

Matrix Book

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February 2021

Chapter 1

Sets, Logic, Numbers, Relations, Orderings, Graphs, and Functions

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In this chapter we review basic terminology and results concerning sets, logic, numbers, relations, orderings, graphs, and functions. This material is used throughout the book.

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1.1 Sets

⁴A set $\{x, y, \dots\}$ is a collection of elements. A set can include either a finite or infinite number of elements. The set \mathcal{X} is *finite* if it has a finite number of elements; otherwise, \mathcal{X} is *infinite*. ⁵The set \mathcal{X} is *countably infinite* if \mathcal{X} is infinite and its elements are in one-to-one correspondence with the positive integers. The set \mathcal{X} is *countable* if it is either finite or countably infinite.

⁶Let \mathcal{X} be a set. Then,

$$x \in \mathcal{X} \tag{1.1}$$

means that x is an *element* of \mathcal{X} . If w is not an element of \mathcal{X} , then we write

$$w \notin \mathcal{X}. \tag{1.2}$$

⁷No set can be an element of itself. Therefore, there does not exist a set that includes every set. The set with no elements, denoted by \emptyset , is the *empty set*. If $\mathcal{X} \neq \emptyset$, then \mathcal{X} is *nonempty*.

⁸Let \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} be sets. The *intersection* of \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} is the set of common elements of \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} , which is given by

$$\mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{Y} \triangleq \{x: x \in \mathcal{X} \text{ and } x \in \mathcal{Y}\} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}: x \in \mathcal{Y}\} = \{x \in \mathcal{Y}: x \in \mathcal{X}\} = \mathcal{Y} \cap \mathcal{X}, \tag{1.3}$$

⁹The *union* of \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} is the set of elements in either \mathcal{X} or \mathcal{Y} , which is the set

$$\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y} \triangleq \{x: x \in \mathcal{X} \text{ or } x \in \mathcal{Y}\} = \mathcal{Y} \cup \mathcal{X}. \quad (1.4)$$

¹⁰The *complement* of \mathcal{X} relative to \mathcal{Y} is

$$\mathcal{Y} \setminus \mathcal{X} \triangleq \{x \in \mathcal{Y}: x \notin \mathcal{X}\}. \quad (1.5)$$

¹¹If \mathcal{Y} is specified, then the *complement* of \mathcal{X} is

$$\mathcal{X}^{\sim} \triangleq \mathcal{Y} \setminus \mathcal{X}. \quad (1.6)$$

¹²The *symmetric difference* of \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} is the set of elements that are in either \mathcal{X} or \mathcal{Y} but not both, which is given by

$$\mathcal{X} \ominus \mathcal{Y} \triangleq (\mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y}) \setminus (\mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{Y}). \quad (1.7)$$

¹³If $x \in \mathcal{X}$ implies that $x \in \mathcal{Y}$, then \mathcal{X} is a *subset* of \mathcal{Y} (equivalently, \mathcal{Y} *contains* \mathcal{X}), which is written as

$$\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}. \quad (1.8)$$

¹⁴Equivalently,

$$\mathcal{Y} \supseteq \mathcal{X}. \quad (1.9)$$

¹⁵Note that $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}$ if and only if $\mathcal{X} \setminus \mathcal{Y} = \emptyset$. ¹⁶Furthermore, $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y}$ if and only if $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}$ and $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$. If $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}$ and $\mathcal{X} \neq \mathcal{Y}$, then \mathcal{X} is a *proper subset* of \mathcal{Y} and we write $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathcal{Y}$. ¹⁷The sets \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are *disjoint* if $\mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{Y} = \emptyset$. ¹⁸A *partition* of \mathcal{X} is a set of pairwise-disjoint and nonempty subsets of \mathcal{X} whose union is equal to \mathcal{X} .

¹⁹The symbols \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{P} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , and \mathbb{R} denote the sets of nonnegative integers, positive integers, integers, rational numbers, and real numbers, respectively.

²⁰A set cannot have repeated elements. Therefore, $\{x, x\} = \{x\}$. ²¹A *multiset* is a finite collection of elements that allows for repetition. The multiset consisting of two copies of x is written as $\{x, x\}_{\text{ms}}$. ²²For example, the roots of the polynomial $p(x) = (x - 1)^2$ are the elements of the multiset $\{1, 1\}_{\text{ms}}$, while the prime factors of 72 are the elements of the multiset $\{2, 2, 2, 3, 3\}_{\text{ms}}$.

