

3.4: Proofs Involving Conjunctions and Biconditionals

Exercise 1:

Proof: Suppose $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$. Let y be arbitrary. Since $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$,
 $P(y) \wedge Q(y)$. Thus, $P(y)$. Because y is arbitrary, $\forall x P(x)$.

By similar reasoning, $\forall x Q(x)$. Therefore, $\forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x)$.

\leftarrow Suppose $\forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x)$. Let y be arbitrary. Since $\forall x P(x)$, $P(y)$,
and similarly, since $\forall x Q(x)$, $Q(y)$. Because both $P(y)$ and $Q(y)$,
 $P(y) \wedge Q(y)$. Because y is arbitrary, $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$.

Therefore, $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ is equivalent to $\forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x)$. \square

Exercise 2:

Proof: Suppose that $A \subseteq B$ and $A \subseteq C$. Thus, $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ and
 $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in C)$. Consider any y such that $y \in A$. Since $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$,
 $y \in A \rightarrow y \in B$. Since $y \in A$, it follows that $y \in B$. By similar
reasoning, $y \in C$. Because $y \in B$ and $y \in C$, $y \in B \cap C$. Thus,
 $y \in A \rightarrow y \in B \cap C$. Since y is arbitrary, $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B \cap C)$.
Therefore, $A \subseteq B \cap C$. \square

Exercise 3:

Proof: Suppose $A \subseteq B$. That is, $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$. Consider an arbitrary set, C . Now, consider any y such that $y \in C \setminus B$. Thus, $y \in C \wedge y \notin B$, and it follows that $y \notin B$. Recall that $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$, and so $y \in A \rightarrow y \in B$. Because $y \notin B$, it follows that $y \notin A$. Since $y \in C$ and $y \notin A$, $y \in C \setminus A$. Thus, $y \in C \setminus B \rightarrow y \in C \setminus A$. Since y is arbitrary, $\forall x(x \in C \setminus B \rightarrow x \in C \setminus A)$. Therefore $C \setminus B \subseteq C \setminus A$. \square

Exercise 4:

Proof: Suppose $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq C$. That is, $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ and $\neg \forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in C)$. Through equivalences: $\exists x \neg(x \in A \rightarrow x \in C)$; $\exists x \neg(x \in A \vee x \in C)$; and $\exists x(x \in A \wedge x \notin C)$. Let x_0 be any x such that $x \in A \wedge x \notin C$. Since $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$, $x_0 \in A \rightarrow x_0 \in B$. Since $x_0 \in A$, it follows that $x_0 \in B$. Thus, $x_0 \in B$ and $x_0 \notin C$, or $x_0 \in B \wedge x_0 \notin C$. Accordingly, $\exists x(x \in B \wedge x \notin C)$. By equivalences: $\exists x \neg(x \in B \vee x \in C)$; $\exists x \neg(x \in B \rightarrow x \in C)$; and $\neg \forall x(x \in B \rightarrow x \in C)$. Therefore, $B \neq C$. \square

Exercise 5:

Proof: Suppose $A \subseteq B \setminus C$ and $A \neq \emptyset$. That is, $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B \setminus C)$; or $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B \wedge x \notin C)$. Also, since $A \neq \emptyset$, $\exists x(x \in A)$. Let x_0 be any x such that $x_0 \in A$. Since, $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B \wedge x \notin C)$, $x_0 \in A \rightarrow x_0 \in B \wedge x_0 \notin C$. Note that $x_0 \in A$, and so $x_0 \in B \wedge x_0 \notin C$. Thus, $\exists x(x \in B \wedge x \notin C)$. See Exercise 4 for equivalences resulting in $B \neq C$. \square

Exercise 6:

Proof: Let x be arbitrary. Then:

$$x \in A \setminus (B \cap C) \text{ iff } x \in A \wedge x \notin B \cap C$$

$$\text{iff } x \in A \wedge (x \notin B \vee x \notin C)$$

$$\text{iff } (x \in A \wedge x \notin B) \vee (x \in A \wedge x \notin C)$$

$$\text{iff } x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$$

$$\text{Thus, } \forall x(x \in A \setminus (B \cap C) \leftrightarrow x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)), \text{ so } A \setminus (B \cap C) = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$$

Exercise 7:

Proof: Consider any sets A and B . Let C be an arbitrary set.

