Chapter 1

Mathematical Concepts and Symbols

1.1 Logical Symbols

The logical symbols are a kind of symbols using for theoretical statements.

Table 1.1: Frequently-used Logical Symbols

Symbols	Meanings	
$L \Longrightarrow P$	Proposition L is contained in proposition P	
$L \Longleftrightarrow P$	Proposition L is equivalent to proposition P	
$\neg P$	Not P	
$L \wedge P$	Proposition L and proposition P	
$L \vee P$	Proposition L or proposition P	

e.g.

$$((A \Longrightarrow B) \land (\neg B) \Longrightarrow (\neg A))$$

stands for " if A is contained in B,and B is not true, then A is not true". We also call $A \iff B$ "A is the necessary and sufficeent condition of B". The typical math proposition is like " $A \implies B$ ". In order to prove this proposition ,we can use the implication relationship

$$A \Longrightarrow C_1 \Longrightarrow \cdots \Longrightarrow C_n \Longrightarrow B$$

The every implication relationship in this chain is general truth or proved proposition.

Table 1.2: Truth Table				
$\neg A$	A	0	1	
·Д	$\neg A$	1	0	
$A \lor B$	A	0	1	
$A \lor D$	0	0	1	
	1	1	1	
$A \wedge B$	A	0	1	
$A \land D$	0	0	0	
	1	0	1	
$A \Longrightarrow B$	A	0	1	
$A \longrightarrow D$	0	1	1	
	1	0	1	
·	·			

Question 1. $\neg (A \land B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor \neg B)$.

Proof. (Use the truth table)

If A is ture, B is ture, $A \wedge B$ is ture. $\neg (A \wedge B)$ is false, $\neg A$ is false, $\neg B$ is false, $(\neg A \vee \neg B)$ is false.

If A is ture, B is false, $A \wedge B$ is false. $\neg (A \wedge B)$ is true. $\neg A$ is false, $\neg B$ is true, $(\neg A \vee \neg B)$ is ture.

If A is flase, B is true, $A \wedge B$ is false. $\neg (A \wedge B)$ is true. $\neg A$ is true, $\neg B$ is false, $(\neg A \vee \neg B)$ is ture.

If A is false, B is false, $A \wedge B$ is false. $\neg(A \wedge B)$ is true. $\neg A$ is true, $\neg B$ is true, $(\neg A \vee \neg B)$ is ture. So

$$\neg(A \land B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$

Question 2. $(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \lor B$.

Proof. Firstly, we confirm the truth of

$$(A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow \neg A \lor B$$

If $(A \Rightarrow B)$ is false, then $\neg A \lor B$ is true.

If $(A \Rightarrow B)$ is ture ,then we have two posibilities. The first is A is ture, B is true, so $\neg A \lor B$ is true. The second is A is false,then B can be true or false, but $\neg A \lor B$ will be true.

Hence, $(A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow \neg A \lor B$.

Secondly, we prove

$$(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftarrow \neg A \lor B$$

If $\neg A \lor B$ is false, then $(A \Rightarrow B)$ is true.

If $\neg A \lor B$ is true, we have

- 1. $\neg A$ is true, B is false, then, A is false, $(A \Rightarrow B)$ is true.
- 2. $\neg A$ is false, B is true, then, A is true, $(A \Rightarrow B)$ is true.
- 3. $\neg A$ is true, B is true, then, A is false, $(A \Rightarrow B)$ is true.

So
$$(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftarrow \neg A \lor B$$
.

TIPS. 1. $\neg (A \land B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \lor \neg B$;

- 2. $\neg (A \lor B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \land \neg B$;
- 3. $(A \Rightarrow) \Leftrightarrow (\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A)$;
- 4. $(A \Rightarrow) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor B)$;
- 5. $\neg (A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow A \land \neg B$.

1.2 Sets and their Operations

A set is a collection of well-defined objects.

If A is a set, we write $a \in A$ to express element a belongs to set A, the negetive proposition of which is $a \notin A$. We use the symbol \oslash to denote the **empty set**, that is, the set with no elements.

Theorem 1.2.1 (Cantor). There is no set contains all the sets.

Proof. We assume P(M) represents M doesn't contain itself.

Consider $K = \{M | P(M)\}$ which is made of sets M that satisfies P. Assuming K is a set, then either P(K) or $\neg P(K)$ is true.

If P(K) is true, K doesn't contain itself,but because of the definition of K, K is belong to K, which means $\neg P(M)$.