²³The operations “ \cap ,” “ \cup ,” “ \setminus ,” “ \ominus ,” and “ \times ” and the relations “ \subset ” and “ \subseteq ” extend to multisets. ²⁴For example,

$$\{x, x\}_{\text{ms}} \cup \{x\}_{\text{ms}} = \{x, x, x\}_{\text{ms}}. \quad (1.10)$$

²⁵By ignoring repetitions, a multiset can be converted to a set, while a set can be viewed as a multiset with distinct elements.

²⁶The *Cartesian product* $\mathcal{X}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{X}_n$ of sets $\mathcal{X}_1, \dots, \mathcal{X}_n$ is the set consisting of *tuples* of the form (x_1, \dots, x_n) , where, for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, $x_i \in \mathcal{X}_i$. A tuple with n components is an *n-tuple*. ²⁷The components of a tuple are ordered but need not be distinct. Therefore, a tuple can be viewed as an ordered multiset. ²⁸We thus write

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \times_{i=1}^n \mathcal{X}_i \triangleq \mathcal{X}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{X}_n. \quad (1.11)$$

\mathcal{X}^n denotes $\times_{i=1}^n \mathcal{X}$. ²⁹

Definition 1.1.1. A *sequence* $(x_i)_{i=1}^\infty = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ is a tuple with a countably infinite number of components. Now, let $i_1 < i_2 < \dots$. Then, $(x_{i_j})_{j=1}^\infty$ is a *subsequence* of $(x_i)_{i=1}^\infty$.

Let \mathcal{X} be a set, and let $X \triangleq (x_i)_{i=1}^\infty$ be a sequence whose components are elements of \mathcal{X} ; that is, $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$. For convenience, we write either $X \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ or $X \subset \mathcal{X}$, where X is viewed as a set and the multiplicity of the components of the sequence is ignored. For sequences $X, Y \subset \mathbb{F}^n$, define $X + Y \triangleq (x_i + y_i)_{i=1}^\infty$ and $X \odot Y \triangleq (x_i \odot y_i)_{i=1}^\infty$, where “ \odot ” denotes component-wise multiplication. In the case $n = 1$, we define $XY \triangleq (x_i y_i)_{i=1}^\infty$.

1.2 Logic

Every *statement* is either true or false, and no statement is both true and false. A *proof* is a collection of statements that verify that a statement is true. A *conjecture* is a statement that is believed to be true but whose proof is not known.

Let A and B be statements. The *not* of A is the statement (not A), the *and* of A and B is the statement (A and B), and the *or* of A and B is the statement (A or B). The statement (A or B) does not contradict the statement (A and B); hence, the word “or” is inclusive. The *exclusive or* of A and B is the statement (A xor B), which is $[(A \text{ and not } B) \text{ or } (B \text{ and not } A)]$. Equivalently, (A xor B) is the statement $[(A \text{ or } B) \text{ and not } (A \text{ and } B)]$, that is, A or B , but not both. Note that (A and B) = (B and A), (A or B) = (B or A), and (A xor B) = (B xor A).

Let A , B , and C be statements. Then, the statements (A and B or C) and (A or B and C) are ambiguous. For clarity, we thus write, for example, $[A \text{ and } (B \text{ or } C)]$ and $[A \text{ or } (B \text{ and } C)]$. In words, we write “ A and either B or C ” and “ A or both B and C ,” respectively, where “either” and “both” signify parentheses. Furthermore,

$$(A \text{ and } B) \text{ or } C = (A \text{ and } C) \text{ or } (B \text{ and } C), \quad (1.12)$$

$$(A \text{ or } B) \text{ and } C = (A \text{ or } C) \text{ and } (B \text{ or } C). \quad (1.13)$$

Let A be a statement. To analyze statements involving logic operators, define $\text{truth}(A) = 1$ if A is true, and $\text{truth}(A) = 0$ if A is false. Then,

$$\text{truth}(\text{not } A) = \text{truth}(A) + 1, \quad (1.14)$$

where $0 + 0 = 0$, $1 + 0 = 0 + 1 = 1$, and $1 + 1 = 0$. Therefore, A is true if and only if (not A) is false, while A is false if and only if (not A) is true. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{truth}[\text{not}(\text{not } A)] &= \text{truth}(\text{not } A) + 1 \\ &= [\text{truth}(A) + 1] + 1 \\ &= \text{truth}(A). \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, note that $\text{truth}(A) + \text{truth}(A) = 0$ and $\text{truth}(A) \text{truth}(A) = \text{truth}(A)$.

