q$ هي إذاً مبرهنة على أي حال

كماه تدبرت على أي حال $p \rightarrow q$ تكون صحيحة في كل حالات p و q باستثناء الحالات التي p صحيحة و q خاطئة، حيث في هذه الحالات $p \wedge \sim q$ صحيحة، مما يعني أن $p \rightarrow q$ غير صحيح في هذه الحالات

وعلق فـ $p \rightarrow q$ صحيحة غير معتبرة ولا تؤخذ من

في عينه، فإذاً $p \rightarrow q$ صحيحة في كل حالات p و q باستثناء الحالات التي p صحيحة و q خاطئة، مما يعني أن $p \rightarrow q$ صحيحة في كل حالات p و q باستثناء الحالات التي p صحيحة و q خاطئة

" q is true whenever p is true" ("عندما p صحيحة، فإن q صحيحة")

• "P only if q" تَقْرِيْبًا $p \rightarrow q$ لِعَبَارَة (2)

: $p \leftarrow q$ / $p \rightarrow q$ لِعَبَارَة (3)
"a sufficient condition for q"

. "a necessary condition for p"

وَهُوَ لِعَبَارَةِ الْمُكَافِئَةِ $p \rightarrow q \Leftrightarrow q \rightarrow p$ (4)
أَوْ $p \rightarrow q \Leftrightarrow \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
($\neg q$ is a necessary condition for $p \rightarrow q$). $\neg p$ is a necessary condition for $p \rightarrow q$.
($p \rightarrow q$ is a necessary condition for $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$)

$$\text{أَيْضًا } (p \rightarrow q) \equiv \neg p \vee q \quad \text{نِسْبَاتِيَّةُ بَلْ وَلَا}$$

Def: Let p and q be two statements. The connective \leftrightarrow is called **the biconditional** and may placed between p and q to form the compound statement $p \leftrightarrow q$, and read " p if and only if q ". By def, the statement $p \leftrightarrow q$ is equivalent to the statement $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$.

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$q \rightarrow p$	$p \leftrightarrow q$ [$\equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$]
T	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	F
F	F	T	T	T

نِسْبَاتِيَّةُ $p \leftrightarrow q$ لِعَبَارَةِ الْمُكَافِئَةِ / دَلْجُونَجَابُ / مَحْظَى :

أَوْ $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$ وَ $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ لِعَبَارَةِ الْمُكَافِئَةِ

Example: Determine the truth of the following statement:

1) If $1+2=3$, then $1 < 0$ (F)

2) If $\sin \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$, then $1+1=2$ (T)

3) If $1+1=3$, then $1<0$ (T)

4) If $1+1=3$, then $1>0$ (T)

5) $1+1=3$ if and only if $1>0$ (F)

6) $1+1=3$ if and only if $1<0$ (T)

1.3 Tautology, Implication, and Equivalence

Note Title

YΣ/•Υ/ΥΥ

For a statement p , consider the truth table for the statement $p \vee \neg p$:

p		$\neg p$		$p \vee \neg p$	
T	F	F	T	T	T
F	T	T	F	T	T

We see that $p \vee \neg p$ is always true in every case.

Def: ① A statement P is said to be a **tautology** if it is true in each of all logical possibilities.
② Let P and Q be two statements, compound or simple. If the conditional statement $P \rightarrow Q$ is a tautology, then it is called an **implication** and is denoted by $P \Rightarrow Q$ (read: P implies Q).

Example: All the following statements are implications:

- 1) $P \rightarrow P$.
- 2) $p \wedge q \rightarrow q \wedge p$.
- 3) $P \rightarrow P \wedge P$.
- 4) $P \wedge P \rightarrow P$.

Remark: In logic or mathematics, "theorems" are meant to be true statements, and a "proof" (of a theorem

(a)

P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$P \rightarrow P \vee Q$
T	T	T	T
T	F	T	T
F	T	T	T
F	F	F	T

واضح من خارج الجدول، التمرين (ج) يوضح
 . implication $\neg p \rightarrow q$ صحيح (جائز) في جميع الحالات.

b)

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$	$P \wedge Q \rightarrow P$	$P \wedge Q \rightarrow Q$
T	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T	T
F	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	T	T

. implication $\neg p \wedge q \rightarrow q$ يُثبت $p \wedge q \rightarrow p$ في جميع الحالات.

c) Suppose that $r \equiv (P \vee Q) \wedge \neg P$ and $s \equiv (P \vee Q) \wedge \neg P \rightarrow Q$,
 $\equiv r \rightarrow s$

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \vee Q$	r	s
T	T	F	T	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	F	F	T

□ . implication $(P \vee Q) \wedge \neg P \rightarrow Q$ صحيح

Def: If a biconditional statement $P \leftrightarrow Q$ happens to be a tautology, it is called **equivalence** and is denoted by $P \Leftrightarrow Q$ (read: P is equivalent to Q).

الخطرة: $\neg(\neg p \Rightarrow q) \equiv p \Rightarrow \neg q$ / $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ / $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$

(لخطرة) $\neg(\neg p \Rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$ / $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ / $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$

لخطرة $\neg(\neg p \Rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$ / $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ / $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$

Thrm 2: Let p and q be any two statements. Then

(a) (Law of Double Negation (DN)): $\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$.

(b) (Commutative Laws (Com.)): $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$,
 $p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$.

(c) (Laws of Idempotency (Idemp.)): $p \wedge p \equiv p$,
 $p \vee p \equiv p$.

(d) (Contrapositive Law (Contrap.)): $(p \rightarrow q) \equiv (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$

PF: $\neg(\neg p \Rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$ / Contrapositive \rightarrow $\neg(\neg q \rightarrow \neg p) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$

Suppose that $r \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$

P	q	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$\neg q$	$\neg p$	$(\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$	r
T	T	T	F	F	T	T
T	F	F	T	F	F	T
F	T	T	F	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T	T

tautology $\models (p \rightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$ $\neg(\neg p \Rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$ / $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$

$$\square \cdot p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$$

Thrm 3: (De Morgan's Law)

Let p and q be any two statements. Then

$$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q \text{ and } \neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q.$$

PF:

جدول لخطرة (لخطرة) $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ / $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$

جی ریاضی میں بھی ($r \equiv \sim(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \sim p \vee \sim q$) کی وجہ سے
 . $\sim(p \wedge q)$ کی صفات کی وجہ سے.

P	q	$p \wedge q$	$\sim(p \wedge q)$	$\sim p$	$\sim q$	$\sim p \vee \sim q$	r
T	T	T	F	F	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	T	T	T
F	T	F	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	T	T	T	T	T

. $\sim(p \wedge q) \equiv \sim p \vee \sim q$ کی وجہ سے / اسی وجہ سے \sim

Thrm4: Let p, q and r be any statements. Then

(a) (*Associative Laws*) : $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$
 $(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$

(b) (*Distributive Laws*) : $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$
 $p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$

(c) (*Transitive Law*) : $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) \Rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$

PF: / تب جیسا کہ $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$ کو پڑھا جائے تو $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$ کو
 (c) کے لئے، (b) کے لئے اسی طرح جیسا کہ $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$ کو

(b) Suppose that $w = p \wedge (q \vee r)$ and $s \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$.

We need to prove that $w \Leftrightarrow s$, so consider the
 following truth table : $z=8$ میں کوئی نہیں

p	q	r	$q \vee r$	w	$p \wedge q$	$p \wedge r$	s	$w \Leftrightarrow s$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	T	T	F	T	T
T	F	T	T	T	F	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	T
F	T	T	T	F	F	F	F	T
F	T	F	T	F	F	F	F	T
F	F	T	T	F	F	F	F	T
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	T

. $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$ کی وجہ سے

(c) Suppose that $s \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$ and $w \equiv s \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$.

We need to prove that w is a tautology.

p	q	r	$p \rightarrow q$	$q \rightarrow r$	s	$p \rightarrow r$	$s \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	F	F	F	T
T	F	T	F	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	F	F	T
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	T	F	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	F	F	T	T	T	T	T

نحوه : أ بحسب صحة قاعدة التجميع / فإنه يتحقق $p \vee q \vee r \rightarrow p \wedge q \wedge r$ بـ $\neg\neg$ -برهان ، $(p \wedge q) \wedge r$ $\cdot q_1 \vee q_2 \vee \dots \vee q_n \wedge p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n$ $\neg\neg$ -برهان

Thrm 5: Let p, q, r , and s be any statements. Then

(a) (Constructive Dilemmas):

- (i) $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (r \rightarrow s) \Rightarrow (p \vee r) \rightarrow (q \vee s)$,
- (ii) $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (r \rightarrow s) \Rightarrow (p \wedge r) \rightarrow (q \wedge s)$.

(b) (Destructive Dilemmas):

- (i) $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (r \rightarrow s) \Rightarrow (\neg q \vee \neg s) \rightarrow (\neg p \vee \neg r)$,
- (ii) $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (r \rightarrow s) \Rightarrow (\neg q \wedge \neg s) \rightarrow (\neg p \wedge \neg r)$.

PF: $\neg\neg$ -برهان (مدعى) (أ) بدل (مدعى) (ب) طلب مع

(لساقة) / أعلاه ! $\neg\neg$ -برهان (b) $\neg\neg$ -برهان (a) بدل (مدعى) (b) طلب مع

/ نفسي دعوة (contraposition) $\neg\neg$ -برهان

$$(p \wedge r) \rightarrow (q \wedge s) \equiv \neg(q \wedge s) \rightarrow \neg(p \wedge r) \equiv \neg q \vee \neg s \rightarrow \neg p \vee \neg r$$

دلي

$$(p \vee r) \rightarrow (q \vee s) \equiv \neg(q \vee s) \rightarrow \neg(p \vee r) \equiv (\neg q \wedge \neg s) \rightarrow (\neg p \wedge \neg r)$$

□

بيان: لعلنا نلاحظ أن المقادير على اليمين تتحقق إذاً في كل من الحالتين (أ) و (ب) من أدلة البرهان بالخلاف.

$$p \vee q \rightarrow q \vee s \equiv \neg(q \vee s) \rightarrow \neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg q \wedge \neg s \rightarrow \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

تكتب لـ $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ بالكلمات $\neg p$ و $\neg q$.

Thrm 6: Let p and q be statements. Then:

(a) (*Modus Ponens*): $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge p \rightarrow q$.

(b) (*Modus Tollens*): $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$.

(c) (*Reductio ad Absurdum*): $(p \rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow p \wedge \neg q \rightarrow q \wedge \neg q$.

PF: من التبرير (سبعينيات)، يثبت مدعى (a) و (b) خالد بـ (صواب).

(a) $r = (p \rightarrow q) \wedge p$, $\neg r \text{ متصدر} / \text{متضمن}$

P		q		$p \rightarrow q$		r		$r \rightarrow q$	
T	T	T	F	T	F	T	F	T	F
T	F	F	T	F	T	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	F	T	F	F	T	F	T
F	F	F	T	T	F	F	T	F	T

Clearly, $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge p \rightarrow q$ is a tautology,
so $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge p \Rightarrow q$.

(c) Suppose that $r = p \wedge \neg q \rightarrow q \wedge \neg q$, and
 $w = (p \rightarrow q) \leftrightarrow r$.

Again, we need to prove that w is a tautology.

P	q	$\sim p$	$\sim q$	$p \wedge \sim q$	$q \wedge \sim q$	$p \rightarrow q$	r	w
T	T	F	F	F	F	T	T	T
T	F	F	T	T	F	F	F	T
F	T	T	F	F	F	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	F	F	T	T	T

So $(P \rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow r$. \square

Def: If p and q are two statements. We define $q \rightarrow p$ to be the converse of $p \rightarrow q$.

نحوی درجاتی $p \Rightarrow q$ کی برابری، جو $\neg q \Rightarrow \neg p$ کی $\neg p \Rightarrow \neg q$ کی برابری: ملتوی
 : (مکمل) کی. $\neg q \Rightarrow \neg p$ کی، مکمل، پرتوتی، مکمل، $\neg p \Rightarrow \neg q$ کی $\neg q \Rightarrow p$

Example:

Suppose that:

p is the statement "A fun $f(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 ?"

q is the statement "A fun $f(x)$ is continuous at x_0 ".

Then it is clearly that $p \Rightarrow q$ but $q \not\Rightarrow p$.

Note that $\sim p \Rightarrow \sim q$; that is,

A fun $f(x)$ is discontin. at x_0 implies that it is not diff at x_0 .

Now, all the following are equivalent to $p \rightarrow q$:

- 1) If p , then q ,
- 2) p is sufficient for q ,
- 3) q is necessary for p ,
- 4) p only if q ,
- 5) q if p ,
- 6) q whenever p ,
- 7) q when p .

And if $p \rightarrow q$ is a tautology, we write $p \Rightarrow q$ and we say p implies q .

The following statements are equivalent to $p \leftrightarrow q$:

- 1) p iff q ,
- 2) p is necessary and sufficient for q ,
- 3) p if and only if q .

And if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology, then we write $p \Leftrightarrow q$ and we say that p is equivalent to q , in this case, $p \equiv q$.

Examples: Translate the following theorems:

1) "A set S in \mathbb{R} be compact is sufficient for S to be bounded"
sol: S is compact $\implies S$ is bounded.

2) "A necessary condition for a group G to be cyclic is that G is Abelian"
sol: G is cyclic $\implies G$ is Abelian

3) "A set S is infinite if S has an uncountable subset."
sol: S has an uncountable subset $\implies S$ is infinite.

1.4 Contradiction

Note Title

09-Jan-13

Def: A statement p is called **contradiction** if its truth values are all false for each of the logical possibilities.

Illustration: ① For any statement p , the conjunction $p \wedge \neg p$ is a contradiction.

② If t is a tautology, then $\neg t$ is a contradiction.
If c is a contradiction, then $\neg c$ is a tautology.

Thrm 7: Let t , c , and p be a tautology, a contradiction and an arbitrary statement, respectively. Then

$$(a) p \wedge t \Leftrightarrow p,$$
$$p \vee t \Leftrightarrow t.$$

$$(b) p \vee c \Leftrightarrow p$$
$$p \wedge c \Leftrightarrow c$$

$$(c) c \Rightarrow p, \text{ and } p \Rightarrow t.$$

PF فی $\neg c \rightarrow t$ یعنی $\neg (\neg c) \vee t$ یعنی $(c \wedge t)$ یعنی $c \Rightarrow t$.

(a)	p	t	$p \wedge t$	$p \vee t$	$p \wedge t \Leftrightarrow p$	$p \vee t \Leftrightarrow t$
	T	T	T	T	T	T
	F	T	F	T	F	T

Since $p \wedge t \Leftrightarrow p$ is a tautology, then $p \wedge t \Leftrightarrow p$.

Similarly, $p \vee t \Leftrightarrow t$.

(b)

(a) $\neg p \rightarrow q$ $\neg q \rightarrow p$

(c)

P	C	T	$c \Rightarrow p$	$p \Rightarrow t$
T	F	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T

Thus, $c \Rightarrow p$ and $p \Rightarrow t$.

تناقض = مهملة (أى معايد) / (كرمز c (حرف خيال و غير) بدون معنى
حوث يثير إلئى عبارة لها (A contradiction statement) ولها عبارة كثيرة (A tautology statement)
و (كرمز t يثير عبارة كثيرة

1.5 Deductive Reasoning

(البرهان المنطقي) (Inference)

Note Title

12-Jan-13

القواعد المنطقية هي دوافعها وبراهينها من النفيات والسلبية من 1 إلى 6 وعمدها 16 تناقض صريح مواتنه صحة كادوات المعرفة (المقدمة بالاستنتاج المنطقى) $\neg p \Rightarrow q \Rightarrow p \Rightarrow q$ وتناقض بين العبارات $p \Rightarrow q$ إذا سُمِّخ من المقدمة العادلة لذا تسمى هذه القواعد (قواعد البرهان المنطقي) حيث يُسمى
أختصاراً (القانون) لذا يجب حسب حالة (برهان العدل) مع (الخطوة البرهانية)
لـالبرهان المنطقي (القواعد المنطقية) متعلقة بـالبرهان العدل ، دليل
مثال 5 (النفي ساق نفيه) $\neg p \Rightarrow \neg q \equiv q \Rightarrow p$ (برهان العدل)
ـ قواعد دلائل وتعريفات أخرى بعدد إثباته باختصار بـبرهان العدل.

Example 5: Prove the Contrapositive Law

$$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$$

using relevant defs and other rules of inference.

PF: We have that

$$\begin{aligned} p \rightarrow q &\equiv \neg(p \wedge \neg q) && (\text{Def.}) \\ &\equiv \neg(\neg q \wedge p) && (\text{comm.}) \\ &\equiv \neg(\neg q \wedge \neg(\neg p)) && (\text{D.N.}) \\ &\equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p && (\text{Def.}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $(p \rightarrow q) \equiv (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$, by Transitive Law.

Dcf: The method used in Example 5 is called deductive reasoning or deductive method.

نفيه: (برهان مختلف عن البرهان بالخلاف) برهان العدل (نفيه)
ـبرهان العدل تستخدم لأى تناقض صراحة من زعيقات، تعريفات، نفيات وقواعد
ـبرهان العدل ويجزئها.

Example 6: Prove the Disjunctive Syllogism by deductive reasoning: $(P \vee q) \wedge \neg p \Rightarrow q$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PF: } (P \vee q) \wedge \neg p &\equiv \neg p \wedge (P \vee q) && (\text{comm.}) \\ &\equiv (\neg p \wedge P) \vee (\neg p \wedge q) && (\text{Dist.}) \\ &\equiv C \vee (\neg p \wedge q) && (\neg p \wedge P \equiv C) \\ &\equiv \neg p \wedge q && (\text{Thrm 7(b)}) \\ &\Rightarrow q && (\text{Simp.}) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Example 7: Prove the following Exportation Law:

$$(p \wedge q \rightarrow r) \equiv [p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r)]$$

by deductive reasoning.

PF:

$$\begin{aligned}(p \wedge q) \rightarrow r &\equiv \neg(p \wedge q) \wedge \neg r && (\text{Def}) \\ &\equiv \neg(p \wedge (q \wedge \neg r)) && (\text{Assoc.}) \\ &\equiv p \rightarrow \neg(q \wedge \neg r) && (\text{Def, D.N.}) \\ &\equiv p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r) && (\text{Def})\end{aligned}$$

□

Example 8: Prove by deductive reasoning that

$$(p \rightarrow r) \vee (q \rightarrow s) \equiv (p \wedge q \rightarrow r \vee s)$$

PF:

$$\begin{aligned}(p \rightarrow r) \vee (q \rightarrow s) &\equiv \neg(p \wedge \neg r) \vee \neg(q \wedge \neg s) && (\text{Def}) \\ &\equiv (\neg p \vee r) \vee (\neg q \vee s) && (\text{De M., D.N.}) \\ &\equiv (\neg p \vee \neg q) \vee (r \vee s) && (\text{Comm., Asso.}) \\ &\equiv \neg[(p \wedge q) \wedge \neg(r \vee s)] && (\text{De M., D.N.}) \\ &\equiv (p \wedge q) \rightarrow (r \vee s) . && (\text{Def}).\end{aligned}$$

1.6 Quantification Rules

Note Title

16-Jan-13

تعريف: هي لغة سهلة ل-expression (الكلام) في الواقع (الكون) مجال محمد عبد الحفيظ
نطاق (الكون) أو المجال \rightarrow domain of discourse or universe
مثال ذلك أن نقول "كل من على الأرض فائز" فإن مجال (الكتاب) هنا هو كل
ما خلق الله من أشياء ناتجة (حيث / درس) آخر تحولنا:
• All the students in the IUG are diligent
• جميع طلبة الجامعة هم مخلوقون

نطاق مجال الحديث هنا هو "طلبة (جامعة كلية العلوم)" وهي مجموعة،
وهي كتبة (العبارة المقابلة على الإشارة)
(*) ----- • For all x in the universe, x is diligent

إختصاراً / إذا رأينا للعبارة $P(x)$ بـ " x is diligent" بيانه على
إيابي كتبة (جملة (x)) باصورة $(\forall x)(P(x))$

في المقابل قد يكون الحديث عن جزء من المجال/ مثل موسى " طلبة (جامعة
العلوم) مخلوقون" ، من حيث العبارة لا تزال مجموعة،
في العبارة كتبة " طلبة (جامعة كلية العلوم)" ، وهذا يعني كتبة
الكتاب (إذا وجدنا على الأقل طلاب واحد من طلبة (جامعة العلوم) ، يعني
كتبته الإشارة بالعبارة)

"There exists at least one x in the universe such that x is diligent"
دالة رؤيا للعبارة $P(x)$ بـ " x is diligent" الإشارة بالعبارة باصورة
 $(\exists x)(P(x))$

العبارة \rightarrow universal quantifier ? $(\forall x)(P(x))$ تسمى عبارة

existential quantifier ? $(\exists x)(P(x))$

Def: A propositional predicate "or open sentence" is
a sentence containing variables ranging over
a particular set V called a domain of discourse or
a universe.

ما خواسته: ما که کنم که این است که محتوی کاری propositional predicate است که این است که محتوی کاری $p(x, y)$ است و محتوی کاری $p(x)$ است و داده ای خواهیم داشت که x را در $p(x)$ بگذاریم و y را در $p(x, y)$ بگذاریم و $p(x)$ یک statement است و $p(x, y)$ یک predicate است. predicate داشته باشند (محتوا) و $p(x)$ داشته باشند (محتوا) و $p(x, y)$ داشته باشند (محتوا). داشته باشند (محتوا) و $p(x)$ داشته باشند (محتوا).

مثال زیر خواست:

$$p(x) \text{ is } "x + 3 < 2"$$

$p(2)$ و $p(-2)$ را تقدیر کنید و محتوا را در $p(x)$ بگذارید.

vi ep yki

$p(-2)$ is " $-1 < 2$ " which is a true statement,
and $p(2)$ is " $5 < 2$ " which is a false statement.

Examples of predicates:

1) The number x is less than ten.

2) $2x + 1 = 0$.

3) $x + 2y < 1$.

4) A student in IUG is diligent.

5) $(x+1)(x-1) = x^2 - 1$.

6) $(x+1)(x-1) = x^2 - 2$.

7) $x^2 - 4 = 0$.

Def: Let U be a universe and $p(x)$ be a predicate, then:

(1) **the universal quantifier** ($\forall x$) ($p(x)$) - read for all x , $p(x)$ - becomes a statement asserts that for all x in U , the statement $p(x)$ about x is true.

(2) **the existential quantifier** ($\exists x$) ($p(x)$) - read there exists x , $p(x)$ - becomes a statement asserts that there exists at least one x in U such that the statement $p(x)$ about x is true.

(3) **A quantifier** is either universal or existential quantifier.

Remark: In mathematics, "for every" and "for all" mean the same and both are symbolized by \forall ; and "for some" means the same as "there exists" and is symbolized by \exists .

Example: For the universe of all real numbers, determine the truth value of the following quantifiers:

- 1) $(\forall x) [(x > 0) \vee (x = 0) \vee (x < 0)]$. (T)
- 2) $(\forall x) [x + 1 > x]$. (T)
- 3) $(\forall x) (x > 3)$. (F)
- 4) $(\forall x) [(|x| > 0) \vee x = 0]$ (T)
- 5) $(\forall x) [\frac{x}{x} = 1]$ (F)
- 6) $(\forall x) [(x - 1)(x + 1) = x^2 - 1]$ (T)
- 7) $(\forall x) [(x - 1)(x + 1) = x^2 - 2]$ (F)
- 8) $(\exists x) [(x - 1)(x + 1) = x^2 - 2]$ (F)
- 9) $(\forall x) [x^2 - 4 = 0]$ (F)
- 10) $(\exists x) [x^2 - 4 = 0]$ (T)

Def: Two quantified statements are said to be **equivalent** if they are the same in logic.

Illustration: The quantifier:

"It is not true that all students in IUG are diligent" is equivalent to
 "There exists a student in IUG that is not diligent".
 In Mathematics: The first quantifier is symbolized by $\sim (\forall x)(p(x))$, and the second quantifier is symbolized by $(\exists x)(\sim p(x))$.

Rule of Quantifier Negation (Q·N.)

Let $p(x)$ be a predicate with unspecified object x in a given universe. Then

$$\sim [(\forall x)(p(x))] \equiv (\exists x)(\sim p(x)), \text{ and}$$

$$\sim [(\exists x)(p(x))] \equiv (\forall x)(\sim p(x)).$$

Illustration: Suppose for a specific case, that the universe set is $U = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n\}$ and $P(x)$ is a predicate of variable $x \in U$. Then the quantifier

$(\forall x)(P(x))$ amounts to $P(a_1) \wedge P(a_2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(a_n)$. Similarly, $(\exists x)(P(x))$ means $P(a_1) \vee P(a_2) \vee \dots \vee P(a_n)$. Hence

$$\sim (\forall x)(P(x)) \equiv \sim (P(a_1) \wedge P(a_2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(a_n))$$

D.C.M.

$$\equiv \sim P(a_1) \vee \sim P(a_2) \vee \dots \vee \sim P(a_n)$$

$$\equiv (\exists x)(\sim P(x))$$

which is the rule of Quantifier Negation.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Similarly, } \sim (\exists x)(P(x)) &\equiv \sim (P(a_1) \vee \dots \vee P(a_n)) \\ &\equiv \sim P(a_1) \wedge \sim P(a_2) \wedge \dots \wedge \sim P(a_n) \\ &\equiv (\forall x)(\sim P(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Example is De Morgan's rule if we replace \sim by \neg .

Example: What is the negation of the statement

(1) "All snakes are poisonous"?

Sol: If we take U to be the universe of all snakes and $P(x)$ to be the predicate " x is poisonous", then the statement can be symbolized by $(\forall x)(P(x))$, so by Q.N., the negation is $(\exists x)(\sim P(x))$, which represents "**Some snakes are not poisonous**".

2) "Some mathematicians are not sociable"

Sol: Let U be the universe of all mathematicians, and $P(x)$ be the predicate " x is not sociable". Then

$$\sim (\exists x)(P(x)) \equiv (\forall x)(\sim P(x));$$

That is, all mathematicians are sociable.

1.7 Proof of Validity

Note Title

16-Jan-13

(JW)

Def: (1) An argument is the assertion that a statement, called the **conclusion**, follows from other statements, called the **hypotheses or premises**.

(2) An argument is considered to be **valid** if the conjunction of the hypotheses implies the conclusion.

Illustration: The following is an argument in which the first four statements are hypotheses, and the last one is the conclusion.

H1: If my son gets a grade over than 90%, I will give him a bicycle

H2: If he studies hard, I will give him a watch.

H3: If he get a bicycle or a watch, then he is a good student.

H4: He is not good as a student.

C: Therefore, he does not get a grade over than 90%, and he does not study hard.

The argument may be symbolized as:

$$H1: M \rightarrow E$$

$$H2: A \rightarrow L$$

$$H3: (E \vee L) \rightarrow \sim W$$

$$H4: W$$

$$C: \therefore \sim M \wedge \sim A$$

لیکن این برابری سه میلیون و سی هزار و پانصد و هشتاد و سی و دو
• لیکن این برابری سه میلیون و سی هزار و پانصد و هشتاد و سی و دو = 32

Using the rules of inference, we can prove the validity of this argument in a few steps as follows:

From the hypotheses H3 and H4 $(EVL) \rightarrow \sim w \wedge w$ we get by Modus Tollens and De Morgan's Law that $\sim(EVL)$ or equivalently $\sim E \wedge \sim L$. By Law of Simplification, we validly infer $\sim E$ (and also $\sim L$). Again by Modus Tollens, $(M \rightarrow E) \wedge \sim E \Rightarrow \sim M$.
 $(A \rightarrow L) \wedge \sim L \Rightarrow \sim A$.

Finally, $\sim M$ and $\sim A$ gives the conclusion $\sim M \wedge \sim A$.

□

عَلَى كُلِّ مُخْتَرٍ نَّفِيَ الْمُتَحَقِّقُ مِنْهُ (بِالْجُنُوبِ) وَعَلَى
كُلِّ مُخْتَرٍ نَّفِيَ الْمُنْكَرُ مِنْهُ (بِالْجُنُوبِ) (مُنْكَرُ الْمُنْكَرِ هُوَ الْمُنْكَرُ لِلْمُنْكَرِ) :
(عَبَارَةٌ مُّبَيِّنَةٌ تَوَضِّحُ نَاطِلَ / الْمُنْكَرُ بِأَخْرِ عَبَارَةٍ دُوَيْنَيَةٌ / ارْتِفَارٌ (سَلَابِيٌّ)

- | | | |
|-----|---------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1) | $M \rightarrow E$ | (Hyp.) |
| 2) | $A \rightarrow L$ | (Hyp.) |
| 3) | $(EVL) \rightarrow \sim w$ | (Hyp.) |
| 4) | $w / \therefore \sim M \wedge \sim A$ | (Hyp. / concl.) |
| 5) | $\sim(EVL)$ | (3, 4, M.T.) |
| 6) | $\sim E \wedge \sim L$ | (De. M.) |
| 7) | $\sim E$ | (6, Simp.) |
| 8) | $\sim L$ | (6, Simp.) |
| 9) | $\sim M$ | (1, 7, M.T.) |
| 10) | $\sim A$ | (2, 8, M.T.) |
| 11) | $\sim M \wedge \sim A$ | (9, 10, Conj.) . |

$$\begin{array}{l} H_1: p \\ H_2: q \\ \hline C: p \wedge q \end{array}$$

Conjunction \rightarrow , \sim و \wedge (11) بِالْجُنُوبِ مِنْهُ يَمْكُثُ

: برهان شرطی و معاكس

Def: A formal proof of validity for a given argument is a sequence of statements each of which is either a premise of the argument or follows from preceding statements by a known valid argument, ending with the conclusion of the argument.

Example: Construct a formal proof of validity for the following argument, using the suggested symb.:

Ali is elected president of the board or both Hosam and Omer are elected vice presidents of the board. If Ali is elected president or Hosam is elected vice president of the board, then Hani will file a protest. Therefore, either Ali is elected president of the board or Hani files a protest.
(W, H, L, D)

- PF:
1. $W \vee (H \wedge L)$ (Hyp.)
 2. $W \vee H \rightarrow D / \therefore W \vee D$ (Hyp./ Concl.)
 3. $(W \vee H) \wedge (W \vee L)$ (1, Distr.)
 4. $W \vee H$ (3, Simp.)
 5. D (2, 4, M.P.)
 6. $D \vee W$ (5, Add)
 7. $W \vee D$ (6, Com.)

Indirect Proof:

طريقاً أخرى لبرهان التناقض (النفي) وبرهان التناقض بالتعارض، أثبتنا أن $\neg (P \wedge Q) \equiv \neg P \vee \neg Q$ وذلك بـ $\neg P \vee \neg Q \vdash \neg (P \wedge Q)$ و $\neg (P \wedge Q) \vdash \neg P \vee \neg Q$.

