



NOTE: This is an official document by Indexademics. Unless otherwise stated, this document may not be accredited to individuals or groups other than the club IDX, nor should this document be distributed, sold, or modified for personal use in any way.

Contents:

1. Set
2. 1-1 Patterns and Inductive Reasoning
3. 1-3 Points, Lines, and Planes
4. 1-4 Segments, Rays, Parallel Lines and Planes
5. 1-5 Measuring Segments
6. 1.6 Measuring Angles
7. 2.1 Conditional Statements
8. 2.2 Biconditional and Definitions
9. 2.3 Deductive Reasoning
10. 5-4 Inverses, Contrapositives, and Indirect Reasoning

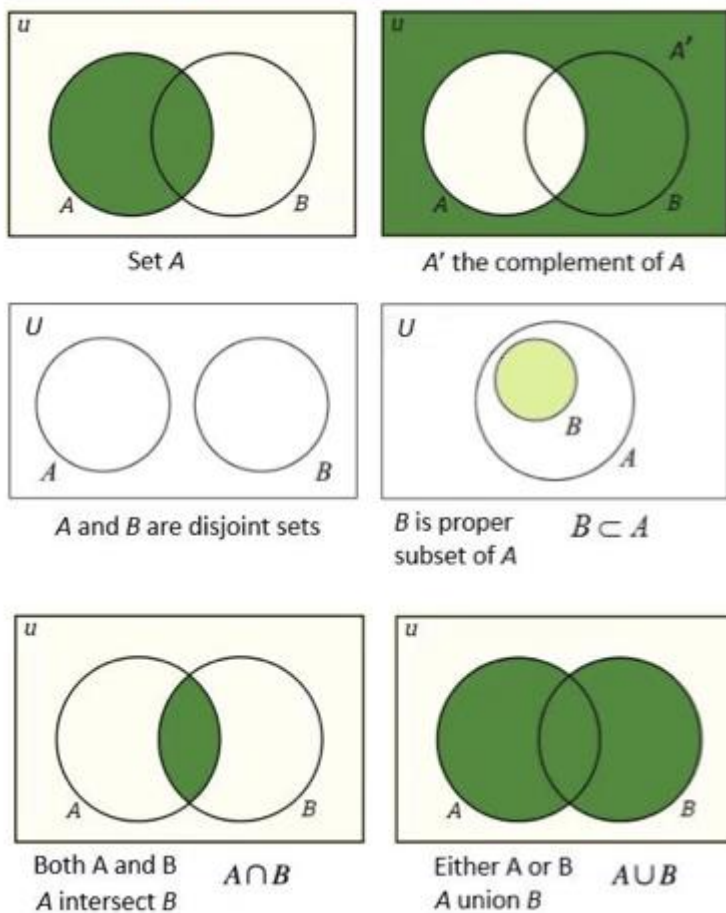
Set

- Sets and Venn Diagrams
 - $A = \{1, 2, 3\} - \{\}$ represents set / 1, 2, 3 represents elements
 - $B = \{\text{Pencils, Pens, Rulers}\}$ – Other values that are not numbers could be elements
 - $n(A) = 3$ (# of elements in set A)
 - A set is a collection of distinct numbers or objects. Each object is called an element or member of the set.
- Properties of Sets:
 - An element is either in the set or not in the set.
 - The elements in a set are distinct. Same element can appear only once.
 - There is no fixed order when we describe the elements in the set.

- Two sets are equal if they contain exactly the same elements
- **Important Number Set, Classification of Sets**
 - Important Number Sets:
 - N – Natural Numbers
 - Z – Integers
 - Z^+ or N^* - Positive Integers
 - Z^- - Negative Integers
 - Q – Rational Numbers
 - R – Real numbers
 - Classification of Sets:
 - **-Finite** – $\{1,2,3\}$ has particular defined value
 - **-Infinite** – $\{1,2,3,\dots\}$ doesn't has particular defined value
 - *Specific – $\{\}$ or \emptyset
 - $\emptyset, \{0\}, \{\emptyset\}$
 - $n(\emptyset) = 0$
 - \emptyset is a set for 1st set.
 - $n(\{0\}) = 1$
 - $\emptyset \in \{\emptyset\}$
 - $n(\{\emptyset\}) = 1$
- Descriptive Method, Sets, Properties of Subsets
 - **Descriptive Method**
 - The descriptive method **uses words or mathematical rules to describe the members of the set** without listing them explicitly.
 - Examples
 - $B = \{X / X \text{ is a weekday}\}$ (Descriptive Method)
 - $B = \{\text{Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday}\}$ (Roster Method)
 - **Sets**
 - $A=B$ Same Elements
 - $A \subseteq B$ Fewer Elements – A is a subset of B
 - $A \subset B$ – A is a proper subset of B
 - $A = \{1,2,3\}$ $B = \{1,2,3,4,\dots\}$
 - $A \subset B$: B must have all the elements that are in set A.
 - **Properties of Subsets**