(\rightarrow) Suppose $C \in P(A \cap B)$. Thus, $C \subseteq A \cap B$. That is, $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in A \cap B)$. Let y be any y such that $y \in C$. Since $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in A \cap B)$, $y \in C \rightarrow y \in A \cap B$. Since $y \in C$, $y \in A \cap B$. That is $y \in A$ and $y \in B$. It follows, then, that $y \in C \rightarrow y \in A$ and $y \in C \rightarrow y \in B$. Since y is arbitrary; $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in A)$ and $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in B)$. That is, $C \subseteq A$ and $C \subseteq B$. Accordingly, $C \in P(A)$ and $C \in P(B)$; or $C \in P(A) \cap P(B)$. Since C is arbitrary; $\forall x(x \in P(A \cap B) \rightarrow x \in P(A \cap B))$. Therefore: $P(A \cap B) \subseteq P(A) \cap P(B)$.

(\leftarrow) Suppose $C \in P(A) \cap P(B)$. Thus, $C \in P(A)$ and $C \in P(B)$; or $C \subseteq A$ and $C \subseteq B$; or $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in A)$ and $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in B)$.

Let y be any y such that $y \in C$. Since $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in A)$, $y \in C \rightarrow y \in A$. Similarly, $y \in C \rightarrow y \in B$. Since $y \in C$, $y \in A$ and $y \in B$. Thus, $y \in A \cap B$. Accordingly, $y \in C \rightarrow y \in A \cap B$. Since y is arbitrary, $\forall x(x \in C \rightarrow x \in A \cap B)$, or $C \subseteq A \cap B$. Thus, $C \in P(A \cap B)$. Since C is arbitrary:

$\forall x(x \in P(A) \cap P(B) \rightarrow x \in P(A \cap B))$. Therefore: $P(A) \cap P(B) \subseteq P(A \cap B)$.

Therefore, $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cap P(B)$ □

Exercise 8:

Proof: Consider any sets A and B .

(\rightarrow) Suppose $A \subseteq B$. Consider any x such that $x \in P(A)$. So, $x \subseteq A$.

Since $A \subseteq B$ and $x \subseteq A$, it follows that $x \subseteq B$. Thus, $x \in P(B)$.

Therefore, $P(A) \subseteq P(B)$.

(\leftarrow) Suppose $P(A) \subseteq P(B)$. Consider any x such that $x \in A$. Let y be some set

in $P(A)$ such that $x \in y$. Since $P(A) \subseteq P(B)$, $y \in P(B)$. Thus, $y \subseteq B$. Since $x \in y$, $x \in B$. Therefore, $A \subseteq B$.

Therefore $A \subseteq B$ iff $P(A) \subseteq P(B)$. □

Exercise 9:

Proof: Suppose that x and y are odd integers. Thus, there is some integer k such that $x = 2k+1$ and some integer j such that $y = 2j+1$. So, $xy = (2k+1)(2j+1) = 4kj + 2k + 2j + 1 = 2(2kj + k + j) + 1$. Let $i = 2kj + k + j$. Because k and j are both integers, i is also an integer. Thus, $xy = 2i + 1$, where i is an integer. Accordingly, xy is an odd integer. \square

Exercise 10:

Proof: Suppose that x and y are odd integers. Thus, there is some integer k such that $x = 2k+1$ and some integer j such that $y = 2j+1$. So, $x-y = (2k+1) - (2j+1) = 2k+1-2j-1 = 2k-2j = 2(k-j)$. Let $i = k-j$. Because k and j are both integers, i is also an integer. Thus, $x-y = 2i$, where i is an integer. Accordingly, $x-y$ is an even integer. \square

Exercise 11:

Proof: Let n be an arbitrary integer.

