## 3.5.1

Suppose $A$, $B$, and $C$ are sets.

**Theorem.** $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup C$

*Proof.* Let $x$ be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Thus $x \in A$ and $x \in B$ or $x \in C$. If $x \in C$ then $x \in (A \cap B) \cup C$. In the case where $x \in B$ it follows that $x \in A \cap B$ and therefore $x \in (A \cap B) \cup C$. Since $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude that $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup C$. $\square$

## 3.5.2

Suppose $A$, $B$, and $C$ are sets.

**Theorem.** $(A \cup B) \setminus C \subseteq A \cup (B \setminus C)$

*Proof.* Let $x$ be arbitrary and suppose $x \in (A \cup B) \setminus C$. Thus $x \notin C$ and $x \in A$ or $x \in B$. If $x \in A$ then $x \in A \cup (B \setminus C)$. If $x \in B$ then if follows that $x \in B \setminus C$ and therefore $x \in A \cup (B \setminus C)$. Since $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude $A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup C$. $\square$

## 3.5.3

Suppose $A$ and $B$ are sets.

**Theorem.** $A \setminus (A \setminus B) = A \cap B$

*Proof.* Let $x$ be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A \setminus (A \setminus B)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
x \in A \setminus (A \setminus B) &\text{ iff } x \in A \land x \notin A \setminus B \\
&\text{ iff } x \in A \land \neg(x \in A \land x \notin B) \\
&\text{ iff } x \in A \land (x \notin A \lor x \in B) \\
&\text{ iff } (x \in A \land x \notin A) \lor (x \in A \land x \in B) \\
&\text{ iff } x \in A \land x \in B \\
&\text{ iff } x \in (A \cap B)
\end{aligned}$$

$\square$

## 3.5.4

**Theorem.** *If* $A \cap C \subseteq B \cap C$ *and* $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$ *then* $A \subseteq B$.

*Proof.* Suppose $A \cap C \subseteq B \cap C$ and $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$. Let $x$ be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A$. Thus $x \in A \cup C$ and it follows that $x \in B \cup C$. Now if $x \in B \cup C$ then either $x \in B$ or $x \in C$. If $x \in B$ then since $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude $A \subseteq B$. In the case that $x \in C$, then $x \in A \cap C$ and it follows that $x \in B \cap C$. Therefore $x \in C$ and $x \in B$. Thus, if $x \in A$ then $x \in B$ and since $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude $A \subseteq B$. $\square$

## 3.5.5

Suppose $A$ and $B$ are sets.

**Theorem.** *If $A \triangle B \subseteq A$ then $B \subseteq A$.*

*Proof.* Suppose $A \triangle B \subseteq A$. We will prove by contradiction. Let $x$ be arbitrary and suppose $x \in B$ and $x \notin A$. Since $x \in B$ and $x \notin A$ then $x \in A \triangle B$. Since $A \triangle B \subseteq A$, then $x \in A$. But this contradicts $x \notin A$. Therefore, if $x \in B$ then $x \in A$ and since $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude that $B \subseteq A$. □

## 3.5.6

Suppose $A$, $B$, and $C$ are sets.

**Theorem.** $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C \iff A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$.

*Proof.* ($\rightarrow$) Suppose $A$, $B$, and $C$ are sets. Suppose $(A \cup C) \subseteq (B \cup C)$. Let $x$ be arbitrary and suppose $c \in A \setminus C$, which means $x \in A$ and $x \notin C$. Since $x \in A$, then $x \in A \cup C$ and therefore $x \in B \cup C$. This means $x \in B$ or $x \in C$ and since $x \notin C$, it must be that $x \in B$. Now since $x \in B$ and $x \notin C$ then $x \in B \setminus C$. Therefore, if $x \in A \setminus C$ then $x \in B \setminus C$ and since $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude if $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$ then $A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$.