رسی فہرے (حالہ) کے ساتھ مذکورہ ایسا پردازی کا نتیجہ ملے گا۔

Example: Give an indirect proof of validity for the following argument:

1. $P \vee Q \rightarrow R$
2. $S \rightarrow P \wedge Q$
3. $P \vee S / \therefore R$

PF:

4. $\neg R$ (I.P.) [Indirect proof]
5. $\neg(P \vee Q)$ (1, 4, M.T.)
6. $\neg P \wedge \neg Q$ (5, De.M.)
7. $\neg P$ (6, Simp.)
8. $\neg Q$ (6, Simp.)
9. S (3, 7, D.S.) [Disj. Syllo.]
10. $P \wedge Q$ (2, 9, M.P.)
11. P (10, Simp.)
12. $P \wedge \neg P$ (7, 11, Conj.)

Hence the statement $P \wedge \neg P$ in step 12 is a contradiction. Therefore, the indirect proof of the validity is complete.

فی مقابلہ برهان (بیان مبارکہ) کا عکس ایسا برهان فہرے (حالہ) کو روشن کرنے والے برهان مبارکہ (Directed proof) ہے، جسکا نتیجہ ایسا ہے کہ نوع (برهان) کوئی مبتکر اور عین مبتکر علیٰ تختیل احمدیات (برهان)۔

1.8 Mathematical Induction

Note Title

19-Jan-13

التعريف: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n)$ (Predicate) هي مبرهنة تامة تلخص مجموعات المدالة $P(n)$ في المجموعة \mathbb{N} (universe) [universal quantifier] ($\forall n$) يتحقق اثنين من الحالات في $n \in \mathbb{N}$:

Mathematical Induction. (المبرهنة التامة)

Let $P(n)$ be a predicate involving the natural number n s.t.:

- (1) $P(1)$ is true, and
- (2) $P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$ for any arbitrary natural number k , then $P(n)$ is true for every natural number n .

Remark: The principle of mathematical induction is a consequence of one of Peano's Axioms for the natural numbers says that:

"If S is a subset of \mathbb{N} such that $1 \in S$ and $(\forall n) [n \in S \Rightarrow (n+1) \in S]$, then $S = \mathbb{N}$ ".

اللورفع: إذا فرضنا أن $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ بحيث $1 \in S$ و $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} [P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)]$ فالنحوية $\forall k \in S \Rightarrow k+1 \in S$ هي صحيحة (المبرهنة التامة) ولذلك $S = \mathbb{N}$ وهي التي يتحقق بها $P(n)$ لـ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- ($\forall n$)($P(n)$ \rightarrow $P(n+1)$) \vdash (المبرهنة التامة) \vdash (اللورفع):
- بحسب فرضية الافتراض $P(n)$ هي صحيحة.
 - $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n) \wedge \forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n+1)$ هي صحيحة.
 - $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n+1)$ هي صحيحة.
- (1) Hypothesis $\vdash P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$ (افتراض) \vdash 1
- وأختزام تفاصيل وتحفظها ومحاجتها \vdash $P(k+1)$ لا تحتاج صحة ($P(k+1)$) [conclusion]
- . induction hypothesis $\vdash P(k) \vdash$ من نصوص البرهنة.

~ 6) $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \in S\}$ مجموعه (جزئی) مجموعه S (جزئی) مجموعه (جزئی) $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \in S\}$ مجموعه (جزئی) $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n+1 \in S\}$
 $\{5, 6, 7, \dots\} / \{101, 102, 103, \dots\}$ مجموعات $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \in S\} \Rightarrow n+1 \in S$
 $\{5, 7, 8, 9, \dots\}$ مجموعات بین (جزئی) مجموعات $\{90, 91, \dots\}$
 لزوماً /
 دعوه عکس ایجاد مجموعه $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \in S\}$ برای $p(n)$ مجموعه $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid p(n)\}$ مجموعه جمل است
 دعوه ایضاً ایجاد مجموعه $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \in S\}$ برای $p(n)$ مجموعه $\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid p(n)\}$ مجموعه جمل است
 • $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ مجموعه $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ مجموعه $\{1, 2, \dots, n+1\}$ مجموعه
 همان نظر مذکور بود (برای تجربه سنجش بگوشه لغزشیه بیان).

Examples: Prove by Mathematical Induction that :

1) For every natural number n ,

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

PF: Suppose that $p(n)$ represents the predicate

$$\text{"} 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \text{"}$$

So, $p(1)$ represents " $1 = \frac{1*2}{2}$ " which is true and this proves condition (1) for math. induction. To prove that condition (2) is satisfied, Suppose $p(k)$ is true; that is,

$$\text{"} 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \text{"} \text{ is true}$$

[$p(k)$ is true if and only if " $1 + 2 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$ " is true]

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \\ &= (k+1) \left(\frac{k}{2} + 1 \right) \\ &= (k+1)(k+2)/2 \end{aligned}$$

This proves that $p(k+1)$ is true. So by the principle of mathematical induction, we have that $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) "1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}"$ is true.

$$2) 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2.$$

PF: Suppose that $p(n)$ represents that

$$\text{"} 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2 \text{"},$$

so $p(1)$ represents " $1 = 1^2$ " which is true.

Suppose that $p(k)$ is true; that is

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k-1) = k^2$$

Add $2k+1$ to both sides, we get

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k-1) + (2k+1) = k^2 + 2k + 1 = (k+1)^2$$

but $2k+1 = 2(k+1)-1$, hence

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k-1) + 2(k+1)-1 = (k+1)^2$$

which proves that $p(k+1)$ is true. Thus, by math. induc. $p(n)$ is true for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

3) Prove that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, 3 divides $n^3 - n$

PF: Suppose that $p(n)$ represents that

$$\text{"3 divides } n^3 - n\text{"},$$

so $p(1)$ represents that "3 divides zero"

This statement is true since $\exists r \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t.

$$0 = 3 * r \quad (r=0)$$

Suppose that $p(k)$ is true; that is

$$3 \text{ divides } k^3 - k$$

So, there exists integer r s.t.

$$k^3 - k = 3 \cdot r \quad \dots \quad (\ast)$$

$$\text{Consider } (k+1)^3 - (k+1) = (k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1) - (k+1)$$

$$= k^3 + 3k^2 + 2k$$

$$= (k^3 - k) + (3k^2 + 3k)$$

$$\stackrel{(\ast)}{=} 3 \cdot r + 3(k^2 + k)$$

$$= 3(r + k^2 + k).$$

Thus, 3 divides $(k+1)^3 - (k+1)$ and $p(k+1)$ is true.

Therefore $p(n)$ is true $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Def: Let n be a natural number and r an integer.
The symbol $C(n, r)$ (sometimes $\binom{n}{r}$) is defined by

$$C(0, 0) = 1, \quad C(0, r) = 0 \quad \forall r \neq 0, \text{ and}$$

$$C(n, r) = C(n-1, r) + C(n-1, r-1).$$

Illustration: $C(0, 3) = C(0, 2) = C(0, 1) = 0$

$$C(1, 0) = C(0, 0) + C(0, -1) = 1$$

$$C(1, 1) = C(0, 1) + C(0, 0) = 1$$

$$C(1, 2) = C(0, 2) + C(0, 1) = 0$$

$$C(2, 2) = C(1, 2) + C(1, 1) = 0 + 1 = 1$$

and so on.

Thrm 8: For a natural number n and integer $r \geq 0$,

$$C(n, r) = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

where $n!$ (read n factorial) is the product

$$n = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \text{ and } 0! = 1 \text{ by convention.}$$

PF: We can prove it by Mathematical induction. (do it)

Corollary: For a natural number n and integer $r \geq 0$,

$$(1) \quad C(n, 0) = C(n, n) = 1,$$

$$(2) \quad C(n, r) = C(n, n-r).$$

Thrm 9: (The Binomial Thrm)

Let x, y be two fixed real, then for every natural number n ,

$$(x+y)^n = C(n, 0)x^n + C(n, 1)x^{n-1}y + C(n, 2)x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + C(n, r)x^{n-r}y^r + \dots + C(n, n)y^n.$$

PF: Again, we can prove it by math. induc. (prove it)

Ch2 The Concept of Sets

Note Title

23-Jan-13

2.1 Sets and Subsets

تعريف: "ما هي مجموعة؟" هو سؤال عادي من (العمومية) لذا فلانتها هنا لم تكن مخصوصة في أي من المفاهيم والنظريات التي تناولت تعريف (مجموعات) و! هنا يجري بتعريف العالم بمعنى

Def: (Def of a set)

A **set** is any collection into a whole of definite and distinguishable objects, called **elements of the set**.

Illustration: The following are examples of sets:

- 1- The set of all students in the IUG.
- 2- The set of letters a, b, c and d.
- 3- The set of all rational numbers whose square is 2.
- 4- The set of all natural numbers
- 5- The set of all real numbers between 0 and 1.

Def: A set which contains only finitely many elements is called **a finite set**; if the set is not finite, we say it is **infinite set**.

Note that, the sets above in (1), (2) and (3) are finite sets, while the sets in (4) and (5) are infinite. Moreover, and when it is possible to do, the sets can be written by inclosing symbols { . . . }, representing their elements in braces.

For Examples, the set in (2) can be written in the form {a, b, c, d}, the set in (3) written {} or Ø, which called **the empty set**.

Remark: From the defns above, we can prove that
 $A = B \iff (A \subseteq B) \wedge (B \subseteq A)$ (prove it)

Note that any set is a subset (and a superset) of itself.

If $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$, we write $A \subset B$ or $A \subsetneq B$, and we say that A is a **proper subset** of B . So A is a proper subset of B if it is true that

$$(\forall x) [(x \in A) \rightarrow (x \in B)] \wedge (\exists x) [(x \in B) \wedge (x \notin A)]$$

[A is \subseteq B and $\exists x \in B$ such that $x \notin A$]

When A is not a subset of B , we write $A \not\subseteq B$.

In logic

$$\neg (\forall x) [(x \in A) \rightarrow (x \in B)] \equiv (\exists x) [(x \in A) \wedge (x \notin B)]$$

وَهُوَ مُعْرِفٌ بِأَنَّهُ مُمْكِنٌ أَنْ يَكُونَ مُعْلَمٌ بِأَنَّهُ مُمْكِنٌ أَنْ يَكُونَ

$$(A \subset B) \equiv (A \subseteq B) \wedge (B \not\subseteq A)$$

Thrm 1: The empty set is a subset of every set.

PF: Let A be any set. We want prove that

$(\forall x) [x \in \emptyset \rightarrow (x \in A)]$ is true. But $(\forall x)$, $x \in \emptyset$ is false statement, while $x \in A$ may be true or false. In either cases, the statement $(x \in \emptyset) \rightarrow (x \in A)$ will be true.

Thrm 2: If $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$, then $A \subseteq C$.

PF: Suppose that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$. Then $\forall x$,

$(x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B) \wedge (x \in B \Rightarrow x \in C)$. By transitivity law, $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in C$. That is $A \subseteq C$.

□

Example: In each of the following, determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true prove it, else, disprove it by an example. (such example is called a **counterexample**)

$$1) (A \subseteq B) \wedge (B \subseteq C) \Rightarrow (A \subseteq C) \quad (\text{True})$$

PF: Suppose that $A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq C$. Then $(\forall x)$ we have that

$$(x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B) \wedge (A \neq B) \wedge (x \in B \Rightarrow x \in C)$$

(By Simp. rule, and transitive law)

$$(x \in A) \Rightarrow (x \in C). \text{ Hence } A \subseteq C. \text{ If } A = C,$$

then $B \subseteq C = A$ and so $(\forall x) (x \in B \Rightarrow x \in A)$.

Thus $A = B$ which is a contradiction. Thus $A \neq C$ and therefore $A \subset C$.

$$2) \emptyset = \{\emptyset\} \quad (\text{False})$$

Since the left hand is an empty set and the right hand is the set contains one element which is \emptyset so it is not empty.

$$3) x \in \{\{x\}, \{x,y\}\} \quad (\text{False})$$

Since the elements of the set are also sets, and $x \neq \{x\}$.

$$4) \{1, x\} \subseteq \{1, x, \{x\}\} \quad (\text{True})$$

PF: $(\forall y) [y \in \{1, x\} \Rightarrow (y=1) \vee (y=x)]$. If $y=1$

or $y=x$ then $y \in \{1, x, \{x\}\}$. \square

2.2 Specification of Sets

Note Title

24-Jan-13

التعريف: إذا كان $\{x \in A : p(x)\}$ مجموعات محددة، حيث $p(x)$ هي عبارة عن شرط،
فهي تسمى بـ "المجموعة المحددة" أو "المجموعة المبنية".
مثلاً: $\{x \in A : p(x)\}$ هي مجموعات محددة من مجموعات A .

Illustration: Let A be the set of all students in IUG.
Note that the predicate " x is female" is true for
some elements x of A . The set

$$\{x \in A : x \text{ is female}\}$$

is specify the set of all female students in IUG.
Similarly $\{x \in A : x \text{ is not female}\}$ is the
set of all male students in IUG.

Thus, as a rule, to every set A and to every
predicate $p(x)$ about $x \in A$, there exists a set
 $\{x \in A : p(x)\}$ whose elements are precisely those elements
 x of A for which the statement $p(x)$ is true.

Axiom of Specification \rightarrow إذا كانت $\{x \in A : p(x)\}$ مجموعات

The symbol $\{x \in A : p(x)\}$ read the set of all x in A
such that $p(x)$ is true and is called **the set builder notation**.

Example: Let \mathbb{R} be the set of all real numbers. Then

- 1) $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x = x + 1\}$ is the empty set.
- 2) $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 - 4 = 0\}$ is the set $\{-2, 2\}$.
- 3) $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 1 = 0\}$ is the empty set. In
this case, the two sets in (1) and (3) are equal.

: الخطوات المتبعة لتعريف المجموعات

$$\mathbb{R} = \{x : x \text{ is a real number}\}$$

$$\mathbb{Q} = \{x : x \text{ is a rational number}\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{x : x \text{ is an integer}\}$$

$$\mathbb{N} = \{x : x \text{ is a natural number}\}$$

$$I = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$$

$$\mathbb{R}_+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0\}$$

Note that $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$ and
 $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{R}_+ \subset \mathbb{R}$

لاحظ أنه لا يوجد ماء يكفي في الكوكب المحمولة

نذكر مجموعات قاعدة بنادق مثل ذلك (مجموعات عشوائية)

تحتوي على عناصر كل من $\{1, 2, 3\}$ و $\{2, 3\}$ و 1 و $\{1, 2\}$ و $\{1, 3\}$ و $\{2, 3, 1\}$ و \emptyset وغيرها

المجموعات التي تتألف من عناصر $\{1, 2, 3\}$ هي $\{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

نكتب $\{2\} \subseteq A$ إذا كانت $\{2\}$ ضمن A ، وليس صحيحًا أولاً أن $\{2, 3\} \subseteq A$

والمجموعات التي يتألف A منها هي $\{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

مختصرة ومرتبة بحسب الترتيب التالي:

Def: For a given set A , we define **the power set** of A - denoted by $P(A)$ - to be the set of all subsets of A . That is,

$$B \in P(A) \iff B \subseteq A.$$

Example: Find $P(A)$ if

$$1) A = \{a\}.$$

$$2) A = \{a, b\}.$$

sol: 1) $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$

2) $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$.

Thrm 3: If A contains n elements, then its power set $P(A)$ contains exactly 2^n elements.

PF: Suppose that $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n\}$ and suppose that $B \subseteq A$. Let a_k be arbitrary for $k=1, 2, 3, \dots, n$

[A の任意の a_k が B に含まれるか含まれないか]

There are two possible cases;

Case 1: $a_k \in B$ and Case 2: $a_k \notin B$.

Translate this as the problem of filling a list of n blank spaces $\square \square \square \dots \square$ by 0 or 1 as follows:

If $a_k \in B$, then we put 1 in the k -th space and if $a_k \notin B$, we put 0 . In fact, there is exactly $2 \times 2 \times \dots \times 2 = 2^n$ different such fillings, each one of these fillings represents a subset of A . Therefore,

$P(A)$ contains exactly 2^n elements.

Explain If $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5\}$, then the filling 00101 represents the subset $B = \{a_3, a_5\}$ as well.

Alternative Proof: Suppose that A has n -elements and $P(A)$ is its power set. Note that the number of subsets of A containing exactly k -elements is the number $C(n, k)$. [\rightarrow これは何を意味する?]

So, the number of subsets of A containing zero element is $C(n, 0)$,

[\emptyset は 1 個の元素を含まないから, $C(n, 0) = 1$]

and the number of subsets of A containing one element is $C(n, 1)$

[$\{a_k\}$ が 1 個の元素を含むから, $C(n, 1) = n$]

and so on, to get the number of subsets of A is

$$C(n, 0) + C(n, 1) + \dots + C(n, k) + \dots + C(n, n)$$

Using the binomial Thrm, we get that

$$2^n = (1+1)^n = C(n, 0) + C(n, 1) + \dots + C(n, k) + \dots + C(n, n)$$

is the number of elements of $P(A)$

□

2.3 Unions and Intersections

Note Title

26-Jan-13

Def 3: The union of any two sets A and B , denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set of all elements x such that x belongs to at least one of the two sets A and B .

In logic,

$$x \in A \cup B \Leftrightarrow (x \in A) \vee (x \in B) \text{ and } A \cup B = \{x : (x \in A) \vee (x \in B)\}$$

Def 4: The intersection of any two sets A and B , denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set of all elements x such that x belongs to both A and B .

In logic,

$$x \in A \cap B \Leftrightarrow (x \in A) \wedge (x \in B) \text{ and}$$

$$A \cap B = \{x : (x \in A) \wedge (x \in B)\} = \{x \in A : x \in B\}$$

If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then A and B are said to be disjoint.

Examples: 1) If $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{2, 4, 6, 7\}$

then

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\},$$

$$A \cap B = \{2, 4\}.$$

2) The set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} and the set of irrational numbers are two disjoint sets.

$$3) I \cap N = \{1\},$$

$$I \cap Z = \{0, 1\},$$

$$Z \cap Q = Z, \quad Z \cup Q = Q$$

$$I \cup I = I \cap I = I,$$

$$N \cap Z = N, \text{ and}$$

$$N \cup Z = Z.$$

Thm 4: Let \mathcal{X} be a set and let A, B , and C be subsets of \mathcal{X} . Then we have that:

(a) **The unities:**

$$A \cup \emptyset = A,$$

$$A \cap X = A.$$

(b) **The idempotency law:**

$$A \cup A = A,$$

$$A \cap A = A.$$

(c) **The commutative laws:**

$$A \cup B = B \cup A,$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A.$$

(d) **The associative laws:**

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C,$$

$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C.$$

(e) **The distributive laws:**

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

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

براهيم مزروع (بروفير) وآخرين
rules of inference (براهيم مزروع), logic (براهيم مزروع)

• rules of inference (براهيم مزروع), logic (براهيم مزروع)

- exercise [Ex 1] تذكر بذرة (ذرة) من المفهوم

(أ) (ذرة)

$$x \in A \cap (B \cup C) \Leftrightarrow (x \in A) \wedge (x \in (B \cup C)) \quad (\text{Def})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x \in A) \wedge [(x \in B) \vee (x \in C)] \quad (\text{Def})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow [(x \in A) \wedge (x \in B)] \vee [(x \in A) \wedge (x \in C)] \quad (\text{dist. law.})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (x \in (A \cap B)) \vee (x \in (A \cap C))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \in [(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)]$$

By transitive law, we get that

$$x \in A \cap (B \cup C) \Leftrightarrow x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C). \quad \text{Thus,}$$

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \quad \square$$

Thrm: (a) $A \subseteq B \iff A \cup B = B$.

(b) $A \subseteq B \iff A \cap B = A$.

PF: (a) We will prove it by proving that

$A \subseteq B$ implies $A \cup B = B$ and $A \cup B = B$ implies $A \subseteq B$.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose that $A \subseteq B$.

From the def of $A \cup B$, we get that $B \subseteq A \cup B$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } x \in (A \cup B) &\equiv (x \in A) \vee (x \in B) && (\text{Def of } \cup) \\ &\Rightarrow (x \in B) \vee (x \in B) && (\text{hyp. } A \subseteq B) \\ &\equiv (x \in B) && (\text{Idemp.}) \end{aligned}$$

That is $A \cup B \subseteq B$ ($\text{Def of } \subseteq$)

By previous remark, $(B \subseteq A \cup B) \wedge (A \cup B \subseteq B) \equiv A \cup B = B$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $A \cup B = B$.

$$\begin{aligned} (x \in A) &\Rightarrow (x \in A) \vee (x \in B) && (\text{add law}) \\ &\equiv x \in (A \cup B) && (\text{Def of } \cup) \\ &\equiv (x \in B) && (\text{hyp. } A \cup B = B) \end{aligned}$$

That is $[(x \in A) \Rightarrow (x \in B)] \equiv A \subseteq B$ (def).

- (b) $\neg \exists e \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \exists k \in \mathbb{N}$

Example: Prove or disprove:

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

for any two sets?

Sol: In general, the statement is false.

Counter example: $A = \{a\}$, $B = \{b\}$, $A \cup B = \{a, b\}$.

$$P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}, P(B) = \{\emptyset, \{b\}\}, \text{ and}$$

$$P(A \cup B) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}. \text{ So, it is clearly}$$

that $P(A \cup B) \neq P(A) \cup P(B)$.

(د) $\neg \exists i$ $A \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow B \subseteq A$, $\neg \exists i$ \subseteq \subseteq \subseteq \subseteq

2.4 Complements

Note Title

26-Jan-13

Def 5: If A and B are sets, the **relative complement** of B in A is the set $A - B$ ($A \setminus B$) defined by

$$A - B = \{x : (x \in A) \wedge (x \notin B)\} = \{x \in A : x \notin B\}.$$

In this def, it is not assumed that $B \subseteq A$.

Example: Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{2, 4, 6, 7\}$,
then

$$A - B = \{1, 3, 5\} \text{ and } B - A = \{6, 7\}.$$

Note that $A \cap B = \{2, 4\}$, and

$$A - (A \cap B) = \{1, 3, 5\} = A - B \text{ and}$$

$$B - (A \cap B) = \{6, 7\} = B - A.$$

In general, this is true. See exercise 2.4 (1).

تَنْوِيَهٌ هَامٌ: ① على (العنصر x في المجموعة A) مُعْبَدٌ بـ $\neg(x \in A)$

- وـ $\neg\neg x \in A$ تُعرَف مجموعات جميع المجموعات - غير مجموعات $\neg A$ حالي سهل الحال Russell Paradox / بناءه على بود ما يكفي (مؤقتاً) من المجموعات $\neg A$ مجموعات المجموعات في هذا الكتاب، [عَيْنَ تَعْنِي ذلِكَ سهل الحال أخذ بـ $\neg\neg$ تَحْمِل جميع المجموعات التي ذكرت درستها من هذا الكتاب]. بهذا (طبعاً) المحدد) خارج أي مجموعة A من هذه المادَةِ المُعْبَدَ $\neg A$ المُعْبَدَ

② كل مجموعات A التي x يَحْدُد بـ $\neg(x \in A)$ تختلف عما أَخْرَى له في في هذه (الحال) يجب وصف \neg بـ طريقة واضحة - كأنه يقول: "المجموعة A تَحْمِل جميع مُطْلَبَةٍ مُلْطَلِي" أو أنه يقول: "ـ A هي مجموعة (أَنْدَادَ النَّسْبَة)"

إذا ذُكرت A مجموعة حالية ولم يتم تحديده معرفة (ـ A) نعم يكتفى \neg (مُعْبَدَ A)

Def: If U is a universal set, we denote \bar{A} - read the complement of A - to be the set

$$\bar{A} = U - A = \{x : x \notin A\}$$

[$A \subseteq U$ ni \bar{A} $\subseteq U$ oipis]

Thrm: (Example 5)

For any two sets,

$$A - B = A \cap \bar{B}$$

PF:

$$\begin{aligned} x \in A \cap \bar{B} &\equiv (x \in A) \wedge (x \in U - B) \quad (\text{Def of } \cap, \bar{\cdot}) \\ &\equiv (x \in A) \wedge [(x \in U) \wedge (x \notin B)] \quad (\text{Def } -) \\ &\equiv [(x \in A) \wedge (x \in U)] \wedge (x \notin B) \quad (\text{associ.}) \\ &\equiv (x \in (A \cap U)) \wedge (x \notin B) \quad (\text{Def of } \cap) \\ &\equiv (x \in A) \wedge (x \notin B) \quad (A \cap U = A) \\ &\equiv x \in (A - B) \quad (\text{Def of } -) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $A \cap \bar{B} = A - B$.

Thrm 5: Let A and B be sets. Then

$$(a) (\bar{A}') = A.$$

$$(b) \emptyset' = U \text{ and } U' = \emptyset.$$

$$(c) A \cap \bar{A}' = \emptyset \text{ and } A \cup \bar{A}' = U.$$

$$(d) A \subseteq B \text{ if and only if } B' \subseteq \bar{A}'.$$

PF: $x \in U$ ni $\bar{A}' = P$ wi $x \in \bar{A}'$ naber $x \in A$ ni $\bar{A}' = P$ wi $x \in \bar{A}'$ naber $x \in A$.

$$(x \in \bar{A}') \equiv (x \in U) \wedge (x \notin A) \equiv (x \notin A).$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 a) \quad x \in (A')' &\equiv x \notin A' && (\text{Def of } ') \\
 &\equiv \sim(x \in A') && (\text{Def of } \not\models) \\
 &\equiv \sim(\sim(x \in A)) && (\text{Def of } \sim) \\
 &\equiv x \in A && (\text{D.N.})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 b) \quad x \in \emptyset' &\equiv x \in (U - \emptyset) && (\text{Def of } ') \\
 &\equiv x \in U && (U - \emptyset = U)
 \end{aligned}$$

From part (a), $\emptyset = (\emptyset')' = U'$

$$\begin{aligned}
 c) \quad x \in A \cap A' &\equiv (x \in A) \wedge (x \in A') && (\text{Def of } \cap) \\
 &\equiv (x \in A) \wedge (x \notin A) && (\text{Def of } \not\models) \\
 &\equiv x \in \emptyset \\
 \text{since } \emptyset &= \{x : (x \in A) \wedge (x \notin A)\}
 \end{aligned}$$

($\emptyset = \{x : p(x) \text{ is a contradiction}\}$ لاحظ أن تربيعات \emptyset كثيرة موجبة خالية، لعل أحد التربيعات $\{x : \sim p(x)\}$ هو مزدوج، هنا $x \in A \cap A'$ يعني $x \in A$ و $x \notin A$ ، $\sim p(x) = (x \notin A)$ $\sim \sim p(x) = p(x) = (x \in A)$ لكن $x \in A$ و $x \notin A$ معاً، $\sim p(x) = (x \notin A)$ لذا $(\exists x)(p(x) \wedge \sim p(x))$ معاً

$$\begin{aligned}
 x \in (A \cup A') &\equiv (x \in A) \vee (x \in A') && (\text{Def of } \cup) \\
 &\equiv (x \in A) \vee [(x \in U) \wedge (x \notin A)] && (\text{Def of } \not\models) \\
 &\equiv [(x \in A) \vee (x \in U)] \wedge [(x \in A) \vee (x \notin A)] && (\text{Dist}) \\
 &\equiv [x \in (A \cup U)] \wedge t && (\text{Def of } t) \\
 &\equiv x \in A \cup U && (P \wedge t \equiv P) \\
 &\equiv x \in U && (A \subseteq U)
 \end{aligned}$$

لما $\exists x$ إذا أوجدنا بتعريف (مجموعة) كل المضادتين $p(x)$ و $\neg p(x)$

نعرف بـ $p(x)$ predicate لـ x

$$U = \{x : p(x) \vee \neg p(x)\}$$

ووصل هذه (المجموعة) إلى $t = p(x) \vee \neg p(x)$ حيث $x \in U$

$\exists x$ إذا أوجدنا $A \cup A' = U$ بـ $\exists x$

$$x \in A \cup A' \equiv (x \in A) \vee (x \in A') \quad (\text{Def of } U)$$

$$\equiv (x \in A) \vee (x \notin A) \quad (\text{Def of } \neg)$$

$$\equiv x \in U \quad (\text{Def of } U)$$

□

$$(d) \quad A \subseteq B \equiv [(x \in A) \rightarrow (x \in B)] \quad (\text{Def. } \subseteq)$$

$$\equiv [(x \notin B) \rightarrow (x \notin A)] \quad (\text{Contrap.})$$

$$\equiv [(x \in B') \rightarrow (x \in A')] \quad (\text{Def. } \neg)$$

$$\equiv B' \subseteq A' \quad (\text{Def of } \subseteq)$$

Thus, by transitivity, $A \subseteq B \equiv B' \subseteq A'$.

Thrm 6: (De Morgan's Thrm)

For any sets A and B ,

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{PF: (a)} \quad x \in (A \cup B)' &\equiv x \notin (A \cup B) \quad (\text{Def of } \setminus) \\
 &\equiv \sim [x \in (A \cup B)] \quad (\text{Def of } \notin) \\
 &\equiv \sim [(x \in A) \vee (x \in B)] \quad (\text{Def. } \vee) \\
 &\equiv \sim (x \in A) \wedge \sim (x \in B) \quad (\text{De-Morg. of Logic}) \\
 &\equiv (x \notin A) \wedge (x \notin B) \quad (\text{Def of } \notin) \\
 &\equiv (x \in A') \wedge (x \in B') \quad (\text{Def of } \setminus) \\
 &\equiv x \in (A' \cap B') \quad (\text{Def of } \cap) \\
 \Rightarrow (A \cup B)' &= A' \cap B' \quad . \quad (\text{b}) \quad \text{証明}
 \end{aligned}$$

Examples: Prove the following:

$$1) A \cap (B - C) = (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{PF: } (A \cap B) - (A \cap C) &= (A \cap B) \cap (A \cap C)' \quad (\text{Thrm}) \\
 &= (A \cap B) \cap (A' \cup C') \quad (\text{De-Morg.}) \\
 &= [(A \cap B) \cap A'] \cup [(A \cap B) \cap C'] \quad (\text{Distl.}) \\
 &= [(A \cap A') \cap B] \cup [A \cap (B \cap C')] \quad (\text{assoc.}) \\
 &= \emptyset \cup [A \cap (B - C)] \quad (A \cap A' = \emptyset) \\
 &= A \cap (B - C) \quad (\emptyset \cup A = A)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$2) A - B = A - (B \cap A)$$

PF:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A - (B \cap A) &= A \cap (B \cap A)^c && (\text{Thrm}) \\
 &= A \cap (B^c \cup A^c) && (\text{De Morgan}) \\
 &= (A \cap B^c) \cup (A \cap A^c) && (\text{Dist.}) \\
 &= (A \cap B^c) \cup \emptyset \\
 &= A \cap B^c \\
 &= A - B
 \end{aligned}$$

$$3) A \cap B = \emptyset \text{ iff } A \subseteq B^c \quad (\equiv B \subseteq A^c)$$

PF: (\Rightarrow) Suppose that

- a) $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and $(x \in A) \not\vdash (x \in B^c)$ (hyp. / concl.)
- b) Suppose to contrary $x \notin B^c$ (I. P.)
- c) $x \in B$ (b, def of c)
- d) $x \in A \cap B$ (a, c, def of \cap)
- e) $x \in \emptyset$ (d, a)

This is a contradiction.