Let A and B be statements. Then,

$$\text{truth}(A \text{ and } B) = \text{truth}(A) \text{truth}(B), \quad (1.15)$$

$$\text{truth}(A \text{ or } B) = \text{truth}(A) \text{truth}(B) + \text{truth}(A) + \text{truth}(B), \quad (1.16)$$

$$\text{truth}(A \text{ xor } B) = \text{truth}(A) + \text{truth}(B). \quad (1.17)$$

⁵²Hence,

$$\text{truth}(A \text{ and } B) = \min \{\text{truth}(A), \text{truth}(B)\}, \quad (1.18)$$

$$\text{truth}(A \text{ or } B) = \max \{\text{truth}(A), \text{truth}(B)\}. \quad (1.19)$$

⁵³Consequently, $\text{truth}(A \text{ and } B) = \text{truth}(B \text{ and } A)$, $\text{truth}(A \text{ or } B) = \text{truth}(B \text{ or } A)$, and $\text{truth}(A \text{ xor } B) = \text{truth}(B \text{ xor } A)$. ⁵⁵Furthermore, $\text{truth}(A \text{ and } A) = \text{truth}(A \text{ or } A) = \text{truth}(A)$, and $\text{truth}(A \text{ xor } A) = 0$.

⁵⁶Let A and B be statements. The *implication* $(A \implies B)$ is the statement $[(\text{not } A) \text{ or } B]$. ⁵⁷Therefore,

$$\text{truth}(A \implies B) = \text{truth}(A) \text{ truth}(B) + \text{truth}(A) + 1. \quad (1.20)$$

⁵⁸The implication $(A \implies B)$ is read as either “if A , then B ,” “if A holds, then B holds,” or “ A implies B .” ⁵⁹The statement A is the *hypothesis*, while the statement B is the *conclusion*. ⁶⁰If $(A \implies B)$, then A is a *sufficient condition* for B , and B is a *necessary condition* for A . ⁶¹It follows from (1.20) that, if A and B are true, then $(A \implies B)$ is true; if A is true and B is false, then $(A \implies B)$ is false; and, if A is false, then $(A \implies B)$ is true whether or not B is true. ⁶²For example, both implications $[(2 + 2 = 5) \implies (3 + 3 = 6)]$ and $[(2 + 2 = 5) \implies (3 + 3 = 8)]$ are true. ⁶³Finally, note that $[(A \implies B) \text{ and } A] = A \text{ and } B$. ⁶⁴ⁱ

⁶⁵A *predicate* is a statement that depends on a variable. Let \mathcal{X} be a set, let $x \in \mathcal{X}$, and let $A(x)$ be a predicate. ⁶⁶There are two ways to use a predicate to create a statement. An *existential statement* has the form

$$\text{there exists } x \in \mathcal{X} \text{ such that } A(x) \text{ holds}, \quad (1.21)$$

whereas a *universal statement* has the form

$$\text{for all } x \in \mathcal{X}, A(x) \text{ holds}. \quad (1.22)$$

⁶⁷Note that

$$\text{truth}[\text{there exists } x \in \mathcal{X} \text{ such that } A(x) \text{ holds}] = \max_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{truth}[A(x)], \quad (1.23)$$

$$\text{truth}[\text{for all } x \in \mathcal{X}, A(x) \text{ holds}] = \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \text{truth}[A(x)]. \quad (1.24)$$

⁶⁹An *argument* is an implication whose hypothesis and conclusion are predicates that depend on the same variable. In particular, letting x denote a variable, and letting $A(x)$ and $B(x)$ be predicates, the implication $[A(x) \implies B(x)]$ is an argument. ⁷⁰For example, for each real number x , the implication $[(x = 1) \implies (x + 1 = 2)]$ is an argument. ⁷¹Note that the variable x links the hypothesis and the conclusion, thereby making this implication useful for the purpose of *inference*. In particular, for all real numbers x , $\text{truth}[(x = 1) \implies (x + 1 = 2)] = 1$. The statements (for all x , $[A(x) \implies B(x)]$ holds) and (there exists x such that $[A(x) \implies B(x)]$ holds) are inferences.