(\rightarrow) Suppose that n is odd. That is, there is some integer k such that $n = 2k+1$.

Note that $n^3 = (2k+1)(2k+1)(2k+1) = (4k^2+4k+1)(2k+1) = 8k^3+4k^2+8k^2+4k+2k+1 = 8k^3+12k^2+6k+1 = 2(4k^3+6k^2+3k)+1$.

Let $i = 4k^3+6k^2+3k$. Note that because k is an integer, i is also an integer. Thus, $n^3 = 2i+1$ where i is an integer. Accordingly, n^3 is odd.

(\leftarrow) Suppose that n is even. That is, there is some integer k such that $n = 2k$.

Note that $n^3 = (2k)(2k)(2k) = 8k^3 = 2(4k^3)$. Let $i = 4k^3$. Because k is an integer, i is also an integer. Thus, $n^3 = 2i$ where i is an integer.

Accordingly, n^3 is even.

Therefore, for every integer n , n^3 is even iff n is even. \square

Exercise 12:

(a) The proof assumes that the integer k in both $m=2k$ and $n=2k+1$ is the same integer — this is only true in a small set of cases.

(b) Counterexample: Let $n=4$ and $m=2$. $n^2-m^2=16-4=12$, but $n+m=4+2=6$. Thus, the "theorem" is not correct.

Exercise 13:

Proof: Let x be an arbitrary real number.

(\rightarrow) Suppose that $\exists y \in \mathbb{R} (x+y = xy)$. Thus, there is some $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x+y_0 = xy_0$. Now suppose, for contradiction, that $x=1$. Thus, $1+y_0=(1)y_0$; or $1+y_0=y_0$. Thus, $1=0$ — a contradiction! Therefore $x \neq 1$.

(\leftarrow) Suppose that $x \neq 1$. Let $y_0 = \frac{x}{x-1}$ (which is fine since $x \neq 1$).

$$\text{So: } x+y_0 = x + \frac{x}{x-1} = \frac{x(x-1)}{x-1} + \frac{x}{x-1} = \frac{x^2-x+x}{x-1} = \frac{x^2}{x-1} \\ = x \left(\frac{x}{x-1} \right) = xy_0. \text{ Thus, there is some } y_0 (y_0) \text{ such that } x+y_0 = xy_0.$$

Accordingly, $\exists y \in \mathbb{R} (x+y = xy)$.

Therefore: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} [\exists y \in \mathbb{R} (x+y = xy) \leftrightarrow x \neq 1]$. □

Exercise 14:

Proof: Let $z=1$ and consider arbitrary x such that $x > 0$.

(\rightarrow) Suppose that $\exists y \in \mathbb{R} (y-x = \frac{y}{x})$. Thus, there is some y_0 such that $y_0-x = \frac{y_0}{x}$. Suppose (for contradiction) that $x=z=1$. Thus, $y_0-1 = \frac{y_0}{1}$, or $y_0-y_0-1 = 0$, or $-1 = 0$. Therefore, $x \neq z$.

(\leftarrow) Suppose that $x \neq z$. (Let $y_0 = \frac{x^2}{x-1}$). Note that:

$$y_0-x = \frac{x^2}{x-1}-x = \frac{x^2-(x^2-x)}{x-1} = \frac{x}{x-1} = \frac{x^2}{x(x-1)} = \frac{x^2}{x-1} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = \frac{x^2}{x} = x$$

Thus, $\exists y \in \mathbb{R} (y-x = \frac{y}{x})$; namely, y_0 .