[indirect proof of validity \rightarrow $\neg(\neg(A \subseteq B^c) \wedge A \cap B \neq \emptyset)$]

$$(\Leftarrow) \text{ a) } A \subseteq B^c \not\vdash A \cap B = \emptyset \quad (\text{hyp. / } \vdash \text{ concl})$$

- b) $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ (I. P.)
- c) $(\exists x) (x \in A) \wedge (x \in B)$ (b)
- d) $(\exists x) (x \in B^c) \wedge (x \in B)$ (a, c)
- e) $(\exists x) [x \in (B \cap B^c)]$ (d, def of \cap)

This is a contradiction.

2.5 Venn Diagrams

Note Title

29-Jan-13

لما نعنى في فن (مجموعات بالحلقات على طرفي دائرة) لكن جعلنا على طرفي
فنون بيغدوه انتقال (مجموعات) توصيفية تسمى

في هذه الصورة تمثل المجموعات كلها:

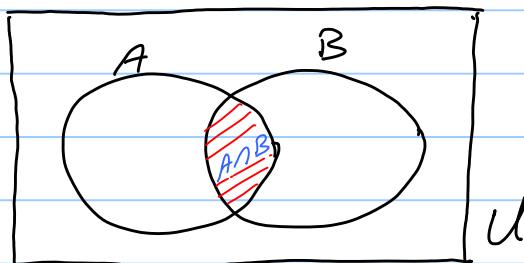
① (مجموعات متحدة) $A \cup B$: تمثل بمتضليل كل جمجمة (مجموعات ومتداخل).

② (مجموعات متعادلة) $A \cap B$: تمثل بمتضليل داخل دائرة (المجموعات).

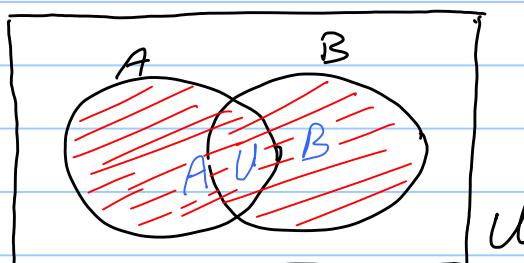
③ (مجموعات متداخلة) $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$: تمثل بمتضليل "أو إثبات" "x" ذو دوائر متعاولة "o".
نذكر داخل الدوائر ذو دائرة المتضليل حسب المعاشر للمجموعات.

④ يتم تمثيل (مجموعتين A, B) بمتضليل كالتالي:

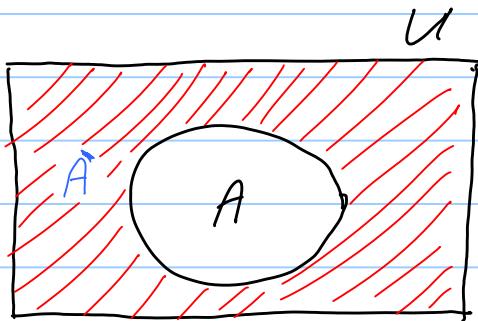
⑤ تمثيل (مجموعتين A, B) للإثبات $A \cup B$



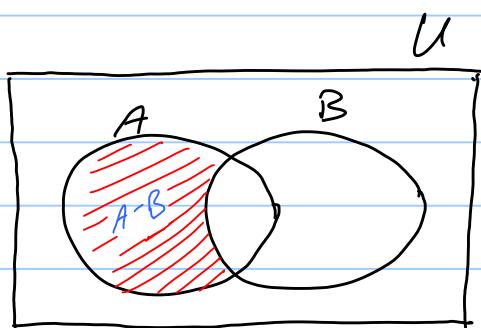
⑥ تمثيل (مجموعتين A, B) للإثبات $A \cup B$



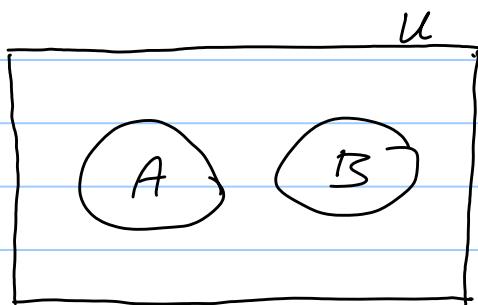
A' ينتمي إلى U لكنه ليس جزءاً من A (٢)



$A - B$ $\Rightarrow A \cap B$ بعد حذف جزء B من A (٣)



بعض (disjoint) يعني $B, A \subset U$ ولا ينتمي B, A معاً $A \cap B = \emptyset$ (٤)



Example : ① Suppose that $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$

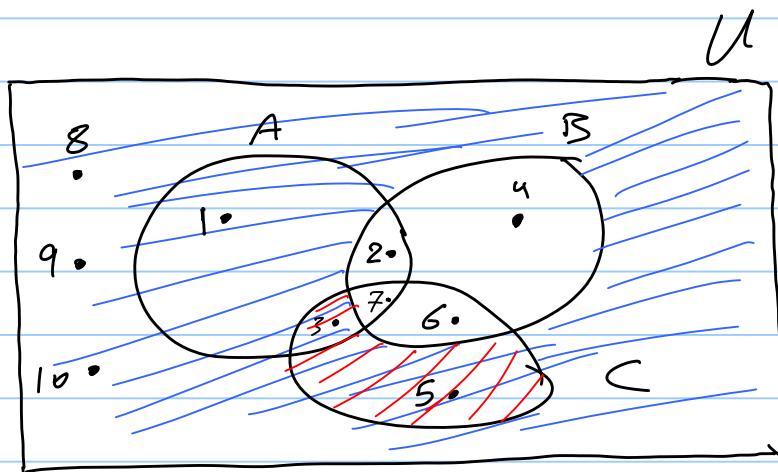
$A = \{1, 2, 3, 7\}$, $B = \{2, 4, 6, 7\}$, and

$C = \{3, 5, 6, 7\}$, then we have that

$$A \cap B = \{2, 7\}, \quad A \cap C = \{3, 7\}, \quad B \cap C = \{6, 7\}$$

$$A - B = \{1, 3\}, \quad A - C = \{1, 2\} \text{ and so on.}$$

A typical Venn diagram may be drawn as follows:



$$\text{Note that } (A \cap B) \cap C = \{2, 7\} \cap C = \{7\}$$

$$A \cap (B \cap C) = A \cap \{7, 6\} = \{7\}$$

$$\text{So, } A \cap B \cap C = (A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C).$$

From Venn diagram,

$$C - B = \{3, 5\} = C - (B \cap C)$$

and

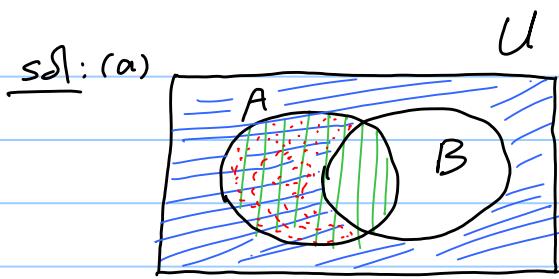
$$C \cap B' = \{3, 5\} = C - B.$$

مُنْجَدِلُونَ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ نَعْلَمُ

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

. لَوْلَى

2) Draw a Venn diagram for $A \cap B'$ and $A \cup (B - A)$



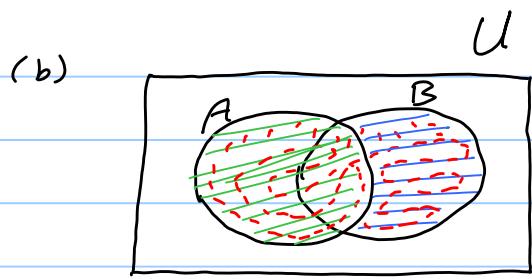
$$A \cap B'$$

منطقة (متحدة في زرقاء) في

منطقة (متحدة في خضراء) في

منطقة (متحدة (متحدة في زرقاء وخضراء)) في

منطقة (متحدة (متحدة في خضراء)) في



$$A \cup (B - A)$$

منطقة (متحدة في زرقاء) في

A منطقه (متحدة في خضراء) في

منطقة (متحدة (متحدة في اتحاد (منطقه

$A \cup (B - A)$) في

لما خط مظلل؟ شكل A ∩ B' = A - B في Venn شكل A ∪ (B - A) = A ∪ B في

Venn شكل كروي : خطوط انبات صورة ما صلنا عليه سهلان شكل A ∪ (B - A) = A ∪ B في

2.6 Indexed Families of Sets

Note Title

03-Feb-13

نَسْكٌ مِنْ مُعْلَمَاتٍ مُخْتَلِفَةٍ (مُجْمَعٌ) وَمُعْلَمَاتٍ مُخْتَلِفَةٍ (مُجْمَعٌ) لِكُلِّ عَيْنٍ،
أَيْضاً يُعْرَفُ بِمُعْلَمَاتٍ مُخْتَلِفَةٍ (مُجْمَعٌ) كُلُّ عَيْنٍ،
· members يُعْرَفُ عَلَى دِرْجَاتٍ وَمُطْلَقٍ بِهِ مُجْمَعٌ family

For Example: $\{a, a, a, b\}$ is a family with four members a, a, a , and b . But this family considered as a set is the set $\{a, b\}$ with two elements a and b .

Def: Let Γ be a set, and assume that $\forall \gamma \in \Gamma$, there is corresponding set A_γ . The family of all such sets A_γ is called an indexed family of sets indexed by the set Γ . We denote it by:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{A_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$$

ما هو ظرف؟: ① في التعريف (التعريف) A_γ هي عائلة مُخْتَلِفَةٍ (مُجْمَعٌ) من المُعْلَمَاتِ المُخْتَلِفَةِ (مُعْلَمَاتٍ مُخْتَلِفَةٍ)، family لها هي \mathcal{F} ، family هي Γ ، Γ هي المجموعة المُخْتَلِفَةُ (المُجْمَعُ).
تعريف \mathcal{F} للـ $\gamma \in \Gamma$ موجود A_γ مقابل γ لذا فإنّ عائلة \mathcal{F} هي عائلة مُخْتَلِفَةٍ (مُجْمَعٌ) Γ (2)
العائلة المُخْتَلِفَةٍ هي العائلة المُخْتَلِفَةٍ (indexed family)

$$A : \Gamma \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}$$
$$A(\gamma) = A_\gamma$$

· سُكُونٌ مُخْتَلِفٌ لِكُلِّ عَيْنٍ (3)

Any family of sets can be indexed by itself as follows:

Given a family \mathcal{F} . Take $\Gamma = \mathcal{F}$ and for each $\gamma \in \Gamma$, take $A_\gamma = \gamma$. Then

$$\mathcal{F} = \{A_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma\} = \{\gamma : \gamma \in \mathcal{F}\}.$$

In general, we write $\mathcal{F} = \{A : A \in \mathcal{F}\}$.

Examples: ① The family of sets :

$$\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{3, 4\}, \{4, 5\}, \dots, \{n, n+1\}$$

Can be indexed by many sets Γ as follows:

(a) Take $\Gamma_1 = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$, and $\forall i \in \Gamma_1$, $A_i = \{i, i+1\}$
then this indexed family of sets denoted by.

$$\{A_i : i \in \Gamma_1\} = \{\{i, i+1\} : i \in \Gamma_1\} = \{\{i, i+1\} : i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

(b) Take $\Gamma_2 = \left\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}\right\}$ and $\forall i \in \Gamma_2$,

$B_i = \left\{\frac{1}{i}, \frac{1}{i} + 1\right\}$. Then the indexed family
is denoted as

$$\{B_i : i \in \Gamma_2\} = \left\{\left\{\frac{1}{i}, \frac{1}{i} + 1\right\} : i \in \Gamma_2\right\}$$

c) Take $\Gamma_3 = \{1, 3, 5, \dots, 2n-1\}$, and for
each $\gamma = 2i-1$, let $A_\gamma = \{i, i+1\}$.

d) Take $\Gamma_4 =$ The family itself. So for each
 $\gamma \in \Gamma_4$, take $A_\gamma = \gamma$. And so on.

2) The family of sets :

$$\{1, 2\}, \{2, 4\}, \{3, 6\}, \dots, \{n, 2n\}, \dots$$

may be indexed by the set N of natural numbers

where $A_n = \{n, 2n\} \quad \forall n \in N$. So the family
can be denoted as

$$F = \left\{\{n, 2n\} : n \in N\right\} = \left\{\{n, 2n\} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots\right\}$$

3) Index the family \mathcal{F} of sets $\emptyset, N, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}_+$.

Sol.: The family \mathcal{F} contains exactly 6 members, we choose $I = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. Let

$$A_1 = \emptyset, A_2 = N, A_3 = \mathbb{Z}, A_4 = \mathbb{Q}, A_5 = \mathbb{R}, A_6 = \mathbb{R}_+$$

So,

$$\mathcal{F} = \{A_i : i \in I\} = \{\emptyset, N, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}_+\}$$

تَبْوِيهِ عَامٍ : دُرْزٌ لِّلْخَلَافِ (لِّلْجَهَالِيَّةِ) بَيْنَ جَمِيعِ الْجَمِيعَاتِ وَبَيْنَ الْعَائِدَاتِ

الْعَائِدَاتِ هُوَ عِمَّ اسْتَقْاطَ اسْتَقْطَانِ الْعَائِدَاتِ

خَانَةِ الْعَائِدَاتِ (الْعَائِدَةِ) كُلُّ جَمِيعِ الْجَمِيعَاتِ، (الْجَمِيعَاتِ)، (الْجَمِيعَاتِ)، (الْجَمِيعَاتِ)، (الْجَمِيعَاتِ)، (الْجَمِيعَاتِ).

سَلْكِ زَلْكِ: مِنْ (سَلْكِ)، نَسْلَكِ (زَلْكِ)، نَسْلَكِ (زَلْكِ) ③ سَلْكِ زَلْكِ: مِنْ (سَلْكِ)، نَسْلَكِ (زَلْكِ) ③ سَلْكِ زَلْكِ: مِنْ (سَلْكِ)، نَسْلَكِ (زَلْكِ)

$$\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{R}_+ \notin \mathcal{F}.$$

$$\{\emptyset, \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}, \text{ and } \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}_+, \emptyset, \mathbb{Z}, N, \mathbb{Q}\} = \mathcal{F}.$$

سَقْوَمُ مِنْ (جَمِيعِ الْجَمِيعَاتِ) كَلَيْهِ بَعْضُهُمْ مَنَاصِمٌ لِّلْجَهَالِيَّةِ

الْسَّقْوَمُ مِنْ (جَمِيعِ الْجَمِيعَاتِ) عَلَى كُلِّ عَائِدَةِ i لِلْجَهَالِيَّاتِ،

Def: Let \mathcal{F} be an arbitrary family of sets. The union of the sets in \mathcal{F} , denoted by $\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{F}} A$ or $\bigcup \mathcal{F}$, is

the set of all elements that are in A for some $A \in \mathcal{F}$. That is,

$$\bigcup \mathcal{F} = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{F}} A = \{x \in U : x \in A \text{ for some } A \in \mathcal{F}\}$$

If the family \mathcal{F} is indexed by the set Γ , we may use the notation

$$\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{F}} A = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} A_\gamma = \{x \in U : x \in A_\gamma \text{ for some } \gamma \in \Gamma\}$$

Moreover, " $x \in \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{F}} A$ " iff " $\exists A \in \mathcal{F} \text{ s.t. } x \in A$ "

لَا يَنْهَاكُ عَنْ تَعْبُدِ الْجَاهِلِيَّةِ وَمَنْ يَتَوَلَّهُ فَأُولَئِكَ هُمُ الظَّالِمُونَ

لَا يَنْهَاكُ عَنْ تَعْبُدِ الْجَاهِلِيَّةِ وَمَنْ يَتَوَلَّهُ فَأُولَئِكَ هُمُ الظَّالِمُونَ

$$\bigcup_{i \in \Gamma} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \{x : x \in A_i \text{ for some } i=1, \dots, n\}$$

- $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots \cup A_n$

Example: Find the union of the family of sets

$$\{1\}, \{2, 3\}, \{3, 4, 5\}, \{4, 5, 6, 7\}, \dots, \{n, n+1, n+2, \dots, 2n-1\}.$$

Sol: Set $\Gamma = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and for each $i \in \Gamma$, set $A_i = \{i, i+1, \dots, 2i-1\}$. So, the family $\mathcal{F} = \{A_i : i \in \Gamma\}$. We want find the union

$$\bigcup_{i \in \Gamma} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$$

لَا يَنْهَاكُ عَنْ تَعْبُدِ الْجَاهِلِيَّةِ وَمَنْ يَتَوَلَّهُ فَأُولَئِكَ هُمُ الظَّالِمُونَ

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n+1, \dots, 2n-1\}$$

لَا يَنْهَاكُ عَنْ تَعْبُدِ الْجَاهِلِيَّةِ وَمَنْ يَتَوَلَّهُ فَأُولَئِكَ هُمُ الظَّالِمُونَ

Let $k \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$, so $\exists i \in \Gamma$ s.t. $k \in A_i = \{i, i+1, \dots, 2i-1\}$

Note that $1 \leq i \leq n$, $i \leq k \leq 2^{i-1}$, so

$$\Rightarrow 2^i \leq 2^n \text{ and hence } 2^{i-1} \leq 2^{n-1}$$

So we have that $1 \leq i \leq k \leq 2^{i-1} \leq 2^{n-1}$

Therefore $k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n+1, \dots, 2^{n-1}\}$.

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n+1, \dots, 2^{n-1}\} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

For the other inclusion, let $m \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n+1, \dots, 2^{n-1}\}$. Then either $m < n$ or $m \geq n$.

If $m < n \Rightarrow m \in \Gamma$ and so $m \in A_m$.

If $m \geq n \Rightarrow m \notin \Gamma$. But $n \leq m \leq 2^{n-1}$, so $m \in A_n$. In both cases, \exists at least $i \in \Gamma$ s.t. $x \in A_i$, so $x \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$. That is

$$\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n+1, \dots, 2^{n-1}\} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

From (1) and (2), we get that

$$\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n+1, \dots, 2^{n-1}\} = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i.$$

Def: Let \mathcal{F} be an arbitrary family of sets. The intersection of sets in \mathcal{F} , denoted by $\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{F}} A$ or $\bigcap \mathcal{F}$,

is the set of all elements that are in A for all $A \in \mathcal{F}$. That is,

$$\bigcap \mathcal{F} = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{F}} A = \{x \in U : x \in A \text{ for all } A \in \mathcal{F}\}$$

If the family F indexed by Γ , we write

$$\bigcap F = \bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} A_\gamma = \{x \in U : x \in A_\gamma \forall \gamma \in \Gamma\}$$

When $\Gamma = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is finite, we usually write

$$\begin{aligned} \bigcap F &= \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i = \{x \in U : x \in A_i \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, n\} \\ &= A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n \end{aligned}$$

(Logically) ملاحظة: " $x \in A \forall A \in F$ " è بمعنى "بالعبارة كل مجموعة عشوائية $A \in F \implies x \in A$ " التي تدخل على جميع عناصر F موجودة في A يجب أن تتحقق بحسب $x \in A \forall A \in F$ أي أي $x \in A$ حيث $A \in F$ كل عناصر F لها نفس خواص A التي تم ذكرها في A .

Example: Let $F = \{\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, \{3, 6, 7, 8\}, \{2, 6, 7, 9\}\}$

then

$$\bigcap F = \emptyset \text{ and } \bigcup F = \{1, 2, \dots, 9\}.$$

Def: Let a and b be any two real numbers.
We define that:

- 1) an **open interval**: $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$
- 2) a **closed interval**: $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$
- 3) a **half open (or a half closed) interval**

$$[a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}, \text{ and}$$

$$(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}.$$

$$(a, b) = [a, b] = (a, b] = [a, b) = \emptyset \quad \text{if } a > b \quad \text{and} \\ (a, b) = (a, b] = [a, b) = \emptyset \quad \text{if } [a, a] = \{a\} \quad \text{if } a = b$$

Examples: Find the union and the intersection of the following families:

$$1) (0, 1), (0, \frac{1}{2}), (0, \frac{1}{3}), \dots, (0, \frac{1}{n}), \dots$$

Sol: Index this family as $A_n = (0, \frac{1}{n})$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, so we are to find the set $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$, and $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$.

Note that $x \in A_n$ iff $0 < x < \frac{1}{n}$ and hence $\frac{1}{x} > n$. So if $\exists x \in A_n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$\frac{1}{x} > n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ which is impossible. Therefore

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (0, \frac{1}{n}) = \emptyset$$

Now, it is clearly that $A_n \subseteq (0, 1) = A_1 \quad \forall n$, so

if $x \in A_n$ then $x \in (0, 1)$. Hence

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \subseteq A_1 = (0, 1). \quad \text{On the other hand,}$$

if $x \in A_1$, then $x \in A_n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. and so, $x \in \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$ which implies that

$$A_1 = (0, 1) \subseteq \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$$

$$\text{Thus } \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n = (0, 1).$$

2) $\mathcal{F} = \left\{ [a, a + \frac{1}{n}] : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$. Set $A_n = [a, a + \frac{1}{n}]$,

so, if $x \in A_n$, then $a \leq x \leq a + \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
 and so, $0 \leq x - a \leq \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. This implies
 that $x - a = 0$ and hence $x = a$. That is

$x \in \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \implies x = a$. So, we get that

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} [a, a + \frac{1}{n}] \subseteq \{a\}.$$

On the other hand, $a \in A_n \quad \forall n$ and so

$$a \in \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \implies \{a\} \subseteq \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} [a, a + \frac{1}{n}].$$

$$\implies \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} [a, a + \frac{1}{n}] = \{a\}.$$

As in part (1), $A_n \subseteq A_1 \quad \forall n$ so in similar proof, we get that

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} [a, a + \frac{1}{n}] = [a, a + 1].$$

Thrm 7: Let $\{A_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ be the empty family of sets; that is, $\Gamma = \emptyset$. Then

$$(a) \bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma = \emptyset.$$

$$(b) \bigcap_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma = U.$$

PF: I.P

(a) Note that " $\bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma = \emptyset$ " $\equiv (\forall x) (x \notin \bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma)$:

$$\begin{aligned} x \notin \bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma &\equiv \sim (x \in \bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma) \\ &\equiv \sim (x \in A_\gamma \text{ for some } \gamma \in \emptyset) \\ &\equiv (x \notin A_\gamma \text{ for all } \gamma \in \emptyset) \\ &\equiv (\gamma \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in A_\gamma) \end{aligned}$$

Since $\gamma \in \emptyset$ is always false statement, then the last predicate is true $\forall x$. Hence $\bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma = \emptyset$

$$\begin{aligned} (b) x \in \bigcap_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma &\equiv x \in A_\gamma \quad \forall \gamma \in \emptyset \\ &\equiv \gamma \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in A_\gamma \end{aligned}$$

Again, $\gamma \in \emptyset$ is always false statement and so the last predicate is true $\forall x$. Therefore $(\forall x) (x \in \bigcap_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma)$ and so $\bigcap_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma = U$.

2.J.P (I.P.)

(a) Suppose to contrary that $\bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma \neq \emptyset$.

This implies that $\exists x \in \bigcup_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma \Rightarrow x \in A_\gamma$ for some $\gamma \in \emptyset$. But $\gamma \notin \emptyset \quad \forall \gamma$, which is a contradiction.

(b) Suppose to contrary that $\exists x \notin \bigcap_{\gamma \in \emptyset} A_\gamma \stackrel{\text{(def)}}{\Rightarrow} \sim (x \in A_\gamma \quad \forall \gamma \in \emptyset)$. Hence $x \notin A_\gamma$ for some $\gamma \in \emptyset$. Again $\gamma \notin \emptyset \quad \forall \gamma$ which is a contradiction.

Thrm 8: (The generalized De Morgan Thrm)

Let $\{A_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ be an arbitrary family of sets. Then

$$(a) (\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} A_\gamma)' = \bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \bar{A}_\gamma.$$

$$(b) (\bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} A_\gamma)' = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \bar{A}_\gamma.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{PF: (a)} \quad x \in \left(\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} A_\gamma \right)' &\equiv \sim \left(x \in \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} A_\gamma \right) \quad (\text{Def } ' \\
 &\equiv \sim \left[(\exists \gamma \in \Gamma) (x \in A_\gamma) \right] \\
 &\equiv (\forall \gamma \in \Gamma) (x \notin A_\gamma) \\
 &\equiv (\forall \gamma \in \Gamma) (x \in A_\gamma') \\
 &\equiv x \in \bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} A_\gamma'
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) Similarly to (a) (prove it)

Thrm 9: (Generalized Distributive Laws)

Let A be a set and let $\mathcal{F} = \{B_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ be an arbitrary family of sets. Then

$$(a) \quad A \cap \left(\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} B_\gamma \right) = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} (A \cap B_\gamma)$$

$$(b) \quad A \cup \left(\bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} B_\gamma \right) = \bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma} (A \cup B_\gamma)$$

$$\text{PF: } x \in A \cap \left(\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} B_\gamma \right)$$

$$\iff (x \in A) \wedge x \in \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} B_\gamma \quad (\text{Def of } \cap)$$

$$\iff (x \in A) \wedge (\exists \gamma \in \Gamma) (x \in B_\gamma) \quad (\text{Def of } \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma})$$

$$\iff (\exists \gamma \in \Gamma) ((x \in A) \wedge (x \in B_\gamma))$$

$$\iff (\exists \gamma \in \Gamma) (x \in (A \cap B_\gamma))$$

$$\iff x \in \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} (A \cap B_\gamma)$$

(b) Again, the proof of part (b) is similar to (a).

2.7 The Russell Paradox

Note Title

06-Feb-13

لعلك تعلم ما لا يعلم غيرك من عبارات موجة "الموجات"Universal وهي عبارات موجة كل الموجات (Bertrand Russell 1872 - 1970) حيث جاء عالم (برتراند راسل) بسؤاله "ما هي الموجة التي تتحقق في كل المجموعات؟" وعندما قرر بروز الموجة كشيء فكري، أدرك أن الموجة هي الموجة التي تتحقق في كل المجموعات.

"Russell Paradox"

Lemma 1. Suppose that there is a set \mathcal{U} of all sets. Let $R = \{S \in \mathcal{U} : S \notin S\}$. Then $R \notin R$.

PF: Suppose to contrary that $R \in R$. Then by the specification of R , we must have that $R \notin R$. This contradicts the assumption that $R \in R$, so we must have $R \notin R$.

Lemma 2. Suppose that there is a set \mathcal{U} of all sets, and $R = \{S \in \mathcal{U} : S \notin S\}$. Then $R \in R$.

PF: Suppose to contrary that $R \notin R$. By the specification of the set R , we must have that $R \in R$ and this contradicts the assumption.

Thrm 10: There does not exist a set of all sets.

PF: Suppose to contrary that \mathcal{U} exists. Let R be as in Lemmas 1 and 2. Then by the two Lemmas, we have the contradiction " $R \in R \wedge R \notin R$ ". Thus, there is no such sets.

Ch 3: Relations and Functions

Note Title

09-Feb-13

3.1 Cartesian Product of two Sets

Defn: Given any two objects a and b , we may form a new object (a, b) , called the **order pair** a, b , where the order here emphasizes.

مخطوطة : (ord) (order) $(a, b) \neq (b, a)$ \rightarrow متمايز (order) \neq

$(a, b) \neq \{a, b\}$ \rightarrow مختلفان، وعدهما متساوية

: (ord) $(a, b) = (c, d)$ \rightarrow المترافق (order) \neq

$$(a, b) = \{a, b\}$$

. تتحقق صريحة حيثية! في حد ما في المطالعات (كربيديه)

نهاية عالي الكثافة (2) \rightarrow بناء (ord) (ord) \rightarrow إذا

مثال ذلك $x = 7, y = 8$ $\rightarrow b = d \wedge a = c \rightarrow$ إذا

$$y = 8 \wedge x = 7 \rightarrow$$

ـ حمـاـيـةـاـ ~~~~~~

ـ زـلـكـ جـانـبـاـ لـاـ يـوـجـدـ بـسـ بـنـيـهـاـ

. ais eis

Defn: ① Let A and B be two sets. The set of all order pairs (x, y) , with $x \in A$ and $y \in B$ is called the **Cartesian product** (**Cross product**) of A and B , and is denoted by $A \times B$. That is,

$$A \times B = \{(x, y) : x \in A \wedge y \in B\}$$

② For the order pair (a, b) , a is called the **first coordinate** and b is called the **second coordinate**.

ـ عـلـىـ دـوـرـهـاـ

. $R \times R$ \rightarrow كـلـ (z, z) $\in R$ كـلـ $a, a \in R$

↳ یعنی $(a, b) \in A \times B$ اگر و تنها اگر $a \in A \wedge b \in B$

$(a, b) \notin A \times B$ اگر و تنها اگر $(a \notin A) \vee (b \notin B)$.

Examples: ① Let $A = \{a, b\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$, then

$$A \times B = \{(a, 1), (a, 2), (a, 3), (b, 1), (b, 2), (b, 3)\}, \text{ and}$$

$$B \times A = \{(1, a), (1, b), (2, a), (2, b), (3, a), (3, b)\}.$$

Note that $(a, 1) \in A \times B$ and $(a, 1) \notin B \times A$, so in general $A \times B \neq B \times A$.

2) If $C = \{a, \{x\}, z\}$ and $D = \{\{a\}, 1\}$, then

$$C \times D = \{(a, \{a\}), (a, 1), (\{x\}, \{a\}), (\{x\}, 1), (z, \{a\}), (z, 1)\}.$$

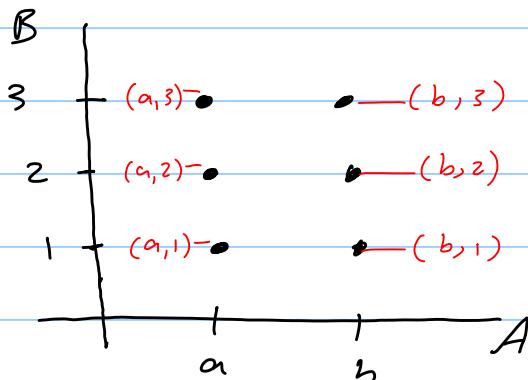
Graph of Cartesian Product

We may picture the Cartesian product $A \times B$ as the set of dots where the elements of A putting in a horizontal line and elements of B putting in a vertical line. An order pair (a, b) is represented as a dot \bullet where a is its horizontal projection on A and b is its vertical projection on B .