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$. Let $x$ be arbitrary and suppose $x \in A \cup C$, which means $x \in A$ or $x \in C$. If $x \in C$ then $x \in B \cup C$ and since $x$ was arbitrary then $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$. In the case that $x \in A$, since $A \setminus C \subseteq B \setminus C$ then $x \in B$. Therefore, $x \in B \cup C$ and since $x$ was arbitrary then $A \cup C \subseteq B \cup C$. □

## 3.5.7

**Theorem.** *For any sets $A$ and $B$, $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) \subseteq \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$*

*Proof.* Let $A$ and $B$ be arbitrary sets. Let $M$ be arbitrary and suppose $M \in \mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B)$. Thus $M \in \mathscr{P}(A)$ or $M \in \mathscr{P}(B)$, which means $M \subseteq A$ or $M \subseteq B$. In the case where $M \subseteq A$, let $x$ be an arbitrary member of $M$ and it follows that $x \in A$. Since $x \in A$ then $x \in A \cup B$ and because $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude $M \subseteq A \cup B$ and therefore $M \in \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$. In the case where $M \subseteq B$, let $x$ be an arbitrary member of $M$ and it follows that $x \in B$. Since $x \in B$ then $x \in A \cup B$ and because $x$ was arbitrary we can conclude $M \subseteq A \cup B$ and therefore $M \in \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$. □

## 3.5.8

**Theorem.** *For any sets $A$ and $B$, if $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) = \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$ then either $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$.*

*Proof.* We will prove the contrapositive. Since we proved that $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) \subseteq \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$ in exercise 3.5.7, we must show that $\mathscr{P}(A \cup B) \nsubseteq \mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B)$ to prove our goal that $\mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B) \neq \mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$. Let $A$ and $B$ be arbitrary sets and suppose $A \nsubseteq B$ and $B \nsubseteq A$. This means there is an element $x \in A \setminus B$ and an element $y \in B \setminus A$. Since $x \in A$ and $y \in B$ then both $x$ and $y$ are in $A \cup B$ and therefore the set $\{x, y\}$ is in $\mathscr{P}(A \cup B)$ but not in $\mathscr{P}(A)$ or $\mathscr{P}(B)$. Thus $\mathscr{P}(A \cup B) \nsubseteq \mathscr{P}(A) \cup \mathscr{P}(B)$. □

## 3.5.9

**Theorem.** *Suppose $x$ and $y$ are real numbers and $x \neq 0$. Then $y+1/x = 1+y/x$ iff either $x = 1$ or $y = 1$.*

*Proof.* ($\rightarrow$) Suppose that $y + 1/x = 1 + y/x$. Now if $y = 1$ then we have proven our goal. So now assume $y \neq 1$ and $y + 1/x = 1 + y/x$, then it follows that $x = 1$.

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $x = 1$ or $y = 1$. In the case that $x = 1$ we have

$$y + \frac{1}{x} = y + \frac{1}{1} = y + 1 = 1 + \frac{y}{1} = 1 + \frac{y}{x}$$

In the case that $y = 1$ we have

$$y + \frac{1}{x} = 1 + \frac{1}{x} = 1 + \frac{y}{x}$$

□

## 3.5.10

**Theorem.** *For every real number $x$, if $|x - 3| > 3$ then $x^2 > 6x$.*

*Proof.* Suppose that $x$ is an arbitrary real number and that $|x - 3| > 3$. Then either $x - 3 \geq 0$ or $x - 3 < 0$. In the case that $x - 3 \geq 0$, then $|x - 3| = x - 3$ and therefore $|x - 3| > 3 = x - 3 > 3$. Solving for $x$, we have $x > 6$ and then multiplying both sides by $x$ we have $x^2 > 6x$. In the case that $x - 3 < 0$, then $|x-3| = 3-x$ and therefore $3-x > 3$. Solving for $x$ we have $x < 0$. Multiplying both sides of $x < 0$ by $6 - x$ we have $6x - x^2 < 0$ and therefore $x^2 > 6x$. □

## 3.5.11

**Theorem.** *For every real number $x$, $|2x - 6| > x$ iff $|x - 4| > 2$.*

*Proof.* ($\rightarrow$) Let $x$ be an arbitrary real number and suppose $|2x - 6| > x$. Our goal $|x-4| > 2$ means that either $x-4 > 2$ or $4-x > 2$. Since $|2x-6| > 2$ then either $2x - 6 > x$ or $6 - 2x > x$. If $2x - 6 > x$ then it follows that $x - 4 > 2$. Now if $6 - 2x > x$ then if follows that $4 - x > 2$.