⁷²Let A and B be statements. The *bidirectional implication* $(A \iff B)$ is the statement $[(A \implies B) \text{ and } (A \impliedby B)]$, where $(A \impliedby B)$ means $(B \implies A)$. If $(A \iff B)$, then A and B are *equivalent*. ⁷³Furthermore,

$$\text{truth}(A \iff B) = \text{truth}(A) + \text{truth}(B) + 1. \quad (1.25)$$

⁷⁴ⁱTherefore, A and B are equivalent if and only if either both A and B are true or both A and B are false. ⁷⁵ⁱ

⁷⁶Let A and B be statements, and assume that $(A \iff B)$. Then, A holds *if and only if* B holds. The implication $A \implies B$ (the “only if” part) is *necessity*, while $B \implies A$ (the “if” part) is *sufficiency*.

⁷⁷Let A and B be statements. The *converse* of $(A \implies B)$ is $(B \implies A)$. ⁷⁸Note that

$$\begin{aligned}(A \implies B) &\iff [(\text{not } A) \text{ or } B] \\ &\iff [(\text{not } A) \text{ or not}(\text{not } B)] \\ &\iff [\text{not}(\text{not } B) \text{ or not } A] \\ &\iff (\text{not } B \implies \text{not } A).\end{aligned}$$

⁷⁹Therefore, the statement $(A \implies B)$ is equivalent to its *contrapositive* $[(\text{not } B) \implies (\text{not } A)]$.

⁸⁰Let $A, B, A',$ and B' be statements, and assume that $(A' \implies A \implies B \implies B')$. Then, $(A' \implies B')$ is a *corollary* of $(A \implies B)$.

⁸¹Let $A, B,$ and A' be statements, and assume that $A \implies B$. Then, $(A \implies B)$ is a *strengthening* of $[(A \text{ and } A') \implies B]$. If, in addition, $(A \implies A')$, then the statement $[(A \text{ and } A') \implies B]$ has a *redundant assumption*.

⁸²An *interpretation* is a feasible assignment of true or false to all statements that comprise a statement. ⁸³For example, there are four interpretations of the statement $(A \text{ and } B)$, depending on whether A is assigned to be true or false and B is assigned to be true or false. Likewise, $[(x = 1) \text{ and } (x = 2)]$ has three interpretations, which depend on the value of x .

⁸⁴Let A_1, A_2, \dots be statements, and let B be a statement that depends on A_1, A_2, \dots . Then, B is a *tautology* if B is true whether or not A_1, A_2, \dots are true. ⁸⁵For example, let B denote the statement $(A \text{ or not } A)$. Then,

$$\text{truth}(A \text{ or not } A) = 1, \quad (1.26)$$

and thus the statement $(A \text{ or not } A)$ is true whether or not A is true. Hence, $(A \text{ or not } A)$ is a tautology. Likewise, $(A \implies A)$ is a tautology. Furthermore, since

$$\text{truth}[(A \text{ and } B) \implies A] = \text{truth}(A)^2 \text{truth}(B) + \text{truth}(A) \text{truth}(B) + 1 = 1, \quad (1.27)$$

it follows that $[(A \text{ and } B) \implies A]$ is a tautology. ⁸⁶Likewise, $\text{truth}[(A \text{ and not } A) \implies B] = 1$, and thus $[(A \text{ and not } A) \implies B]$ is a tautology. ⁸⁷ⁱ

⁸⁸Let A_1, A_2, \dots be statements, and let B be a statement that depends on A_1, A_2, \dots . Then, B is a *contradiction* if B is false whether or not A_1, A_2, \dots are true. ⁸⁹For example, let B denote the statement $(A \text{ and not } A)$. Then,

$$\text{truth}(A \text{ and not } A) = 0, \quad (1.28)$$

and thus the statement $(A \text{ and not } A)$ is false whether or not A is true. Hence, $(A \text{ and not } A)$ is a contradiction. ⁹⁰ⁱ