Example: Graph the Cartesian product $A \times B$ where

$$A = \{a, b\} \text{ and } B = \{1, 2, 3\}.$$

Sol:



Example: Let A be any set. Find $A \times \emptyset$ and $\emptyset \times A$.

Sol: $A \times \emptyset$ is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b) such that $a \in A \wedge b \in \emptyset$. But there is no such b in \emptyset , we get $A \times \emptyset = \emptyset$. Similarly, $\emptyset \times A = \emptyset$.

Thrm 1: Let A , B , and C be any three sets. Then

$$(a) A \times (B \cap C) = (A \times B) \cap (A \times C).$$

$$(b) A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C).$$

PF: (a) $(a, x) \in A \times (B \cap C)$

$$\equiv (a \in A) \wedge (x \in (B \cap C)) \quad (\text{Def of } \times)$$

$$\equiv (a \in A) \wedge ((x \in B) \wedge (x \in C)) \quad (\text{Def of } \cap)$$

$$\equiv [(a \in A) \wedge (x \in B)] \wedge [(a \in A) \wedge (x \in C)] \\ (\text{Idemp., Assoc., Comm.})$$

$$\equiv [(a, x) \in A \times B] \wedge [(a, x) \in A \times C] \quad (\text{Def of } \times)$$

$$\equiv (a, x) \in [(A \times B) \cap (A \times C)] \quad (\text{Def of } \cap)$$

Therefore $A \times (B \cap C) = (A \times B) \cap (A \times C)$.

(b) $(a, x) \in A \times (B \cup C)$

$$\equiv (a \in A) \wedge [x \in B \cup C] \quad (\text{Def of } \times)$$

$$\equiv (a \in A) \wedge [(x \in B) \vee (x \in C)] \quad (\text{Def of } \cup)$$

$$\equiv [(a \in A) \wedge (x \in B)] \vee [(a \in A) \wedge (x \in C)] \quad (\text{Distr.})$$

$$\equiv [(a, x) \in A \times B] \vee [(a, x) \in A \times C] \quad (\text{Def of } \times)$$

$$\equiv (a, x) \in [(A \times B) \cup (A \times C)] \quad (\text{Def of } \cup)$$

Therefore $A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$

Thus, the Cartesian product distributes over intersection and union.

Thrm 2: Let A, B , and C be sets. Then

$$A \times (B - C) = (A \times B) - (A \times C)$$

Thus, the Cartesian product distributes over complementation.

PF: $(a, b) \in A \times (B - C)$

$$\begin{aligned} &\iff (a \in A) \wedge (b \in B - C) && (\text{Def of } \times) \\ &\iff (a \in A) \wedge [(b \in B) \wedge (b \notin C)] && (\text{Def of } -) \\ &\iff (a \in A) \wedge (a \in A) \wedge (b \in B) \wedge (b \notin C) \\ &&& (\text{Idemp. and Associ.}) \\ &\iff [(a \in A) \wedge (b \in B)] \wedge [(a \in A) \wedge (b \notin C)] \\ &\iff [(a, b) \in A \times B] \wedge [(a, b) \notin A \times C] \\ &&& (\text{comm. and Associ.}) \\ &\iff (a, b) \in (A \times B) - (A \times C) && (\text{Def of } -) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$A \times (B - C) = (A \times B) - (A \times C)$$

Examples: For any sets A, B, C , and D , prove that

- 1) $(A \times B) \cap (C \times D) = (A \cap C) \times (B \cap D)$
- 2) $(A \times B) \cup (C \times D) \subseteq (A \cup C) \times (B \cup D)$
- 3) Give an example to show that the inclusion in (2) is proper.

PF: 1) $(x, y) \in (A \times B) \cap (C \times D)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= [(x, y) \in (A \times B)] \wedge [(x, y) \in C \times D] && (\text{Def of } \cap) \\ &\equiv [(x \in A) \wedge (y \in B)] \wedge [(x \in C) \wedge (y \in D)] && (\text{Def of } \times) \\ &\equiv [x \in (A \cap C)] \wedge [y \in (B \cap D)] \\ &&& (\text{Associ., Comm., Def of } \cap) \end{aligned}$$

$$\equiv (x, y) \in (A \cap C) \times (B \cap D)$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \times B) \cap (C \times D) = (A \cap C) \times (B \cap D).$$

$$\begin{aligned}
2) \quad & (x, y) \in (A \times B) \cup (C \times D) \\
& \equiv [(x, y) \in (A \times B)] \vee [(x, y) \in (C \times D)] \quad (\text{Def of } \cup) \\
& \equiv [(x \in A) \wedge (y \in B)] \vee [(x \in C) \wedge (y \in D)] \quad (\text{Def of } \times) \\
& \equiv [(x \in A \wedge y \in B) \vee x \in C] \wedge [(x \in A \wedge y \in B) \vee y \in D] \quad (\text{Distr}) \\
& \equiv [(x \in A \vee x \in C) \wedge (y \in B \vee y \in D)] \wedge \\
& \quad [(x \in A \vee y \in D) \wedge (y \in B \vee y \in D)] \quad (\text{Distr.}) \\
& \equiv [x \in (A \cup C) \wedge (y \in B \vee x \in C)] \wedge \\
& \quad [(x \in A \vee y \in D) \wedge y \in (B \cup D)] \quad (\text{Def of } \cup) \\
& \Rightarrow (x \in A \cup C) \wedge (y \in B \cup D) \quad (\text{Simpl.}) \\
& \equiv (x, y) \in (A \cup C) \times (B \cup D)
\end{aligned}$$

This proves that $(A \times B) \cup (C \times D) \subseteq (A \cup C) \times (B \cup D)$.

3) Let $A = \{1\}$, $B = \{2\}$, $C = \{3\}$, $D = \{4\}$. Then

$$A \times B = \{(1, 2)\}, \quad C \times D = \{(3, 4)\} \cdot \text{ So}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(A \times B) \cup (C \times D) &= \{(1, 2), (3, 4)\}. \text{ While} \\
A \cup C &= \{1, 3\}, \quad B \cup D = \{2, 4\}. \text{ So} \\
(A \cup C) \times (B \cup D) &= \{(1, 2), (1, 4), (3, 2), (3, 4)\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence $(A \times B) \cup (C \times D) \subsetneq (A \cup C) \times (B \cup D)$
(proper subset)

□

3.2 Relations

Note Title

12-Feb-13

Def: Let A and B be two sets, not necessarily distinct. A **relation R** from A to B is a subset of $A \times B$ ($R \subseteq A \times B$). If $(a, b) \in R$, we write $a R b$ and we say that a is R -related (or simply related) to b . If $(a, b) \notin R$, we write $a \not R b$. A relation from A to A is called a **relation in A** instead of "from A to A ".

Example:

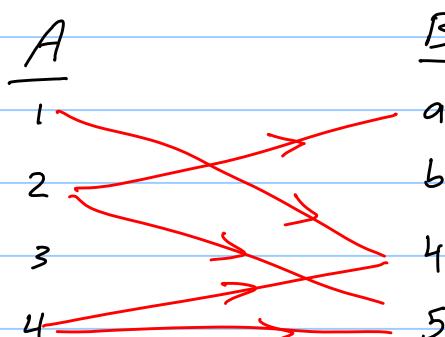
1) Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $B = \{a, b, 4, 5\}$. Then $R = \{(1, 4), (2, a), (2, 5), (4, 5), (4, 4)\}$ is a relation from A to B . For this relation, note that:

$2 R a$, $2 R 5$, $1 R 4$, But $1 \not R 5$.

This relation can be graphed as follows:



or



2) Suppose that A is a set of some human family, and let \mathcal{R} be the relation " \dots of being the father of \dots ". Then a (for Ali) is \mathcal{R} -related to b (for Taha) means that Ali is the father of Taha, and we write $(a, b) \in \mathcal{R}$.

Note that, in this case, Taha is the son of Ali, so $(b, a) \notin \mathcal{R}$. Note that the relation " \dots of being the son of \dots " is the inverse of the relation \mathcal{R} .

Def: Let A and B be two sets, not necessarily distinct, and let \mathcal{R} be a relation from A to B . Then the **inverse** \mathcal{R}^{-1} of the relation \mathcal{R} is the relation from B to A such that $(b, a) \in \mathcal{R}^{-1}$ iff $(a, b) \in \mathcal{R}$. That is,

$$\mathcal{R}^{-1} = \{(b, a) : (a, b) \in \mathcal{R}\}.$$

Example:

1) Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $B = \{a, b, 4, 5\}$, and let $\mathcal{R} = \{(1, 4), (2, a), (2, 5), (4, 5), (4, 4)\}$.

Then the inverse relation of \mathcal{R} is

$$\mathcal{R}^{-1} = \{(4, 1), (a, 2), (5, 2), (5, 4), (4, 4)\}.$$

2) Previously, in Example (2) above, when \mathcal{R} is the relation " \dots of being the father of \dots ", the inverse relation \mathcal{R}^{-1} is the relation " \dots of being the son of \dots ". In this case, when Ali \mathcal{R} Taha, we must have Taha \mathcal{R}^{-1} Ali; that is Taha is the son of Ali.

3) Let $\mathcal{M} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : x \text{ divides } y\}$, then

$$\mathcal{M}^{-1} = \{(y, x) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : y \text{ is a multiple of } x\}.$$

Note that $(3, 6) \in \mathcal{M}$ and $(12, 3) \in \mathcal{M}^{-1}$.

Def: Let \mathcal{R} be a relation from A to B . The **domain** of the relation \mathcal{R} , denoted by $\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R})$, is the set of all those $a \in A$ such that $a \mathcal{R} b$ for some $b \in B$. The **image** of \mathcal{R} , denoted by $\text{Im}(\mathcal{R})$, is the set of all those $b \in B$ such that $a \mathcal{R} b$ for some $a \in A$. In symbols,

$$\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}) = \{a \in A : (a, b) \in \mathcal{R} \text{ for some } b \in B\},$$

and $\text{Im}(\mathcal{R}) = \{b \in B : (a, b) \in \mathcal{R} \text{ for some } a \in A\}.$

(\mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^{-1} \leftarrow $\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R})$ \rightarrow $\text{Im}(\mathcal{R})$)

Examples:

- 1) Again, let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $B = \{a, b, 4, 5\}$, and let
- $$\mathcal{R} = \{(1, 4), (2, a), (2, 5), (4, 5), (4, 4)\},$$
- $$\mathcal{R}^{-1} = \{(4, 1), (a, 2), (5, 2), (5, 4), (4, 4)\}.$$

Then $\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}) = \{1, 2, 4\}$ and $\text{Im}(\mathcal{R}) = \{a, 4, 5\}$. Note that

$$\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}^{-1}) = \{a, 4, 5\} = \text{Im}(\mathcal{R}), \text{ and}$$

$$\text{Im}(\mathcal{R}^{-1}) = \{1, 2, 4\} = \text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}).$$

In general, and for any relation \mathcal{R} , it is true that

$$\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}) = \text{Im}(\mathcal{R}^{-1})$$

$$\text{and } \text{Im}(\mathcal{R}) = \text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}^{-1}).$$

} prove it ??

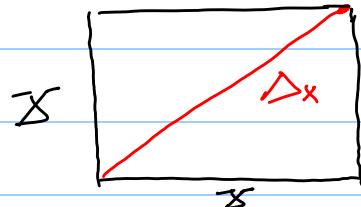
- 2) Let A be the set of all peoples on some country. Let \mathcal{H} be the relation in A "... being the husband of ...". Then \mathcal{H}^{-1} is the relation "... being the wife of ...". Moreover, $\text{Dom}(\mathcal{H}) = \text{Im}(\mathcal{H}^{-1}) =$ the set of all men in A who are married, and

$\text{Im}(\mathcal{H}) = \text{Dom}(\mathcal{H}^{-1})$ = the set of all women in A who are married.

Def: For any set X , the relation Δ_X in A called the **diagonal relation** or the **identity relation**, defined by $\Delta_X = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$

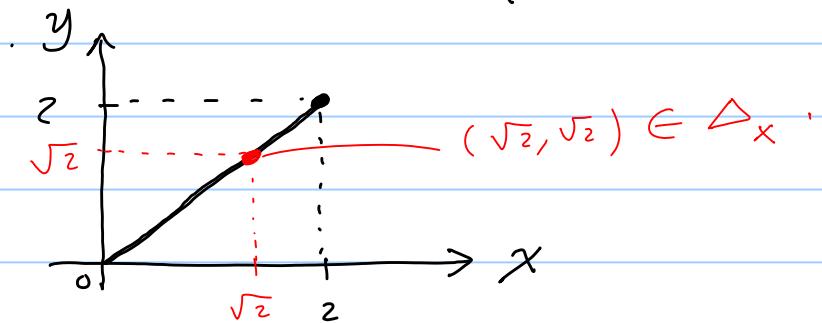
which relates every element in X with itself.

Graphically, if X is represented as a line interval, then $X \times X$ is a square and Δ_X is the main diagonal of the square.



Note that $\text{Dom}(\Delta_X) = \text{Im}(\Delta_X) = X$.

Example: Let $X = [0, 2]$. Then $\Delta_X = \{(x, x) : 0 \leq x \leq 2\}$



Def: Let R be a relation in a set X . Then we say that :

- R is **reflexive** iff $\forall x \in X, (x, x) \in R$.
- R is **symmetric** iff $(x, y) \in R \Rightarrow (y, x) \in R$.
- R is **transitive** iff $(x, y) \in R \wedge (y, z) \in R \Rightarrow (x, z) \in R$.
- R is an **equivalence relation** iff R is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

: R لـ نیز میں کوئی ai نہیں ہے : ابھی

• $(x, x) \in R$ کیا? $x \in X$ کیا? جسے / reflexive کیا (a)

• $(y, x) \notin R, (x, y) \in R$ کیا? $x, y \in X$ کیا? کسے / symmetric کیا (b)

• $(x, y) \in R \wedge (y, z) \in R$ کیا? $x, y, z \in X$ کیا? کبھی / transitive کیا (c)

- $(x, z) \notin R$

Examples: 1) Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ the set of real numbers.

Then the equals relation " $=$ " in \mathbb{R} is clearly an equivalence relation. To see this, note that:

(a) for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x = x$, so " $=$ " is reflexive.

(b) Suppose that $x = y$. Then $y = x$. So " $=$ " is symmetric relation.

(c) Suppose that $(x = y) \wedge (y = z)$. Then $x = z$.
So " $=$ " is transitive relation.

2) If $X = \emptyset$, then $X \times X = \emptyset$, and the only relation in X is $R = \emptyset$. In this case,

(a) R is reflexive, since $\forall x \in X$ s.t. $(x, x) \in R$.

(b) R is symmetric, since $(x, y) \in R$ is always false,
so $(x, y) \in R \Rightarrow (y, x) \in R$.

(c) R is transitive, since $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, z) \in R$
is always false statements, so we have that $(x, y) \in R \wedge$
 $(y, z) \in R \Rightarrow (x, z) \in R$. Hence $R = \emptyset$ is E.R.

3) Suppose that $X \neq \emptyset$ and $R = \emptyset$ is the empty relation. Then R is always symmetric and transitive, and the proof is similar to part (2) above.

But R is not reflexive, since $\exists x \in X$ such that
 $(x, x) \notin R$. So, R is not E.R. \Rightarrow (جیسا کہ، ہمیں!

($X \neq \emptyset$ نہیں اے، اور جیسا کہ reflexive کو کیا (کیا) کیا) کیا (کیا) کیا)

4) For any set X , the diagonal relation Δ_X is E.R.

PF: If $X = \emptyset$, then $\Delta_X = \emptyset$ and so it is an equivalence relation as we prove in (2). So, suppose $X \neq \emptyset$. Let $x \in X$, then $(x, x) \in \Delta_X$ (by its definition), so Δ_X is reflexive.

Now, let $(x, y) \in \Delta_X$, then by def. of Δ_X , we get that $y = x$ and hence $(y, x) \in \Delta_X \Rightarrow \Delta_X$ is symmetric.

Finally, let $(x, y) \wedge (y, z)$ be in Δ_X . Then $(x = y) \wedge (y = z)$ and hence, $x = z$. So, $(x, z) \in \Delta_X$, which proves that Δ_X is transitive.

5) For any set X , it is obviously that the relation $\Omega_R = X \times X$ is E.R. In fact, Δ_X is the smallest equivalence relation in X and $X \times X$ is the largest equivalence relation in X .

To see this, suppose Ω_R be any equivalence relation in X . Then $\Omega_R \subseteq X \times X$, and by reflexivity of Ω_R , $\forall x \in X$, $(x, x) \in \Omega_R$, so $\Delta_X \subseteq \Omega_R$.

6) Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and consider the relations

$$\Omega_1 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (2,2), (3,4), (4,1), (4,4)\},$$

$$\Omega_2 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1)\},$$

$$\Omega_3 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (3,3), (3,4), (4,4)\}, \text{ and}$$

$$\Omega_4 = \{(3,4)\}.$$

$$\Omega_5 = \{(1,1), (2,2), (2,3), (3,3), (3,2), (4,4)\}$$

Which of these relations is E.R.?

sol: Consider \mathcal{R}_1 relation:

- (a) Not reflexive, since $(3,3) \notin \mathcal{R}_1$.
- (b) Not symmetric, since $(3,4) \in \mathcal{R}_1$, but $(4,3) \notin \mathcal{R}_1$.
 $(3,4) \in \mathcal{R}_1 \nRightarrow (4,3) \in \mathcal{R}_1 \equiv (3,4) \in \mathcal{R}_1 \wedge (4,3) \notin \mathcal{R}_1$
- (c) Not transitive, since $(3,4) \in \mathcal{R}_1 \wedge (4,1) \in \mathcal{R}_1$, but $(3,1) \notin \mathcal{R}_1$.

Consider \mathcal{R}_2 :

- (a) Note reflexive, since $(2,2) \in \mathcal{R}_2$.

- (b) Symmetric: Note that $(x,y) \in \mathcal{R}_2 \Rightarrow (y,x) \in \mathcal{R}_2$.
 $\forall (x,y) = (1,1), (1,2), (2,1)$.

- $(3,4) \notin \mathcal{R}_2 \rightsquigarrow (3,4)$ (لما يجيء بـ \rightsquigarrow يعني \neg \rightarrow)
 $(\neg (3,4) \in \mathcal{R}_2 \rightsquigarrow \text{group} \text{ } \neg (3,4) \in \mathcal{R}_2 \Rightarrow (4,3) \in \mathcal{R}_2 \text{ } \text{مـعنى} \text{ } \exists \omega \vdash$
(c) Not transitive: Since $(2,1) \in \mathcal{R}_2 \wedge (1,2) \in \mathcal{R}_2$
but $(2,2) \notin \mathcal{R}_2$.

Consider \mathcal{R}_3 :

- (a) Reflexive, since $\forall x \in A, (x,x) \in \mathcal{R}_3$.

- (b) Not symmetric, since $(2,3) \in \mathcal{R}_3$ but $(3,2) \notin \mathcal{R}_3$.

- (c) Transitive, since, when $(x,y) \in \mathcal{R}_3 \wedge (y,z) \in \mathcal{R}_3$,
then it is true that $(x,z) \in \mathcal{R}_3$.

To see this, note that

$$[(1,2) \wedge (2,3)] \in \mathcal{R}_3 \Rightarrow (1,3) \in \mathcal{R}_3 ,$$

$$[(1,3) \wedge (3,4)] \in \mathcal{R}_3 \Rightarrow (1,4) \in \mathcal{R}_3 ,$$

$$[(2,3) \wedge (3,4)] \in \mathcal{R}_3 \Rightarrow (2,4) \in \mathcal{R}_3 .$$

لـ \neg \rightsquigarrow (x,x) \neg \in \mathcal{R}_3 \neg \in \mathcal{R}_3 \neg \in \mathcal{R}_3
: $\exists \omega \text{ } \omega \text{ } \omega \text{ } \omega \text{ } \omega$

When $(x,x) \in \mathcal{R}$ \wedge $(x,y) \in \mathcal{R}$ \Rightarrow $(x,y) \in \mathcal{R}$, and

$(x,y) \in \mathcal{R}$ \wedge $(y,y) \in \mathcal{R}$ \Rightarrow $(x,y) \in \mathcal{R}$.

Consider \mathcal{R}_4 :

- Not reflexive: since $(1,1) \notin \mathcal{R}_4$.
- Not symmetric: since $(3,4) \in \mathcal{R}_4$ but $(4,3) \notin \mathcal{R}_4$.
- Transitive: Since $(x,y) \wedge (y,z) \in \mathcal{R}_4$ is false statement $\forall x, y \in A$. This implies that $((x,y) \wedge (y,z)) \in \mathcal{R}_4 \Rightarrow (x,z) \in \mathcal{R}_4$.

Consider \mathcal{R}_5 :

- Reflexive, since $(x,x) \in \mathcal{R}_5 \quad \forall x \in A$.
- Symmetric: since $(2,3) \in \mathcal{R}_5 \Rightarrow (3,2) \in \mathcal{R}_5$.
لما (x,x) متحققة فـ (x,x) متحققة
 $(x,y) \in \mathcal{R}_5$ متحققة فـ $(y,x) \in \mathcal{R}_5$
- Transitive: *لما (x,y) متحققة فـ (y,z) متحققة*
 $((2,3) \wedge (3,2)) \in \mathcal{R}_5 \Rightarrow (2,2) \in \mathcal{R}_5$, and
 $((3,2) \wedge (2,3)) \in \mathcal{R}_5 \Rightarrow (3,3) \in \mathcal{R}_5$.

Def: Let m be an arbitrary fixed positive integer.

The **Congruence relation** $\equiv (\text{mod } m)$ on the set \mathbb{Z} of integers is defined by $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ iff $x-y = km$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Illustration: Let $m=3$ and let $x=1$. Then the elements y in \mathbb{Z} that congruence-related $(\text{mod } 3)$ to x are

$$y \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \iff$$

$$(y-1) = 3k \iff$$

$$y-1 \in \{-\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, \dots\}$$

$$\iff y \in \{-\dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, \dots\}$$

Thrm: Any Congruence relation is E.R. on \mathbb{Z} .

PF: Let m be fixed positive integer.

(a) Reflexivity: For $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, $x - x = 0 = 0 * m$
 $\Rightarrow x \equiv x \pmod{m}$.

(b) Symmetric: Suppose that $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$. Then
 $(x - y) = k \cdot m$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

So, $y - x = (-k) \cdot m = k' \cdot m$ for some $k' \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Therefore $y \equiv x \pmod{m}$.

(c) Transitive: Suppose that

$[x \equiv y \pmod{m}] \wedge [y \equiv z \pmod{m}]$. Then
 $\exists k_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \wedge k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $x - y = k_1 \cdot m$ and $y - z = k_2 \cdot m$

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} x - z &= (x - y) + (y - z) = k_1 \cdot m + k_2 \cdot m \\ &= (k_1 + k_2) m = k' m \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $x \equiv z \pmod{m}$.

This proves that the congruence relation (modulo m) is an equivalence relation.

Example: Prove that for any two relations R and

$$S, (R \cup S)^{-1} = R^{-1} \cup S^{-1}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PF: } (x, y) \in (R \cup S)^{-1} &\equiv (y, x) \in (R \cup S) \quad (\text{Def of } S^{-1}) \\ &\equiv ((y, x) \in R) \vee ((y, x) \in S) \quad (\text{Def of } \cup) \\ &\equiv ((x, y) \in R^{-1}) \vee ((x, y) \in S^{-1}) \quad (\text{Def of } S^{-1}) \\ &\equiv (x, y) \in (R^{-1} \cup S^{-1}) \quad (\text{Def of } \cup) \end{aligned}$$

That is, $(R \cup S)^{-1} = R^{-1} \cup S^{-1}$.

3.3 Partitions and Equivalence Relations

Note Title

12-Feb-13

Equivalence relations are important in modern mathematics. For instance, factor groups in algebra, quotient spaces in topology, and modular systems in number theory are all involve certain kinds of E.R.

Def: Let X be a nonempty set. A collection \mathcal{L} of subsets of X is called a **partition** of X iff

(a) $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{L}$ (This equivalent to saying, $A \in \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow A \neq \emptyset$)

(b) If $A, B \in \mathcal{L}$, then either $A = B$ or $A \cap B = \emptyset$

(The members of \mathcal{L} are pairwise disjoint sets)

(c) $X = \bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{L}} C$.

"نیزیں میں کسی 31. X کے لئے" \mathcal{L} of X کا جائز اکٹھا ہے

Example: Let $X = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$. Which of the following is a partition of X :

$$\mathcal{L}_1 = \{\{1, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 6, 8\}, \{7\}, \{9, 10\}\} -$$

$$\mathcal{L}_2 = \{\{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \{5, 9, 10\}, \{6, 7\}\} -$$

$$\mathcal{L}_3 = \{\{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \{7, 8\}, \{4, 5, 6\}, \{9, 10\}\} -$$

$$\mathcal{L}_4 = \{\emptyset, \{1, 3, 5, 7\}, \{2, 4, 6, 8\}, \{9, 10\}\} -$$

Sol: \mathcal{L}_1 is a partition of X since the members of \mathcal{L}_1 are pairwise disjoint non-empty subsets of X

s.t. $X = \bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{L}_1} C$.

\mathcal{L}_2 is not a partition of X , since $8 \notin C$ for any $C \in \mathcal{L}_2$, so $X \neq \bigcup_{C \in \mathcal{L}_2} C$.

\mathcal{L}_3 is not a partition, since $\{1, 2, 3, 4\} \cap \{4, 5, 6\} \neq \emptyset$
Finally, \mathcal{L}_4 is not a partition since $\emptyset \in \mathcal{L}_4$.

Example: Let m be any fixed positive integer. For any j , $0 \leq j < m$, define

$\mathbb{Z}_j = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x \equiv j \pmod{m}\}$. Then the set $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathbb{Z}_0, \mathbb{Z}_1, \mathbb{Z}_2, \dots, \mathbb{Z}_{m-1}\}$ forms a partition of \mathbb{Z} .

~~الخط~~ (a) Take $m=2$. For $j=0, 1$, note that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z}_0 &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x-0=x \text{ is even}\} = \{\dots, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\} \\ \mathbb{Z}_1 &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x-1 \text{ is even}\} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x \text{ is odd}\} \\ &= \{\dots, -3, -1, 1, 3, 5, \dots\}.\end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $\{\mathbb{Z}_0, \mathbb{Z}_1\}$ is a partition of \mathbb{Z} .

(b) Take $m=3$, and for $j=0, 1, 2$,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z}_0 &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x=3k, \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\dots, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\} \\ \mathbb{Z}_1 &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x-1=3k, \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\dots, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots\} \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x-2=3k, \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\dots, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots\}\end{aligned}$$

Clearly, the collection $\{\mathbb{Z}_0, \mathbb{Z}_1, \mathbb{Z}_2\}$ forms a partition of \mathbb{Z} .

إذن وبناءً على ذلك نجد أن جميع m حالات كذا في \mathbb{Z} هي متساوية في \mathbb{Z} (أي $x \sim y \iff x \equiv y \pmod{m}$)
 $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathbb{Z}_0, \mathbb{Z}_1, \dots, \mathbb{Z}_{m-1}\}$ هي مجموعه من m مجموعات متساوية في \mathbb{Z} - (نسمى هذه) \mathbb{Z} المودulo \mathcal{E} classes

Def 6: Let \mathcal{E} be an equivalence relation on a nonempty set X . For each $x \in X$, we define

$$x/\mathcal{E} = \{y \in X : x \mathcal{E} y\}$$

which called the **equivalence class** determined by x . The set of all equivalence classes in X is denoted by

X/\mathcal{E} - read " X modulo \mathcal{E} " or simply " X mod \mathcal{E} "

That is $X/\mathcal{E} = \{x/\mathcal{E} : x \in X\}$.

Remark: Sometimes, we write $[x]$ rather than x/\mathcal{E} .

Thrm 3: Let \mathcal{E} be an equivalence relation on a nonempty set X . Then

- (a) $x/\mathcal{E} \neq \emptyset \quad \forall x \in X$.
- (b) $x \mathcal{E} y \text{ iff } x/\mathcal{E} = y/\mathcal{E}$.
- (c) $x \not\mathcal{E} y \text{ iff } x/\mathcal{E} \cap y/\mathcal{E} = \emptyset$
- (d) $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} (x/\mathcal{E})$.

PF: (a) \mathcal{E} is an equivalence relation and $X \neq \emptyset$, so $\exists x \in X$ and by reflexivity of \mathcal{E} , $x \mathcal{E} x$. By def. of the equivalence classes, $x \in x/\mathcal{E}$. Thus, $x/\mathcal{E} \neq \emptyset$.

(b) (\Rightarrow) Suppose that $x \mathcal{E} y$. Let $z \in x/\mathcal{E}$, then $z \mathcal{E} x$. Now, we have that

$(z \mathcal{E} x) \wedge (x \mathcal{E} y)$ then by transitive of \mathcal{E} we get $z \mathcal{E} y$. Thus $z \in y/\mathcal{E}$.

$$x/\mathcal{E} \subseteq y/\mathcal{E}. \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

Let $w \in y/\mathcal{E}$. Then $y \mathcal{E} w$. So we have that

$(x \mathcal{E} y) \wedge (y \mathcal{E} w) \Rightarrow$ by transitive of \mathcal{E} , we have that $x \mathcal{E} w \Rightarrow w \in x/\mathcal{E} \Rightarrow$

$$y/\mathcal{E} \subseteq x/\mathcal{E}. \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\textcircled{1}\textcircled{2}} x/\mathcal{E} = y/\mathcal{E}.$$

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $x/\mathcal{E} = y/\mathcal{E}$. by part(a)

$$x \in x/\mathcal{E} = y/\mathcal{E} \Rightarrow x \mathcal{E} y.$$

(c) This part is equivalent to $x \mathcal{E} y \text{ iff } x/\mathcal{E} \cap y/\mathcal{E} \neq \emptyset$.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose that $x \mathcal{E} y$, then by part(b) above,

$$x/\mathcal{E} = y/\mathcal{E} \Rightarrow x/\mathcal{E} \cap y/\mathcal{E} = x/\mathcal{E} \neq \emptyset.$$

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $w \in x/\varepsilon \cap y/\varepsilon$. Then $(x \varepsilon w) \wedge (y \varepsilon w)$. By symmetric of ε , we have that $(x \varepsilon w) \wedge (w \varepsilon y)$. By transitive of ε we get that $x \varepsilon y$.

(d) $\forall x \in \mathbb{X}, x/\varepsilon \subseteq \mathbb{X}$ (by its def.)

So, if $z \in \bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{X}} x/\varepsilon$ then $\exists x_0 \in \mathbb{X}$ s.t.