Therefore: $\exists z \in \mathbb{R} \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^+ [\exists y \in \mathbb{R} (y-x = \frac{y}{x}) \leftrightarrow x \neq z]$ □

Exercise 15:

Proof: Suppose B is a set and \mathcal{F} is a family of sets. Consider arbitrary x such that $x \in \cup\{A \setminus B \mid A \in \mathcal{F}\}$. Thus, there is a set A such that $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$. It follows that $A \subseteq B$. Accordingly, $A \notin \mathcal{P}(B)$. Thus, $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $A \notin \mathcal{P}(B)$. Since, x is an element of A , it follows that $x \in \cup(\mathcal{F} \setminus \mathcal{P}(B))$ because x is arbitrary, $\cup\{A \setminus B \mid A \in \mathcal{F}\} \subseteq \cup(\mathcal{F} \setminus \mathcal{P}(B))$. \square

Exercise 16:

Proof: Suppose \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are nonempty families of sets and every element of \mathcal{F} is disjoint from some element of \mathcal{G} . Suppose further that $\cup\mathcal{F}$ and $\cap\mathcal{G}$ are not disjoint. Thus, there is some x such that $x \in \cup\mathcal{F}$ and $x \in \cap\mathcal{G}$. Accordingly, there is some set $A \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $x \in A$. Also, x is in all sets in \mathcal{G} . Accordingly, A is not disjoint from any set in \mathcal{G} , as they both have x as an element. Thus, there is an element of \mathcal{F} that is not disjoint from an element of \mathcal{G} . Contradiction. Thus, $\cup\mathcal{F}$ and $\cap\mathcal{G}$ must be disjoint. \square

Exercise 17:

Proof: Let A be any set.

(\Rightarrow) Consider any x such that $x \in A$. There is some set B such that $B \subseteq A$ and $x \in B$. Since $B \subseteq A$, $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$. Accordingly, since $x \in B$, $x \in \cup\mathcal{P}(A)$.

(\Leftarrow) Consider any x such that $x \in \cup\mathcal{P}(A)$. Thus, there is some set B such that $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ and $x \in B$. Because $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$, $B \subseteq A$. Thus, since $x \in B$, $x \in A$.

Therefore, $A = \cup\mathcal{P}(A)$. \square

Exercise 18:

Suppose that \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are families of sets.

(a) Proof: Consider any x such that $x \in \cup(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$. Note that x is in a set, say B , such that $B \in \mathcal{F}$ and $B \in \mathcal{G}$. It follows, then, that $x \in \cup\mathcal{F}$ and $x \in \cup\mathcal{G}$. Accordingly, $x \in (\cup\mathcal{F}) \cap (\cup\mathcal{G})$. Therefore, $\cup(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}) \subseteq (\cup\mathcal{F}) \cap (\cup\mathcal{G})$. \square

(b) The author of the proof concludes that $\exists A \in \mathcal{F} (x \in A)$ and $\exists A \in \mathcal{G} (x \in A)$ from $x \in U\mathcal{F}$ and $x \in U\mathcal{G}$, the sets containing x in \mathcal{F} and containing x in \mathcal{G} may not be the same. Thus, it is faulty for the author to assume that they are the same.

(c) Counterexample: Let $\mathcal{F} = \{A, B\}$ and $\mathcal{G} = \{A, C\}$. Further, let $A = \{y\}$; $B = \{x\}$, and $C = \{x\}$. Note that $\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G} = \{A\}$ and so $U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}) = \{y\}$. But, $U\mathcal{F} = \{y, x\}$; $U\mathcal{G} = \{y, x\}$, and so; $(U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G}) = \{y, x\}$. Note that $U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}) \neq (U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G})$.

Exercise 19: If \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are families of sets, prove that $U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}) \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$

Proof: Suppose \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are families of sets.

(\rightarrow) Suppose $(U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G}) \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$. Consider arbitrary sets A and B such that $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $B \in \mathcal{G}$. Consider further any x such that $x \in A \cap B$. That is, $x \in A$ and $x \in B$. Further, because $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $B \in \mathcal{G}$, $x \in U\mathcal{F}$ and $x \in U\mathcal{G}$. Accordingly, $x \in (U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G})$. Note that $(U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G}) \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$ and so $x \in U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$. Thus, $A \cap B \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$. Since A and B are arbitrary, $\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \forall B \in \mathcal{G} (A \cap B \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}))$.