If $\neg P(M)$ is ture, it's easy to find the similar conclusion.

So to the contrary, K is not a set. This reveals a set can't contain all the sets.

Theorem 1.2.1 is a typical **paradox** called Russell's paradox.

 \forall and \exists are logical symbols to describe

Table 1.3: Universial and Exsitential Quantifications

Symbols	Meanings
$\forall x \in A$	For all elements x in A
$\exists x \in A$	There exist at least one element x in A

To show the inclusion relation of two sets, we often use the Symbol $A \subset B$, which means set A is a **subset** of set B (All the elements in A also belong to B). We indicate that A is not a subset of B by this notation: $A \not\subset B$.

$$(A \subset B) := \forall x ((x \in A) \Rightarrow (x \in B))$$

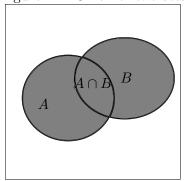
We define the equal relation between two sets, using the symbol =:

$$A = B := (A \subset B) \land (B \subset A)$$

We often use this definition to prove A = B. Symbol \neq denotes the negetive proposition of equal.

A is a **proper subset** of B, if A is a subset of B, and $A \neq B$, denoted by the symbol \subseteq .

Figure 1.1: Union of two sets



If A and B are sets, then their **union**, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set of all elements that are elements of either A or B:

$$(A \cup B) := \{x \in M | (x \in A) \lor (x \in B)\}$$

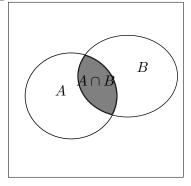
Clearly, $A \cup B = B \cup A$.

If A and B are sets, then their **intersection**, denoted by $A \cap B$, contains all the elements in both A and B:

$$(A \cap B) := \{ x \in M | (x \in A) \land (x \in B) \}$$

Also, we have $A \cap B = B \cap A$.

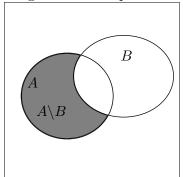
Figure 1.2: Intersection of two sets



We use the denotion $A \setminus B$ to represent the set contains all the elements which belongs to A but not belong to B, we call it the **defference set**.

$$A \backslash B := \{ x \in M | (x \in A) \land (x \notin B) \}$$

Figure 1.3: Complement



For $B \subset A$, we can also denote it as the symbol C_AB .

Question 3 (de Morgen).

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

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

Proof. We prove the first one.

$$(x \in C_M(A \cup B)) \Rightarrow (x \notin (A \cup B))$$

$$\Rightarrow ((x \notin A) \land (x \notin B)) \Rightarrow ((x \in C_m A) \land (x \in C_M B))$$

$$\Rightarrow ((x \in C_m A) \cap (x \in C_M B))$$

So we have proved $C_M(A \cup B) \subset C_M A \cap C_M B$. On the other hand:

$$((x \in C_m A) \cap (x \in C_M B)) \Rightarrow ((x \in C_m A) \wedge (x \in C_M B))$$

$$\Rightarrow ((x \notin A) \wedge (x \notin B)) \Rightarrow (x \notin (A \cup B))$$

$$\Rightarrow (x \in C_M (A \cup B))$$

That's the same as $C_M(A \cup B) = C_M A \cap C_M B$.

Question 4. $(A \subset C_M B) \Leftrightarrow (B \subset C_M A)$.

Proof.

$$(A \subset C_M B) \Rightarrow ((x \in A) \Rightarrow ((x \notin B)) \land (x \in M))$$

$$\Rightarrow (\neg (x \in A) \Leftarrow \neg ((x \notin B))))$$

$$\Rightarrow ((x \in B) \Rightarrow (x \notin A)) \Rightarrow (B \subset C_M A)$$

The other hand of this problem is the same.

TIPS. 1.
$$(A \subset C) \land (B \subset C) \Leftrightarrow ((A \cup B) \subset C)$$
;

2.
$$(C \subset A) \land (C \subset B) \Leftrightarrow (C \subset (A \cap B))$$
;

3.
$$C_M(C_M A) = A$$
;

4.
$$(A \subset C_M B) \Leftrightarrow (B \subset C_M A)$$
;

5.
$$(A \subset B) \Leftrightarrow (C_M A \supset C_M B)$$
.

Question 5. $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.

Proof.