$z \in x_0/\varepsilon \subseteq \mathbb{X}$. that is $\bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{X}} x/\varepsilon \subseteq \mathbb{X}$ --- (3)

For the other inclusion, let $y \in \mathbb{X}$. By part (a), we see that $y \in y/\varepsilon \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{X}} x/\varepsilon$. --- (4)
 $\stackrel{(3),(4)}{\Rightarrow} \mathbb{X} = \bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{X}} x/\varepsilon$.

Thrm 4: Let ε be an equivalence relation on a nonempty set \mathbb{X} . Then \mathbb{X}/ε is a partition of \mathbb{X} .

PF: From Thrm (3), we have that:

- (a) $\forall x/\varepsilon \in \mathbb{X}/\varepsilon, x/\varepsilon \neq \emptyset$,
- (b) If $x/\varepsilon \neq y/\varepsilon$ in \mathbb{X}/ε , then $x \not\varepsilon y$ and so $x/\varepsilon \cap y/\varepsilon = \emptyset$.
- (c) $\bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{X}} x/\varepsilon = \mathbb{X}$.

This proves that \mathbb{X}/ε is a partition of \mathbb{X} .

Example: Let $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{Z}$, the set of integers, and m be positive integer. We prove that the relation $\varepsilon =$ congruence mod m is E.R. Prove that the only equivalence classes of ε are $\mathbb{Z}_0, \mathbb{Z}_1, \dots, \mathbb{Z}_{m-1}$, where for $0 \leq i < m$,

$$\mathbb{Z}_i = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : j \equiv i \pmod{m}\}$$

$$= \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : i - j = km \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

PF: For $0 \leq i < m$, and by def of \mathbb{Z}_i , we have

$$i/\mathcal{E} = \{j \in \mathbb{Z} : j \equiv i \pmod{n}\} = \mathbb{Z}_i$$

Now, let $g \geq m$ in \mathbb{Z} . By division algorithm, $\exists k, r$ integers s.t.

$$\begin{aligned} g &= k * m + r & 0 \leq r < m \\ \Rightarrow g - r &= k * m. \end{aligned}$$

This proves that $g \equiv r \pmod{m} \Rightarrow g \in r$ and so, $g/\mathcal{E} = r/\mathcal{E} = \mathbb{Z}_r$ for $0 \leq r < m$, and this proves that the only equivalence classes of the congruence relation is $\mathbb{Z}_0, \dots, \mathbb{Z}_{m-1}$.

ما يجده واضح أنه أي علاقه مكافئ على \mathbb{X} تنتهي بالتأليف بجزئيه لـ \mathcal{E} ، هذه الجزئيه هي مجموعة كل المجموعات A التي $x, y \in A \Rightarrow x \sim y$ (أو ما) هل العكس صحيح؟، يعني إذا كانت \mathcal{E} جزئيه ما، هل على هذه الجزئيه أنه تنتهي علاقه شامله تكون مجموعه كل المجموعات A التي $x, y \in A \Rightarrow x \sim y$ هي هذه الجزئيه نفسك؟، فنظريات التالية تثبت أن العكس صحيح.

Def 7: Let \mathcal{S} be a partition of a nonempty set \mathbb{X} .

Define a relation (\mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S}) on \mathbb{X} as follows:

$x(\mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S})y$ iff there exists $A \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $x, y \in A$.

Def 7 \hookrightarrow يكتب (يُعتبر) علاقه معرفه \mathcal{S} (\mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S}) : كتويه

تعريف \mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S} هي \mathcal{S} من المجموعات A التي $x, y \in A \Rightarrow x \sim y$ هي \mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S} .

Thrm 5: Let \mathcal{S} be a partition of a nonempty set \mathbb{X} . Then the relation (\mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S}) is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{X} .

Moreover, the equivalence classes induced by (\mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S}) are precisely the sets in \mathcal{S} . That is, $\mathbb{X}/(\mathbb{X}/\mathcal{S}) = \mathcal{S}$.

PF: (a) Since $\mathbb{X} = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{S}} A$, then $\forall x \in \mathbb{X}, \exists A \in \mathcal{S}$ s.t. $x \in A$. By idemp., $x \in A$ and $x \in A \Rightarrow$

$x(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})x$ and hence $(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$ is reflexive.

(b) Suppose that $(x, y) \in (\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$. Then by its defn., there exists $B \in \mathcal{S}$ s.t. both x and y in B . Hence $y \in B \wedge x \in B$ (Comm.) $\Rightarrow (y, x) \in (\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$
 $\Rightarrow (\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$ is symmetric.

(c) If $(x, y) \wedge (y, z) \in (\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$, then $\exists B_1$ and B_2 in \mathcal{S} s.t. both x, y in B_1 and both y, z in B_2 . This implies that $y \in B_1 \cap B_2$. Since \mathcal{S} is a partition of \mathcal{X} , $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{S}$, then either $B_1 = B_2$ or $B_1 \cap B_2 = \emptyset$. But $B_1 \cap B_2 \neq \emptyset$ ($y \in B_1 \cap B_2$) $\Rightarrow B_1 = B_2$. This implies that both x and $z \in B_1 (= B_2)$ so $(x, z) \in (\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$, and hence $(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$ is transitive. This proves that $(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$ is E.R.

Claim: (a) $\mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) \subseteq \mathcal{S}$:

Let $x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) \in \mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$ be arbitrary equivalence class of \mathcal{X} , for some $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Since \mathcal{S} is a partition of \mathcal{X} , there is exactly one set A of \mathcal{S} s.t. $x \in A$. (This because $\bigcup \mathcal{S} = \mathcal{X}$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$ & $A \neq B$ in \mathcal{S}) ————— (x)

Our Claim is $x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) = A$.

to see this, if $y \in A \Rightarrow x, y \in A \Rightarrow$

$x(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})y \Rightarrow y \in x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$. So

$$A \subseteq x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$$

Now, if $y \in x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) \Rightarrow x(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})y$. So there is a set B in \mathcal{S} s.t. both $x, y \in B$. From (x), $B = A \in \mathcal{S}$ so $y \in A \Rightarrow x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) \subseteq A$. Hence $A = x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$.

Therefore $(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) \subseteq \mathcal{I}$.

(b) $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$

let $A \in \mathcal{I}$ and let $x \in A$. Similar as above we can prove that $A = x/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) \in \mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$ and this proves that $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S})$.

Now, from Claim(a) and (b), we have that

$$\mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) = \mathcal{I}. \quad \square.$$

تَفْسِير: نلاحظ أنة إذا كان لدينا عارقة تكافؤ على \mathcal{X} فإنه ينبع (العلاقة تكافؤ على \mathcal{X}) \mathcal{R} فإن \mathcal{X}/\mathcal{R} هو \mathcal{X} ببرهان هذه المبرهنة يمكننا نویس عارقة تكافؤ على \mathcal{X} ببرهان تبديل العدد الذي يزيد عن $\mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{R})$ (العلاقة \mathcal{R} صلبة، بما يزيد عن $\mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{R}) = \mathcal{R}$).
وبالعكس، إذا كان لدينا برهان هذه المبرهنة ينبع عارقة تكافؤ على \mathcal{X} ببرهان \mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S} (العلاقة \mathcal{S} ببرهانها ينبع $\mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) = \mathcal{I}$ وبالتالي $\mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{S}) = \mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{R})$).

حيث (تسويف هنا أنه في حالة (أ) و (ب) كُل عارقة بينها في (حالة (أ) و (ب))، فإن $(\mathcal{X}/(\mathcal{X}/\mathcal{R}))/\mathcal{S}$ كُل عارقة بينها في (حالة (أ) و (ب)).

Examples:

1) Let $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and let

$\mathcal{R} = \{(1,1), (2,2), (3,3), (4,4), (2,3), (3,2), (2,4), (4,2), (3,4), (4,3)\}$ be an E.R. on \mathcal{X} . (Prove it)

Then the equivalence classes of \mathcal{R} are:

$$1/\mathcal{R} = \{1\},$$

$$2/\mathcal{R} = 3/\mathcal{R} = 4/\mathcal{R} = \{2, 3, 4\}. \text{ So}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}/\mathcal{R} = \{ \{1\}, \{2, 3, 4\} \}$$

برهان العكس: إذا كانت $\mathcal{S} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ هي مجموعات مجزأة في \mathbb{Z} ، فما هي \mathcal{S}/\mathcal{R} ؟
 حدد علامة المكافئ (\mathcal{R}/\mathcal{S}) معرفة كالتالي:
 $x (\mathcal{R}/\mathcal{S}) y \text{ iff } x, y \in A \text{ for some } A \in \mathcal{S}$.
 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{R}/\mathcal{S} = \{ (1, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 2), (3, 3), (3, 4), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 4) \}$.

(ناتج برهان العكس: إذا كان \mathcal{S} مجموعات مجزأة في \mathbb{Z} ، فما هي \mathcal{R}/\mathcal{S} ؟
 المكافئ \mathcal{R}/\mathcal{S} هو علامة المكافئ (\mathcal{R} و \mathcal{S} مترافقون).

للحظة أوضحنا أن \mathcal{R}/\mathcal{S} هي علامة (تحصل على علامة المكافئ) ما بين
 نعم بعملية ضرب دينارجت داخل مجموعات (المجموعة كل مجموعة مع نفس
 من الحالات السابقة لـ \mathcal{S}).

$$\mathbb{Z}/\mathcal{S} = (\{1\} \times \{1\}) \cup (\{2, 3, 4\} \times \{2, 3, 4\})$$

- \mathcal{S} ليس مجموعات مجزأة.

2) Let $\mathcal{S} = \mathbb{Z}$ and define for $i = 0, 1$,

$$z_0 = \{ \dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots \}$$

$$z_1 = \{ \dots, -3, -1, 1, 3, 5, \dots \}$$

Then clearly $\mathcal{S} = \{z_0, z_1\}$ is a partition of \mathbb{Z} ,
 we can introduce a relation \mathbb{Z}/\mathcal{S} as follows:

$x (\mathbb{Z}/\mathcal{S}) y \text{ iff both } x \text{ and } y \text{ in } z_0 \text{ or in } z_1$

That is either $(x = 2k_1 \wedge y = 2k_2)$ or

$$(x = 2k_1 + 1 \wedge y = 2k_2 + 1)$$

iff in both cases, $x - y = 2(k_1 - k_2) = 2k'$

iff $x \equiv y \pmod{2}$.

That is (\mathbb{Z}/\mathcal{S}) is just the congruence relation mod 2 on \mathbb{Z} .

3.4 Functions

Note Title

19-Feb-13

س (معلوم) أَنَّ الْإِنْتَرَانَاتِ / هُنَّ وَاحِدَاتٍ لِغَاِيَةٍ كُرِبَاخِيَّةٍ لِلَّذِي تَعْتَدُ
فِي كُلِّ فُرْزِعٍ (كُرِبَاخِيَّاتِ) مُخْتَلِفَةٌ (مُخْتَلِفَةٌ) حَتَّى تُؤْخِذَ أَدَاءَ رِبَطِ
يَرِبَطِ كُلِّ عَنْتَرٍ سَعْيَهُ مُجْوَهَةً حَالَ - سَقَرَ (جَمَال) - بَعْثَرَ وَجَيْدَهُ سَعْيَهُ
مُجْوَهَةً مُعَابِلَةً - سَقَرَ (جَمَال) (مُعَابِل). وَ (الْحَقِيقَةُ أَنَّ هَذَا (الْعَرِيفُ) يَعْرِفُ عَنْ رَاضِيَهُ عَيْزِ
مُفْرَضَهُ مَا ذَلِكَ بَأْدَاهُ، رِبَطِ. (الْعَرِيفُ) كَتَافِي دَعِيمٌ تَعْرِيفُ رَبِّ الْإِنْتَرَانَاتِ
بِتَعْرِيفِ مُفَاصِيمِ (مُجَبِّيَّاتِ) دَلِيلَاتِهِ مُلْعَنٌ حَتَّى يَعْتَدِي إِلَيْهِ وَأَدَاءُ (يَرِبَطِ) هُوَ
مُلْعَنَةُ خَارِجَةٌ خَصَرَ رِبَطَ خَارِجَةً / حَسْبَ مُفْرَضَهُ (الْعَلَاقَةُ) لِلَّذِي درَجَتْ هَاجِنَّا.

Def 8: Let X and Y be sets. A **function** from X to Y is a triple (f, X, Y) , where f is a relation
from X to Y satisfying :

(a) $\text{Dom}(f) = X$.

(b) If $(x, y) \in f$ and $(x, z) \in f$, then $y = z$.

If (f, X, Y) is a fun, then we write :

$f: X \rightarrow Y$ instead of (f, X, Y) and

$y = f(x)$ instead of $(x, y) \in f$.

الآن $(x, y) \in f$ لـ $y = f(x)$ بـ تـ وـ اـ يـ : (جـبـ) سـوـيـ :

وـ (يـ) يـ مـعـ يـ يـ يـ دـبـاـيـ (لـدـالـ) دـبـاـيـ دـبـاـيـ

$(x, y) \in R$ وـ تـ لـ يـ يـ يـ = $R(x)$ (لـدـالـ) دـبـاـيـ دـبـاـيـ لـلـيـ

Def: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun. If $y = f(x)$, we

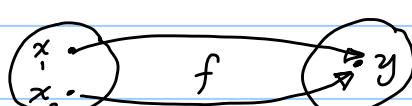
say that y is the **image** of x under f and that x is

a **preimage** of y under f . The set Y is called the

range of the fun. You should notice that the range
of f need not be the same as the image of f .



y is the image of x



x_1 and x_2 are preimages of y .

Examples: ① Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{4, 5, 6\}$. Which of the following relations from A to B is a fun? Graph the relation.

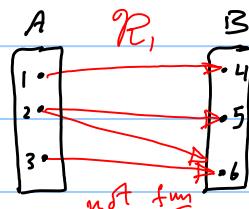
$$\mathcal{R}_1 = \{(1, 4), (2, 5), (3, 6), (2, 6)\}.$$

$$\mathcal{R}_2 = \{(1, 4), (2, 6), (3, 5)\}.$$

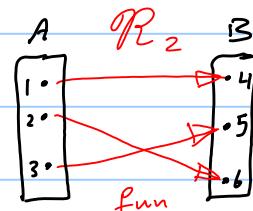
$$\mathcal{R}_3 = \{(1, 5), (2, 5), (3, 5)\}.$$

$$\mathcal{R}_4 = \{(1, 4), (3, 6)\}.$$

sol: a) \mathcal{R}_1 is not a fun, since $(2, 5) \in \mathcal{R}_1 \wedge (2, 6) \in \mathcal{R}_1$ but $5 \neq 6$.

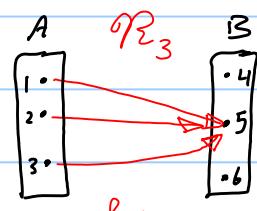


b) \mathcal{R}_2 is a fun since $\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}_2) = A$, and $\forall x \in A \exists! y \in B \text{ s.t. } (x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_2$.



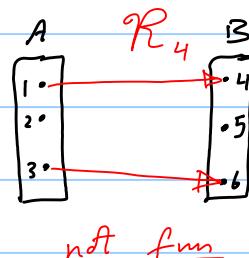
Note that B is the range and Image of the fun is also B .

(c) \mathcal{R}_3 is a fun, again $\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}_3) = A$ and when $(x, y) \wedge (x, z) \in \mathcal{R}_3 \Rightarrow y = z$.

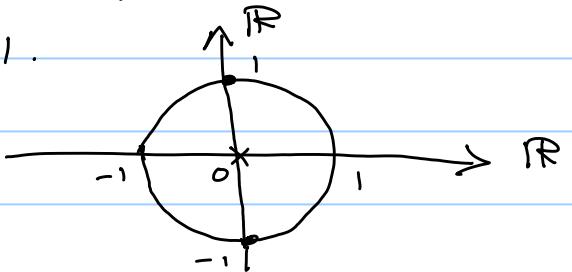


Note that B is the range, but Image of the fun is the set $\{5\}$ which is a subset of B .

(d) \mathcal{R}_4 is not a fun since $\text{Dom}(\mathcal{R}_4) \neq A$.



2) Let $H = \{(x, y) \in [-1, 1] \times \mathbb{R} : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$. Then $\text{Dom}(H) = [-1, 1] = \text{Im}(H)$. H is not a fm since $(0, 1) \in H$, and $(0, -1) \in H$, but $1 \neq -1$.



3) Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = [x]$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, where $[x]$ equals the greatest integer $\leq x$.
 [for example: $[\sqrt{2}] = 1$, $[0.5] = 0$, $[-0.5] = -1$]

Note that $\text{Dom}(f) = \mathbb{R}$ and the range of $f = \mathbb{Z}$. But the image of f is $\text{Im}(f) = \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \text{Ran}(f)$.

نحویہ: اذ اکھتے کہیں علاوہ دلہ جا سر کریں گے اسے دلہ جا کریں گے۔

لے کر اسے دلہ جا کریں گے اسے دلہ جا کریں گے۔

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ تبیر / نسبتیں لکھیں، اسی

(کسونیں) پڑھیں کہیں کہیں۔ دلہ جا کریں گے $f(x) = [x]$ کے مطابق

Thrm 6: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fm and let W be a set such that $\text{Im}(f) \subseteq W$, then $f: X \rightarrow W$ is a fm.

PF: First: f is a relation from X to W ??

($f \subseteq X \times W$ ایسا ہے کہ f کا عالم W میں ہے)

$$(x, y) \in f \implies (x \in X) \wedge (y \in (\text{Im } f)) \quad (\text{Def of Im})$$

$$\implies (x \in X) \wedge (y \in W) \quad (\text{Im } f \subseteq W)$$

$$\implies (x, y) \in X \times W.$$

That is $f \subseteq X \times W$.

Second: since $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a fm, we have $\text{Dom}(f) = X$, and if $(x, y) \in f$ and $(x, z) \in f$ then $y = z$.

□

Thrm 7: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: X \rightarrow Y$ be funs.

Then $f = g$ iff $f(x) = g(x) \forall x \in X$.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose that $f = g$ (f و g تساوى مجموعات).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } x \in X, \quad y = f(x) &\iff (x, y) \in f \\ &\iff (x, y) \in g \quad (f = g) \\ &\iff y = g(x) \end{aligned}$$

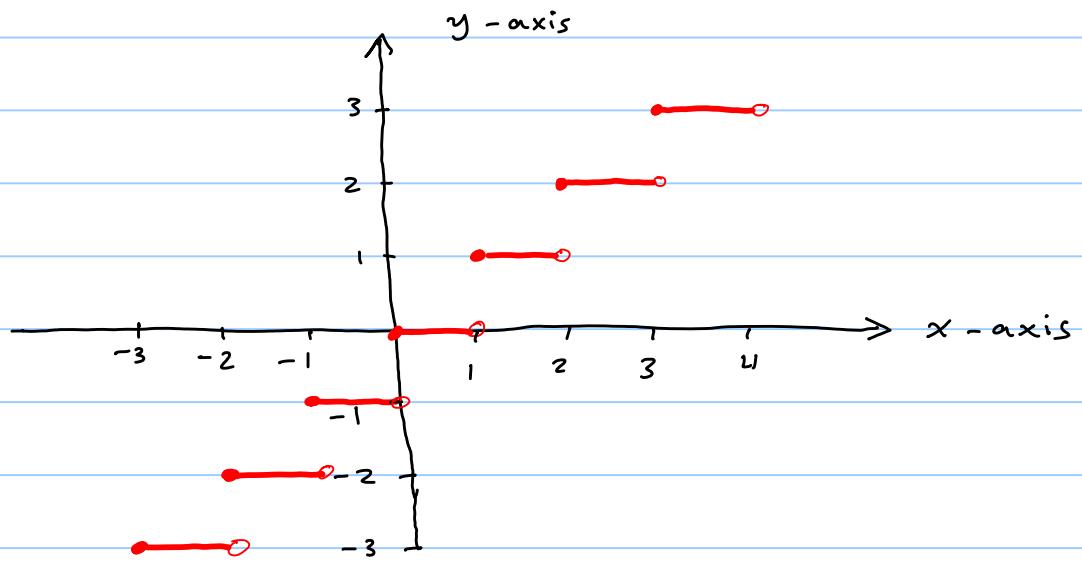
$$\Rightarrow f(x) = g(x).$$

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $f(x) = g(x) \forall x \in X$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (x, y) \in f &\iff y = f(x) \\ &\iff y = g(x) \quad (f(x) = g(x)) \\ &\iff (x, y) \in g \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $f = g$.

Remark: If the domain and the range of a fun are subsets of \mathbb{R} , then the graph of f may be sketched on the Cartesian plane. For example, the integers fun $y = \lceil x \rceil$ has the following graph:



$$y = \lceil x \rceil$$

لما f رئاطي بـ $f: X \rightarrow Y$ فـ f عـ $\lceil x \rceil$: نوع
 . X و Y مـ \mathbb{Z} ، $y = \lceil x \rceil$ ، $x \in \mathbb{R}$

Some of Special funs:

Examples: 1) Let A be a subset of a nonempty set X . The relation from X to $\{0, 1\}$ defined by $\{(x, y) : y=1 \text{ if } x \in A, y=0 \text{ if } x \notin A\}$ gives rise to a fun from X to $\{0, 1\}$. This fun is called **Characteristic fun of A in X** .

: این رابطه از X به $\{0, 1\}$ است که نیز پس

$\chi_A : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is defined by

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A, \\ 0, & x \notin A. \end{cases}$$

[Clearly χ_A is a fun since $\text{Dom}(\chi_A) = X$]

[$\forall x \in X$, either $x \in A$ or $x \notin A \Rightarrow$ either $\chi_A(x)=1$ or $\chi_A(x)=0$]

Moreover, if $(x, y) \wedge (x, z) \in \chi_A$, then:

$$x \in A \implies y=1 \wedge z=1 \implies y=z,$$

$x \notin A \implies y=0 \wedge z=0 \implies y=z$. This proves that χ_A is a fun from X to $\{0, 1\}$].

For Example: Let $X = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$ and $A = \{3, 4, 7\}$

Then $\chi_A(2) = 0$, $\chi_A(7) = 1$, $\chi_A(1) = 0$, $\chi_A(3) = 1$ and so on.

2) Let X be a set. The diagonal relation

$$\Delta_X = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$$
 is a fun from X to X .

PF: $\text{Dom}(\Delta_X) = X$. And if $(x, y) \wedge (x, z)$ in Δ_X ,

$$\text{then } x=y \wedge x=z \implies y=z.$$

We use the alternative notation $I_X : X \rightarrow X$

where $I_X(x) = x \quad \forall x \in X$. I_X is called the **identity fun on X** .

(3) (Constant fun):

Let X and Y be two nonempty sets and let $b \in Y$ be a fixed element in Y . The relation

$$C_b = \{(x, b) : x \in X\}$$

is a fun from X to Y denoted by

$$C_b : X \rightarrow Y$$

given by $C_b(x) = b \quad \forall x \in X$. This fun is called a **constant fun**.

(4) (Piecewise def. fun).

In calculus, we have seen a fun defined by two or more rules: for example $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - 2x, & x \leq 0 \\ x^2 + 1, & x \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

This fun can be expressed as the union of the following two funs:

$$1) \quad f : (-\infty, 0] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ defined by } f(x) = 1 - 2x$$

$$2) \quad g : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ defined by } f(x) = x^2 + 1.$$

Note that $\text{Dom}(f) \cap \text{Dom}(g) = \{0\}$ and

$$f(0) = 1 = g(0), \text{ and } h = f \cup g.$$

(\cup) **có** $\tilde{c}\tilde{u}\tilde{s}$ $\tilde{v}\tilde{u}\tilde{w}$ $\tilde{q}\tilde{u}\tilde{e}$)

Thrm 8: Let $f : A \rightarrow C$ and $g : B \rightarrow D$ be two funs such that $f(x) = g(x) \quad \forall x \in A \cap B$.

Then the **union** h of f and g defines the fun

$$h = f \cup g : A \cup B \rightarrow C \cup D \text{ where}$$

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & x \in A, \\ g(x), & x \in B. \end{cases}$$

PF: $f \subseteq A \times C$ and $g \subseteq B \times D$, so the relation
 $h = f \cup g \subseteq (A \times C) \cup (B \times D)$
 $\subseteq (A \cup B) \times (C \cup D)$.

Thus, h is a relation from $A \cup B$ to $C \cup D$.

Claim: $\text{Dom}(h) = \text{Dom}(f) \cup \text{Dom}(g) = A \cup B$. (f and g are funs)

To prove this claim, note that if $x \in \text{Dom}(h)$, then $\exists y \in C \cup D$ s.t. $(x, y) \in h = f \cup g$. Then either $(x, y) \in f$ or $(x, y) \in g$. So, either $x \in \text{Dom}(f)$ or $x \in \text{Dom}(g)$. Thus, $x \in \text{Dom}(f) \cup \text{Dom}(g)$, and $\text{Dom}(h) \subseteq \text{Dom}(f) \cup \text{Dom}(g)$ --- ①

On the other hand, if $x \in \text{Dom}(f) \cup \text{Dom}(g)$, then either $x \in \text{Dom}(f)$ or $x \in \text{Dom}(g)$.

If $x \in \text{Dom}(f)$, then $\exists y \in C$ s.t. $(x, y) \in f \subseteq h$.
So $x \in \text{Dom}(h)$.

If $x \in \text{Dom}(g)$, then $\exists z \in D$ s.t. $(x, z) \in g \subseteq h$.
So $x \in \text{Dom}(h)$.

In both cases, $x \in \text{Dom}(h)$ and hence, we get that $\text{Dom}(f) \cup \text{Dom}(g) \subseteq \text{Dom}(h)$ --- ②

$$\xrightarrow{\textcircled{1}, \textcircled{2}} \text{Dom}(h) = \text{Dom}(f) \cup \text{Dom}(g) = A \cup B$$

Finally, If $(x, y) \in f$ and $(x, z) \in g$, then, there are three cases.

Case 1: Both $(x, y) \wedge (x, z) \in f \Rightarrow y = z$ (f is a fun)

Case 2: Both $(x, y) \wedge (x, z) \in g \Rightarrow y = z$ (g is a fun)

Case 3: $(x, y) \in f \wedge (x, z) \in g$

[Similarly if $(x, y) \in g \wedge (x, z) \in h$].

In this case, we have that $y = f(x) \wedge z = g(x)$ and $x \in \text{Dom}(f) \cap \text{Dom}(g)$. By given $f(x) = g(x)$, so

we get that $y = z$.

Thus, in all cases, we get that $y = z$ and so h is a fun from $A \cup B$ to $C \cup D$.

[محدود (مغلق) و مفتوح (مفتوح) ارجاعي و ارجاعي]

[restricted fun / inclusion fun]

. بحسب المقادير المذكورة في المقدمة $\text{Dom } f \cap \text{Dom } g = \emptyset$ لذا فالخواص تتحقق

Example: ① Suppose that $f: X \rightarrow X$ be a fun in X . Prove that f is reflexive iff $f = I_X$.

PF: (\Rightarrow) Suppose that f is reflexive. Then $\forall x \in X$, $(x, x) \in f \Rightarrow I_X \subseteq f$.

Now, if $(x, y) \in f$, then, both $(x, y) \wedge (x, x)$ in f . Since f is a fun, we get that $y = x$ and so $(x, y) = (x, x) \in I_X \Rightarrow f \subseteq I_X$. That is, $f = I_X$.

(\Leftarrow) Trivial, since I_X is an equivalence relation.

2) Let the fun $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be defined by

$$f = \{(x, e), (y, d), (z, a), (v, b), (w, b)\}$$

where $X = \{x, y, z, v, w\}$ and $Y = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$.

Find f^{-1} , $\text{Dom}(f)$, $\text{Im}(f)$, $\text{Dom}(f^{-1})$, and Draw f , f^{-1} . Is f^{-1} a fun? Why?

Sol: $f^{-1} = \{(y, x) : (x, y) \in f\}$

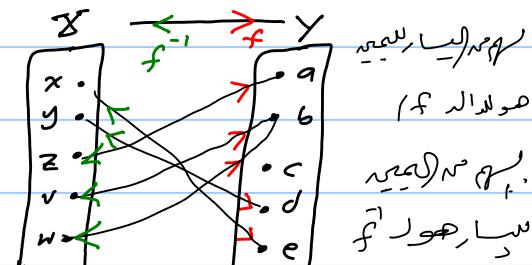
$$= \{(e, x), (d, y), (a, z), (b, v), (b, w)\}$$

$\text{Dom}(f) = X$ (f is fun)

$$\text{Im}(f) = \{a, b, d, e\} = Y - \{c\}$$

$$\text{Dom } f^{-1} = \text{Im}(f) = \{a, b, d, e\}$$
 and

f^{-1} is not a fun since $\text{Dom}(f^{-1}) \neq Y$.



3.5 Images and Inverse Images of Sets

Note Title

26-Feb-13

Def 9: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun, and let $A \subseteq X$, $B \subseteq Y$.

a) The *image* of A under f - denoted by $f(A)$ - is the set of all images $f(x)$ of elements x in A .
That is,
$$f(A) = \{f(x) : x \in A\}$$

b) The *inverse image* of B under f - denoted by $f^{-1}(B)$ - is the set of all preimages of y in B .
That is,
$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in B\}$$

Thrm 9: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun. Then

a) $f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$.

b) $f(\{x\}) = \{f(x)\} \quad \forall x \in X$.

c) If $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$, then $f(A) \subseteq f(B)$.

d) If $C \subseteq D \subseteq Y$, then $f^{-1}(C) \subseteq f^{-1}(D)$.

PF: a) If $f(\emptyset) \neq \emptyset$, then $\exists y \in f(\emptyset)$. So, $\exists x \in \emptyset$ s.t. $f(x) = y$ which is a contradiction.

b)
$$\begin{aligned} f(\{x\}) &= \{f(a) : a \in \{x\}\} = \{f(a) : a = x\} \\ &= \{f(x)\}. \end{aligned}$$

c) Suppose that $A \subseteq B$. Let $y \in f(A)$, then $\exists x \in A$ s.t. $f(x) = y$. Since $A \subseteq B$, we get $x \in B$ and $y = f(x) \in f(B)$. (*Def of $f(B)$*)

Therefore $f(A) \subseteq f(B)$.

d) Suppose that $C \subseteq D$. Let $x \in f^{-1}(C)$, then by the def of f^{-1} , we get $f(x) \in C \subseteq D$. Hence $x \in f^{-1}(D)$. (*Since $f(x) \in D$*) \square

Thrm 10: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun and let $\{A_\alpha : \alpha \in \Delta\}$ be an indexed family of subsets of X . Then

$$(a) f\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha)$$

$$(b) f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha)$$

PF: (a) $y \in f\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha\right)$

$$\equiv (\exists x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha) (y = f(x)) \quad (\text{Def of } f(x))$$

$$\equiv (\exists \alpha_0 \in \Delta) (\exists x \in A_{\alpha_0}) (y = f(x)) \quad (\text{Def of } \bigcup)$$

$$\equiv (\exists \alpha_0 \in \Delta) (y \in f(A_{\alpha_0})) \quad (\text{Def of } f(A_\alpha))$$

$$\equiv y \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha).$$

Therefore, $f\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha)$.

b) Previously, we prove that $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha \subseteq A_\gamma \forall \gamma \in \Delta$

By Thrm 9 part(c) above, we have that

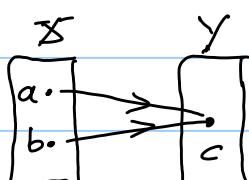
$$f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha\right) \subseteq f(A_\gamma) \forall \gamma \in \Delta$$

Hence,

$$f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha). \quad \square$$

Remark: The converse of Thrm 10 is not true, and the following is a counter example.