- $A \subseteq A$
- $A = B \text{ ó } A \subseteq B, B \subseteq A$
- \emptyset is a subset of every sets.
- \in - Belongs to, within. ($A \in B$: A is an element of B)
- Set Operations & Venn Diagram
 - **Transversal Property of Subset**
 - $A \subseteq B, B \subseteq C \Rightarrow A \subseteq C$
 - **Reflexive Property of Subset**
 - $A \subseteq A$

Set Operations and Venn Diagrams



- Intersection and Union Properties
 - **\cap Properties**
 - $A \cap B = B \cap A$
 - $A \cap A = A$
 - $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
 - $A \cap B \subseteq A, A \cap B \subseteq B$
 - $A \cap B = A$ if and only if $A \subseteq B$

- $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$
- **U Properties**
 - $A \cup B = B \cup A$
 - $A \cup A = A$
 - $A \cup \emptyset = \emptyset$
 - $A \cup B \subseteq A, A \cup B \subseteq B$
 - $A \cup B = A$ if and only if $A \subseteq B$
 - $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$
- Bracket Notations
 - $[a, b] \rightarrow$ closed
 - $] a, b [\rightarrow$ open
 - $[a, b [\rightarrow$ closed at a, open at b
 - $] a, b] \rightarrow$ open at a, closed at b

1-1 Patterns and Inductive Reasoning

- **Inductive Reasoning**
 - Reasoning that is based on patterns you observe. If you observe a pattern in a sequence, you can use inductive reasoning to tell what the next terms in the sequence will be.
- A conclusion you reach using inductive reasoning is called a **conjecture**.
- Not all conjectures are true, you can prove that the conjecture is false by finding a counterexample. A **counterexample** of a conjecture is an example for which the conjecture is incorrect.

1-3 Points, Lines, and Planes

- In geometry, words such as *point*, *line*, and *plane* are undefined. In order to define these words, it is necessary to use words that need further defining. It is important to have general descriptions of their meanings.
- A **point** has no size. It is represented by a small dot and is named by a capital letter. A geometric figure is a set of points, and **space** is defined as the set of all points.
- A **line** is a series of points that extend in two opposite directions without end. A name of a line could be represented by any two points on the line, such as line AB. Another way to

name a line is with a single lowercase letter, such as line l . Points that lie on the same line are **collinear points**.

- A **plane** is a flat surface that has no thickness. A plane contains many lines and extends without end in the directions of all its lines. You can name a plane by either a single capital letter or by at least three of its noncollinear points. Points and lines in the same plane are **coplanar** (all collinear points are coplanar).
- A **postulate** or **axiom** is an accepted statement of fact.
 - Postulate 1-1: Through any two points there is exactly one line.
 - Postulate 1-2: If two lines intersect, then they intersect in exactly one point.
 - Postulate 1-3: If two planes intersect, then they intersect in exactly one line.
 - Postulate 1-4: Through any three noncollinear points there is exactly one plane.

1-4 Segments, Rays, Parallel Lines and Planes

- A **segment** is the part of a line consisting of two endpoints and all points between them.
- A **ray** is the part of a line consisting of one endpoint and all the points of the line on one side of the endpoint.
- **Opposite rays** are two collinear rays with the same endpoint. Opposite rays always form a line.
- Lines that do not intersect may or may not be coplanar.
- **Parallel lines** are coplanar lines that do not intersect. **Skew lines** are noncoplanar; therefore, they are not parallel and do not intersect.
- Segments or rays are parallel if they lie in parallel lines. They are skew if they lie in skew lines.