⁹¹Let A and B be statements. If the implication $(A \implies B)$ is neither a tautology nor a contradiction, then $\text{truth}(A \implies B)$ depends on the truth of the statements that comprise A and B . ⁹²For example, $\text{truth}(A \implies \text{not } A) = \text{truth}(A) + 1$, and thus the statement $(A \implies \text{not } A)$ is true if and only if A is false, and false if and only if A is true. Hence, $(A \implies \text{not } A)$ is neither a tautology nor a contradiction. ⁹³A statement that is neither a tautology nor a

contradiction is a *contingency*.⁹⁴ For example, the implication $[A \implies (A \text{ and } B)]$ is a contingency. Likewise, for each real number x , $\text{truth}[(x = 1) \implies (x = 2)] = \text{truth}(x \neq 1)$, and thus the statement $[(x = 1) \implies (x = 2)]$ is a contingency.

⁹⁵An argument that is a contingency is a *theorem*, *proposition*, *corollary*, or *lemma*.⁹⁶ A theorem is a significant result; a proposition is a theorem of less significance. The primary role of a lemma is to support the proof of a theorem or a proposition. A *corollary* is a consequence of a theorem or a proposition. A *fact* is either a theorem, proposition, lemma, or corollary.

⁹⁷In order to visualize logic operations on predicates, it is helpful to replace statements with sets and logic operations by set operations; the truth of a statement can then be visualized in terms of Venn diagrams.⁹⁸ To do this, let \mathcal{X} be a set, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, let $A(x)$ and $B(x)$ be predicates, and define $\mathcal{A} \triangleq \{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{truth}[A(x)] = 1\}$ and $\mathcal{B} \triangleq \{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{truth}[B(x)] = 1\}$. Then, the logic operations “and,” “or,” “xor,” and “not” are equivalent to “ \cap ,” “ \cup ,” “ \ominus ,” and “ \sim ,” respectively.⁹⁹ For example, $\{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{truth}[(\text{not } A(x)) \text{ and } B(x)] = 1\} = \mathcal{A}^\sim \cap \mathcal{B}$. Furthermore, since $[A(x) \implies B(x)]$ is equivalent to $[(\text{not } A(x)) \text{ or } B(x)]$, it follows that $\{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{truth}[A(x) \implies B(x)] = 1\} = \mathcal{A}^\sim \cup \mathcal{B}$. Similarly, since $[A(x) \iff B(x)]$ is equivalent to $[(A(x) \text{ or not } B(x)) \text{ and } ((\text{not } A(x)) \text{ or } B(x))]$, it follows that $\{x \in \mathcal{X} : A(x) \iff B(x)\} = (\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}^\sim) \cap (\mathcal{A}^\sim \cup \mathcal{B}) = (\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) \cup (\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B})^\sim$.

¹⁰⁰Now, define \mathcal{X} , $A(x)$, $B(x)$, \mathcal{A} , and \mathcal{B} as in the previous paragraph, and assume that, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $A(x) \implies B(x)$. Therefore, $\mathcal{A}^\sim \cup \mathcal{B} = \{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{truth}[(\text{not } A(x)) \text{ or } B(x)] = 1\} = \mathcal{X}$, and thus $\mathcal{A} \setminus \mathcal{B} = (\mathcal{A}^\sim \cup \mathcal{B})^\sim = \{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{truth}[(\text{not } A(x)) \text{ or } B(x)] = 0\} = \emptyset$. Consequently, $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$.¹⁰¹ This means that the logic operator “ \implies ” is represented by “ \subseteq .”¹⁰³ For example, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, let $C(x)$ be a predicate, and define $\mathcal{C} \triangleq \{x \in \mathcal{X} : \text{truth}[C(x)] = 1\}$. Then, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\text{truth}[(A(x) \text{ and } B(x)) \implies C(x)] = 1$ if and only if $\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{C}$.¹⁰⁴ Likewise, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\text{truth}([A(x) \text{ and } (B(x) \text{ or } C(x))] \iff [(A(x) \text{ and } B(x)) \text{ or } (A(x) \text{ and } C(x))]) = 1 \quad (1.29)$$

if and only if

$$\mathcal{A} \cap (\mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{C}) = (\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) \cup (\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{C}). \quad (1.30)$$

Note that (1.30) represents a tautology.¹⁰⁵ⁱ

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1.3 Relations and Orderings