(\leftarrow) Suppose $\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \forall B \in \mathcal{G} (A \cap B \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}))$. Consider any x such that $x \in (U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G})$. Note that $x \in (U\mathcal{F})$ and $x \in (U\mathcal{G})$. Thus, there is some $A_0 \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $x \in A_0$ and some $B_0 \in \mathcal{G}$ such that $x \in B_0$. Because $\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \forall B \in \mathcal{G} (A \cap B \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}))$, $A_0 \cap B_0 \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$. Note that $x \in A_0 \cap B_0$ and so $x \in U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$. Because x is arbitrary, $(U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G}) \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$.

Therefore, $(U\mathcal{F}) \cap (U\mathcal{G}) \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G})$ iff $\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \forall B \in \mathcal{G} (A \cap B \subseteq U(\mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{G}))$.

Exercise 20:

Proof: Suppose \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are families of sets.

(\rightarrow) Suppose $U\mathcal{F}$ and $U\mathcal{G}$ are disjoint. Consider arbitrary sets $A \in \mathcal{F}$

and $B \in G$. Since UF and UG are disjoint, none of the sets in F have any elements in common with any set in G . Thus, A has no element in common with B , and so A and B are disjoint.

(\leftarrow) Suppose that for all $A \in F$ and $B \in G$, A and B are disjoint. Now, suppose (for contradiction) that UF and UG are not disjoint. Thus, there is some $x \in UF$ such that $x \in UG$. That is, there is a set A in F , say A , that shares an element, x , with some set in G , say B . Thus, there is an $A \in F$ and a $B \in G$ such that A and B are not disjoint. But, for all $A \in F$ and $B \in G$, A and B are disjoint. Contradiction. Thus, UF and UG are disjoint.

Therefore, UF and UG are disjoint iff for all $A \in F$ and $B \in G$, A and B are disjoint. \square

Exercise 21: Suppose F and G are families of sets.

① Proof: Consider any x such that $x \in (UF) \setminus (UG)$. Thus, $x \in UF$ and $x \notin UG$. That is, there is some set $A \in F$ such that $x \in A$, and for all $B \in G$ it is not the case that $x \in B$. Accordingly, $x \in A$ and $x \in B$ for at least one $A \in F$ and for all $B \in G$. Thus, x is in one of the sets of $F \setminus G$. Therefore, $x \in U(F \setminus G)$. Because x was arbitrary: $(UF) \setminus (UG) \subseteq U(F \setminus G)$.

② The conclusion that $x \in UG$ from premises $x \in A$ and $A \in G$ is not valid. Just because $A \in G$ does not mean there could not be another set $B \in G$ such that $x \in B$. If this were the case, $x \in UG$ even though $A \notin G$. \square

③ Proof: Suppose $U(F \setminus G) \subseteq (UF) \setminus (UG)$.

(\rightarrow) Suppose $U(F \setminus G) \subseteq (UF) \setminus (UG)$. Consider arbitrary A such that $A \in (F \setminus G)$ and arbitrary B such that $B \in G$. Note that $A \in F$ and $A \notin G$. Now suppose, for contradiction, that $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$. That is, $\exists x \in A \cap B$, say x_0 . Note that $x_0 \in A$ and $x_0 \in B$. And since $A \in F$, $A \notin G$, and $x_0 \in A$, $\exists A' \in F \setminus G$ ($x_0 \in A'$). That is, $x_0 \in U(F \setminus G)$. Since $U(F \setminus G) \subseteq (UF) \setminus (UG)$, $x_0 \in (UF) \setminus (UG)$; or $x_0 \in UF$ and $x_0 \notin UG$. But since $x_0 \in B$, and