1-5 Measuring Segments

- Postulate 1-5 **Ruler Postulate**
 - The points of a line can be put into one-to-one correspondence with the real numbers so that the distance between any two points is the absolute value of the difference of the corresponding numbers.
- Congruent segments are equal in length and similar in shape.
- Postulate 1-6 **Segment Addition Postulate**
 - If three points A , B , and C are collinear and B is between A and C , then $AB + BC = AC$.

- A **midpoint** of a segment is a point that divides the segment into two congruent segments. A midpoint, or any line, ray, or other segment through a midpoint, is said to bisect the segment.

1.6 Measuring Angles

- Postulate 1-7 **Protractor Postulate**
 - Let ray OA and ray OB be opposite rays in a plane. Ray OA, ray OB, and all the rays with endpoint O that can be drawn on one side of line AB can be paired with the real numbers from 0 to 180 so that
 - Ray OA is paired with 0 and ray OB is paired with 180.
 - If ray OC is paired with x and ray OD is paired with y , then $\text{angle COD} = |x - y|$
- Acute Angle: $0 < X < 90$
- Right Angle: $X = 90$
- Obtuse Angle: $90 < X < 180$
- Straight Angle: $X = 180$
- Congruent Angle: Angles with same measure.
- Postulate 1-8 **Angle Addition Postulate**:
 - If point B is in the interior of angle AOC, then $\text{angle AOB} + \text{angle BOC} = \text{angle AOC}$. If angle AOC is a straight angle, then $\text{angle AOB} + \text{angle BOC} = 180$.

2.1 Conditional Statements

- You have heard *if-then* statements such as this one:
 - If you are not completely satisfied, then your money will be refunded.
- Another name for an if-then statement is a **conditional**. Every conditional has two parts. The part following if is the **hypothesis**, and the part following then is the **conclusion**.
 - A conditional can have a **truth value** of *true or false*. To show that a conditional is true, show that every time the hypothesis is true, the conclusion is also true. To show that a conditional is false, you need to find only one counterexample for which the hypothesis is true, and the conclusion is false.
 - The **converse** of a statement switches the hypothesis and conclusion.

2.2 Biconditional and Definitions

- If both conditional and its converse are true, you can combine them as a true **biconditional**. This is the statement you get by connecting the conditional and its converse with the word *and*. You can write a biconditional more concisely, however, by joining the two parts of each conditional with the phrase *if and only if*.
- A biconditional contains $q \Rightarrow p$ and $p \Rightarrow q$ as $q \Leftrightarrow p$.
- A good definition...
 - Is a statement that can help you identify or classify an object.
 - Has several important components.
 - Uses clearly understood terms. The terms should be commonly understood or already defined.
 - Is precise. Good definitions avoid words such as *large*, *sort of*, and *almost*.
 - Is reversible. That means that you can write a good definition as a true biconditional.

2.3 Deductive Reasoning

- **Deductive reasoning** (or logical reasoning) is the process of reasoning logically from given statements to conclusion. If the given statements are true, deductive reasoning produces a true conclusion.
- **Law of Detachment:** If a conditional is true and its hypothesis is true, then its conclusion is true. (If $p \rightarrow q$ is a true statement and p is true, then q is true.)
- **Law of Syllogism:** If $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow r$ are true statements, then $p \rightarrow r$ is a true statement.

5-4 Inverses, Contrapositives, and Indirect Reasoning

- The negation of a statement has the opposite truth value. Represented in \sim , for example, $\sim P$.
- The **inverse** of a conditional statement negates both the hypothesis and the conclusion. The **contrapositive** of a conditional switches the hypothesis and the conclusion and negates both.
- Equivalent statements have the same truth value.
- Conditional and contrapositive statements share truth value and inverse and converse statements shares same truth value.
- This type of reasoning is called **indirect reasoning**. In indirect reasoning, all possibilities are considered and then all but one are proved false. The remaining possibility must be true.
- A proof involving indirect reasoning is an **indirect proof**. In an indirect proof, a statement and its negation often are the only possibilities.

- Writing an Indirect Proof
 - Step 1. State as an assumption the opposite of what you want to prove.
 - Step 2. Show that this assumption leads to a contradiction.
 - Step 3. Conclude that the assumption must be false and that you want to prove must be true.