

Mathematical Thinking I

Course Notes

Fall 2023

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1 Some Essential Mathematical Vocabulary

1.1 Sets and Functions

A **set** is a collection of objects called the **elements** or **members** of the set. Given an object x and a set A , exactly one of two things is true: either x is an element of A , denoted $x \in A$, or x is not an element of A , denoted $x \notin A$.

To denote a set that contains a small number of elements, we list the elements, separated by commas, and enclosed in curly brackets. For example, the set $A = \{x, y, z\}$ contains elements x, y, z , and contains no other objects. In this notation, the order in which the objects are listed does not matter. Redundancy also does not matter: the same object may be listed more than once. For example, we may write the following.

$$A = \{x, y, z\} = \{y, z, x\} = \{y, x, y, z\}$$

Another way to denote a set is the notation $\{x: x \text{ satisfies condition } C\}$, where the colon “:” is pronounced “such that”. For example, the *closed unit interval* of the real line is the set $\{x: 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$.

The set that contains no elements is called the **empty set**, denoted \emptyset .

We write $A \subseteq B$ to indicate that every element in the set A is also in the set B , and we write $A \not\subseteq B$ to indicate that there is at least one element in A that is not an element in B .

The **intersection** of sets A, B , denoted $A \cap B$, is the set

$$A \cap B = \{x: x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$$

The **union** of sets A, B , denoted $A \cup B$, is the set

$$A \cup B = \{x: x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

where the word “or” means “one or the other or both”.

The set

$$A \setminus B = \{x: x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$

(also sometimes denoted $A - B$) is called the **difference of set A minus set B** , or just “ A minus B ” for short.

Given objects x, y , an ordered list of the form (x, y) is called an **ordered pair**. To say that the pair is ordered means that the pairs (x, y) and (y, x) are different if $x \neq y$. The object x is called the **first entry** (or the **left entry**) of the ordered pair (x, y) , and the object y is called the **second entry** (or the **right entry**). The set of all ordered pairs of the form (a, b) , where a is an element of set A and b is an element of set B , is called the **(Cartesian) product** of the set A with the set B , denoted $A \times B$.

$$A \times B = \{(a, b): a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

A **function f from a set S to a set T** , denoted $f: S \rightarrow T$, is a subset of $S \times T$ with the property that every element s in S is the left entry of exactly one element in f . We write $f(s) = t$ or $s \xrightarrow{f} t$ to indicate that (s, t) is the element

of f whose left entry is s . The set S is called the **domain** of f and the set T is called the **codomain** of f . Two functions are **equal** if they have the same domain, the same codomain, and contain the same elements.

Given an element $s_0 \in S$, we refer to $f(s_0)$ as the **image of s_0 under f** . Given an element $t_0 \in T$, we call the set $\{s \in S: f(s) = t_0\}$ the **preimage of t_0 under f** .

The function $f: S \rightarrow T$ is called **one-to-one** or **injective** if, for every $t \in T$, the preimage of t under f has at most 1 element. A function $f: S \rightarrow T$ is called **onto** or **surjective** if, for every $t \in T$, the preimage of t has at least one element. A function is called **bijective**, or a **one-to-one correspondence**, if it is both injective and surjective.

Given functions $f: S \rightarrow T$ and $g: T \rightarrow U$, the function $g \circ f: S \rightarrow U$, called the **composition** of g with f , is defined by $(g \circ f)(s) = g(f(s))$ for all $s \in S$.

Given a set S , the function $f: S \rightarrow S$ defined by $f(s) = s$ for every $s \in S$ is called the **identity function on S** . The identity function on S is sometimes denoted I_S , Id_S , or $\mathbb{1}_S$, and the subscript S may be omitted when the context is clear.

Given a function $f: S \rightarrow T$, if there is a function $g: T \rightarrow S$ such that $g \circ f = \mathbb{1}_S$ and $f \circ g = \mathbb{1}_T$, then f is said to be **invertible**. The function g is called the **inverse** of f , and we write $g = f^{-1}$.