$B \in G$, $x \notin UG$. Contradiction. Thus, $A \cap B = \emptyset$. Since A and B were arbitrary, $\forall A \in (\mathcal{F} \setminus G) \forall B \in G (A \cap B = \emptyset)$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $\forall A \in (\mathcal{F} \setminus G) \forall B \in G (A \cap B \neq \emptyset)$. Consider arbitrary x such that $x \in U(\mathcal{F} \setminus G)$. So, $\exists S \in \mathcal{F} \setminus G (x \in S)$, say S_0 . That is; $S_0 \in \mathcal{F}$, $S_0 \notin G$, and $x \in S_0$. Consider arbitrary set T such that $T \in G$. Since $S_0 \in \mathcal{F} \setminus G$ and $T \in G$, it follows that $S_0 \cap T \neq \emptyset$. Since $x \in S_0$, $x \in T$. Since T is an arbitrary set in G , x is in no set in G , and so $x \notin UG$. But since $x \in S_0$ and $S_0 \in \mathcal{F}$, $x \in UF$. Thus, $x \in (UF) \setminus (UG)$. Since x is arbitrary, $U(\mathcal{F} \setminus G) \subseteq (UF) \setminus (UG)$.

Therefore: $U(\mathcal{F} \setminus G) = (UF) \setminus (UG)$, iff $\forall A \in (\mathcal{F} \setminus G) \forall B \in G (A \cap B = \emptyset)$. \square

④ Counterexample: Consider the following sets: $\mathcal{F} = \{A\}$; $G = \{B\}$; $A = \{x\}$; and $B = \{x\}$. Note the following: $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $A \notin G$, and $x \in A$; so $A \in \mathcal{F} \setminus G$ and $x \in A$; so $\exists S \in \mathcal{F} \setminus G (x \in S)$; and so $x \in U(\mathcal{F} \setminus G)$. Also note that: $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in A$; so, $\exists S \in \mathcal{F} (x \in S)$; so $x \in UF$; and $B \in G$ and $x \in B$; so $\exists S \in G (x \in S)$; so $x \in UG$; and since $x \in (UF) \cap (UG)$, $x \in (UF) \setminus (UG)$. Therefore: $U(\mathcal{F} \setminus G) \neq (UF) \setminus (UG)$. \square

Exercise 2a:

Proof: Suppose \mathcal{F} and G are families of sets. Further suppose there is no $A \in \mathcal{F}$ such that for all $B \in G$, $A \not\subseteq B$. That is, $\neg \exists A \in \mathcal{F} (\forall B \in G (A \not\subseteq B))$. By equivalence: $\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \neg (\forall B \in G (A \not\subseteq B))$; $\forall A \in \mathcal{F} (\exists B \in G (A \subseteq B))$. Consider arbitrary x such that $x \in UF$. Thus, $\exists S \in \mathcal{F} (x \in S)$, say A_0 . Thus, $A_0 \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in A_0$. Since $A_0 \in \mathcal{F}$, $\exists B \in G (A_0 \subseteq B)$, say B_0 . Thus, $B_0 \in G$ and $A_0 \subseteq B_0$. Since $x \in A_0$ and $A_0 \subseteq B_0$, $x \in B_0$. Thus, $\exists T \in G (x \in T)$, and so $x \in UG$. Since x was arbitrary, $UF \subseteq UG$. By contraposition: if $UF \neq UG$, then there is some $A \in \mathcal{F}$ such that for all $B \in G$, $A \not\subseteq B$. \square

Exercise 23:

① Rules used: rule for proving $\forall x P(x)$; rule for proving $P \wedge Q$; rule for proving $\neg P \vee Q$; rule for proving $\exists x P(x)$; rule for using a given $\exists x P(x)$; rule for proving $P \leftrightarrow Q$.

② Proof: Suppose B is a set, $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ is an indexed family of sets, and $I \neq \emptyset$. Consider any x such that $x \in B \setminus (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)$. The following equivalences apply:

$$x \in B \wedge \neg \exists i \in I (x \in A_i)$$

$$x \in B \wedge \forall i \in I (x \notin A_i)$$

$$\forall i \in I (x \in B \wedge x \notin A_i)$$

$$\forall i \in I (x \in B \setminus A_i)$$

$$x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} (B \setminus A_i)$$

Since x is arbitrary, $B \setminus (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} (B \setminus A_i)$. \square

③ Proof: Suppose B is a set, $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ is an indexed family of sets, and $I \neq \emptyset$.