Example: Let the fun $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be defined by the diagram



Consider $\Delta = \{1, 2\}$ and $A_1 = \{a\}$, $A_2 = \{b\}$.

Then $f(A_1 \cap A_2) = f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$, while

$f(A_1) \cap f(A_2) = \{c\}$. Hence we find that

$$f(A_1 \cap A_2) \subset f(A_1) \cap f(A_2).$$

Thrm 11: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun and let $\{B_\alpha : \alpha \in \Delta\}$ be an indexed family of subsets of Y . Then

$$(a) f^{-1}(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} f^{-1}(B_\alpha).$$

$$(b) f^{-1}(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f^{-1}(B_\alpha).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PF: a)} \quad x \in f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha\right) &\equiv f(x) \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha && (\text{Def of } f^{-1}) \\ &\equiv (\exists \alpha \in \Delta) (f(x) \in B_\alpha) && (\text{Def of } \bigcup) \\ &\equiv (\exists \alpha \in \Delta) (x \in f^{-1}(B_\alpha)) && (\text{Def of } f^{-1}) \\ &\equiv x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} f^{-1}(B_\alpha). && (\text{Def of } \bigcup) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Therefore } f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Delta} f^{-1}(B_\alpha).$$

$$\begin{aligned} b) \quad x \in f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha\right) &\equiv f(x) \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha && (\text{Def of } f^{-1}) \\ &\equiv (\forall \alpha \in \Delta) (f(x) \in B_\alpha) && (\text{Def of } \bigcap) \\ &\equiv (\forall \alpha \in \Delta) (x \in f^{-1}(B_\alpha)) && (\text{Def of } f^{-1}) \\ &\equiv x \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f^{-1}(B_\alpha). && (\text{Def of } \bigcap) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Therefore } f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} B_\alpha\right) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f^{-1}(B_\alpha). \quad \square$$

Thrm 12: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun and let B and C be any subsets of Y . Then $f^{-1}(B - C) = f^{-1}(B) - f^{-1}(C)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PF: } x \in f^{-1}(B - C) &\iff f(x) \in B - C && (\text{Def of } f^{-1}) \\ &\iff (f(x) \in B) \wedge f(x) \notin C && (\text{Def of } -) \\ &\iff x \in f^{-1}(B) \wedge x \notin f^{-1}(C) && (\text{Def of } f^{-1}) \\ &\iff x \in f^{-1}(B) - f^{-1}(C) && (\text{Def of } -) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$f^{-1}(B - C) = f^{-1}(B) - f^{-1}(C) \quad \square$$

Examples: 1) Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun₁, and let $A \subseteq X$, $B \subseteq Y$.

- a) Prove that $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$, and $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$.
- b) Give examples to show that the inclusions in part (a) may be proper.

Sol: a) Let $x \in A$, then $f(x) \in f(A)$. (Def of $f(A)$)

So, $x \in f^{-1}(f(A))$ (Def of $f^{-1}(C)$, $C = f(A)$)

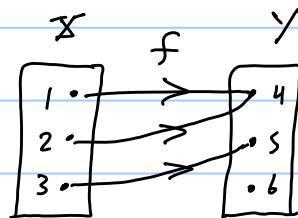
Thus $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$

Let $y \in f(f^{-1}(B))$, then $\exists x \in f^{-1}(B)$ s.t.

$y = f(x)$. By def of $f^{-1}(B)$, we must have $f(x) \in B$. But $y = f(x)$, so $y \in B$.

That is $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$.

b) Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be defined as in the graph:



Let $A = \{1\}$, $B = \{4, 6\}$. Then $f(A) = 4$ and $f^{-1}(f(A)) = \{1, 2\}$. So $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$. Moreover, $f^{-1}(B) = \{1, 2\}$ and $f(f^{-1}(B)) = \{4\} \subseteq B$.

2) Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun₁, and let $B \subseteq Y$. Prove that

$$f^{-1}(Y - B) = X - f^{-1}(B).$$

PF: $x \in f^{-1}(Y - B) \stackrel{\text{(def of } f^{-1})}{\iff} f(x) \in Y - B \stackrel{\text{(Def of } -\text{)}}{\iff} (f(x) \in Y) \wedge (f(x) \notin B)$
 $\iff x \in f^{-1}(Y) \wedge x \notin f^{-1}(B)$ (Def of f^{-1})
 $\iff x \in X \wedge x \notin f^{-1}(B)$ (f is fun₁, so $f^{-1}(Y) = X$)
 $\iff x \in X - f^{-1}(B)$.

Therefore $f^{-1}(Y - B) = X - f^{-1}(B)$.

3.6 Injective, Surjective, and Bijective Functions

Note Title

26-Feb-13

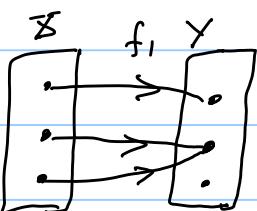
وَهُوَ (جِنْدِل) مُعَادِي لِلْمُبَيْنِيَّةِ وَهُوَ مُعَادِي لِلْمُبَيْنِيَّةِ

· bijective funs / surjective funs / injective funs

Def 10: ① A fun $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be **injective** (or **one-to-one**, **1-1**), if $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X$, whenever $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, we get $x_1 = x_2$. Equivalently, (by Contrapositive) f is injective fun if $x_1 \neq x_2$, then $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$. An injective fun is called **injection**.

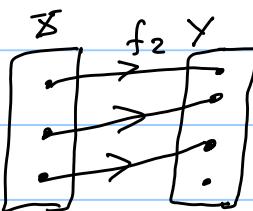
② A fun $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be **surjective** (or **onto**) if whenever $y \in Y$, then there exists at least one $x \in X$ such that $y = f(x)$. Equivalently, f is surjective if $f(X) = Y$ ($\text{Im}(f) = Y$). A surjective fun is called **surjection**.

3) A fun $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is **bijective** if it is both injective and surjective. A bijective fun is called a **bijection** or a **1-1 Correspondence**.



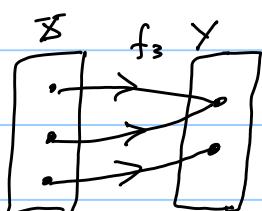
f_1 is not 1-1

f_1 is not onto



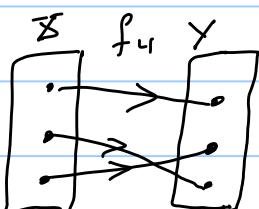
f_2 is 1-1

f_2 is not onto



f_3 is not 1-1

f_3 is onto.

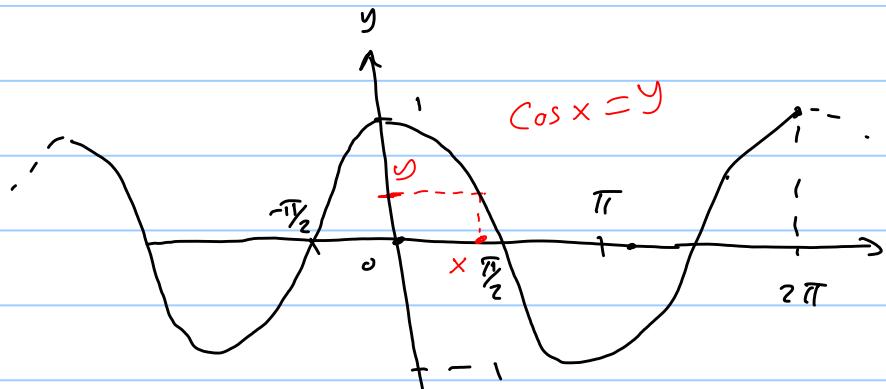


f_4 is 1-1
 f_4 is onto } $\Rightarrow f_4$ is 1-1 and onto fun

Examples: 1) The fun $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by
 $f(x) = \cos x$

f is not 1-1, since $0 \neq 2\pi$ but $\cos 0 = 1 = \cos 2\pi$.
 f is not onto, since $y=2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\nexists x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t.
 $\cos x = 2$. $[\lvert \cos x \rvert \leq 1]$

2) If we replace the range of part (1) by the set $[-1, 1]$, we get a fun $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ defined by $f(x) = \cos x$.
 f is still not 1-1, but f is onto, since $\forall y \in [-1, 1], \exists x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\cos x = y$.

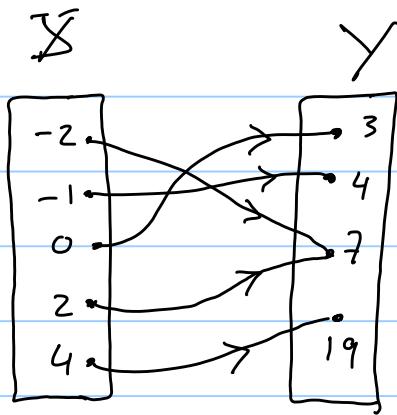


- 3) If $f: [0, \pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ defined by $f(x) = \cos x$ then it is clearly that f is 1-1 correspondence.
 4) The identity fun I_x on any set is a bijective fun.

PF: easy.

- 5) Let $X = \{-2, -1, 0, 2, 4\}$ and $Y = \{3, 4, 7, 19\}$. Define $f: X \rightarrow Y$ by $f(x) = x^2 + 3 \quad \forall x \in X$. Check if f is 1-1? onto? Explain.

sd: Graph the fun



f is not 1-1, since $-2 \neq 2$ and $f(-2) = 7 = f(2)$

f is onto, since $\forall y \in \{3, 4, 7, 19\}$, $\exists x \in X$ s.t. $f(x) = y$. ($f(X) = Y$).

6) Prove that the fun $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = 3x^3 - 8$ is a bijection.

PF: f is 1-1: Suppose that $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow 3x_1^3 - 8 = 3x_2^3 - 8 \Rightarrow 3x_1^3 = 3x_2^3 \Rightarrow x_1^3 = x_2^3$.

since $g = \sqrt[3]{x}$ is a fun, $g(x_1^3) = g(x_2^3) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$.

f is onto: Let $y \in \mathbb{R}$, $\frac{y+8}{3} \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$\sqrt[3]{\frac{y+8}{3}} \in \mathbb{R}$. Take $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{y+8}{3}} \Rightarrow$

$$f(x) = y.$$

Hence f is onto and so it is bijection.

لحوظات: ① \rightarrow onto, 1-1 و $\sqrt[3]{x}$ هى دالة متعارضة

$f: x \xrightarrow{1-1} y$, $g: x \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} y$, $h: x \xrightarrow[\text{onto}]{1-1} y$.

2) \rightarrow onto و $\sqrt[3]{x}$ هى دالة متعارضة

$E = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$ فی نسبت / \rightarrow onto

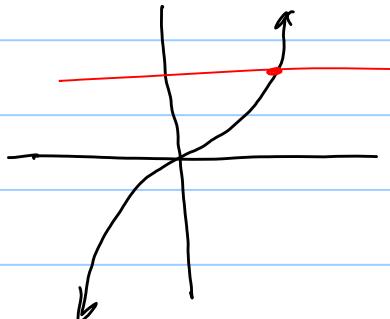
عروف (الرئيسي) \rightarrow g / f

$f: N \rightarrow E$ defined by $f(n) = 2n$.

$g: N \rightarrow N$ defined by $g(n) = 2n$.

As set $f \subseteq N \times E$ and $g \subseteq N \times N$. Moreover $f = g$ as a s.t. But $f(N) = g(N) = E$. Hence f is onto, but g is not onto.

مثال ٣ / $f: X \rightarrow Y$ مفهوماً عينها يتم (كما يلي)
 فإن f حقاً هي $f: X \rightarrow Y$ بحيث f هي $f: X \rightarrow Y$ حيث f هي $f: X \rightarrow Y$ حيث $f = x^3$ $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ مثلاً



• f حقاً هي $f: X \rightarrow Y$ حيث f هي $f: X \rightarrow Y$

Thrm 13: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be an injective and let

$\{A_\alpha : \alpha \in \Delta\}$ be an indexed family of subsets of X .

Then $f(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha)$.

PF: In general, we prove that $f(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha)$.

($\text{لما } y \in f(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha) \text{ فـ } y \in f(A_\alpha) \text{ لـ } \forall \alpha \in \Delta$)

Let $y \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha) \Rightarrow y \in f(A_\alpha) \quad \forall \alpha \in \Delta$.

$\Rightarrow (\forall \alpha \in \Delta)[(\exists x_\alpha \in A_\alpha) \quad y = f(x_\alpha)]$ (Def of $f(A_\alpha)$)

Since f is injective fun., all these x_α 's are the same. This implies that $\exists x \in A_\alpha \quad \forall \alpha \in \Delta$ s.t.

$y = f(x) \Rightarrow \exists x \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha$ s.t. $y = f(x)$.

$\Rightarrow y \in f(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha)$. Hence $f(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} A_\alpha) = \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Delta} f(A_\alpha)$ \square

Note that if $f: X \rightarrow Y$, then \bar{f} is a relation from Y to X defined by

$$\bar{f}^{-1} = \{(y, x) \in Y \times X : y = f(x)\}.$$

And in general \bar{f} need not be a fun.

For illustration: Let $f: \{1, 2\} \rightarrow \{3\}$ be defined by $f = \{(1, 3), (2, 3)\}$. This fun is not 1-1, and $\bar{f}^{-1} = \{(3, 1), (3, 2)\}$ is a relation from $\{3\}$ to $\{1, 2\}$. This relation is not fun since $(3, 1), (3, 2)$ two elements in \bar{f}^{-1} and $1 \neq 2$.

Thrm 14: If a fun $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a bijection, then \bar{f}^{-1} is a bijective fun from Y to \bar{X} . Moreover, $(\bar{f}^{-1})^{-1} = f$.

PF: $\text{Dom}(\bar{f}^{-1}) = \text{Im}(f) = Y$ ($f(X) = Y$ since f is onto)

If $(y, x_1) \in \bar{f}^{-1}$ and $(y, x_2) \in \bar{f}^{-1}$, then $y = f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

Since f is 1-1, then $x_1 = x_2$. This proves that

\bar{f}^{-1} is a fun from Y to \bar{X} .

\bar{f}^{-1} is 1-1: Suppose that $\bar{f}^{-1}(y_1) = \bar{f}^{-1}(y_2) = x \in \bar{X}$.

$\Rightarrow y_1 = f(x)$ and $y_2 = f(x)$. Hence $y_1 = y_2$ and \bar{f}^{-1} is 1-1.

\bar{f}^{-1} is onto: Let $x \in \bar{X}$ be arbitrary, so $\exists y \in Y$ s.t. $y = f(x)$ (since f is fun, $\text{Dom}(f) = X$)

Hence $x = \bar{f}^{-1}(y)$. This proves that \bar{f}^{-1} is a bijection.

Finally,

$$(x, y) \in f \equiv (y, x) \in \bar{f}^{-1}$$

$$\equiv (x, y) \in (\bar{f}^{-1})^{-1}$$

Hence $f = (\bar{f}^{-1})^{-1}$. \square .

Def: If $f: X \xrightarrow[\text{onto}]{1-1} Y$, then the fun

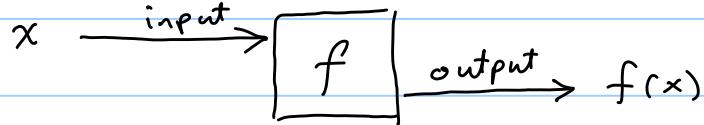
$\bar{f}: Y \rightarrow X$ is called the inverse fun of f .

3.7 Composition of Functions

Note Title

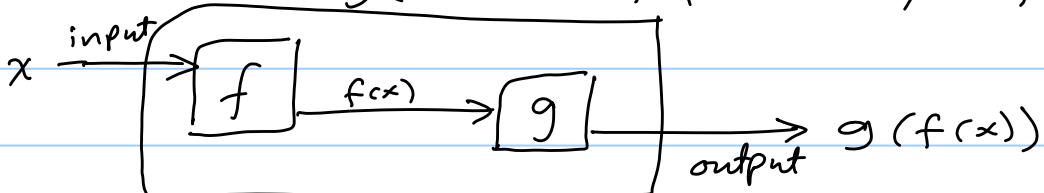
27-Feb-13

مقدمة: نعم (نعم) تتحل لـ f على x / جماعة طواد خام بدخله -
 • $f(x)$ هو (output) طبیع نصیر x (input)



وقد يحدى أن تقوم بادخال (منبع) $f(x)$ إلى أخرى g ودخل آخر

هي منتجات (الناتج) $g(f(x))$ تقوم بانتاج



للوضوح قد تكون لدينا ألة غسل لغسل الملابس لتنقية
 تنفس ببلة ، وعند دخال هذه الملابس (بلة) تامة تحضيره لتنقية ملابس نظيفة
 وجافة . هنا يمكن اعتبار (رذاذ) معًا تامة داً صفة من خلاص ملابس جافة
 قد يخرجها من ملابس نظيفة جافة .

Def 13: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ be two
 funs. The composition of these two funs is the
 fun $gof: X \rightarrow Z$ defined by

$$gof(x) = g(f(x)) \quad \forall x \in X.$$

That is

$$gof = \{ (x, z) \in X \times Z : \exists y \in Y \text{ such that } (x, y) \in f \wedge (y, z) \in g \}$$

Example: Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ and $g: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 be two funs given respectively by

$$f(x) = x^2 + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \sqrt{x+1}.$$

Find the composition $gof(x)$ and $fog(x)$.

Sol: Note that $f(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq [0, \infty)$, so $fog: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

is defined. Similarly $g([0, \infty)) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, so $g \circ f: [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is also defined.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad f \circ g(x) &= f(g(x)) \\ &= (g(x))^2 + 1 \\ &= (\sqrt{x+1})^2 + 1 \\ &= x+2 \end{aligned}$$

and $\forall x \in [0, \infty)$,

$$\begin{aligned} g \circ f(x) &= g(f(x)) \\ &= \sqrt{f(x)+1} \\ &= \sqrt{x^2+2} \end{aligned}$$

This example shows that in general $f \circ g \neq g \circ f$, and the composition of functions is not commutative.

Thrm 15. The composition of functions is associative; that is if $f: X \rightarrow Y$, $g: Y \rightarrow Z$, and $h: Z \rightarrow W$, then

$$(h \circ g) \circ f = h \circ (g \circ f)$$

PF: As a function $h \circ g: Y \rightarrow W$, so

$$(h \circ g) \circ f: X \rightarrow W, \text{ and}$$

$$(g \circ f): X \rightarrow Z, \text{ and}$$

$$h \circ (g \circ f): X \rightarrow W$$

So, both $(h \circ g) \circ f$ and $h \circ (g \circ f)$ are functions from X to W .

Now, for $x \in X$,

$$h \circ (g \circ f)(x) = h(g \circ f(x)) = h(g(f(x)))$$

$$\text{and } (h \circ g) \circ f(x) = h \circ g(f(x)) = h(g(f(x)))$$

$$\text{Hence } h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f.$$

20

عکس اینجا میگیریم که اینجا باید بازگشتی داشت و جواب جو عکس است
و همچنان که در اینجا مذکور شده، $X \times W$ را نیز میگیریم

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x, w) \in h \circ (g \circ f) &\equiv \exists z \in Z \left[\text{s.t. } (x, z) \in g \circ f \wedge (z, w) \in h \right] \\
 &\equiv (\exists z \in Z) \left[(\exists y \in Y) \left[(x, y) \in f \wedge (y, z) \in g \right] \wedge (z, w) \in h \right] \\
 &\equiv (\exists z \in Z) (\exists y \in Y) \left[(x, y) \in f \wedge ((y, z) \in g \wedge (z, w) \in h) \right] \\
 &\quad (\text{by associative } (p \wedge q) \wedge r = p \wedge (q \wedge r)) \\
 &\equiv (\exists y \in Y) (x, y) \in f \wedge (y, w) \in (h \circ g) \quad (\text{Def of } h \circ g) \\
 &\equiv (x, w) \in (h \circ g) \circ f.
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $(h \circ g) \circ f = h \circ (g \circ f)$. \square

Thrm 16: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a fun. Then

a) If there exists a fun $g: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $g \circ f = I_X$ ($I_X: X \rightarrow X$, $I_X(x) = x$), then f is injective.

b) If there exists a fun $h: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $f \circ h = I_Y$, then f is surjective.

PF: a) Suppose that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Then

$$x_1 = I_X(x_1) = g \circ f(x_1) = g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2)) = g \circ f(x_2) = I_X(x_2).$$

Hence f is 1-1.

b) Let $y \in Y$ be arbitrary. Then

$$y = I_Y(y) = f \circ h(y) = f(h(y))$$

Set $h(y) = x \in X$, then we have

$y = f(x)$ and so f is onto.

Examples: Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$.

- a) If f and g are surjective funs, then so $g \circ f$
- b) If f and g are injective funs, then so $g \circ f$.
- c) If $g \circ f$ is surjective then g is surjective.
- d) If $g \circ f$ is injective then f is injective.

PF: The fun $g \circ f$ is from X to Z .

- a) Let $z \in Z$ be arbitrary. Since g is onto, $\exists y \in Y$ s.t. $g(y) = z$. But $y \in Y$ and f is onto, so $\exists x \in X$ s.t. $f(x) = y$. Hence
- $$z = g(y) = g(f(x)) = g \circ f(x).$$

That is $\exists x \in X$ s.t. $g \circ f(x) = z$ and so $g \circ f$ is onto.

- b) Suppose that $g \circ f(x_1) = g \circ f(x_2)$. Then

$$g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2))$$

Since g is 1-1, we get $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

Since f is 1-1, $x_1 = x_2$. Hence $g \circ f$ is 1-1.

- c) $g \circ f: X \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} Z$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$. Let $z \in Z$ be arbitrary. $\exists x \in X$ s.t. $g \circ f(x) = z$ or $g(f(x)) = z$.

Now, set $y = f(x) \in Y$, then $g(y) = g(f(x)) = z$.

That is g is onto.

- d) Suppose that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Since g is fun, we get $g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2))$ or $g \circ f(x_1) = g \circ f(x_2)$.

Since $g \circ f$ is 1-1, so $x_1 = x_2$ and hence f is 1-1.

Ch 5: Denumerable Sets and Nondenumerable Sets

Note Title

05-Apr-13

5.1 Finite and Infinite Sets

لَهُ مُنْهَىٰ فِي الْعَدْدِ (finite set) أَوْ لَمْ يَمْنَعْهُ عَدْدُهُ (infinite set).
جُمِيعُ الْمُجْمَعَاتِ الْمُتَحْدِثَةِ عَنْ عَدْدِهِ هُوَ الْمُنْهَىٰ (cardinality).
الْمُنْهَىٰ N يُقَسَّمُ إِلَى مُنْهَىٰ مُنْهَىٰ (countable sets) $N \rightarrow \text{finite}$
أَوْ مُنْهَىٰ مُنْهَىٰ (uncountable sets) $N \rightarrow \text{infinite}$.

Example: Let N be the set of natural numbers
and $N_e = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$ the set of even natural
numbers. Then $N_e \subseteq N$. Moreover the fun
 $f: N \rightarrow N_e$ defined by

$f(n) = 2n$ is 1-1 correspondence between N and
 N_e . In other words, N satisfies the strange property:

"A part is as numerous as the whole"

: "Euclid's axiom (إِعْلَمُ الْمُكْبَرِ بِالْمُنْهَىٰ) وَ إِذْنُ لَهُ بِالْمُنْهَىٰ بِالْمُكْبَرِ" (The whole is greater than any of its parts)

Def1: A set X is **infinite** if X has a proper subset
 $Y \subset X$ such that there exists a 1-1 correspondence
between X and Y . A set is **finite** if it is
not infinite.

Remark: It is not difficult to show that X is
infinite iff $\exists f: X \xrightarrow{1-1} X$ such that $f(x) \in X$

Example: The empty set \emptyset and the singleton sets are finite.

PF: a) \emptyset has no proper subset since $P(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$,
so there is no fun $f: \emptyset \rightarrow Y$ 1-1 correspondence
such that $Y \subset \emptyset$.

b) Suppose that $A = \{a\}$ be a singleton set.

Suppose to contrary that $\exists f: A \rightarrow Y$ 1-1 and onto where $Y \subset A$. Since $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$, the only proper subset of A is \emptyset . Hence.

$f: A \rightarrow \emptyset$ and $f(a) \in \emptyset$

which is a contradiction.

Thrm 1:

a) Every superset of an infinite set is infinite.

b) Every subset of a finite set is finite.

PF: a) Let X be an infinite set and $X \subseteq Y$.

Then there exist a 1-1 fun $f: X \rightarrow X$

such that $f(X) \neq X$. Now define a fun $g: Y \rightarrow Y$ as follows:

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & x \in X, \\ x, & x \in Y - X. \end{cases}$$

Claim: g is 1-1:

Suppose that $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$. \exists 3 cases:

Case 1: $x_1, x_2 \in X \Rightarrow g(x_1) = f(x_1)$ and $g(x_2) = f(x_2)$
 $\Rightarrow f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$ (f is 1-1)

Case 2: $x_1, x_2 \in Y - X \Rightarrow g(x_1) = x_1$ & $g(x_2) = x_2$

Thus, $x_1 = x_2$.

Case 3: One in X and the other in $Y - X$.

Say $x_1 \in X$, $x_2 \in Y - X$. Then.

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_2 &= g(x_1) && (x_1 \in Y - X) \\
 &= g(x) && (\text{given}) \\
 &= f(x) && (x \in X) \\
 &\in X && (f: X \rightarrow X).
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $x_2 \in Y - X \wedge x_2 \in X$, which is a contradiction. So, this case is impossible.

Therefore $g = 1-1$.

Claim: $g(Y) = f(X) \cup (Y - X) \subset X \cup (Y - X)$

$$= Y.$$

To see this, Let $y \in Y$.

If $y \in X$, then $g(y) = f(y) \in f(X)$,

if $y \in Y - X$, then $g(y) = y \in Y - X$

So, $g(y) \in f(X) \cup (Y - X)$

Thus $g(Y) \subseteq f(X) \cup (Y - X)$ --- (1)

Since both X and $Y - X \subseteq Y$, then

$$f(X) = g(X) \subseteq g(Y) \quad \text{and}$$

$$Y - X = f(Y - X) \subseteq g(Y).$$

Hence $f(X) \cup (Y - X) \subseteq g(Y)$ --- (2)

From (1) and (2), we get that

$$g(Y) = f(X) \cup (Y - X).$$

Since $f(X) \subset X \wedge X \cap (Y - X) = \emptyset$, then

$$g(Y) \subset X \cup (Y - X) = Y.$$

b) Let $A \subseteq X$ where X is a finite set.
 Suppose to contrary that A is infinite and
 there is a fun $f: A \xrightarrow{1-1} A$ and $f(A) \neq A$.

Then by part (a), the super set \mathbb{X} of A must be infinite and this is a contradiction. Therefore the set A is finite.

Thrm 2: Let $g: \mathbb{X} \xrightarrow[\text{onto}]{\sim} Y$. Then \mathbb{X} is infinite iff Y is infinite.

PF: (\Rightarrow) Suppose that \mathbb{X} is infinite. Then \exists a $1-1$ fun $f: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$ s.t. $f(\mathbb{X}) \neq \mathbb{X}$.

Since $g: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow Y$ is $1-1$ correspondence then so $g^{-1}: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$ is $1-1$ corresp.

Consider $h = (g \circ f) \circ g^{-1}: Y \rightarrow Y$.

h is $1-1$ since g, f and g^{-1} are $1-1$. Moreover

$$(g \circ f)(g^{-1}(y)) = g \circ f(x) \quad (\text{since } g^{-1} \text{ is onto})$$

$$= g(f(x))$$

$$\neq g(x) \quad (\text{since } f(x) \neq x \text{ and } g \text{ is } 1-1 \text{ corresp.})$$

$$= y. \quad (g \text{ is onto})$$

Therefore Y is infinite set.

(\Leftarrow) If Y is infinite. Take $h = g^{-1}: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$.

Then h is $1-1$ correspondence, and by (\Rightarrow) direction, \mathbb{X} must be infinite.

Corollary: If $f: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow Y$ is $1-1$ correspondence

Then \mathbb{X} is finite iff Y is finite.

PF: Contrapositive of both direction of Thrm 2.

Thrm 3: Let \mathbb{X} be an infinite set and let $x_0 \in \mathbb{X}$. Then $\mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}$ is infinite.

PF: Since \mathbb{X} is infinite, \exists a $1-1$ fun $f: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$

such that $f(x) \neq x$. There are 2 cases:

Case 1: $x_0 \in \text{Im}(f) = f(\mathbb{X})$. In this case, $\exists x_1 \in \mathbb{X}$ such that $f(x_1) = x_0$. Choose $x_2 \in \mathbb{X} - f(\mathbb{X})$, and define a function $g: \mathbb{X} - \{x_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}$ by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & x \neq x_1 \\ x_2, & x = x_1 \end{cases}$$

Then $g(\mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}) = f(\mathbb{X} - \{x_0, x_1\} \cup \{x_2\}) \neq \mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}$.

$\Rightarrow g$ is surjective, $f(\mathbb{X})$ is injective $\Rightarrow g = f(\mathbb{X})$ via the $\text{P} \& \text{U}$

[$g(\mathbb{X} - \{x_0\})$ is injective since $\mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}$ is

Moreover, g is 1-1, to see this, let $g(z_1) = g(z_2)$

If $g(z_1) = g(z_2) = x_2 \Rightarrow z_1 = z_2 = x_1$

If $g(z_1) = g(z_2) \neq x_2 \Rightarrow z_1, z_2 \neq x_1$, and

$g(z_1) = f(z_1) \wedge g(z_2) = f(z_2)$. That is

$f(z_1) = f(z_2) \Rightarrow z_1 = z_2$.