More on images and preimages. Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be a function. Given a set $U \subseteq S$, the **image of U under f** , denoted $f(U)$, is the set

$$f(U) = \{f(u): u \in U\}.$$

Given a set $V \subseteq T$, the **preimage of V under f** , denoted $f^{-1}(V)$, is the set

$$f^{-1}(V) = \{u: f(u) \in V\}.$$

When $V = \{t_0\}$ is a set with only one element, we write $f^{-1}(t_0)$ for the preimage set $f^{-1}(\{t_0\})$.

CAUTION about terminology. The collection of symbols “ f^{-1} ” is used in several different ways (this is called *overloading* of terminology).

- “ f^{-1} ” denotes the inverse of the invertible function f . Depending on f , the inverse function may or may not exist.
- “ $f^{-1}(V)$ ” denotes the inverse image of a subset V of the codomain T . This set is *always* defined for any $f: S \rightarrow T$ and for any $V \subseteq T$.
- “ $f^{-1}(t_0)$ ” can mean *two* different things:
 - the image of t_0 under the function $f^{-1}: T \rightarrow S$, defined when f is invertible, but not defined otherwise, or
 - the preimage set $f^{-1}(t_0) = \{s \in S: f(s) = t_0\}$, defined for every $f: S \rightarrow T$ and every t_0 in T

The size of a set. Intuitively, the size of a set S is the number of distinct elements of S . Intuitively, we “count” the elements in a set S by putting them in an ordered list.

$$(s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots)$$

This intuitive notion suffers from the fact that there is not a unique way to count. For example, there are six different ways to count the 3-element set $\{a, b, c\}$. Here are the 6 possible orderings.

$$(a, b, c), (a, c, b), (b, a, c), (b, c, a), (c, a, b), (c, b, a)$$

Here is a more formal way to define the size of a set: a set S is called **finite** if S is empty or if there exists a one-to-one correspondence

$$f: \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\} \rightarrow S$$

for some positive whole number n . A set that is not finite is called **infinite**. A one-to-one correspondence $f: \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \rightarrow S$ is a counting of S in the sense that each element of S appears exactly once in the ordered list

$$(f(1), f(2), \dots, f(n))$$

A consequence of Exercise 17 is that all possible countings of a set S must produce ordered lists of the same length. It is this length that we call the size of the finite set S . For a finite set S that contains exactly n distinct elements, we write $|S| = n$. The symbols ' $|S|$ ' are pronounced "the size of S ".

Exercises for 1.1

1. Which of these are correct (one, both, or neither)? Discuss.

$$b \subseteq \{a, b, c\}, \quad b \in \{a, b, c\}$$

2. Which of these are correct (one, both, or neither)? Discuss.

$$\emptyset \subseteq \{a, b, c\}, \quad \emptyset \in \{a, b, c\}$$

3. Are any of the following things the same? Discuss.

$$\{0\}, \quad \{\emptyset\}, \quad \emptyset, \quad \{\}$$

4. Write out all of the subsets of $\{x, y, z\}$.
5. Write out all of the functions from $\{x, y, z\}$ to $\{A, B\}$. Which are injective? Which are surjective? Which are bijective?
6. Write out all of the functions from $\{A, B\}$ to $\{x, y, z\}$. Which are injective? Which are surjective? Which are bijective? For each of your functions $f: \{A, B\} \rightarrow \{x, y, z\}$, write out $f^{-1}(x)$ and $f^{-1}(\{x, y\})$.
7. Write out all of the functions from $\{x, y, z\}$ to $\{x, y, z\}$. Which are injective? Which are surjective? Which are bijective?
8. Consider the functions $f, g: \{x, y, z\} \rightarrow \{a, b, c\}$ given by $f(x) = b$, $f(y) = a$, $f(z) = c$ and $g(x) = a$, $g(y) = a$, and $g(z) = c$. One of the two things below has two possible meanings, and one has only one possible meaning. Which is which? And what are those meanings? Discuss.