Consider any x such that $x \in B \setminus (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)$. The following equivalences apply:

$$x \in B \wedge \neg \forall i \in I (x \in A_i)$$

$$x \in B \wedge \exists i \in I \neg (x \in A_i)$$

$$\exists i \in I (x \in B \wedge x \notin A_i)$$

$$\exists i \in I (x \in B \setminus A_i)$$

$$x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} (B \setminus A_i)$$

Since x is arbitrary, $B \setminus (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) = \bigcup_{i \in I} (B \setminus A_i)$. \square

Exercise 24:

① Proof: Suppose $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ and $\{B_i | i \in I\}$ are indexed families of sets and $I \neq \emptyset$. Consider any x such that $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \setminus B_i)$. So, $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i \wedge x \notin B_i)$, say i_0 . Thus, $x \in A_{i_0}$ and $x \notin B_{i_0}$. Accordingly, $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i)$. Also, $\neg \forall i \in I (x \in B_i)$, or $\exists i \in I (x \notin B_i)$. Thus, $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \setminus (\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i)$. Therefore: $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \setminus (\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i)$. Because x is arbitrary, $\bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \setminus B_i) \subseteq (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \setminus (\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i)$. \square

(b) Counterexample: Consider the following sets: $A_1 = \{x\}$; $A_2 = \{y\}$; $B_1 = \{x\}$; and $B_2 = \{z\}$. Note the following: $x \in A_1$ and $x \in B_1$; and $x \notin A_2$ and $x \in B_2$; so $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i \wedge x \in B_i)$; so $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i \wedge B_i)$; and so $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \setminus B_i)$. Also note that: $x \in A_1$ and $x \notin B_2$; so $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i)$ and $\forall i \in I (x \in B_i)$; so $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i)$ and $x \notin (\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i)$; and so $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \setminus (\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i)$. Therefore: $\bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \setminus B_i) \neq (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \setminus (\bigcap_{i \in I} B_i)$. \square

Exercise 25:

(a) Proof: Suppose $\{A_i | i \in I\}$ and $\{B_i | i \in I\}$ are indexed families of sets. Consider any x such that $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \cap B_i)$. That is, $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i \cap B_i)$. Thus, there is an i , say i_0 , such that $x \in A_{i_0} \cap B_{i_0}$; or $x \in A_{i_0}$ and $x \in B_{i_0}$. Since $x \in A_{i_0}$, $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i)$, and since $x \in B_{i_0}$, $\exists i \in I (x \in B_i)$. That is, $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \cap (\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i)$. Since x is arbitrary, $\bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \cap B_i) \subseteq (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \cap (\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i)$.

(b) Counterexample: Consider the following sets: $A_1 = \{x\}$; $A_2 = \{y\}$; $B_1 = \{z\}$; $B_2 = \{x\}$. Note the following: $x \in A_1$ and $x \notin B_1$; and $x \in B_1$ and $x \in B_2$; and so $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i \wedge x \in B_i)$; and so $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i \cap B_i)$; and so $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \cap B_i)$. Also note that: $x \in A_1$ and $x \in B_2$; so $\exists i \in I (x \in A_i)$ and $\exists i \in I (x \in B_i)$; and so $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ and $x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} B_i$; and so $x \in (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \cap (\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i)$. Therefore $\bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \cap B_i) \neq (\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \cap (\bigcup_{i \in I} B_i)$. \square

Exercise 26:

Proof: Consider any integers a and b , and let $c = ab$. Note that c is an integer since a and b are integers. Since $ba = c$, $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z} (ma = c)$, or $a|c$. Similarly, since $ab = c$, $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z} (nb = c)$, or $b|c$. Thus, $a|c \wedge b|c$, and accordingly, $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z} (a|c \wedge b|c)$. Since a and b are arbitrary integers, we can conclude that for all integers a and b , there is an integer c such that $a|c$ and $b|c$. \square

Exercise 27: Prove or disprove that if $15 \mid n$, then $3 \mid n$ and $5 \mid n$.

(a) Proof: Consider arbitrary integer n .