Case 2: $x_0 \notin \text{Im}(f) = f(\mathbb{X})$. In this case,

define $g: \mathbb{X} - \{x_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}$ by

$$g(x) = f(x).$$

$$\Rightarrow g(\mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}) = f(\mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}) \subset f(\mathbb{X}) = f(\mathbb{X}) - \{x_0\}$$

(since $x_0 \notin f(\mathbb{X})$, $f(\mathbb{X}) = f(\mathbb{X}) - \{x_0\}$)

$$\neq \mathbb{X} - \{x_0\}.$$

And since f is 1-1, then so g is 1-1. \square

Def: For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, define the set N_k to be

$$N_k = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, k\}.$$

Example: Prove that N_k is finite $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$

Pf: Using principle of mathematical induction. Let

$P(n)$ represents the predicate " N_n is finite". Then $P(1)$ represents " $N_1 = \{1\}$ is finite" which is singleton set is finite and by previous example $P(1)$ is true.

Suppose $P(k)$ is true. So, the set N_k is finite. Consider $N_{k+1} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, k, k+1\}$

$$= N_k \cup \{k+1\}.$$

$$\text{Hence, } N_k = N_{k+1} - \{k+1\}.$$

Suppose to contrary that N_{k+1} is infinite set.

Then by Thrm 3 above, the set $N_k = N_{k+1} - \{k+1\}$ is also infinite which is a contradiction.

Thus, N_{k+1} is finite. This prove that the set N_n is finite $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ \square .

Thrm 4: A set X is finite iff either $X = \emptyset$ or X is in 1-1 correspondence with some N_k .

PF: If $X = \emptyset$ then X is finite. If X is in 1-1 correspondence with some N_k . Then by corollary of Thrm 2 X is finite.

For the converse, suppose by contrapositive that $X \neq \emptyset$ and no 1-1 and onto map from X to $N_k \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$. We must prove that X is infinite.

Pick $x_1 \in X$. If $X - \{x_1\} = \emptyset$, then $X = \{x_1\}$ & 3 1-1 correspondence between X and N_1 , which contradicts our assumption.

So $X - \{x_1\} \neq \emptyset$. Pick $x_2 \in X - \{x_1\}$.

If $X - \{x_1, x_2\} = \emptyset$, then $X = \{x_1, x_2\}$ which is in 1-1 correspondence with N_2 , and this contradicts the assumption.

So $X - \{x_1, x_2\} \neq \emptyset$.

Continue this process, to get that

$X - \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\} \neq \emptyset$, and $x_i \in X, x_i \neq x_j$

Set $Y = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$, so Y is proper subset of X . Moreover, $f: N \rightarrow Y$ defined by

$f(k) = x_k$ is a 1-1 correspondence func.

Since N is infinite, then Y is infinite and by Thrm 1 part (a), X is infinite.

5.2 Equipotence of Sets

Note Title

11-Apr-13

Def: Two finite sets X and Y have the same number of elements iff \exists a 1-1 correspondence $f: X \rightarrow Y$. In this case, either $X = Y = \emptyset$ and we say X (and Y) has zero element, or X, Y are in 1-1 Correspondence with some N_k , and we say X (and Y) has k elements.

Remark: The phrase "the same number of elements" does not apply here if X and Y are infinite.

Def: Two sets X and Y are said to be **equipotent**, and we write $X \sim Y$ if there exists a 1-1 correspondence $f: X \rightarrow Y$. In this case, we write $f: X \sim Y$.

Remark: Obviously, two finite sets are equipotent iff they have the same number of elements.

Thrm 5: Let \mathcal{S} be a set of sets and let \mathcal{R} be a relation on \mathcal{S} given by $X \mathcal{R} Y$ iff $X, Y \in \mathcal{S}$ and $X \sim Y$. Then \mathcal{R} is an equivalence relation on \mathcal{S} .

PF: (a) $\forall X \in \mathcal{S}$, the identity $I_X: X \rightarrow X$ is 1-1 correspondence, so $X \sim X$ and hence \mathcal{R} is reflexive relation.

(b) Suppose that $X \mathcal{R} Y$, then $X, Y \in \mathcal{S}$ and \exists 1-1 correspondence $f: X \rightarrow Y$. Hence its inverse $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ is a 1-1 correspondence from Y to X and so, $Y \sim X$. Thus $Y \mathcal{R} X$ and \mathcal{R} is symmetric relation.

c) If $X R Y \wedge Y R Z$, then $X, Y, Z \in J$
and $\exists f: X \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} Y \wedge g: Y \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} Z$. Then

the composite $gof: X \rightarrow Z$ is 1-1 and onto
fun and hence $X \sim Z$. That is, R is
transitive relation.

فی وکل ایسے، ایسے $(0,1) \sim (-1,1)$ / $(0,1) \sim R$
لیں کز رج مرتب نی R^2

Examples: Prove that

$$1) (0,1) \sim (-1,1), \text{ and}$$

$$2) (-1,1) \sim \mathbb{R}. \text{ Deduce that } (0,1) \sim \mathbb{R}.$$

PF: $f: (0,1) \rightarrow (-1,1)$ is 1-1 and onto
بیتائم خاصیت حسب، $f(x) = 2x - 1$

a) Let $f: (0,1) \rightarrow (-1,1)$ defined by

$$f(x) = 2x - 1$$

[بعضاً $f(x) = 2x - 1$]

و $f(x) = 2x - 1$ بیتائم خاصیت حسب، $f(x) = 2x - 1$ بیتائم خاصیت حسب

[$(-1,1) \sim (0,2)$]

Then f is 1-1 and onto (prove it). Hence

$$(0,1) \sim (-1,1).$$

b) The fun $g: (-1,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$g(x) = \tan\left(\frac{\pi x}{2}\right) \text{ is 1-1 correspondence.}$$

[بیتائم خاصیت حسب $\tan x: (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$]

[مصلح علی (سلسلہ)]

Therefore, $(-1,1) \sim \mathbb{R}$.

Now, by transitivity of \sim , $(0,1) \sim \mathbb{R}$.

Thrm 6: Let X, Y, Z and W be sets such that $X \cap Z = \emptyset = Y \cap W$, and let $f: X \sim Y$ and $g: Z \sim W$. Then $f \vee g: X \cup Z \sim Y \cup W$.

PF: ~~see 3.4 if g is 1-1 we need to pick aij bcz $X \cap Z = \emptyset \Rightarrow$~~
~~W is \overline{W} & $\overline{Y} \cup \overline{Z} \sim \overline{W}$ fvg \sim b~~

fvg is 1-1: Suppose that $f \vee g(x_1) = f \vee g(x_2) = y$. Then $x_1, x_2 \in X \cup Z$ and so both $x_1, x_2 \in X$ or $x_1, x_2 \in Z$ (*If $x_1 \in X \wedge x_2 \in Z$ then $y = f(x_1) \in Y$ and $y = f(x_2) \in W$, so $Y \cap W \neq \emptyset$*). In both cases either $f \vee g(x_1) = f(x_1)$ or $f \vee g(x_1) = g(x_1)$. That is, either $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ or $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$. In both cases, and since f, g are 1-1, we get $x_1 = x_2$.

fvg is onto: Let $y \in Y \cup W$. Then either $y \in Y \vee y \in W$. If $y \in Y$, $\exists x \in X$ s.t. $f(x) = y$, so $(x, y) \in f \subseteq f \vee g$.

If $y \in W$, $\exists z \in Z$ s.t. $f(z) = y$ and $(x, y) \in g \subseteq f \vee g$.

In both cases, $y \in \text{Im}(f \vee g)$ and so $f \vee g$ is onto.

Thrm 7: If $X \sim Y$ and $Z \sim W$, then

$$X \times Z \sim Y \times W.$$

PF: Let $f: X \sim Y$ and $g: Z \sim W$. Define.

$$f \times g: X \times Z \longrightarrow Y \times W \text{ by}$$

$$(f \times g)(x, z) = (f(x), g(z)). \text{ Then.}$$

$f \times g$ is 1-1: Suppose that $(f \times g)(x_1, z_1) = (f \times g)(x_2, z_2)$.

Then $(f(x_1), g(z_1)) = (f(x_2), g(z_2))$ and so $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \wedge g(z_1) = g(z_2)$. f, g are 1-1, so $x_1 = x_2 \wedge z_1 = z_2$.

Thus $(x_1, z_1) = (x_2, z_2)$.

$f \times g$ is onto: Let $(y, w) \in Y \times W$. So, $y \in Y$ and $w \in W$. Since f, g are onto fun, $\exists x, z \in X, Z$ resp. such that $f(x) = y \wedge g(z) = w$. Hence, $(x, z) \in X \times Z$ and $(f \times g)(x, z) = (f(x), g(z)) = (y, w)$. Thus $(y, w) \in \text{Im}(f \times g)$ and so $f \times g$ is onto.

Def: A set X is said to be **denumerable** if $X \sim N$. A **Countable** set is a set which is either finite or denumerable.

Remark: If X is denumerable, then $\exists 1-1$ corresp-

$f: N \rightarrow X$. If we denote

$f(1) = x_1, f(2) = x_2, \dots, f(n) = x_n, \dots$, then X may be alternatively denoted as

$$X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n, \dots\}.$$

If X is finite, by Thrm 4, either $X = \emptyset$ or $X \sim N_k$ for some $k \in N$. Similar to above, X can be alternatively denoted as

$$X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}.$$

Therefore, X can not be finite \wedge denumerable at the same time.

Thrm 8: Every infinite subset of a denumerable set is denumerable.

PF: Suppose that Y is an infinite subset of a denumerable $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$.

Let n_1 be the smallest subscript for which $x_{n_1} \in Y$.

Since Y is infinite, then $Y - \{x_n\} \neq \emptyset$. Let n_2 be the smallest subscript for which $x_{n_2} \in Y - \{x_{n_1}\}$. Again $Y - \{x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}\} \neq \emptyset$ and we take n_3 to be the smallest subscript for which $x_{n_3} \in Y - \{x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}\}$. Continue this process, we can find $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ $x_{n_k} \in Y - \{x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, \dots, x_{n_{k-1}}\}$.

$$\text{P } X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \text{ no慈悲 is } \overbrace{Y \text{ ni nej! (dik gipen)}}$$

$$Y = \{x_8, x_{10}, x_{30}, x_7, x_{35}, x_{41}, \dots\}$$

[. 1, 2, 3, ..., n₄ = 30 / n₃ = 10 / n₂ = 8 / n₁ = 7]

Thus, we construct a $1-1$ and onto function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow Y$, defined by $f(k) = x_{n_k}$.

[W_B eji d_rsi p_oci, 1-1 o f ni c_l!]

Corollary: Every subset of a countable set is countable.

PF: If X is countable, then X is either finite or denumerable.

If X is finite then any subset is finite and hence countable.

If X is denumerable, then every subset of X is either finite or infinite. If it is infinite then it is denumerable by above theorem and hence countable.

5.3 Examples and Properties of Denumerable Sets

Note Title

12-Apr-13

Let N_e , N_o be the set of even and odd natural numbers respectively. The two functions

$$f: N \rightarrow N_e \text{ and } g: N \rightarrow N_o$$

defined by $f(n) = 2n$ and $g(n) = 2n-1$ are 1-1 correspondence functions. So the sets N_e and N_o are denumerable sets. Moreover, $N = N_e \cup N_o$, the union is denumerable.

Lemma: If A is finite and B is denumerable, then $A \cup B$ is denumerable.

PF: Suppose WLOG that $A \cap B = \emptyset$. [If $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$, take $\hat{A} = A - B$, so \hat{A} is finite & $\hat{A} \cap B = \emptyset$]

If $A = \emptyset$, then $A \cup B = B$ is denumerable. If $A \neq \emptyset$, set $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\}$, $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k, b_{k+1}, \dots\}$

Defined $f: N \rightarrow A \cup B$ by

$$f(1) = a_1, f(2) = a_2, \dots, f(k) = a_k, f(k+i) = b_i$$

$i = 1, 2, \dots$. Then we have that 1-1 function, since $\forall a_i, b_j$, $a_i \neq b_j$, and f is onto, since $\forall a_i, b_j$, $\exists k = i$ or $k+j$, s.t. $f(k) = a_i$ or b_j . That is $\forall y \in A \cup B$, $\exists k \in N$ s.t. $f(k) = y$. Thus f is 1-1 corresp

Theorem 9: The union of two denumerable sets is denumerable

PF: Let A and B be two denumerable sets. Take the two cases:

Case 1: $A \cap B = \emptyset$. Since $A \sim N$ and $B \sim N$, then by composite functions, $A \sim N$. Similarly $B \sim N$,

$N \sim N$, then $B \sim N$. Since $A \cap B = \emptyset$,
 By Thrm 6 of sec 5.2, $A \cup B \sim N_0 \cup N_0 = N$,
 which proves that $A \cup B$ is denumerable.

Case 2: If $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$. Set $C = A - B$.

Then $C \cap B = \emptyset$, and $C \cup B = A \cup B$.

If C is finite, then by above Lemma, $C \cup B$ is denumerable.

If C is infinite, then by case 1, $C \cup B$ is denumerable. In both cases, $A \cup B = C \cup B$ is denumerable.

Corollary. Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be denumerable sets. Then

$\bigcup_{k=1}^n A_k$ is denumerable.

PF: Easy by using Thrm 9 and principle of mathematical induction.

Example 4: The set \mathbb{Z} of all integers is denumerable.

PF: Take $\mathbb{Z}_+ = \{1, 2, \dots\} = N$, $\mathbb{Z}_- = \{-1, -2, \dots\}$.

Clearly both \mathbb{Z}_+ and \mathbb{Z}_- are denumerable, so the set $\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_+ \cup \{\text{ } \} \cup \mathbb{Z}_-$ is denumerable.

[N, \mathbb{Z} نو-نگ، ۱-۱ می باشد: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ نکردن]

Thrm 10: The set $N \times N$ is denumerable.

[Note that $N \times N = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), \dots, (2,1), (2,2), (2,3), \dots, (3,1), (3,2), (3,3), \dots, (4,1), \dots\}$]

Consider the fun $f: N \times N \rightarrow N$ given by $f(i,j) = 2^{i-1} 3^j$, $\forall i, j \in N$.

Claim: f is 1-1. To see this, suppose that $(i, j) \neq (k, s)$.

Then either $i \neq k$ or $j \neq s$. Let $i \neq k$ (and similarly if $j \neq s$) say $i < k$. Then $k-i$ is natural number and so

$2^{k-i} 3^s$ is even number. ($k-i > 0$.)

Thus $3^j \neq 2^{k-i} 3^s$ (3^j is not even).

Therefore $2^i 3^j \neq 2^k 3^s$. That is

$f(i, j) \neq f(k, s)$ and hence f is 1-1.

In this case, we prove that $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \sim f(\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N})$ and since $f(\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}) \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and infinite. By Thrm 8 $f(\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N})$ is denumerable, and hence $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ is denumerable

[نیز $f(\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N})$ نی تب!]

Corollary: For each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let A_k be a denumerable set satisfying $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. Then $\bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} A_k$ is denumerable.

PF: Note that

$$\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{N} \times \{k\} \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

and

$f_k : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \{k\}$ defined by $f_k(n) = (n, k)$ is 1-1 correspondence fun. So, we have that

$$\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{N} \times \{k\} \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

By given, $A_k \sim \mathbb{N}$, so by transitive of \sim and from (2), we have that

$$A_k \sim \mathbb{N} \times \{k\}. \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$

Let $g_k : A_k \sim \mathbb{N} \times \{k\}$, then the fun

$$\bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} g_k : \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} A_k \longrightarrow \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{N} \times \{k\}$$

is 1-1 correspondence fun. Thus $\bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} A_k \stackrel{(1)}{\sim} \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$

So it is denumerable.

Example: The set \mathbb{Q} of all rational numbers is denumerable.

Pf: $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } \gcd(p, q) = 1 \right\}$. Set
 $\mathbb{Q}_+ = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q} : \frac{p}{q} > 0 \right\}$ and $\mathbb{Q}_- = \left\{ -\frac{p}{q} : \frac{p}{q} > 0 \right\}$.

Clearly $\mathbb{Q}_+ \sim \mathbb{Q}_-$ and $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}_+ \cup \{0\} \cup \mathbb{Q}_-$.

For this end, \mathbb{Q} is denumerable if \mathbb{Q}_+ is denumerable.

Now, consider the function $f: \mathbb{Q}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ defined by $f\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = (p, q)$ is 1-1 (easy to prove).

Then $\mathbb{Q}_+ \sim f(\mathbb{Q}_+) \subseteq \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$.

Since $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}_+$, then \mathbb{Q}_+ is infinite and so, $f(\mathbb{Q}_+)$ is infinite. So $f(\mathbb{Q}_+)$ is infinite subset of denumerable set $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, it is denumerable.

Hence \mathbb{Q}_+ is denumerable set. Therefore, the set of rational number \mathbb{Q} is denumerable.

Thrm 11: Every infinite set contains a denumerable subset.

Pf: Suppose X is an infinite set. Then $X \neq \emptyset$.

Pick $x_1 \in X$. Then $X - \{x_1\}$ is infinite and so it is not empty. Pick $x_2 \in X - \{x_1\}$, then $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $X - \{x_1, x_2\}$ is infinite and $X - \{x_1, x_2\} \neq \emptyset$.

Continue this process, we can find for each

$k \in \mathbb{N}$, an element $x_k \neq x_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k-1$ and $X - \{x_1, \dots, x_k\} \neq \emptyset$. Thus the set $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$ a denumerable subset of X .



5.4 Nondenumerable Sets

Note Title

18-Apr-13

أثبتنا سابقاً أن كل مجموعة ذات خاصية تحتوي على عددي تسلسلي متجدد تألف من المجموعات المعرفة سابقاً تكون دenumerable وهذا باتفاقية يعود لنتائجنا: هل جميع المجموعات المعرفة سابقاً تكون denumerable؟! لقد حاول العالم جورج كانтор إثبات ذلك عندما بدأ تطوير علم نظرية المجموعات عندها فاجأ نفسه ببيانات وجودمجموعات nondenumerable.

Thrm 12: The open interval $(0, 1)$ of real numbers is a nondenumerable set.

PF:

مقدمة (برهان):

نفترض فدراة (برهان) على كتبة كل عدد ضمني في الفترة $(0, 1)$ باطورة (عشرية) الارقامية $x = x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 \dots$ تكون دليلاً على دenumerability (عددي تسلسلي متجدد) وهي مكونة من الأعداد $0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, 9$. لا يتحقق ذلك لأن هناك دليل على أن عدد الأعداد المكتوبات على خط العرض لا يزيد عن عدد العدد المكتوبات باطورة العرض $\frac{1}{4} = 0.25$ وليس $\frac{1}{4} = 0.249999\dots$ وبالتالي فإن العدد $\frac{1}{5} = 0.19999\dots$ والعدد $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = 0.707106\dots$ والعدد $\frac{1}{3} = 0.3333\dots$ وكل ذلك ينافي الفرض $x \neq y$ حيث $y = y_1 y_2 y_3 \dots$ و $x = x_1 x_2 x_3 \dots$ بحيث $x_k \neq y_k$ حيث x_k هي k th decimal (الرقم k -يقي) وهذا ينافي الفرض.

برهان المدعى Suppose to contrary that $(0, 1)$ is denumerable and $f: \mathbb{N} \sim (0, 1)$. So we may list all elements of $(0, 1)$ as follows: $f(1) = .a_{11} a_{12} a_{13} a_{14} \dots$

$$f(2) = .a_{21} a_{22} a_{23} a_{24} \dots$$

$$f(3) = .a_{31} a_{32} a_{33} a_{34} \dots$$

$$f(k) = .a_{k1} a_{k2} a_{k3} a_{k4} \dots a_{kk} \dots$$

where $a_{ij} \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$ $\forall i, j \in \mathbb{N}$.

[*نقوم بناء (إيجاد) ركائز موحدة في $(0,1)$ بحيث لا تساوي*]

[*وهي عارضة (أي) عاشر جميع عناصر $(0,1)$ لكنه يختلف عن $a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{13}, \dots$ العناصر الأخرى*]

Consider $z = \cdot z_1 z_2 z_3 z_4 \dots$ where $z_i = 1$ or 3

where:

$$z_i = \begin{cases} 1, & a_{ii} = 3 \\ 3, & a_{ii} \neq 3 \end{cases}$$

Clearly $z \in (0,1)$ since $z_i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$

Moreover, if $a_{11} = 3$, then $z_1 = 1$ and if $a_{11} \neq 3$, then $z_1 = 3$. In both cases, $z_1 \neq a_{11}$. Then we have $z = \cdot z_1 z_2 z_3 \dots \neq \cdot a_{11} a_{12} a_{13} \dots$

(*نجد في الواقع أن كل عناصر $(0,1)$ لها عرق مختلف!*)

Similarly, if $a_{22} = 3$, then $z_2 = 1$ and if $a_{22} \neq 3$, then $z_2 = 3$. In both cases, $z_2 \neq a_{22}$.

Then $z = \cdot z_1 z_2 z_3 \dots \neq \cdot a_{11} a_{12} a_{13} \dots$

(*نجد في الواقع أن كل عناصر $(0,1)$ لها عرق مختلف!*)

And so on, to get $z_k \neq a_{kk} \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ and so $z \neq \cdot a_{k1} a_{k2} \dots a_{kk} \dots$

This proves that $z \neq f(k) \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ and so $z \notin f(\mathbb{N}) = (0,1)$ which is a contradiction.

Corollary: The set \mathbb{R} of all real numbers is nonenumerable.

PF: If \mathbb{R} is denumerable, then $(0,1)$ is infinite subset of denumerable set \mathbb{R} , by Thrm 8 it must be denumerable which contradicts the above Thrm.

[*لذا فإن $a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{13}, \dots$ ملحوظ في $(0,1)$ غير قابل للعد*]

Example: The set $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ of all irrational numbers is a nonenumerable set.

PF: Previously, we prove that \mathbb{Q} is denumerable. Suppose to contrary that $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ is denumerable. Then $\mathbb{R} = (\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}) \cup \mathbb{Q}$ is a union of two denumerable sets and by Thm 9 it must be denumerable. This contradicts the above corollary.

الناتئ $\mathbb{R} - \mathbb{Q}$ هي مجموعه غير قابلة لـ التحصي : **البرهان**
البرهان، (إنما يجيء بـ المفهوم المعاين)، هي
ـ Ch 6 هي **البرهان**

Ch6: Cardinal Numbers and Cardinal Arithmetic

Note Title

18-Apr-13

6.1 The Concept of Cardinal Numbers

مقدمة: يقال كاردنال / مفهوم الگردد بمعنى اى مجموعتين تتوافق مع مجموعتين بحسب المعايير المذكورة أعلاه (المجموعتين متساویتين) . و (المجموعتين متساویتين) يعني مجموعتين متساويتين في المقدار (الكمية) و (النوع) و (الترتيب) . مجموعتين متساويتين في المقدار يعني مجموعتين متساويتين في المقدار (الكمية) و (النوع) و (الترتيب) . مجموعتين متساويتين في المقدار يعني مجموعتين متساويتين في المقدار (الكمية) و (النوع) .

يمكن تعريف المقدار ككمية مطلقة (أي لا يعتمد على المعايير المذكورة أعلاه) . و هنا يجب علينا معرفة ما هو مفهوم المتساویتين . و على سبيل المثال ، كلام عن المقدار يعني المقدار (أي المقدار المطلقي) .

نذكر هنا مفهوم المقدار (أي المقدار المطلقي) . و هنا يجب علينا معرفة ما هو مفهوم المتساویتين . و على سبيل المثال ، كلام عن المقدار يعني المقدار (أي المقدار المطلقي) .

إذاً فالآن يمكن تعريف المقدار ككمية مطلقة (أي المقدار المطلقي) .

[(ch 8) initial ordinals are also cardinal numbers]

Rules of Cardinality:

- (C1) Each set is associated with a cardinal number, denoted by $\text{Card } A$, and for each cardinal number a , there is a set A with $\text{Card } A = a$.
- (C2) $\text{Card } A = \emptyset \iff A = \emptyset$.
- (C3) If A is a nonempty finite set, i.e., $A \sim \mathbb{N}_k = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\text{Card } A = k$.
- (C4) For any two sets A and B , $\text{Card } A = \text{Card } B \iff A \sim B$.

ال Cardinal numbers : 1- دلائل على المعايير C_1, C_2, C_3 تجعلنا نرى أن المجموعات C_1, C_2, C_3 متساوية على أنها عدد عناصرهن متساوٍ.

Axiom of Cardinality : 2- المعايير C_1, C_2, C_3 متساوية $\Leftrightarrow \text{card } C_1 = \text{card } C_2 = \text{card } C_3$.

3- في المعايير C_1, C_2, C_3 نعمى C_1 متساوية $\Leftrightarrow \text{card } C_1 = \text{card } C_2$ لأنهما لا تتنااسب بالكثير من المجموعة غير المائية.

4- في المعايير C_1, C_2, C_3 نعمى C_1 متساوية $\Leftrightarrow \text{card } C_1 = \text{card } C_3$ لأنهما متساويان.

و C_1 متساوية $\Leftrightarrow \text{card } C_1 = \text{card } C_2$.
عندما C_1, C_2, C_3 متساوية فـ $\text{card } C_1 = \text{card } C_2 = \text{card } C_3$.

Examples:

- 1) Give three different cardinal numbers which are not natural numbers.
- 2) Let A be a set and $a \notin A$. If $\text{Card}(A \cup \{a\}) = \text{Card } A$, prove that A is infinite.
- 3) Prove that if $\text{Card}(A) = \text{Card}(B) = \text{Card}(\mathbb{N})$, then $\text{Card}(A \cup B) = \text{Card } B$.

6.2 Ordering of the Cardinal Numbers

Note Title

24-Apr-13

(The Schröder - Bernstein Thrm)

Def: The cardinal number of a finite set is called a **finite cardinal number**. The cardinal number of an infinite set is called a **transfinite cardinal number**.

finite cardinal numbers $\omega_1 \in (C_2) \rightarrow (C_3) \subset \omega_1 \xrightarrow{\text{def}} \text{order}^1$ ω_1
وهي عد العدد المتعادل بين المجموعتين C_2 و C_3 .
عمر العدد المتعادل بين المجموعتين C_2 و C_3 :
 $0 < 1 < 2 < 3 < \dots < k < k+1 < \dots$

العدد المتعادل (C_4) يسمى ω_2 transfinite cardinal numb. ω_2 \in ②
والعدد المتعادل (C_5) يسمى ω_3 .
العدد المتعادل (C_6) يسمى ω_4 .

Def: Let A and B be sets. Then $\text{Card } A$ is said to be **Less than or equal** to $\text{Card } B$, denoted by $\text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B$, if the set A is equipotent to a subset of B . If $\text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B$ and $\text{Card } A \neq \text{Card } B$, then we write $\text{Card } A < \text{Card } B$.

العدد المتعادل ω_1 هو العدد المتعادل ω_2 \in ①: $\omega_1 \leq \omega_2$
 $(\forall A, B \text{ sets}) (\text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B \iff \exists \text{ a fun } f: A \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} B)$

[To see this, if $\text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B$, then $\exists C \subseteq B$ and $\text{fun } f$ s.t.

$f: A \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} C \Rightarrow f: A \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} B$. On the other hand, if

$\exists f: A \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} B$, then take $C = \text{Im}(f)$. Hence the $\text{fun } f: A \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} C$ and so $A \sim C \subseteq B \Rightarrow \text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B$]

نلاحظ أنه إذا حبينا (تعريف) على المجموعات المعرفة
فإن (الرتبة) المترتبة على كل مجموعات المعرفة هي في (المجموعة) المترتبة
• (Do it) (جعبي) (الرتبة) (Do it) (جعبي) (الرتبة) (Do it) (جعبي)

[A, B are finite $\Rightarrow A \sim N_k, B \sim N_n$. If $\exists f: A \xrightarrow{1-1} B$
then $k \leq n$ and $\text{card } A = k \leq n = \text{card } B$.].

Example: $\text{Card}(N) < \text{Card}(R)$

PF: Since $N \sim N \subseteq R \Rightarrow \text{Card } N \leq \text{Card } R$.

Now, $N \not\sim R$, so

$\text{Card } N \neq \text{Card } R$. Hence $\text{Card } N \leq \text{Card } R$.

ملاحظة: في هذه الحالة $B \sim A_1 \subseteq A, A \sim B_1 \subseteq B$ تكون $\text{Card } B \leq \text{Card } A, \text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B$ مما يعني أن $\text{Card } B = \text{Card } A$.

لذا كيتم برهان معاشرة $f: A \sim B$ فيجب أن f هي خاصية (الخواص) التي تتحقق في $f: A \sim B$ ، مما يعني أن f هي خاصية (الخواص) التي تتحقق في $f: B \sim A$.

• $f: A \sim B$ والآن نريد أن نبرهن أن f هي خاصية (الخواص) التي تتحقق في $f: B \sim A$ ، وهذا يعني أن f هي خاصية (الخواص) التي تتحقق في $f: A \sim B$.

ثـ1: (Schröder-Bernstein Thm)

If A and B are sets such that A is equipotent to a subset of B , and B is equipotent to a subset of A , then A and B are equipotent.

ملاحظة: في هذه الحالة $f: A \xrightarrow{1-1} B$ و $g: B \xrightarrow{1-1} A$ ، مما يعني أن f هي خاصية (الخواص) التي تتحقق في $f: A \sim B$ ، مما يعني أن g هي خاصية (الخواص) التي تتحقق في $g: B \sim A$.

($g: B \xrightarrow{1-1} A \xrightarrow{1-1} f: A \xrightarrow{1-1} B$)

• $f: A \xrightarrow{\text{onto}} B$ والآن نريد أن نبرهن أن f هي خاصية (الخواص) التي تتحقق في $f: A \sim B$.

$\text{Card } B \leq \text{Card } A \Rightarrow \text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B \wedge B \neq \emptyset$! : $\forall \text{ sets } A \text{ and } B$

[$\therefore \text{Card } A = \text{Card } B$]

: $\text{Card } B \leq \text{Card } A$ $\Rightarrow \text{Card } A \leq \text{Card } B$ $\Rightarrow \text{Card } B \leq \text{Card } A$ $\Rightarrow \text{Card } A = \text{Card } B$

Lemma: If $B \subseteq A$ and $\exists f: A \xrightarrow{\sim} B$, then there is a bijection $h: A \sim B$.

Proof (of Thrm 1): Suppose that $A_0 \subseteq A$ and $B_0 \subseteq B$

s.t. $f: A \sim B_0$ and $g: B \sim A_0$. Then the

restricted fun $g|_{B_0}: B_0 \longrightarrow A_0$ is 1-1 fun.

So the composition fun $(g|_{B_0}) \circ f: A \longrightarrow A_0$ is 1-1 fun. By above Lemma, \exists a bijection

$h: A \sim A_0$. Since $g': A_0 \sim B$, then the

composition fun $g' \circ h: A \longrightarrow B$ is 1-1 and onto fun. Hence $A \sim B$ \square .

Corollary: If A and B are sets s.t. $\text{Card}(A) \leq \text{Card}(B)$ and $\text{Card}(B) \leq \text{Card}(A)$, then $\text{Card}(A) = \text{Card}(B)$.