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $|x-4|>2$. Our goal $|2x-6|>x$ means that either $2x-6>x$ or $6-2x>x$. Since $|x-4|>2$ then either $x-4>2$ or $4-x>2$. If $x-4>2$ then it follows that $2x-6>x$. In the case that $4-x>2$ then it follows that $6-2x>x$. $\square$

## 3.5.12

**Theorem.** *For all real numbers $a$ and $b$, $|a| \leq b$ if and only if $-b \leq a \leq b$.*

*Proof.* ($\rightarrow$) Suppose $a$ and $b$ are arbitrary real numbers and that $|a| \leq b$. There are two cases to consider: $a \geq 0$ and $a < 0$. If $a \geq 0$ then $|a| = a \leq b$. It follows that $-b \leq -a$ and since $a \geq 0$ then $-a \leq a$. Therefore, $-b \leq -a \leq a \leq b$ and $-b \leq a \leq b$. Now in the case that $a < 0$ then $|a| = -a \leq b$. It follows that $-b \leq a$ and since $a < 0$ then $-a > a$ or $a < -a$. Therefore $-b \leq a < -a \leq b$ and $-b \leq a \leq b$.

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $-b \leq a \leq b$ and therefore $a \leq b$. Now we must prove that $-a \leq b$ to complete the proof. If we subtract $a$ from both sides of $-b \leq a$ and add $b$ to both sides we have $-a \leq b$. $\square$

## 3.5.13

**Theorem.** *For every integer $x$, $x^2 + x$ is even.*

*Proof.* Let $x$ be an arbitrary integer. There are two cases to consider: $x$ is even or $x$ is odd. If $x$ is even then there exists an integer $k$ such that $x = 2k$. Plugging in $2k$ for $x$ in $x^2+x$ we have $x^2+x = (2k)^2+2k = 4k^2+2k = 2(2k^2+k)$. Since $2k^2+k$ is an integer then $x^2+x$ is even. In the case that $x$ is odd there is a $j$ such that $x = 2j+1$. Plugging in $2j+1$ for $x$ in $x^2+x$ we have $x^2+x = (2j+1)^2+(2j+1) = (4j^2+4j+1)+(2j+1) = 4j^2+6j+2 = 2(2j^2+3j+1)$. Since $2j^2+3j+1$ is an integer, $x^2+x$ is even. $\square$

## 3.5.14

**Theorem.** *For every integer $x$, the remainder when $x^4$ is divided by 8 is either 0 or 1.*

*Proof.* Suppose $x$ is an integer and there exists an integer $k$ such that $8k = x^4$. Since $x$ is an integer, $x$ is either even or odd. If $x$ is even then there exists an integer $m$ such that $x = 2m$. Then $8k = (2m)^4 = 16m^4$ and $k = 2m^4$ r 0. In the case that $x$ is odd, then there exists an integer $m$ such that $x = 2m+1$. Then $8k = (2m+1)^4 = 16x^4+32x^3+24x^2+8x+1$ and $k = 2x^4+4x^3+3x^2+x$ r 1. Therefore, when $x^4$ is divided by 8 the remainder is either 0 or 1. $\square$

### 3.4.15

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

**Theorem.** $\cup(\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}) = (\cup\mathcal{F}) \cup (\cup\mathcal{G})$

*Proof.* ($\rightarrow$) Suppose $x \in \cup(\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G})$, which means there is a set in $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}$ that contains $x$. Thus the set that contains $x$ is in $\mathcal{F}$ or $\mathcal{G}$. If the set that contains $x$ is in $\mathcal{F}$ then $x \in \cup\mathcal{F}$ and $x \in (\cup\mathcal{F}) \cup (\cup\mathcal{G})$. In the case that the set that contains $x$ is in $\mathcal{G}$, then $x \in \cup\mathcal{G}$ and $x \in (\cup\mathcal{F}) \cup (\cup\mathcal{G})$ $\square$

($\leftarrow$) Now suppose $x \in (\cup F) \cup (\cup G)$, which means there is a set in $\mathcal{F}$ that contains $x$ or a set in $\mathcal{G}$ that contains $x$. If there is a set in $\mathcal{F}$ that contains $x$, and this same set is in $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}$. Thus there is a set in $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}$ that contains $x$. In the case that there is a set in $\mathcal{G}$ that contains $x$, then this set is in $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}$. Thus there is a set in $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G}$ that contains $x$. Therefore $x \in \cup(\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{G})$.