(\Rightarrow) Suppose that $15 \mid n$. Thus, there is some integer a such that $15a = n$. Note that: $3(5a) = n$ and $5(3a) = n$. Also note that $5a$ and $3a$ are integers because 5 , 3 , and a are all integers. Accordingly, $3 \mid n$ and $5 \mid n$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $3 \mid n$ and $5 \mid n$. Thus there is some integer a such that $3a = n$ and some integer b such that $5b = n$. Then, $3a = 5b$, or $\frac{3a}{5} = b$. Note that since b is an integer, $5 \mid a$, since $3 \nmid 5$. Thus, there is an integer c such that $5c = a$. Since $3a = n$, it follows that $3(5c) = n$, or $15c = n$.

Since c is an integer, $15 \mid n$.

Thus, for every integer n , $15 \mid n$ iff. $3 \mid n$ and $5 \mid n$. \square

(b) Counterexample: Let $n = 30$. Note that since $5 \times 6 = n$, $6 \mid n$; and since $3 \times 10 = n$, $10 \mid n$. However, there is no integer m such that $60m = n$ (as m would need to be $\frac{1}{2}$). Thus, $60 \nmid n$. Therefore, it is not the case that for every integer n , $60 \mid n$ iff $6 \mid n$ and $3 \mid n$. \square

(Case 2. Suppose $x \in B$. Thus, $x \in B \setminus C$ and so $x \in A \cup (B \setminus C)$)

Since these cases are exhaustive, $x \in A \cup (B \setminus C)$. Since x is an arbitrary element of $(A \cup B) \setminus C$, $(A \cup B) \setminus C \subseteq A \cup (B \setminus C)$. \square

Exercise 3:

Proof: Suppose A and B are sets.

(\rightarrow) Consider any x such that $x \in A \setminus (A \setminus B)$. Thus, $x \in A$ and $x \notin A \setminus B$.

And so, $x \in A$ or $x \in B$. But $x \in A$, so $x \notin B$. Thus, $x \in A \cap B$. Since x is an arbitrary element of $A \setminus (A \setminus B)$, $A \setminus (A \setminus B) \subseteq A \cap B$.

(\leftarrow) Consider any x such that $x \in A \cap B$. Thus, $x \in A$ and $x \in B$. Since $x \in B$, $x \in A$ or $x \in B$. That is, $x \in (A \cap B)$. Thus, $x \in A \setminus (A \setminus B)$. Since x is an arbitrary element of $A \cap B$, $A \cap B \subseteq A \setminus (A \setminus B)$.

Therefore: $A \setminus (A \setminus B) = A \cap B$. \square

Exercise 4:

Proof: Suppose A , B , and C are sets.

(\rightarrow) Consider any x such that $x \in A \setminus (B \setminus C)$. Thus, $x \in A$ and $x \notin B \setminus C$; so from $x \notin B$ or $x \in C$. Two cases:

Case 1. $x \notin B$. So, $x \in A \setminus B$, and so $x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Case 2. $x \in C$. So, $x \in A \cap C$, and so $x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Since these cases are exhaustive, $x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C)$. Since x is an arbitrary element of $A \setminus (B \setminus C)$, $A \setminus (B \setminus C) \subseteq (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

(\leftarrow) Consider any x such that $x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C)$. Two cases:

Case 1. $x \in A \setminus B$. Thus, $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$. It follows that $x \notin B$ or $x \in C$. That is, $x \in B \setminus C$. So, $x \in A \setminus (B \setminus C)$.

Case 2. $x \in A \cap C$. Thus, $x \in A$ and $x \in C$. It follows that $x \notin B$ or $x \in C$. That is, $x \in B \setminus C$. So, $x \in A \setminus (B \setminus C)$.

Since these cases are exhaustive, $x \in A \setminus (B \setminus C)$. Since x is an arbitrary element of $(A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C)$, $(A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C) \subseteq A \setminus (B \setminus C)$.

Therefore: $A \setminus (B \setminus C) = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap C)$. \square