$$f^{-1}(a), \quad g^{-1}(a)$$

9. Show, by examples, that the number of elements in the preimage of a point can be 0, 1, 2, any positive integer n , or infinite.
10. Suppose that a function f is bijective. Show that f is invertible.
11. Suppose that a function f is invertible. Show that f is bijective.
12. Suppose the function f is invertible and that $g = f^{-1}$. Show that $f = g^{-1}$.
13. Suppose that f and g are both invertible, and that the composition $g \circ f$ is defined. Show that $g \circ f$ is invertible and that $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$. This fact is referred to as the “shoes and socks” property.
14. Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be a function. Prove the following.
- If $f^{-1}(t_0) \cap f^{-1}(t_1) \neq \emptyset$, then $f^{-1}(t_0) = f^{-1}(t_1)$.
 - For any s in S , there is a t in T such that $s \in f^{-1}(t)$.
 - Conclude that every element of S is an element of exactly one preimage set under f .
15. Suppose that S is finite and that $f: S \rightarrow S$ is one-to-one. Show that f is onto.

16. Show the previous statement fails if S is not assumed to be finite.
17. Let m, n be positive whole numbers, and suppose that

$$f: \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3, \dots, m\}$$

is a one-to-one correspondence. Show that $m = n$. Hint: use Exercise 14.

1.2 Integers, divisibility, primes

The set

$$\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

of all the whole numbers is called the **integers**. We say that an integer a **divides** an integer b , written $a|b$, if $b = ak$ for some integer k . If $a|b$, we say that b is **divisible** by a , and we say a is a **divisor** of b . We write $a \nmid b$ to indicate that a does not divide b . Given a positive integer m , we say integers a, b are **equivalent modulo m** , written $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, if $m|(a-b)$. An integer $p > 1$ whose only positive divisors are 1 and p is called **prime**. Here are two important facts about divisibility and primes.

(1.2.1) **The Division Algorithm.** *Let m be a positive integer. For each integer n there are unique integers q, r that satisfy*

$$n = mq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < m.$$

*The number q is called the **quotient** and the number r is called the **remainder** for **dividing n by m** .*

(1.2.2) **The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic.** *Every positive integer n can be written as a product of primes. Further, this prime factorization is unique. That means that if $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_\ell$ for primes p_i, q_j , then $k = \ell$ and there is a rearrangement of the subscripts for which $p_i = q_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$.*

Modular Arithmetic

We write \mathbf{Z}_m to denote the set

$$\mathbf{Z}_m = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$$

of possible remainders obtained when dividing by a positive integer by m . The function $\mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_m$ that sends an input n to its remainder when dividing by m is called “reducing mod m ”. Sometimes we write $n \text{ MOD } m$ or $n \% m$, pronounced “ n modulo m ” or simply “ n mod m ”, to denote this remainder.

We define operations $a +_m b$ and $a \cdot_m b$ for elements a, b in \mathbf{Z}_m by

$$\begin{aligned} a +_m b &= (a + b) \text{ MOD } m \\ a \cdot_m b &= (ab) \text{ MOD } m \end{aligned}$$

The operations $+_m, \cdot_m$ are called **addition modulo m** and **multiplication modulo m** , respectively. The set \mathbf{Z}_m is sometimes called the “ m -hour clock” and the operations $+_m, \cdot_m$ are called “clock arithmetic” or “arithmetic modulo m ”.

Exercises for 1.2

1. Let p be prime and suppose that $p|(ab)$ for some integers a, b . Show that it must be the case that $p|a$ or $p|b$ (or both).
2. Explain why there are infinitely many primes. Hint: Suppose there are only finitely many primes, say p_1, \dots, p_n . Consider $s = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$. Explain why s is not divisible by any of the primes, and why this is a contradiction.
3. Let $m > 1$ be a positive integer.
 - (a) Show that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a \text{ MOD } m = b \text{ MOD } m$. This means that the following two statements hold.
 - (i) If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $a \text{ MOD } m = b \text{ MOD } m$.
 - (ii) If $a \text{ MOD } m = b \text{ MOD } m$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.
 - (b) Show that $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$ for every integer a . (This is called the *reflexive* property of equivalence modulo m .)
 - (c) Show that if $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ then $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$. (This is called the *symmetric* property of equivalence modulo m .)
 - (d) Show that if $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$. (This is called the *transitive* property of equivalence modulo m .)
 - (e) Show that if $a_1 \equiv b_1 \pmod{m}$ and $a_2 \equiv b_2 \pmod{m}$, then
 - i. $a_1 + a_2 \equiv b_1 + b_2 \pmod{m}$, and
 - ii. $a_1 a_2 \equiv b_1 b_2 \pmod{m}$.
 - (f) Let m be a prime. Let a be a nonzero element of \mathbf{Z}_m and let b be any element of \mathbf{Z}_m . Show that there exists some x in \mathbf{Z}_m such that $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$. Hint: consider the function $\mu_a: \mathbf{Z}_m \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_m$ given by $n \rightarrow an \text{ MOD } m$. Show that μ_a is one-to-one and onto.
 - (g) Suppose that m is not prime. Show that there exist nonzero elements a, b in \mathbf{Z}_m for which there exists *no* x in \mathbf{Z}_m such that $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