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

So, we should prove:

$$((x \in A) \lor ((x \in B)) \land (x \in C)) \Leftrightarrow ((x \in A) \lor (x \in B)) \land ((x \in A) \lor (x \in C))$$

That's the same as:

$$(A \lor (B \land C)) \Leftrightarrow ((A \lor B) \land (A \lor C))$$

It's easy to prove with the help of truth table.

In this question, we also establish a relation between logical operation and sets' operation.

TIPS. 1.
$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C := A \cup B \cup C$$
;

2.
$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C := A \cap B \cap C$$
;

3.
$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C);$$

4.
$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$
.

We denote two sets' **Cartesian product** as $A \times B$. $A \times B$ is a set contains ordered pairs, which means $A \times B \neq B \times A$.

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

Question 6. $(X \times Y) \cup (Z \times Y) = (X \cup Z) \times Y$.

Proof.

$$\begin{split} &(X\times Y)\cup(Z\times Y)\\ \Rightarrow &\{(x,y)|(x\in X)\wedge(y\in Y)\}\cup\{(z,y)|(z\in Z)\wedge(y\in Y)\}\\ \Rightarrow &\{(x(\text{or }z),y)|((x\in X)\wedge(y\in Y))\vee((z\in Z)\wedge(y\in Y))\}\\ \Rightarrow &\{(x(\text{or }z),y)|((x\in X)\vee(z\in Z))\wedge(y\in Y)\}\\ \Rightarrow &(X\cup Z)\times Y \end{split}$$

On the other hand:

$$\begin{split} &(X \cup Z) \times Y \\ \Rightarrow &\{(x(\text{or }z),y)|((x \in X) \vee (z \in Z)) \wedge (y \in Y)\} \\ \Rightarrow &\{(x(\text{or }z),y)|((x \in X) \wedge (y \in Y)) \vee ((z \in Z) \wedge (y \in Y))\} \\ \Rightarrow &\{(x,y)|(x \in X) \wedge (y \in Y)\} \cup \{(z,y)|(z \in Z) \wedge (y \in Y)\} \\ \Rightarrow &(X \times Y) \cup (Z \times Y) \end{split}$$

In conclusion:
$$(X \times Y) \cup (Z \times Y) = (X \cup Z) \times Y$$
.

Question 7.
$$(A \times B \subset X \times Y) \Leftrightarrow (A \subset X) \wedge (B \subset Y)$$
.

Proof.

$$(A \times B) \subset (X \times Y) \Rightarrow (((a \in A) \land (b \in B)) \Rightarrow ((x \in X) \land (y \in Y)))$$

In this formula, we will get

$$((a \in A) \Rightarrow (x \in X)) \land ((b \in B) \Rightarrow (y \in Y))$$

That's because $A \times B$ is a ordered pair, which means there is a consistent one-to-one match between A and X, B and Y.

The proof of the other hand is similar.

TIPS. 1.
$$(X \times Y = \oslash) \Leftrightarrow (X = \oslash) \lor (Y = \oslash)$$
, if $X \times Y \neq \oslash$, $A \times B \neq \oslash$, we have 2. $(A \times B \subset X \times Y) \Leftrightarrow (A \subset X) \land (B \subset Y)$; 3. $(X \times Y) \cup (Z \times Y) = (X \cup Z) \times Y$ 4. $(X \times Y) \cap (X' \times Y') = (X \cap X') \times (Y \times Y')$.

1.3 Function

A function or mapping f from X to Y is a rule, or formula, or assignment, or relation of association that assigns to each $x \in X$ a unique element $y \in Y$. Here we call X the domain of the function f,. Elements $x \in X$ are the **arguments** of the function. The elements $y \in Y$ are the **dependent varibles**(the **image** of x), denoted by the symbol f(x). The set Y is made of the value of the function, which called the **range** or **codomain** of the function f.

$$f(X) := \{ y \in Y | \exists x \ ((x \in X) \land (y = f(x)) \}$$

We often use the symbol

$$f: X \longrightarrow Y, X \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} Y$$

to denote the function f.

While for a subset $D \subset X$, which is filled with the image of elements in $B \in Y$, we denote it as

$$D = f^{-1}(B) := \{ x \in X | f(x) \in B \}$$

We call it the **preimage** or **inverse image** of set B. Mappings $f: X \to Y$ can be divided into several types:

- 1. the surjection: f(X) = Y;
- 2. the **injection**: $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X \ (f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2);$
- 3. the **bijection**: the mapping that is both surjection and surjection.