مختصر نظریه / مختصر نظریه (transfinite card. num. \sim عددي مختصر نظریه) \Rightarrow $\text{Card } A = \text{Card } B$

و $\text{Card } A \neq \text{Card } B$ \Rightarrow $\text{Card } A < \text{Card } B$ (Card A , Card B \in مختصر نظریه)

جتنی A دلخواه \sim عددي (transfinite card. num.)

جتنی $A \times R$ دلخواه \sim عددي (transfinite card. num.)

- $K < n, i, n < K$ $\Rightarrow n \neq K \sim B$! / Finite card. num. في حالة اخر

transfinite card. num. \sim a, b $\sim B$? \Rightarrow transfinite card. num. الباقي تبعدها

او $f: A \xrightarrow{\sim} B \sim A \wedge B \sim A$ \Rightarrow f بعده رئيسي $b < a$, $(a < b \Rightarrow f(a) < f(b))$

و f بعده رئيسي $a < b$, f بعده رئيسي $b < a$, $(b < a \Rightarrow f(b) < f(a))$

6.3 Cardinal Number of a Power Set (Cantor's Thrm)

Note Title

25-Apr-13

Recall that $P(X)$ the power set of X is the set of all subsets of X ; that is, $A \in P(X) \equiv A \subseteq X$. If $X = \emptyset$, then $P(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$.

• $|A| \leq \text{Card } A \rightarrow \text{Card } A \geq |A|$

Thrm 2: (Cantor's Thrm)

If X is a set, then $\text{Card } X < \text{Card}(P(X))$.

PF: If $X = \emptyset$, then $P(X) = \{\emptyset\}$. So, we have that $|X| = 0$ and $|P(X)| = 1$, and so $|X| < |P(X)|$. Now, suppose that $X \neq \emptyset$.

Consider the fun $f: X \longrightarrow P(X)$ defined by $f(x) = \{x\} \in P(X)$. Clearly, if $x_1 \neq x_2$, the two sets $\{x_1\} \neq \{x_2\}$ and hence f is 1-1 fun. So.

$$|X| \leq |P(X)| \quad \text{---} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

Claim: $X \not\sim P(X)$.

To see this, suppose to contrary that there is a bijection $g: X \sim P(X)$. Consider the set $S = \{x \in X : x \notin g(x)\}$. Since $S \in P(X)$ and g is onto, $\exists e \in X$ st. $g(e) = S$.

We have two cases:

Case 1: $e \in S$. In this case, and by the definition of S , $e \notin g(e) = S$ which is a contradiction.

Case 2: $e \notin S$. So, $e \notin S = g(e)$. Again, by def. of S , we have that $e \in S$ which is a contradiction.

In both cases, we have a contradiction and the claim is true. Thus, $\mathbb{X} \not\propto P(\mathbb{X})$ --- ②
 ① and ② $\Rightarrow |\mathbb{X}| < |P(\mathbb{X})|$ \square .

الخطوة: نجد \mathbb{X} في $P(\mathbb{X})$ ، بعد إثبات أن $|X| < |P(X)|$.
 لذا $|N| < |P(N)|$ حيث N مجموعه متممة من \mathbb{X} .
 $|X|=N$ حيث N عدد كarta. num. / X $\sim \mathbb{N}$.
 ؟ $|N| < N < |P(N)|$

• سؤال في \mathbb{R} \sim Continuum problem \leftarrow السؤال

لما \mathbb{R} \sim \mathbb{C} (ثوابت) (2) \mathbb{R} \sim \mathbb{C} \sim \mathbb{R} \sim \mathbb{N}
 تساوى \mathbb{R} و $|P(\mathbb{R})|$ ، $|N|$ هي transfinite card-num. \sim
 $\sim \mathbb{R}$ \sim \mathbb{N}

$\text{card}(\mathbb{N}) < \text{card}(P(\mathbb{N})) < \text{card}(P(P(\mathbb{N}))) < \dots$

Examples: Let A be a denumerable set. Prove that $P(A)$ is nondenumerable.

PF: A is denumerable, so $A \sim \mathbb{N}$. This implies that $|A| = |\mathbb{N}|$. By Thrm (2) $|A| < |P(A)|$
 So $|\mathbb{N}| < |P(A)|$. Hence $\text{card } \mathbb{N} \neq \text{card } P(A)$
 That is $\mathbb{N} \not\propto P(A)$. Therefore $P(A)$ is nondenumerable set.

6.4 Addition of Cardinal Numbers

Note Title

26-Apr-13

$k, l \rightarrow k+l$ معاً (two finite card. num. k, l دوين عددين) إذاً
هذا يعني k, l معاً (finite card. num.) (جع) توصل (sum) لـ $k+l$.
finite card. num. $\lambda > \omega$ العدد المطلق مع λ يعطى معنى (sign) λ $\in \omega$ transfinite

Def: Let a, b be cardinal numbers, and let A and B be two disjoint sets s.t. $\text{card } A = a$ and $\text{card } B = b$. The **cardinal sum** $a+b$ is the cardinal number of the set $A \cup B$; that is $a+b = |A \cup B|$.

مثلاً $a+b$ (سابع زوجين) $=$ $a+b$ (سبعين زوجين):

ذلك (cardinal) a, b عددان صحيحان (well-defined).

a, b صحيحان (well-defined) \rightarrow $\text{card } B = b, \text{card } A = a$ \rightarrow disjoint B, A معاً (disjoint) \rightarrow $\text{card } B = b / \text{card } A = a$ \rightarrow $a+b$ معاً (well-defined) \rightarrow $a+b$ معاً (well-defined) \rightarrow $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$ (الجمع المطلق $=$ العدد المطلق $+ \text{ العدد المطلق}$)

برهان على $a+b$ معاً (البرهان على $a+b$ معاً):
برهان على $a+b$ معاً (البرهان على $a+b$ معاً):

Thrm 3: Let a and b be cardinal numbers. Then

(a) There exist disjoint sets A and B such that $\text{card } A = a$ and $\text{card } B = b$.

(b) If A, B, A' and B' are sets such that

$\text{card } A = \text{card } A'$ and $\text{card } B = \text{card } B'$, and if
 $A \cap B = A' \cap B' = \emptyset$, then $|A \cup B| = |A' \cup B'|$

PF: (a) By (C1); the rule of cardinality, there exist two sets A and B (need not be disjoint) such that $\text{card } A = a$, and $\text{card } B = b$. Define

the new sets $X = A \times \{0\} = \{(x, 0) : x \in A\}$ and $Y = B \times \{1\} = \{(y, 1) : y \in B\}$. Then $X \cap Y = \emptyset$ and so X, Y are disjoint. Moreover, $X \sim A$ and $Y \sim B$, so $|X| = |A| = a$ and $|Y| = |B| = b$.

b) Since $A \sim A'$ and $B \sim B'$, and $A \cap B = \emptyset$, $A' \cap B' = \emptyset$, by Thrm 6 of ch 5, we have that $A \cup B \sim A' \cup B'$. Equivalently, $|A \cup B| = |A' \cup B'|$.

[بعد جُنْدَاتِ الْجَمَادِيَّةِ تَعْلَمُ الْجَمَادِيَّةَ وَجَمَادِيَّةَ الْجَمَادِيَّةِ]
 [بعد جُنْدَاتِ الْجَمَادِيَّةِ تَعْلَمُ الْجَمَادِيَّةَ وَجَمَادِيَّةَ الْجَمَادِيَّةِ]
 [transfinite card. num. is well-defined (جَمَادِيَّةَ الْجَمَادِيَّةِ)]

Thrm 4: Let x, y, z be arbitrary cardinal numbers. Then

$$(a) x + y = y + x \quad (\text{commutativity})$$

$$(b) (x+y)+z = x+(y+z) \quad (\text{Associativity})$$

PF: Let A, B and C are disjoint sets s.t. $|A|=x$, $|B|=y$ and $|C|=z$. Since $A \cup B = B \cup A$, and $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$, we have both (a) and (b). \square

Def: The symbol \aleph_0 (read aleph-null) is used to be the cardinal number of the denumerable sets. And the symbol \mathfrak{c} is used to be the cardinal number of the set \mathbb{R} . That is $|\mathbb{N}| = \aleph_0$ and $|\mathbb{R}| = \mathfrak{c}$.

Example: Find the cardinal sum of the following:

$$1) 4+3$$

$$2) \aleph_0 + \aleph_0$$

$$3) \aleph_0 + K \quad \text{for some finite cardinal } K.$$

$$4) \aleph_0 + \mathbb{C}.$$

$$5) \mathbb{C} + \mathbb{C}$$

Sol: By $B \setminus A$ we mean the set of elements in B which are not in A .

Now $\text{Card}(A \cup B) = \text{Card}(A) + \text{Card}(B) - \text{Card}(A \cap B)$. Since A and B are denumerable sets, $\text{Card}(A) = \text{Card}(B) = \aleph_0$. Hence $\text{Card}(A \cup B) = 2\aleph_0$.

1) Take $A = \mathbb{N}_4 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and Let $B = \{5, 6, 7\}$.

So $|A| = 4$ and $|B| = 3$, and $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

$$\text{So } 4 + 3 = |A \cup B| = |\{1, 2, \dots, 7\}| = |\mathbb{N}_2| = 7.$$

2) Take $A = \mathbb{N}_e$ and $B = \mathbb{N}_o$. Since A and B are denumerable, $|A| = |B| = \aleph_0$. Moreover $A \cap B = \emptyset$. Hence $\aleph_0 + \aleph_0 = |A \cup B| = |\mathbb{N}| = \aleph_0$.

3) Let $A = \mathbb{N}_k = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, k\}$, and take the set $B = \{k+1, k+2, k+3, \dots\}$. Clearly B is infinite subset of the denumerable set \mathbb{N} , so it is denumerable.

$$|A| = k, |B| = \aleph_0, \text{ and } A \cap B = \emptyset \Rightarrow$$

$$\aleph_0 + k = |A \cup B| = |\mathbb{N}| = \aleph_0.$$

4) Take $A = (0, 1)$ and $B = \mathbb{N}$. Since $(0, 1) \sim \mathbb{R}$, $|A| = \mathbb{C}$. Moreover $|B| = \aleph_0$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

Set $S = (0, 1) \cup \mathbb{N}$, so by the defn we have that $\aleph_0 + \mathbb{C} = |A \cup B| = |S|$.

Since $\mathbb{R} \sim (0, 1) \subseteq S$, and $S \sim \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, by Schröder-Bernstein Thrm, $\mathbb{R} \sim S$ and $|S| = \mathbb{C}$.

$$\text{Thus, } \aleph_0 + \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}.$$

5) The fun $f: (0, 1) \rightarrow (1, 2)$ defined by

$f(x) = x + 1$ is 1-1 and onto, so $(0,1) \sim (1,2)$.

and $|(0,1)| = |(1,2)| = \mathbb{C}$.

Take $A = (0,1)$ and $B = (1,2)$. So $A \cap B = \emptyset$

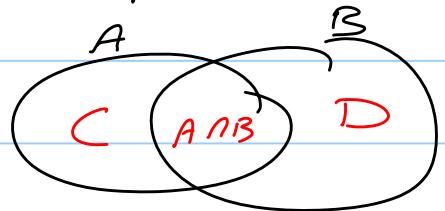
and $|A| = |B| = \mathbb{C}$. Let $S = A \cup B$. Clearly (as part (4) above), $\mathbb{R} \sim S$ and $|S'| = \mathbb{C}$. Now,

$$\mathbb{C} + \mathbb{C} = |A \cup B| = |S| = \mathbb{C}.$$

Example: Prove that $\forall A, B$ sets,

$$|A| + |B| = |A \cup B| + |A \cap B|.$$

PF: \cdot Vom Jungs v. in Gant v.



Take

$$C = A - (A \cap B) \text{ and } D = B - (A \cap B).$$

$$\text{So } A = C \cup (A \cap B), \text{ and } B = D \cup (A \cap B).$$

Clearly C and $A \cap B$ are disjoint and similarly for

D and $A \cap B$. Hence $|A| = |C| + |A \cap B|$ and

$|B| = |D| + |A \cap B|$. Consider

$A \cup B = C \cup (A \cap B) \cup D$. Since C, D , and $A \cap B$ are disjoint sets, $|A \cup B| = |C| + |A \cap B| + |D|$,

(وک جے $|A \cap B|$ نیک دیکھیں)

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |A \cup B| + |A \cap B| &= (|C| + |A \cap B|) + (|D| + |A \cap B|) \\ &= |A| + |B|. \end{aligned}$$

6.5 Multiplication of Cardinal Numbers

Note Title

04-May-13

Def: For any Cardinal numbers a and b , the Cardinal product ab is defined to be the cardinal number of the Cartesian product $A \times B$, where $\text{card } A = a$ and $\text{card } B = b$.

(well-defined) تعريف (تعريف ملزمه) بحسب ما ذكر في المقدمة: مختصر
وذلك بحسب إمكانية إثبات ذلك

Suppose that $|A| = |A'| = a$ and
 $|B| = |B'| = b$. Then
 $A \sim A'$ and $B \sim B'$. By Thrm 7 of ch 5,

$$A \times B \sim A' \times B' \Rightarrow |A \times B| = |A' \times B'|$$

أعلم فإنه لذا نفرض أني أعلم بأن النوع وهو
. well-defined تعريف يكون

نكت عن ab بأن نكت عند أني أعلم / فإنه نكت عند أني أعلم
نكت لأن ab نكت عند أني أعلم بأن b/a نكت
. transfinite cardinal نكت لأن ab نكت عند أني أعلم

Thrm 5: Let x , y , and z be arbitrary cardinal numbers.

Then:

(a) $xy = yx$ (Commutativity).

(b) $(xy)z = x(yz)$ (Associativity).

(c) $x(y+z) = xy + xz$ (Distributivity).

PF: (a) For any set A , B , we have that

$A \times B \sim B \times A$ under the map $(x,y) \rightarrow (y,x)$,

so if $|A| = x$ and $|B| = y$ then

$$xy = |A \times B| = |B \times A| = yx.$$

(b) Similar to (a) using the fact that

$$(A \times B) \times C \sim A \times (B \times C) \sim A \times B \times C$$

(c) Let A, B, C be sets such that

$$|A| = x, |B| = y, |C| = z \text{ and } B \cap C = \emptyset$$

Since $B \cap C = \emptyset$, we get that

$$(A \times B) \cap (A \times C) = \emptyset. \text{ Moreover, } |B \cup C| = y+z,$$

$$\text{and } |A \times B| = xy, |A \times C| = xz. \text{ So,}$$

$$|(A \times B) \cup (A \times C)| = xy + xz \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Now, } x(y+z) = |A \times (B \cup C)|$$

$$= |(A \times B) \cup (A \times C)| \stackrel{(1)}{=} xy + xz.$$

Example: Let x be an arbitrary cardinal number.

Evaluate (a) $1 \cdot x$

(b) $0 \cdot x$

(c) $\aleph_0 \cdot \aleph_0$

sol: (a) Let A be a set s.t. $|A| = x$. Take

$$B = \{1\} \Rightarrow |B| = 1 \text{ so,}$$

$$1 \cdot x = |B \times A| = |\{1\} \times A| = |A| = x$$

($\{1\} \times A \sim A$ by the 1-1 and onto map $f(1, t) = t$)

(b) If $A = \emptyset$, B is a set s.t. $|B| = x$,

$$\text{then } 0 \cdot x = |A \times B| = |\emptyset \times B| = |\emptyset| = 0.$$

(c) Since $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{N}$, we have that
 $\aleph_0 \cdot \aleph_0 = |\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}| = \aleph_0$

Example: Prove that $\mathbb{C} \cdot \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}$.

PF: Let $A = B = (0, 1) \Rightarrow |A| = |B| = \mathbb{C}$.

Claim: $(0, 1) \times (0, 1) \sim (0, 1)$.

To see this, write any $x \in (0, 1)$ in its infinite decimal expansion, so that - for example - $\frac{1}{2} = 0.49999\dots$

Define $f: (0, 1) \times (0, 1) \longrightarrow (0, 1)$ by

$$f(0.x_1 x_2 x_3 \dots, 0.y_1 y_2 y_3 \dots) = 0.x_1 y_1 x_2 y_2 x_3 y_3 \dots$$

(For example $f(0.124369\dots, 0.30142\dots) = 0.13204134629\dots$)

Then f is 1-1 and onto.

To see this, suppose that

$$f(0.x_1 x_2 \dots, 0.y_1 y_2 \dots) = f(0.z_1 z_2 \dots, 0.w_1 w_2 \dots) \Rightarrow$$

$$0.x_1 y_1 x_2 y_2 \dots = 0.z_1 w_1 z_2 w_2 \dots \Rightarrow x_i = z_i \text{ and } y_i = w_i$$

$$\Rightarrow (0.x_1 x_2 \dots, 0.y_1 y_2 \dots) = (0.z_1 z_2 \dots, 0.w_1 w_2 \dots)$$

$\Rightarrow f$ is 1-1.

Moreover, if $z = 0.z_1 z_2 z_3 z_4 \dots \in (0, 1)$,

then $x = 0.z_1 z_3 z_5 \dots$ and $y = 0.z_2 z_4 z_6 \dots$ are

in $(0, 1)$ and $f(x, y) = z$. Thus f is onto, and

we prove the claim. Therefore

$$\mathbb{C} \cdot \mathbb{C} = |(0, 1) \times (0, 1)| = |(0, 1)| = \mathbb{C}.$$

6.6 Exponentiation of Cardinal Numbers

Note Title

04-May-13

نعلم أني b^a يعني بـ a عد b مجموعه / b n times. $a, b \sim \aleph_0$ هي b^a a th power of b . $b^a = b \cdot b \cdot b \cdot \dots \cdot b$ (a factor) n times, (a th power of b)

يمكننا العرض $A \times A$ حاله تعميم الحاله (الحاله n ضعف A). $A \times A$ حاله n ضعف A . $a=2, |A|=b$ حاله b^2 حاله 2 ضعف A . حاله b^a الحاله a ضعف b .

نعلم أني b^a a عد b مجموعه / b n times, (a th power of b)

b^a a عد b مجموعه / b n times, (a th power of b)

في حاله B/A بـ $|B|$ عد $|A|$ عد (cardinal) $\sim \aleph_0$ هي B $|A|$ عد A عد B $|A|$ عد B .

نعلم b^a a عد b مجموعه / b n times, (a th power of b)

b^a a عد b مجموعه / b n times, (a th power of b)

Def: Let a, b be cardinal numbers with $a \neq 0$. Let A and B be sets such that $|A|=a$ and $|B|=b$.

Denote the set of all funs from A to B by B^A . We define $b^a = |B^A|$.

Well-defined: هل b^a معرف و محدد؟ $b^a = |\text{set of all functions from } A \text{ to } B|$. $b^a = |\text{set of all functions from } A \text{ to } B|$.

Thrm 6: Let A, B, X , and Y be sets such that $A \sim X, B \sim Y$. Then $B^A \sim Y^X$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ g \downarrow & & \downarrow h \\ X & \dashrightarrow & Y \end{array}$$

Pf: Let $g: A \sim X$, $h: B \sim Y$. Define a fun

$\psi: B^A \rightarrow Y^X$ by that:

if $f \in B^A$ then $\psi(f) \in Y^X$ which
is a fun from X to Y [$\psi(f): X \rightarrow Y$]
defined by $[\psi(f)](x) = h \circ f \circ g^{-1}(x)$. That is
 $\psi(f) = h \circ f \circ g^{-1}: X \rightarrow Y$.

Then ψ is a 1-1 and onto fun from B^A
to Y^X (prove it). Hence $B^A \sim Y^X$.

Example: Let A be a set. Find $|P(A)|$.

Sol: Take $B = \{0, 1\} \Rightarrow |B| = 2$, and so we
have $|B^A| = 2^{|A|}$.

For any subset $C \subseteq A$, the characteristic fun

$\chi_C: A \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ defined by

$$\chi_C(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \notin C \\ 1, & x \in C \end{cases}$$

is a fun in B^A . For this end, define
a fun

$F: P(A) \longrightarrow B^A$ by

$F(C) = \chi_C$. Then F is 1-1 and onto.

To see this, Suppose that $F(C_1) = F(C_2)$

$$\Rightarrow \chi_{C_1} = \chi_{C_2}$$

if $x \in C_1 \Rightarrow \chi_{C_1}(x) = 1$ and so $\chi_{C_2}(x) = 1$

This implies that $x \in C_2 \Rightarrow C \subseteq C_2$. Similarly $C_2 \subseteq C_1$. Hence $C_1 = C_2 \Rightarrow F$ is 1-1.

To prove it is onto, let $f: A \rightarrow B$ by any function in B^A . Define $C = \{x \in A : f(x) = 1\}$. Then we claim that $f = \chi_C(x)$, since if $x \in C$, then by its definition, $f(x) = 1 = \chi_C(x)$. If $x \notin C$, then by its def. $f(x) \neq 1 \Rightarrow f(x) = 0$ ($B = \{0, 1\}$, and $f(x) \in B$) $\Rightarrow f(x) = \chi_C(x) = 0$.

Therefore $f = \chi_C$ and $f = F(C)$.

$$\text{Hence } |\rho(A)| = |B^A| = 2^{|A|}.$$

: نتائج مماثلة نعم، ونذكر هنا (أمثلة) على ذلك:

Take $A = \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow |A| = \aleph_0$, and so

$$|\rho(\mathbb{N})| = 2^{\aleph_0}. \text{ Since } |\mathbb{N}| < |\rho(\mathbb{N})|, \text{ we have that } \aleph_0 < 2^{\aleph_0}$$

فألي $A = \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow |A| = c$ and $|\rho(\mathbb{R})| = 2^c$
 Moreover, $c < 2^c$.

Thrm 7: Let a, x , and y be cardinal numbers, then $a^x a^y = a^{x+y}$.

PF: Let A, X, Y be sets s.t. $|A|=a$, $|X|=x$, $|Y|=y$ and $X \cap Y = \emptyset \Rightarrow |X \cup Y| = x+y$.

$$[A^X \times A^Y \sim A^{X \cup Y} \text{ (يمكن إثبات ذلك)}]$$

Let $(f, g) \in A^X \times A^Y$, then we have that
 $f \in A^X$, $g \in A^Y$ or $f: X \rightarrow A$ and
 $g: Y \rightarrow A$

Since $X \cap Y = \emptyset$, then $f \cup g: X \cup Y \rightarrow A$ is
 surely a fun from $X \cup Y$ to $A \cup A = A$. So,
 $f \cup g \in A^{X \cup Y}$. Now, define -

$$F: A^X \times A^Y \xrightarrow{\quad} A^{X \cup Y} \quad \text{by}$$

$$F(f, g) = f \cup g.$$

Now, F is 1-1 and onto (prove it),

$$\left[f_1 \cup g_1 = f_2 \cup g_2, f_1 \cup g_1 = \begin{cases} f_1 & x \in X \\ g_1 & x \in Y \end{cases}, f_2 \cup g_2 = \begin{cases} f_2 & x \in X \\ g_2 & x \in Y \end{cases} \right]$$

$$\text{so } A^X \times A^Y \sim A^{X \cup Y}. \quad \text{--- (**)}$$

$$\Rightarrow |A^X \times A^Y| = |A^X| |A^Y| = a^X \cdot a^Y \stackrel{(*)}{=} |A^{X \cup Y}| \\ = |A|^{|\mathbb{X} \cup \mathbb{Y}|} = a^{X+Y}. \quad \square$$

Thrm 8: Let x , y , and z be cardinal numbers. Then $(z^y)^x = z^{yx}$.

PF: Exercise.

Recall that, for $A \times B$, we define A -projection
 and B -projection maps as follows:

$$P_A: A \times B \rightarrow A, \quad P_A(a, b) = a, \quad \text{and}$$

$$P_B: A \times B \rightarrow B, \quad P_B(a, b) = b.$$

Thrm 9: Let a , b , and x be cardinal numbers. Then

$$(ab)^x = a^x b^x$$

PF: Let A , B , and \aleph be sets with cardinal numbers a , b and x respectively. Let $f \in (A \times B)^\aleph$, then $f: \aleph \rightarrow A \times B$. Hence $\forall x \in \aleph$, $\exists (a, b) \in A \times B$ s.t. $f(x) = (a, b)$. Note that

$$P_A \circ f: \aleph \rightarrow A \text{ and } P_B \circ f: \aleph \rightarrow B,$$

so $P_A \circ f \in A^\aleph$ and $P_B \circ f \in B^\aleph$. ----- (*)

Now, define $\psi: (A \times B)^\aleph \rightarrow A^\aleph \times B^\aleph$ by

$$\psi(f) \stackrel{(*)}{=} (P_A \circ f, P_B \circ f) \in A^\aleph \times B^\aleph.$$

Then ψ is 1-1 and onto (Prove it).

Hence $|(A \times B)^\aleph| = |A^\aleph \times B^\aleph| \Rightarrow$

$$(ab)^\aleph = a^\aleph \cdot b^\aleph \quad \square.$$

Thrm 10: $2^{\aleph_0} = \mathbb{C}$.

PF: *نیستپىزى نىزىقىنلىكىم*

$\cdot P(\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ نىزىقىنلىكىم 1-1 بولىجىلار، $\mathbb{C} \leq 2^{\aleph_0}$ نىزىقىنلىكىم

$\cdot \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\mathbb{N}$ نىزىقىنلىكىم 1-1 بولىجىلار، $2^{\aleph_0} \leq \mathbb{C}$ نىزىقىنلىكىم

Firstly, consider the fun $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow P(\mathbb{Q})$ defined by $f(a) = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} : r < a\}$.

This function is 1-1. To see this, suppose $a \neq b$ in \mathbb{R} , and suppose $a < b$ (Similarly if $b < a$)

Then $\exists r \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t. $a < r < b$ (density of \mathbb{Q})

$\Rightarrow r \in f(b)$ (by its definition) and
 $r \notin f(a)$, $\Rightarrow f(a) \neq f(b)$.

$$\Rightarrow |\mathbb{R}| \leq |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Q})| \Rightarrow C \leq \frac{|\mathbb{Q}|}{2} = \frac{\aleph_0}{2} \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{1}$$

To prove the reverse inequality, note that if

$f \in \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, then $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$. Then the element $0 \cdot f(1) f(2) f(3) f(4) \dots \in (0,1)$ [$f(i) = 0$ or 1]

Note that $f \neq g$ in $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, then $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$f(n) \neq g(n) \Rightarrow$$

$$0 \cdot f(1) f(2) \dots f(n) \dots \neq 0 \cdot g(1) g(2) \dots g(n) \dots$$

Now, define $\psi: \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow (0,1)$ by
 $\psi(f) = 0 \cdot f(1) f(2) f(3) \dots$

Then ψ is 1-1 function, and so $|\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}| \leq |(0,1)| = C$

But $|\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}| = \frac{\aleph_0}{2}$. Then

$$\frac{\aleph_0}{2} \leq C \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{2}$$

① and ② implies that $\frac{\aleph_0}{2} = C$.

denumerable \rightarrow \rightarrow power set \rightarrow it's not equipotent \rightarrow زوجي
 $(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim \mathbb{R})$. \mathbb{R} \geq equipotent \rightarrow $(\mathbb{N} \text{ زوجي})$

Corollary: $\aleph_0 < C$.

$$\text{PF: } \aleph_0 = |\mathbb{N}| \leq |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = \frac{\aleph_0}{2} = C \quad \square$$

6.7 Further Examples of Cardinal Arithmetic

Note Title

06-May-13

Examples:

1) Prove that $\mathbb{C} \cdot \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}$

Sol: مُعْتَدِلٌ لِّيَوْمَ الْجُهُودِ هُنَّ أَعْلَمُ الْأَعْلَمِ
الْجُهُودُ تَعْلَمُ بِالْجُهُودِ

$$\mathbb{C} = 2^{\aleph_0} \Rightarrow \mathbb{C} \cdot \mathbb{C} = 2^{\aleph_0} \cdot 2^{\aleph_0} = \frac{2^{\aleph_0} + 2^{\aleph_0}}{2} = \frac{2^{\aleph_0 + \aleph_0}}{2} = \frac{2^{\aleph_0}}{2} = 2^{\aleph_0} = \mathbb{C}.$$

2) Find the cardinal number of the set $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$.

Sol: Since $|\mathbb{R}| = \mathbb{C} \Rightarrow |\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}| = \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{C}}$, where

$$\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}} = \{f \mid f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}.$$

$$\Rightarrow |\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}| = \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{C}} = (2^{\aleph_0})^{\mathbb{C}} = 2^{\aleph_0 \cdot \mathbb{C}}$$

$$= 2^{\mathbb{C}} > \mathbb{C}$$

إذن يعني، $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}} \sim P(\mathbb{R})$ [نعني! يعني!] يعني! يعني!
[onto, 1-1 وفقط $F: \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}} \rightarrow P(\mathbb{R})$]

3) Define the sets $C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ to be the set of all cont. funcs from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} ,

$C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})$ to be the set of all continuous funcs from \mathbb{Q} to \mathbb{R} , and

$K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ to be the set of all constant funcs from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} . Prove that

$$|K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| = |C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| = |C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})| = \mathbb{C}.$$

PF: Firstly, note that if $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is cont., then its restricted fun $f|_{\mathbb{Q}}: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is also cont. Hence

We can define a map $\psi: C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})$

by $\psi(f) = f|_{\mathbb{Q}}$. This fun is well defined

fun and it is 1-1 (~~onto is wrong~~). This implies that $|C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| \leq |C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})|$.

Moreover, $C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{Q}} \Rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} |C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| &\leq |C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})| \\ &\leq |\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{Q}}| \\ &= \mathfrak{C}^{|\mathbb{Q}|} \\ &= (2^{\aleph_0})^{\aleph_0} \\ &= 2^{\aleph_0 \cdot \aleph_0} \\ &= 2^{\aleph_0} \\ &= \mathfrak{C}. \end{aligned} \quad \text{--- --- --- } (\ast)$$

One the other hand if $f_a \in K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ is the constant fun $f_a(x) = a$. Then we can define a 1-1 and onto fun

$\psi: K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by
 $\psi(f_a) = a$. Then

$$\mathfrak{C} = |\mathbb{R}| = |K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})|.$$

Since any constant fun is continuous,

$$\text{then } K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \Rightarrow$$

$$c = |K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| \leq |C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| \stackrel{(*)}{\leq} c$$

$$\Rightarrow |C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| = c = |C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})|.$$

4) Define $D(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ to be the set of all diff fun from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} . Find $|D(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})|$.

Sol: Each constant fun is differentiable \Rightarrow
 $K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq D(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$, and
each differentiable fun is cont. \Rightarrow
 $D(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$

$$\Rightarrow c = |K(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| \leq |D(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})|$$

$$\leq |C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| = c.$$

$$\Rightarrow |D(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})| = c.$$

With My Best Wishes