1.3 Linear and Exponential Growth

The two most basic growth patterns are the following.

$$a, a + d, a + 2d, a + 3d, \dots, a + nd, \dots$$

$$a, ar, ar^2, ar^3, \dots, ar^n, \dots$$

In both patterns, the constant a is called the **initial term**. The first pattern is called an **arithmetic sequence**¹ with **common difference** d . An arithmetic sequence is said to have **linear** growth because it is the sequence of values

$$L(0), L(1), L(2), \dots$$

of the linear function $L(t) = a + dt$. The second pattern is called a **geometric sequence** with **common ratio** r (where $r > 0$ and $r \neq 1$). A geometric sequence is said to have **exponential** growth because it is the sequence of values

$$E(0), E(1), E(2), \dots$$

of the exponential function $E(t) = ar^t$.

Finite arithmetic and geometric sums. Exercises at the end of this subsection outline the proofs of the following formulas.

$$(1.3.1) \quad a + (a + d) + (a + 2d) + \dots + (a + nd) = \frac{(n + 1)(2a + nd)}{2}$$

$$(1.3.2) \quad a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n = a \left(\frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \right)$$

Infinite geometric sums. An infinite sum of the form

$$a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots$$

is called an **infinite geometric series**, and is defined to mean the limit (if the limit exists) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$, where s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots is sequence of finite sums

$$s_0 = a$$

$$s_1 = a + ar$$

$$s_2 = a + ar + ar^2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_n = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n$$

$$\vdots$$

If $|r| < 1$, then $|r|^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Using properties of limits from calculus, we have

$$a \left(\frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \right) \rightarrow a \left(\frac{1}{1 - r} \right)$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Putting this together with (1.3.2) above is the justification for the following formula.

$$(1.3.3) \quad a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots = a \left(\frac{1}{1 - r} \right) \quad \text{for } |r| < 1$$

¹The emphasis is on the third syllable “met” when the word “arithmetic” is used as an adjective rather than a noun. For example: “Addition is an operation of a · rith’ · metic. Repeated addition creates an arith · met’ · ic sequence.”

Exercises for 1.3

1. Fill in the missing terms of the following arithmetic and geometric sequences. Identify the initial term and the common difference or common ratio for each.
 - (a) $5, 2, -1, _, _, _, \dots$
 - (b) $5, 2, 0.8, _, _, _, \dots$
 - (c) $_, 2, _, 5, _, 8, \dots$
 - (d) $_, 2, _, 4, _, 8, \dots$
2. Find the sum of the first 100 positive integers.
3. Find the given sums of terms of arithmetic and geometric sequences.
 - (a) $2 + 5 + 8 + 11 + \dots + 302$
 - (b) $2 + 5 + 8 + 11 + \dots + 1571$
 - (c) $2 + 6 + 18 + 54 + \dots + 2(3^{100})$
 - (d) $2 + 6 + 18 + 54 + \dots + 9565938$
4. Prove (1.3.1). Hint: Write the sum in reverse order $L(n) + L(n-1) + \dots + L(1) + L(0)$ directly beneath $L(0) + L(1) + \dots + L(n)$, in such a way that the terms are aligned vertically. Notice that each vertically aligned pair has the form $L(k)$ and $L(n-k)$, and that $L(k) + L(n-k) = 2a + nd$ (the k 's cancel!). Now go from there.
5. Prove (1.3.2). Hint: Let s be the desired sum $a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n$. Examine the expansion of $s - rs$ (many terms cancel!). Simplify and solve for s .